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Momentum, Minors, and Midget Hockey

Challenges of Translating the Language of Ice Hockey:
A Case Study of Two Autobiographies

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ABSTRACT

Tässä pro gradu -tutkielmassa tutkin jääkiekkotermien kääntämistä englannin kielestä suomen kieleen kahden jääkiekkoilijan elämäkertoissa. Tutkimuksessani halusin selvittää, minkä tyyppiset termit ovat olleet haasteellisimpia kääntää, mitä käännösstrategioita näiden termien kääntämiseen on käytetty sekä tuoda esiin mahdollisia syitä kyseisten termien haasteellisuudelle. Koska jääkiekkotermien ja -kielen kääntämistä ei ole juurikaan tutkittu, halusin myös lisätä tietoutta alan erikoiskielen kääntämisestä ja samalla luoda pohjaa tulevalle tutkimukselle.

Keräsin tutkimuksen aineiston kirjojen luvuista, jotka keskittyivät itse lajiin sekä yksittäisiin peleihin. Tutkittavia termejä oli yhteensä 114. Teoreettinen viitekehys on koottu erikoiskielen ja terminologian alan tutkijoiden näkemyksistä painottuen erikoiskielten ja termien kääntämisen haasteisiin. Esittelen tutkimuksessa myös kaksi erilaista käännösstrategioiden luokittelua, joihin myös oma käännösstrategiakategorisointini pohjautuu. Käytin tutkimuksessa kaksivaiheista kategorisointia: aineiston termit lajiteltuna termityyppien mukaan, sekä termit lajiteltuna käännöksessä käytetyn käännösstrategian mukaan. Kategorisointien avulla kykenin selvittämään haastavimmat termit sekä niissä käytetyt käännösstrategiat.

Tutkimuksen johtopäätös oli, että pelinsisäisistä termeistä haastavimpia termityyppejä olivat laukomiseen, syöttämiseen ja maalintekoon liittyvät termit sekä tekemistä kuvaavat termit. Pelinulkoisista termeistä haastavimpia olivat jääkiekon sarjoihin ja sarjatasoihin liittyvät termit sekä pelisysteemeihin ja taktiikoihin liittyvät termit. Käytetyin käännösstrategia haastavien termien kääntämisessä oli selvästi eksplikointi, mutta myös ylä-, ala- ja rinnakkaiskäsitteiden käyttö oli yleistä. Analyysin perusteella voidaan päätellä, että varsinkin kulttuurierot aiheuttavat haasteita termien kääntämisessä. Myös tietyt yksittäiset haasteelliset termit sekä suomen ja englannin kielen erilaiset tavat muodostaa termejä ja ilmaista asioita voivat vaikuttaa kääntämisen haasteellisuuteen.

KEYWORDS: LSP, LSP translation, terminology, terms, translation strategy, ice hockey

1 INTRODUCTION

Research in LSP¹ translating has shown that in science and technology target texts are expected to sound natural and idiomatic [...] the assessment of how natural an LSP translation sounds often rests on an evaluation of quality and consistency of terminology – in particular ‘extended’ or compound terms, subtechnical vocabulary and specialized phraseology. (Musacchio 2007: 97)

In this Master’s Thesis I will study the translation of ice hockey related terms in two different autobiographies that include specialized language from this field of sports. More specifically, my focus is on English ice hockey terms in the autobiographies where an equivalent term does not emerge in their Finnish translation. By doing this, I want to find out which types of terms have been the most challenging ones to translate, and what translation strategies the translators have used for translating such terms.

Ice hockey, and sports in general, is bursting with terms, phrases, and metaphors with special meaning. The people involved in this world of sports, such as fans, coaches, sport reporters, and naturally the players and their families, are usually acquainted with the expressions and jargon used in the field. However, if translation is added to the equation, it is not enough if the translator is an expert in the field in just one language. Besides being familiar with the glossary of ice hockey in the source language, the translator has to be able to do that also in the target language.

The reason I chose to study the terms of ice hockey is threefold, my personal history in and enthusiasm for the sport in general being the first. I have played and been around ice hockey for as long as I can remember: I got my first skates when I was three and started playing competitively in a team when I was six or seven years old. I quit my competitive career at the age of 16, after which I’ve been playing in different *beer leagues* (these are amateur and recreational leagues that are usually very restricted regionally) and also worked as a coach for a junior team.

¹ LSP = Language for Special Purposes, alternatively Language for Specific Purposes

Secondly, I follow ice hockey, and especially the NHL, by spectating games actively and reading articles daily. Due to this, I have read numerous ice hockey related articles translated from English to Finnish and found them often not so user-friendly due to the vocabulary used. I have suspected that the reason might well lie in either the translator's or writer's lack of knowledge of ice hockey related vocabulary in English and/or Finnish, the lack of comprehensive ice hockey dictionaries from English to Finnish, or in challenges in translating such specialized terms into Finnish. Thirdly, after searching for information on the subject, I discovered that the translation of terms used in sports, and especially in ice hockey, has not been studied extensively.

To clarify the purpose of this thesis, it is important to define what is meant by *challenging terms* in this study. By challenging terms, I am referring to terms in the source text (ST) that do not have a corresponding equivalent term in the Finnish target text (TT). For clarification, it can be stated that a term in the ST is defined as challenging, if: (1) an equivalent term does not exist in Finnish language, (2) the translator has decided not to use the equivalent term in the TT for some reason, or (3) the translator has not been aware of the term's existence and therefore has not used the equivalent term in the TT. To explain this from another perspective, I have *excluded* terms from the material that have been translated by using an equivalent Finnish term. Because my point is to focus on the possible problems in the translation of ice hockey terminology from English to Finnish and how the translators have approached these problems, it would be fruitless to deal with successful translations using existing, equivalent terms.

My purpose is not to criticize the published translations, but to find out if the challenges emerge more often with certain types of terms within the ice hockey terminology. By assessing the ways the terms have been translated and the translation strategies behind them, I also want to focus on bringing forth the possible reasons for these challenges that emerge from the material most visibly. Thus, my research questions are as follows: (1) Which types of terms are the most challenging to translate? (2) What translation strategies are used to translate these terms? Also, in the light of these main questions and my own findings related to the material, I try to find possible answers to the question: (3) why have these particular terms been so challenging to translate?

The material for this study is compiled from two different autobiographies of former NHL (National Hockey League) players and legends, Theoren Fleury and Wayne Gretzky. The autobiographies and the material will be introduced more extensively in the following sections.

There have been various studies made within the field of LSP (Language for Special Purposes) translation from multiple points of view. Especially on a more general level there have been studies and papers written about translating different text types or genres of specialized texts, such as legal texts (see Sandlund 2004), medical texts (see Välimäki 2004) and technical texts (see Yli-Jokipii 2004). Regarding the translation of LSP terminology in LSP, the research has focused mainly on knowledge management and corpus-based studies. There are some studies that have focused on more limited areas in LSP. For example, in the University of Tampere, MA Theses have been made about forest industry terms and their translation (see Jokinen 2008), along with translation of terms related to ice, water and geology in science-fiction literature (see Pohjoismäki 2013). For some reason however, research in certain areas of LSP has been neglected. For example, the translation of sports language seems to have had no interest among the researchers, even though sports seem to be a big part of almost every culture and nationality.

In my Bachelor's Thesis (Leinonen 2017) I studied the translation of ice hockey language through quality assessment. My conclusions were that most of the challenges were mainly due to cultural differences, especially between North American and Finnish ice hockey cultures. This gave rise to the assumption that this may be the case also in the material of this thesis. Additionally, information retrieval for the thesis revealed the fact that there are no comprehensive English to Finnish ice hockey dictionaries available. Therefore, the lexical sources rest mainly on the translator's knowledge and experience from the field, along with his/her information retrieval skills.

In this Master's Thesis I am hoping to dig deeper into this matter and hopefully confirm my previous findings or reveal something new about the matter by studying more extensive material. Because of the lack of comprehensive ice hockey dictionaries from

English to Finnish and the lack of studies on the translation of ice hockey language as an LSP, there is an essential need for studies related to this kind of special-purpose translation.

This thesis is constructed by first offering some background information about the actual material (section 1.1) and the methods used in both, the material collection and the analysis phase. In the methods section (section 1.2) I will also present categorizations used for the material of this thesis. After the introduction of the methodology, I will proceed to discuss the theoretical framework (chapters 2 and 3) that has affected this thesis. First, in chapter 2, the concepts of LSP, terminology, and their translation are dealt with by introducing a general overview of LSP and terminology, followed by discussion about terms and their formation, as well as the challenges in LSP translation. Chapter 3 consists of theory about translation strategies and focuses on the two different classifications of translation strategies that has worked as a basis for the categorization of this thesis. After the twofold theory part, chapter 4 focuses on the analysis and discussion of the findings related to the material. The analysis is performed by presenting statistics of the findings, which are then supported by examples from the material along with detailed discussion about them. Finally, in chapter 5, I will summarize the most important conclusions that can be made based on the material and its analysis, and also discuss some limitations of this thesis as well as possibilities for further research on this topic.

1.1 Material

The material for this thesis was collected from two autobiographies and their Finnish translations. The first one is the autobiography of a former NHL player, Theoren Fleury. I used the original English version *Playing with Fire* (Fleury & McLellan 2006), co-written by Fleury himself with Kirstie McLellan, along with the Finnish version *Kovaa peliä*² (Fleury & MacLellan 2009), translated by Katja Kangasniemi. The other one is called *99 Stories of the Game* (Gretzky & MacLellan 2016), which is an autobiography

² *Tough Play* - my own back-translation for the Finnish title

co-written in 2016 by one of the greatest players of all time, Wayne Gretzky, together with Kirstie McLellan. This was translated by Pekka Tuomisto in 2017 and it is called *99: tarinoita jääkiekosta*³ (Gretzky & MacLellan 2017) in Finnish.

For clarification, I will be using abbreviations for these books in the following chapters. These are helpful especially in the analysis section, where I will be referring to these works often. The abbreviations are as follows:

- 1) Fleury EN = Original English version (Fleury & McLellan 2006)
- 2) Fleury FI = Translated Finnish version (Fleury & McLellan 2009)
- 3) Gretzky EN = Original English version (Gretzky & McLellan 2016)
- 4) Gretzky FI = Translated Finnish version (Gretzky & McLellan 2017)

Due to the restrictions of length and scope of a MA thesis, I have selected particular chapters from both source texts for the material collection. It must be mentioned that I did not count all the terms from each chapter to see which ones had the most terms in them but chose the chapters that concentrate on the theme of ice hockey and seemed to have the highest density of “hockey language” in them. The chapters and the material I collected from them gave me a good basis for the analysis.

The method for the material collection was as follows: first I read through both the English source texts and the Finnish target texts of the autobiographies to get a good overview of the books. Secondly, I compiled the material for the analysis. This was done by collecting all the sentences in the chosen chapters that contained ice hockey related terms. After this I collected the translated counterparts from the target texts.

Since my focus in this thesis was on the terms with challenges in their translation, the next phase was to rule out excerpts where the translator had used an equivalent term in Finnish, because these instances would not have been interesting from the point of view of the aim of this thesis. An example of such instance can be seen in example 1 below,

³ 99: *Stories about Ice Hockey* - my own back-translation for the Finnish title

where the term *penalty shot* has been translated with an established equivalent Finnish term, *rangaistuslaukaus*.

- (1) In 1968, there was **a penalty shot** against his team, so Roger put a defenseman in net. (Gretzky EN: 347)

Vuonna 1968 hänen joukkuettaan vastaan tuomittiin **rangaistuslaukaus**, ja hän laittoi puolustajan maaliin. (Gretzky FI: 347)

In 1968, there was **a penalty shot** called against his team, and he put a defenseman in net. (Own back-translation)

After going through the material, I noticed that the material contained a great deal of terms, such as team names, names of different leagues, and names of different cups and trophies and other awards. Even though these types of proper nouns do not usually have an existing equivalent term in the Finnish language, I decided to exclude these as well from the final material. The reason for this is that such terms were all translated by using *direct transfer*, that is the terms were transferred directly to the ST (Stanley Cup → Stanley Cup) or by adding an explicative Finnish word to the end of the term (Stanley Cup → Stanley Cup -pokaali [-trophy⁴]). Because of the vast quantity of such terms, these would have biased the findings of the study.

In addition, it must be mentioned that I have not included in the material words that can be thought not to be a part of specialized language or are general sport terms, unless the term has had a special meaning in the context of the text or ice hockey in general. Such words are listed in Table 1. Note that the list contains only the basic forms (infinitives and nominatives) of the words, but inflections of the words have also been left out from the material. These words occurred in the text continuously and if included, it would have arguably doubled the size of my material. All the exclusions I have mentioned above allowed me to limit the final material and target the analysis to terms with potential challenges.

⁴ My own back-translation – all the following texts within square brackets are my own back-translations for the word(s) in question

Table 1. List of general sport terms

English:	Finnish: My own back-translation
Puck	Kiekko
Goal	Maali
Assist	Syöttö, syöttöpiste
Point	Piste, tehopiste
Shot	Laukaus
Shoot	Laukaista
Score	Tehdä maali
Goalie, goaltender	Maalivahti
Stick	Maila
Bench	Vaihtoahtio
Forward	Hyökkääjä
Defenceman, Defenseman	Puolustaja
Offence, Offense	Hyökkäys
Defence, Offense	Puolustus
Wing, winger	Laitahyökkääjä
Center, centerman	Keskushyökkääjä
Period	Erä

In the following subsections I will concisely introduce both works and their translations. I will also briefly deal with the chapters from which I have collected the material for this thesis.

1.1.1 Playing with Fire – Kovaa peliä

Theoren “Theo” Fleury is a former ice hockey star from Canada and is known for his notorious style on and off the ice. On ice he was known for his skills and temper, and even though he was one of the shortest players in the history of NHL, he was able to manage players double his size. His career and life were shadowed by horrifying events in his childhood, which later led to problems with alcohol and drugs.

As stated, the book, *Playing with Fire* (Fleury EN), is co-written by Fleury himself, with Kristen McLellan. The book is controversial, because with the release of the book in 2009

Fleury revealed that he had been sexually abused by his former coach when he was a teenager. The book discusses Fleury's personal life as much as his ice hockey career. A few of the chapters in the book are, however, exclusively about ice hockey and therefore filled with ice hockey language.

The chapters in *Playing with Fire* were overall longer than in *99 Stories of the Game*. For the material I chose two chapters from the book: chapter seven – “No Joke” and chapter nine – “The Cup”. Chapter seven deals with the year before Fleury's NHL career started, when he was drafted to the Calgary Flames (the team he represented most of his career). The year consisted of his last hockey season in the juniors, World Junior Hockey Championship tournament, and the draft event. Chapter nine sums up the season when Fleury and the Calgary Flames won the Stanley Cup in 1989, the championship of the NHL. The number of terms that I was able to collect from these two chapters was 58. The chapters were extremely well-suited for this thesis, since they dealt with Fleury's personal life very little, and were therefore filled with ice hockey language.

The Finnish version of the book is called *Kovaa peliä* (Fleury FI). It was translated by Katja Kangasniemi, and published by Minerva Publishing Ltd. The Finnish translation has received some critique in its reviews and on different Internet forums, and this also encouraged me to choose the book for my thesis' material.

1.1.2 99 Stories of the Game – 99: tarinoita jääkiekosta

Wayne “The Great One” Gretzky is thought to be the greatest ice hockey player ever by media, many players, and fans around the world. Even though he retired in 1999, he still holds over 60 NHL records, such as most goals, assists, and total points in the NHL history. There are more than this one (auto)biography of Gretzky that has been published throughout the years, but I decided to choose this one for the thesis because of the co-author, Kirstie McLellan, is the same as in *Playing with Fire*.

As already mentioned, the book (Gretzky EN) is written by Gretzky himself, together with McLellan. The book consists of Gretzky's memories of his legendary career, but it

could be categorized as something other than an autobiography, since the book also deals with professional hockey in general and the history of NHL, along with stories and memories of the heroes that has inspired Gretzky throughout his career.

The two chapters from Fleury's book provided me with 58 terms. To get a corresponding quantity of terms from Gretzky's book, I needed to select four chapters that provided me with 56 terms. The chapters I chose were as such: twenty-five – "The Summit Series", twenty-six – "Inside the Miracle", thirty – "The 1998 Winter Olympics", and thirty-four – "The Last Dynasty". Chapter twenty-five deals with a national rivalry in a tournament between the Canada and the Soviet Union. Chapters twenty-six and thirty sum up two different Winter Olympic tournaments. Chapter thirty-four tells a story about the dominant years of Edmonton Oilers, the first NHL team that Gretzky represented.

As mentioned, the Finnish version of the book, *99: tarinoita jääkiekosta* (Gretzky FI), is translated by Pekka Tuomisto. It was published by Otava in 2017. Since the book and its translation are both quite new, I was not able to find much discussion about them online. Nevertheless, the fact that both, the translator and the publisher, are different from Fleury's book gave me a good basis to compare my findings of these two autobiographies, if needed.

Compared to *Playing with Fire*, it was more difficult to choose the chapters for the material from this autobiography, since almost every chapter dealt with ice hockey on some level. Therefore, I tried to choose chapters that had the most narration of the games played, since they seemed to have the most terms included.

1.2 Method

Methodologically this is a mixed-method study that comprises both, quantitative and qualitative methods, when examining the translation of ice hockey related terms in two different autobiographies in English and their Finnish translations. Quantitative methods have been used in both categorization phases, where I have counted the different types of

translated terms, as well as the different translation strategies used with them. The categorizations will be introduced more thoroughly later in this section. The qualitative methods are used in the analysis phase, which is based on the discussion of examples collected from the texts. These examples are then followed by my own analysis and detailed explanations of the example excerpts in question.

Like the methodology, also the theoretical framework can be seen as mixed, in this case as representing a “mixed-field” -type. Since the scope of this study extends to multiple different study fields, such as translation studies, terminology, and LSP, I have had to combine various theories and theoretical viewpoints from different fields of study. It must be also stated that because of my own experience and background knowledge of the field, I have also used my own expertise as a basis for the analysis. Through this multifaceted framework, I will try to answer the two main research questions and possibly speculate possible answers for my third research question.

At this point it is also necessary to recognize two limitations. Firstly, this is a product-oriented study, and can be seen purely as a case study, since I am studying only two different books and their translations. Therefore, the conclusions are my own generalizations based on the analysis of this study and cannot be seen as universal truths or propositions. Secondly, because there are in fact two different autobiographies under examination, there will be some comparison of these two in the analysis section. However, the purpose of this study is not to compare these two, but merely to use the comparison as a way of justifying and rationalizing the examples in question.

After gathering the actual material, I constructed two different categorizations for the terms; one for different types of terms and another for different types of strategies used in the translation of the terms. The purpose of these categorizations was firstly to divide the material into smaller sections so that they were easier to analyze. Secondly, by compiling functionable categories that take each term in the material into account and dividing the material into these categories, I was already able to answer my research questions to some extent.

The categorization for different types of terms was not derived from any other study or publication but was created from the start to serve the purposes of this study. The material was firstly divided into two sections; terms referring to the occurrences *on-ice* or *off-ice*. This was done in the light of the first research question, since this dichotomy already revealed if the challenges in term translation were related to instances that exist usually within a single game of ice hockey, or to outside factors that act in the background of the sport. For example, different terms about scoring and certain locations in the rink fell under the on-ice categories, whereas terms about different game systems and leagues in North American ice hockey were counted as off-ice terms. After making the main division between the terms, each subcategory was constructed by reviewing the material over multiple times and seeking for unitive terms that were somehow in connection with each other. For clarification, it must be also stated that the term type categorization was done by looking at the original English term, not the translated counterpart, just as with the material collection. Even though this method was time consuming and it was extremely challenging to construct categories with as little overlapping as possible without having any source material to refer to, I think the composed categories were quite practical and workable for this thesis.

Next, I will briefly explain the term type categories and also present an example for each category. The examples are all derived from the actual material of this thesis. The categories are presented in the following Tables 2 and 3 with an example for each category. In the discussion of each strategy, I will be mentioning examples, which are all referring to the examples seen in these tables; on-ice term examples in Table 2 and off-ice term examples in Table 3.

As mentioned, the terms have been divided into two main categories, on-ice and off-ice terms. Both of these main categories have then been divided into five categories based on the unifying factors of the terms. The first of the on-ice categories are the *locational terms*. These are terms that refer to various locations on-ice, that is, in the rink. The example term, *the slot*, is commonly used term in ice hockey, and it means “the area directly in front of the goal crease and extends 15 feet out to the hash marks between the 2 face-off circles” (Shorey 2004: xxiii).

Table 2. On-ice term categories with examples

Type of term	Example
On-ice:	
Locational terms	Interestingly, the Islanders were doing then what a lot of teams do now: collapsing into the slot on defense. (Gretzky EN: 347)
Action terms	You can't pass if no one is open, so it was really hard for us to make the kind of plays we were used to making. (Gretzky EN: 248)
Passing, Shooting, and scoring terms	Then Larry Robinson came back and banked a centering pass off Jamie Macoun and the score was even. (Fleury EN: 80)
Colloquial terms	When the game got going again, we were served another pizza . This padded our lead. (Fleury EN: 73)
Other terms	They tied it up with two in a row and the series went to sudden-death overtime . (Fleury EN: 71)

In the second on-ice category, *action terms*, I have included terms that describe action, and therefore they are all either verbs or phrasal verbs. As an example of such term is the versatile phrasal verb *to make a play*, which is unquestionably a tricky term to translate, since it has a specialized meaning but at the same time comprises multiple possible actions that can be referred to as making a play. It is also used to a great extent in ice hockey jargon.

The third category is called *passing, shooting, and scoring terms*. This category consists of terms related to the acts of passing, shooting and scoring a goal. They can be for example different types of passes or shots, or ways of scoring a goal. In the example, there is a transparent term of a certain type of pass that refers to a pass aimed to the center lane of the rink.

The last category, where the terms had clear unifying factors is *colloquial terms*. It consists of terms that one could see or hear mostly in spoken or informal ice hockey language, such as in the comments of a sportscaster or in an interview of a player. If I was to define and limit the definition of a term very strictly, these would not all be counted as official terms, since there are some terms that may not be in regular use in ice hockey language or that are abbreviations of actual terms. I have nevertheless included them in the material, since there are no official lists or collections of ice hockey terminology from where to verify them. For example, the term *pizza* has occurred in some interviews that I have seen, but it may have a slightly different meaning depending on the user of the term. According to Vice Sports online article (Thomas 2017), where they have collected colloquial ice hockey terms and their definitions, *pizza* is “a brutal pass up the middle of the ice intercepted by the opposing team.”

The rest of the terms that did not belong to any of these categories, have been categorized under *other terms*. It would have been possible to form categories also for these terms, but the categories would have had too few instances in them, and therefore would not contributed to this thesis enough. The example term, *sudden-death overtime*, is well known in multiple different sports, and in ice hockey it means an extra period in a game that ends as soon as one of the teams score. It is not fit for any category mentioned above and is therefore counted under the *other terms* category.

The categorization for off-ice terms (see Table 3 below) has the same structure as on-ice categories; there are four categories where the terms have unifying traits, and a fifth category for terms that do not belong to any of the first four. *Ice hockey level and league terms* consist of terms about different levels in ice hockey along with different leagues in North American ice hockey. The example term, *junior*, refers to a level of ice hockey, which then consists of other levels and leagues within it.

The second category, *game system and tactics terms*, comprises terms about different game systems and tactics used in ice hockey. Some of these terms could have been placed into the on-ice categories, since in the context they may be instances that happen on the ice during a game. However, all of these terms can be used also in a context off the ice,

for example in coaching, and that is the reason for including them into this category. The example term, *grinding game*, is referring to a way of playing the game, where the whole team plays extremely physically.

Table 3. Off-ice term categories with examples

Type of term	Example
Off-ice:	
Ice hockey level and league terms	Others go to junior , where they play twice as many games and where it's a lot more like the NHL. (Gretzky EN: 239)
Game system and tactics terms	The grinding game that we'd played for so long and that we excelled at was ending. (Gretzky EN: 235)
Proper noun terms	Of course, I was totally oblivious to all this. All I knew was I belonged in The Show . (Fleury EN: 47)
Person-related terms	Lanny had guts, but he wasn't a goon , and he was getting old. (Fleury EN: 73)
Other terms	They had had bad luck with their draft the previous year. (Fleury EN: 45)

The next two categories are called *proper noun terms* and *person-related terms*. *Proper noun terms* are all proper nouns, as the name suggests, and consist mainly of nick names for teams or certain lines. In the example, there is the term, *The Show*, which is another way of referring to the NHL and is widely used in the ice hockey jargon. *Person-related terms* are all terms that refer to a certain person and at the same time describe something about their profession, personality trait or quality, or skill. For instance, the example term, *goon*, is a notoriously well-known term that refers to a player that is “big, strong, aggressive player who is a good fighter and checker but less skilled in other hockey areas” (Shorey 2014: xiv).

Just as with on-ice terms, the rest of the off-ice terms that did not belong to any of the four above mentioned categories, have been categorized under *other terms*. The example

term, *draft*, refers to an annual event, where all the NHL teams systematically select rights to available young hockey players over 18 years of age. Again, since this term is not fit for any of the four categories, it is counted under the other terms category.

The second categorization is related to translation strategies. It is derived from Andrew Chesterman's (1997) proposal of different translation strategies and Ritva Leppihalme's (2001) proposal of translation strategies for translating realia. The reason for using these as a basis for my own categorization is that Chesterman's classifications derive from various different theoreticians, in an attempt to compile functionable translation strategies under one framework. This vast list of strategies then gave me the freedom to choose those strategies that can be applied to the lexical (word and phrase) level, and that were present in the material of this thesis. Leppihalme's classification in turn was applicable, because my assumption for the thesis was that many challenges emerge from the cultural differences between Finnish and North American cultures, as well as ice hockey cultures within them, and strategies for realia are well-suited strategies for translating items with challenges caused by cultural differences. Also, many of these strategies, like some of Chesterman's, were clearly recognizable in the material.

In the following, I will briefly discuss and explain the strategy categories used in this study. I will also introduce an example for each category, which is derived from the actual material of this thesis. More detailed discussion on the translation strategies that worked as a basis for these categorizations will follow in chapter 3, and therefore I will not go into too much detail here.

There are nine categories in my classification of translation strategies, of which seven are derived from Chesterman's and Leppihalme's classifications. In addition to these seven categories, one category is for other used strategies and one is for mistranslations or translation errors. In the *other strategies* category I collected all the instances that did not clearly represent any of the first seven categories, since it would not have been beneficial to create multiple additional categories with only one or two terms in them. It must be also mentioned that the last category, *error*, is not an actual strategy. The categories are presented in the following Table 4 with an example for each category. In the discussion

of each strategy, I will be mentioning examples which are all referring to the examples seen in this table.

The first category is called *adaptation*. In this strategy the translator decides to use target culture -centered, functional equivalent as a translation, instead of an exact equivalent. This happens for example if a situation in the source culture does not exist in the target culture, and therefore the translator wants to bring the text closer to the reader from the target culture. In the example, the translator has decided to translate the term *minors* into *alempi liiga* [lower-level league], probably because the league systems in North American ice hockey are quite complex and multifaceted compared to the league system in Finland.

Table 4. Translation strategy categories with examples

Translation strategy	Example (EN)	Example (FI)	Own back-translation
Adaptation	Tim Harris, taken seventieth, never made it out of the minors . (Fleury EN: 48)	Tim Harris, joka valittiin sijalla 70, ei koskaan noussut alemmasta liigasta . (Fleury FI: 66)	Tim Harris, who was chosen at seventieth place, never made it out of the lower league .
Explicitation	Clarke chased him down the ice and caught him with a hard two-hander across the ankle. (Gretzky EN: 232)	Clarke jahtasi häntä pitkin kenttää ja osui häntä kovalla kahden käden huitaisulla nilkkaan. (Gretzky FI: 237)	Clarke chased him around the rink and hit him with a two-handed swing in the ankle.
Semantic relation (includes hyponyms and hypernyms)	The first medal-round game had been scheduled months before for Friday, February 22, at five p.m. (Gretzky EN: 242)	Pudotuspelien ensimmäinen ottelu oli määrätty jo kuukausia aiemmin perjantaiksi 22. helmikuuta kello 17.00. (Gretzky FI: 246)	The first playoff game had been scheduled months before for Friday, February 22, at five p.m.
Loan and calque	They had one five-man line known as the Green Unit . (Gretzky EN: 246)	Heillä oli yksi viiden miehen joukko, joka tunnettiin nimellä Green Unit, "Vihreä"	They had one five-man group that was known by the name Green Unit, "Green unit" .

		yksikkö ". (Gretzky FI: 250)	
Omission	My job was to get it to my forehand and over to Al, not an easy task, especially since I'd gone from occasionally playing on the point to playing it on the number one power-play unit in the NHL. (Fleury EN: 71)	Tehtävänäni oli saada se edelleen Alille, mikä ei ollut helppoa, kun olin siirtynyt NHL:n ykkösylivoimaketjuun pelattuani vain silloin tällöin hyökkäyspäässä lähellä siniviivaa. (Fleury FI: 90)	My job was to get it over to Al, which was not easy, since I had moved to the number one power-play unit after playing only occasionally near the blueline in the offensive zone.
Synonymy	In this day and age it's different because shootouts are part of our game. (Gretzky EN: 284)	Nykyään on erilaista, koska voittomaalikisat ovat osa peliämme. (Gretzky FI: 284)	Nowadays it is different, because game-winning goal contests are part of our game.
Transposition	Glen always preached, "Hit the net with a quick release ", and sure enough, it worked in that situation. (Gretzky EN: 349)	Glen saarnasi aina: " Laukkaa nopeasti ", ja se todella toimi siinä tilanteessa. (Gretzky FI: 349)	Glen always preached: " Shoot quickly ", and it really worked in that situation.
Other strategies	I was soaring, and put up 11 goals in eight playoff games . (Fleury EN: 50)	Minulla meni playoffseissa lujaa: tein 11 maalia kahdeksassa ottelussa . (Fleury FI: 68)	I was soaring in playoffs : I scored 11 goals in eight games .
Error	The Canadiens pulled ahead with a nifty back bass from Brian Skrudland that set up a slapshot from Chelios. (Fleury EN: 81)	Canadiens meni johtoon, kun Brian Skrudland vapautti näppärällä rystysyötöllä Chelioksen hienoon lämariin. (Fleury FI: 101)	The Canadiens pulled ahead with a nifty backhand pass from Brian Skrudland that set up a slapshot from Chelios.

Explicitation is a strategy where the term has been made more explicit for the target text reader. This can be done either by changing the lexical element of the source text into something else that makes the meaning clearer in the target-text, or by adding a word or a short explanation after the translated term. The latter of these is in question in the example, where the term *two-hander* has been made clearer by adding a word into the

translation that does not become apparent from the term itself. *Kahden käden huitaisu* [two-handed slash] clarifies the term considerably for the reader.

Semantic relation category includes actually two different strategies, the use of hyponyms and the use of hypernyms. Hyponyms are words that are related to the original word, but are more specific semantically, whereas hypernyms have broader semantic field than the original word. Even though the strategies can be seen as opposite strategies, the basic function is same in both; with the use of a hyponym or a hypernym it is possible to create a partial equivalent that is still semantically related to the original word. In the example translation we can see the use of a hypernym, also known as *hyperonym* or *umbrella term*, since the term *medal-round game* has been translated into *pudotuspeli* [playoff game]. Playoffs always consist of and end up in medal-round games, but they are not semantically on the same level.

The fourth category is called *loan and calque*. This category includes three different types of instances. The first one is loan, where the translated counterpart is not translated, but the original term is borrowed and transferred into the TT as it is. The borrowing can include either the loan of an individual word or a whole phrase that acts as a term in the ST. The second is calque, where the whole linguistic structure is borrowed into the TT, but it is translated literally. An example of both loan and calque is presented in the table, where the term, *the Green Unit*, is translated as *Green Unit*, *‘Vihreä yksikkö’*, of which the first two words represent loan, and the last two calque. These types of double presentations are included in this category. Since calque can be seen as a form of literal translation, it is worth mentioning that I have included into this category also other literal translations that cannot be seen as calques.

Omission is quite a self-explanatory strategy. In this thesis, from the point of view of terminology, omission means that the term has been completely omitted from the translation. It was one of the easiest strategies to identify from the material. This procedure is clearly present in the example, where the term *forehand* has been completely omitted for some reason; in this case, possibly to avoid too long and complex sentence structure.

Synonymy is a strategy where the translator has decided not to use the most obvious or the most established equivalent for the term, but its synonym (a word that has the same sense as the original) or at least near synonym. As an example of this, is the English term *shootouts*, which has been translated as *voittomaalikisat* [game-winning goal contest]. The official term in Finnish for this procedure would be *voittomaalikilpailu* [game-winning goal competition] (Finhockey 2019), but I have noticed various different alternatives, that is synonyms, to be used for this term in Finnish.

The last actual singular strategy is called *transposition*. Transposition means any type of change in word class without changing the meaning of the message. The change can be, for example, from an ST noun to a verb in the TT or an ST adjective to an adverb in the TT. In the example, the term *quick release* has been translated into *laukkaa nopeasti* [shoot quickly]. The word class has changed from an adjective and a noun to a verb and an adverb.

The *other strategies* category is the most multifaceted one, since it may include various different strategies presented by different scholars in the field of translation studies. The basic idea behind this category was that by using this category, I was able to piece together all the remaining terms that did not belong clearly to any other category, and their quantities gave no reason to create any new categories. In the example, the term *playoff games* has been divided into two, where the translation of “playoff” is placed in the first Finnish sentence as a loan translation. The latter word “games” is translated literally into Finnish and is placed in its original position in the sentence. This strategy could be seen for instance as a combination of two different strategies, or as a single strategy, such as paraphrasing. Paraphrasing, or *équivalence* (see Vinay & Darbelnet 1995), is a strategy that describes the same situation by different stylistic or structural means (Munday 2012: 89).

The last category is called *error*, and as already stated, it is not an actual translation strategy. Errors refer to translation errors or mistranslations, where the meaning of the term has changed completely or the difference in meaning between the ST and the TT

term is at least significant. In the example, the term *back pass* has been translated as *rystisyöttö* [backhand pass], which is a completely different term having a completely different meaning. The term back pass means simply a pass that is directed backwards, whereas backhand pass is a pass executed with the backside of the blade of one's stick. This error must have been made due to the similarities between these two terms, and that has confused the translator.

Concerning the methods used in this thesis, I think it is also important to mention that the above-mentioned categorizations, term type categories and translation strategy categories, are cross-analyzed to some extent in the analysis section. By this I mean that in the analysis, observations are made based on the translation strategies used with the most challenging term types in the material. This approach will allow me to explore possible reasons for the challenges in the translation of the terms in this material, and therefore help me answer my third research question.

The following two chapters are theory-oriented. In chapter 2, I will discuss LSP, terms, and the challenges in their translation. After this, in chapter 3, I will introduce a general overview on translation strategies, as well as few notable strategies that have affected this thesis.

2 LSP, TERMINOLOGY, AND LSP TRANSLATION

When analyzing and evaluating LSP texts that include specialized terms, it is important to understand what is meant by LSP and terminology, and especially what may be the challenges in the translation of such language. This chapter introduces a general overview of special-purpose translation and its relationship to general language. Since terms and terminology play an important role in LSP, I will also discuss terminology, terms and present different approaches to term formation. Additionally, since this thesis deals with challenging terms and their translation, in the end of this section I will discuss possible challenges and problematic issues in the translation of LSP.

2.1 General Overview of LSP

LSP can be understood and defined in multiple ways. For some people LSP can simply mean only the specialized terms used in a particular text. It can also refer to all the specialized terms and language used in a text or other communicative situation, such as a discussion between two doctors in a hospital. Additionally, LSP can be understood on a more general level; it refers to all the language that differs from general language. The Finnish Terminology Center TSK (2018) offers a general definition for LSP; “Erikoiskieli = kielimuoto, jota käytetään viestinnässä tietyllä erikoisalalla” [LSP = a form of language that is used in communications on a specific field].

In research literature the definition of LSP is also often quite open to interpretation. For example, Päivi Laine (2007: 55) and Klaus Schubert (2011: 24–25) argue that in the study and definition of LSP one of the most essential ideas is the distinction between special language and general language, whereas, depending on the focus and extent of the study, some researchers want to make more precise definitions with and within the LSP. For example, according to Maurizio Gotti (2011: 15), it is important to distinguish ‘special languages’ and ‘specialized discourse’ separately in LSP, since the latter term “reflects more clearly the specialist use of language in contexts which are typical of a specialized

community stretching across the academic, the professional, the technical and the occupational areas of knowledge and practice.”

The complexity of the precise definition of LSP derives from the fact that it is quite impossible to make a strict division between a language for special purposes and a general-purpose language. They are both part of a language as a whole and often share features and content with each other. (Cabr  1999: 65–66; Laine 2007: 57) This is visualized in Figure 1, where Cabr  (1999: 66) presents how special languages (SL) overlap with general language and other special languages within one language system.

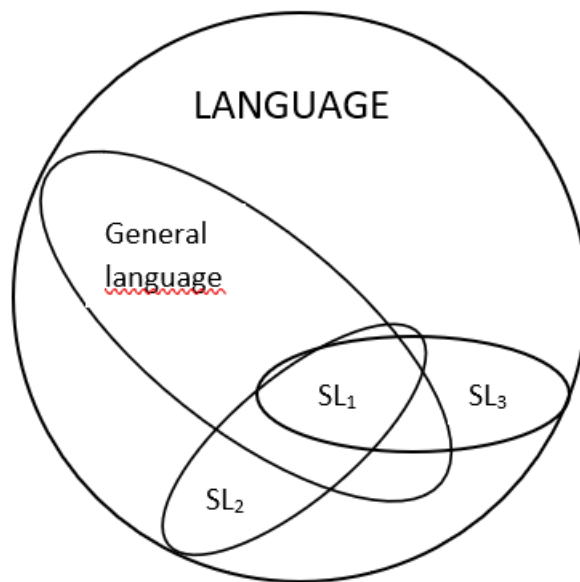


Figure 1. Variations of language within one language system (Cabre 1999: 66)

Since this thesis deals with the translation of texts that are not entirely based on LSP but are rather meant for the general public, yet include specialized terms that might be challenging for some people, I define LSP in a simple and comprehensible way; LSP

commonly relates to texts targeted to clearly restricted communities that share same interests or professions.

Additionally, LSP consists of multiple recognizable features, which then distinguish it from the general-purpose language. One and possibly the most obvious one, with which almost every scholar and expert seem to agree, is the vocabulary. Generally speaking every special language contains its own vocabulary, which consists of restricted and specialized concepts. However, the degree of specialization between different special languages varies. For example, the vocabulary used in the medical field is rather specialized compared to vocabulary used in the geographical field. (Laine 2007: 55, 61)

Maurizio Gotti (2011: 9–26, 49–51, 79–84) identifies the features that distinguish LSP from the general language into three types; lexical features, syntactic features and textual features. Lexical features relate to the terms and words used in the text, as well as their formation process. An example of a lexical feature is monoreferentiality, which means that only one meaning of a word is allowed in a certain context, which then makes it easier to understand semantically. (ibid. 9–26)

Syntactic features relate to the patterns and rules of the word order and sentence structure. For instance, omission of phrasal elements could be seen as an example of syntactic features. In general, LSP texts have highly compact syntactic structure and one of the simplest ways to construct this type of structure is to omit a constituent within the sentence. LSP texts are usually targeted to a community of a specific field, and therefore this usually does not hinder the comprehension of the text crucially. (Gotti 2011: 49–51)

Textual features refer to the attributes that make the text exist in a particular way. These attributes comprise the text itself, how the words are placed within the text, and the text's relation to the reader. For instance, the use of conjunctions can be seen as an example of a textual feature; after expressions such as *since* and *because*, the reader can be expecting some sort of reasoning or an explanation for the preceding clause. This way the use of conjunctions clarifies the following sentences by adding cohesion to the text. (Gotti 2011: 79–84)

In this thesis the emphasis regarding LSP is mainly on the lexical features, since I am studying the translation of terms, not the text as a whole. Obviously, syntactic and even textual features cannot be completely disregarded, but they definitely play a smaller role in this thesis.

2.2 General Overview of Terminology

The fundamentals for terminological study were established by Eugen Wüster in the 1930s, and from the beginning the approach in terminology (the study of terms) has been onomasiological. This methodology is also one of the main factors that distinguishes terminology from lexicology (the study of general words), where the approach is mainly semasiological. This means that the study in terminology proceeds from the concept to its linguistic form, in this case the term, whereas in lexicology one proceeds from the word to its meaning(s). (de Bessé 1997: 64; Laine 2007: 58–59)

Ironically, we can define the word *terminology* in many ways, and there are also many ways to approach the theory and practice of terminology. For example STK (2019) offers multiple definitions for the English word “terminology”: it can mean either the whole branch of science that studies concepts and terms of LSP, the study of how concepts and terms are formed, used, and developed in different fields of LSP, or it can also be used when simply referring to a certain set of terms used in a specific field. Generally speaking, terminology is seen as an interdisciplinary field, where the subject is some type of LSP text and the focus is on concepts and their naming (Bowker 2014: 304; Laine 2007: 58). This concise definition is also how I see terminology in this thesis.

As was mentioned previously, besides different definitions, there are also various ways to approach the theory and practice of terminology. For example, Cabré (1999: 11–12) sees terminology having two different dimensions based on the user group of terminology: the users (direct users and intermediaries) of terminology, and the ones that study terminology. Direct users are the specialists that create the original message and

intermediaries are language professionals that for example edit or translate the message. Those who study terminology are for example terminologists and language planners that process, compile, and create terms. For the users, terminology is an effective tool to facilitate communication, whereas for the studiers of the field it is the target of their work. Concerning this thesis, we could state that the writers (Fleury, Gretzky and McLellan) are the direct users, whereas the translators (Kangasniemi or Tuomisto) would be the intermediaries. Since I am studying and assessing the terms used in this thesis, I would be the studier.

In the end, no matter which way one tries to look and understand terminology, it can be stated that *terms* are the main interest in the whole concept. Since they are also the focus of this thesis, in the following I discuss what terms are and how they can be formed.

2.2.1 Terms

Like it was mentioned in the beginning of this section when talking about what distinguishes LSP from general language, terms can be seen to have quite an important role. In the *Handbook of Terminology Management* Sue Wright (1997: 13; original emphasis) defines terms as “words that are assigned to concepts used in the *special languages* that occur in subject-field or domain-related texts.” In general, terminology scholars seem to have agreed with this definition and the same basic idea can be seen in various different researchers’ definitions of terms throughout different decades (see Haarala 1981; Laurén 1993; Vehmas-Lehto 2010).

If one is able to communicate extralinguistic information, that is whole concepts, by just using short terms, that really makes terms the key factors in special language texts and communication (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 362). For instance, if we look at the term *face-off* and its definition in ice hockey, we can see that a great deal of extralinguistic information is included in just one compound word:

Face-Off = is the dropping of the puck between 2 centres/forwards by the Referee at the start of the game, the start of each period and after any goal is scored, and by the Linesmen after all other stoppages of play. This is done at different face-off locations on the ice closest to where the play stopped. (Shorey 1995: xiii)

Even though the definition of a term might be easy to grasp, there is a more complex issue concerning terms. If one was given the task of collecting all the terms in an LSP text, they might end up reflecting on these questions: What constitutes a term, and therefore, what can be counted as a term? Wright (1997: 14) states that novices in terminology management often mistake terms as being only single-word units or at most multi-word units, when documenting terms for terminology collections. In reality, terminologists collect various different kinds of terminological units, depending on the task. The units can consist for example of single-words, compound words, phrases, abbreviations or even free-formed combinations of multiple single-word terms. Some terms are verbs, some are nouns, some are even adjectives and adverbs. This variation within terms can then turn out to be a problem and actually is an ongoing concern in the identification and selection process, for example, in the creation of term lists and terminological resources. (Wright 1997: 13–18)

Whatever the length of the word or the part of speech the word would represent, there are some requirements that need to be met in order to differentiate a term from a general word. One of the most important requirements for a term is that it needs to refer to a certain concept in a certain field of LSP, and therefore should only have one strict definition on that field, no matter the context (Haarala 1981: 15; Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 363). For example, De Besse (1997: 65) sees this link between the term and its definition to be one of the basic principles of terminology, and Temmerman (2000: 16) even lists this trait as one of five “Principles of traditional Terminology” by stating that “a concept is referred to by one term and one term only designates one concept.”

This trait becomes helpful if one is not sure if the word in question is a term or just a word of general language. Often terms can appear identical to general words by spelling, and Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 363) offers a simple, although not universal, solution for these

situations: words or compound words can easily be distinguished as terms when the word's general meaning is not appropriate for the sentence, or the sentence becomes troublesome to interpret. This is due to the fact that in general language the meaning of a word usually becomes clear from the context, whereas term's meaning is based on its definition (Haarala 1981: 15).

Haarala (1981: 15) argues that for a word to be a term, along with explicit definition it needs to be accepted and known on its own special field, as well as used regularly. This means that terms would need to be acknowledged as terms, before they could be counted as such. This type of standardization of terms may be applicable for example in the field of mathematics and chemistry, where definiteness and determinacy are main objectives in terminology, but may not be useful or even advisable in all fields of LSP (Temmerman 2000: 26). Other requirements that come visible from the literature about terms are for example transparency, internationality, conciseness, neutrality or lack of emotion of the term (Gotti 2011: 26, 31; Laine 2007: 62).

It is worth considering if terms really should meet these requirements universally in every field of LSP. For example, if one is to think about the terms in a non-scientific specialized field, such as ice hockey or sports in general, the whole framework and the history of the field is very deviant from for example mathematics. Why should the requirements for a term then be the same? Additionally, Laine (2007: 62) and Temmerman (2000: 15) note that, concepts, their designations, and even every specialized field evolve and change over time. Therefore, why should the terms not evolve and modulate as well? Nevertheless, I think it would be safe to say that no matter the field, all terms do share one unifying trait: they all refer to a specific concept on a specific field of LSP.

2.2.2 Term formation

According to Sager (1997: 25) term formation may consist of some of the same processes as general word formation but has “greater awareness of pre-existing patterns and models and of its social responsibility for facilitating communication and the transmission of knowledge.” To put this simply, term formation is not and cannot be as arbitrary as

general word formation. There are, however, multiple different ways and approaches to form new terms. The way of forming the terms depends on the field in question, since, as already mentioned, different fields have different rules and even needs for new terms. Additionally, it must be stated that also the people involved and the situational need for the term may have an effect in the formation process of the term (Sager 1997: 26).

Generally, term formation can be divided into *primary* or *secondary* term formation. In short, *primary* term formation means that no name exists for a certain concept in the special field in question, and a term needs to be invented. Obviously, the invented term cannot be arbitrary, but needs to follow at least some rules for it to be appropriate as a term. In contrast, in the *secondary* term formation the precedent term for the concept already exists, but the term needs to be “updated”. This may be the case if, for example, the concept and the term are known in a certain linguistic community, and there is a need for a designation of this concept in another linguistic community. Both of these ways can be used in the formation of a term, and have different motivators and factors affecting them. For example, secondary term formation can be seen as a more restricted, because the new term is naturally influenced by the preceding term and their relation. (Sager 1997: 27–28)

To be able to understand how term formation works on a more practical level, it is important to become acquainted with some of the methods presented by recognizable scholars from the field of terminology. Therefore, I will present in short Sager’s (1997) and Cabré’s (1999) views on term formation methods. Since this thesis deals with translation as much as terminology, I will also present Ingo’s (1990) views on term formation from the point of view of translation and translators.

In addition to the dichotomy of primary and secondary term formation, Sager (1997: 28) presents three categories for methods through which term formation can be carried out. These are (1) the use of existing resources, (2) the modification of existing resources, and (3) the creation of new linguistic entities. The first category, *the use of existing resources*, consists methods such as extension of the meaning of an existing term, the metaphorical use of a general word, the use of a general word with a special reference in a particular

field, and interdisciplinary borrowing of a term to be used for a new concept. The second category, *the modification of existing resources* consists the methods of derivation (addition of affixes), compounding of words, creation of phrasal terms, conversion of a part of speech (noun → verb), and compression of an expression (the use of acronyms and clipping). Ingo (1990: 235–236) notes that compounding of words is especially favored in synthetic languages, such as Finnish, whereas the creation of phrasal elements is used particularly in analytic languages, such as English and Swedish. For the third category, *the creation of new linguistic entities*, any specified methods have not been listed, since there is vast amount of possible methods to be employed in such a process. However, Sager (1997: 38) does mention that new lexical entities are either completely new creations or borrowings from another language. (Sager 1997: 28–40)

Like Sager, Cabré (1999: 92–94) has also divided methods for term formation into three categories based on the strategies used in the creation, but from a slightly different perspective; these are (1) formal methods, (2) functional methods, and (3) semantic methods. Cabré's *formal methods* include derivation (addition of affixes), compounding of words, the use of phrasal units, and truncation (the use of acronyms and clipping). *Functional methods* category consists of only two methods; conversion without changing the form, and lexicalization. In both methods, the part of speech is converted into another (verb → noun), but in conversion the form of the word is left as it is, whereas in lexicalization the form is inflected (verb: score → noun: scoring). The final category of *semantic methods* consists of methods modifying the meaning of a term. The methods are; extending the meaning of the base word, narrowing the meaning of the base word, or changing the meaning of the base word. In addition to these methods, Cabré does recognize the creation of new terms, and similar to Sager, mentions the methods of borrowing and loan translations in this context. (Cabre 1999: 92–94)

While Cabré and Sager look at term formation from more of a general point of view, Ingo (1990) discusses term formation from translational perspective. If the translator has detected a term in the ST and is not aware of an equivalent term for it in the TL, or is not able to find one from his/her sources of information, a new term needs to be created. For such cases, Ingo (1990: 235–236) has listed 7 options for the formation of new terms for

translators: (1) the use of a general language word as a term, (2) the use of affixes, (3) compounding of words (compound words), (4) compounding of words (open compound phrases), (5) loan translations, (6) the use of abbreviations or acronyms, and (7) creating a completely new word. Since most of these are already discussed in the procedures presented earlier in this subsection, although with slightly different naming, I will only discuss *loan translations* and *creating completely new words*.

In Ingo's view, loan translations consist of three levels of borrowing, of which the first one is *lexical borrowing*. In lexical borrowing the words of the SL are borrowed and transferred into the TL without any modification. Other two levels of borrowing are borrowing an LSP word, or borrowing a general language word, and translating these into the TL. These types of procedures can be seen also with the loan and calque strategy in this thesis (see sections 1.2 and 3.1). If none of the above-mentioned procedures do not seem suitable, then a completely new term must be created. However, Ingo states that globally speaking, the invention of a completely new word to act as a term is quite infrequent. A notable trait in the evolution of new terms is the development towards more and more concise expressions; for example, a phrasal expression becomes a compound word, which then turns to an acronym. (Ingo 1990: 236)

2.3 The Challenges in Special Purpose and Term Translation

Special-purpose translation refers to the translation of specialized text types within special communities in which they occur. As representatives of such text types can be for example legal, technical, or medical texts. (Malmkjær 2007: 491) The texts that I am analyzing in this MA thesis do not entirely represent a specialized language text type, since the material is collected from autobiographies and the texts include much more than just specialized language. In fact, the autobiographies consist mainly of general language. However, certain chapters of these autobiographies are filled with specialized language and terms, and that connects them strongly to LSP. The use of LSP and specialized terms then makes them clearly targeted or even restricted for people interested in ice hockey or people linked to ice hockey and its communities.

Ahman and Rogers (2007: 486) state that generally LSP translation is thought to be substitution of words by a translator who may (or may not) have some level of expertise on the field the text represents. Then, if any insufficiencies occur in the translator's vocabulary on the field during the process, they are supplemented by specialized dictionaries and term lists. In theory this view sounds extremely practical and logical, but unfortunately this is rarely the case. LSP translation includes numerous factors that can emerge problematic during the translation process, and most of them are caused by the specialized language and terminology used. The main complications arise from the concepts of equivalence, meaning, and differences between the source and target culture, just as in literary translations of general language, with the difference that translation issues with specialized language are related to its special nature. These issues are caused by lexical resources, specialist knowledge, and translation strategies. (Ahmad & Rogers 2007: 487–489; Ingo 1990: 18–24)

In the translation of LSP texts, specialist knowledge can be thought to be the core element. Therefore, if one does not possess this knowledge themselves or is unable to reach an outside specialist of the field, this can turn out to be a problem in producing an end result of a good quality. For example, Dudley-Evans (1997: 62–64), in his paper about LSP teacher training, talks about how important it is to have deeper knowledge about the subject content. If one wants to be able to communicate and especially teach about a matter of specialized nature, one has to have a full understanding of the content and the whole situation behind it. Dudley-Evans (1997: 63; original emphasis), quoting Johns and Dudley-Evans (1980: 7), also argues that one “needs to be able to grasp the *conceptual structure* of a subject [...] if he is to understand fully how language is used to represent that structure”. I think this line of thought can be applied also to the translation of LSP texts. If the translator wants to produce a functional translation of a good quality that has a clear target audience, one needs to have good background knowledge of the content and the backgrounds of the text. In addition, it is extremely important to understand how both, the target and the source languages work in that particular framework.

When discussing specialist knowledge, one must not overlook the aspect of differences between the source and the target cultures. Even though many fields of LSP are international to some extent, there is nonetheless variations from culture to culture, as well as from country to country. From this it can be automatically deduced that the awareness of cultural differences is highly relevant. For example, it is not enough just to learn the appropriate lexis of the field one is working on. One also needs to learn a great deal about the source and the target cultures, and how those cultures are associated with the specialized language in question. (Dudley-Evans 1997: 64–65) This is vital especially in the field of translation, in which one is always working between two cultures and languages. Additionally, this view also supports my assumption that since there is a great deal of differences between North American and Finnish ice hockey cultures, most of the problems concerning the translation of ice hockey terms may be caused by these differences.

Now that the problems have been discussed concerning LSP, it is also important to discuss purely terminological problems in the light of translation. As stated before, one of the most notable features of LSP arises from the lexicon. For example, Musacchio (2007: 97) points out that “the assessment of how natural an LSP translation sounds often rests on an evaluation of quality and consistency of terminology”. By terminology, she refers especially to terms, subtechnical vocabulary and specialized phraseology. That is why it is essential to have good lexical resources when working with an LSP text. These resources can be everything from specialized dictionaries to one’s personal knowledge and experience about the subject. In the case of ice hockey, this can turn out to be a problem, since there are not many (if any) dictionaries for ice hockey language from English to Finnish available.

Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 361–372), in her paper about paper about terms from the point of view of a translator, has divided the problems in the translation of terms into two phases; problems regarding the identification and understanding of the terms in SL, and the problems regarding the use of an equivalent term in the TL. As mentioned in the section about terms (see 2.2.1), many terms are derived from general words, and their form may be identical with them. This can be obviously seen as a problem in the identification of a

term. For example in the context of ice hockey, the term “diving” seems like a general language word, but its specialized meaning (the act of tripping or falling down on purpose) differs greatly from its general meaning (to jump into or move under the water).

After the term has been identified, one starts to think about the meaning and the concept behind the term. Many terms are transparent so that we are able to tell something about the concept and meaning just by looking at the term, such as “give away” (in ice hockey: unintentionally giving away the puck to the opposing team). However, if the term is derived from another language or is unclear otherwise, the deduction of the meaning may be even impossible. There can be problems in the deduction process even if the term is transparent and in one’s mother language. The form of the term can be deceptive, which can mislead the translator to think something incorrect about the term. (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 363–364) An example of this from ice hockey language would be the term “icing the puck”, which could be interpreted as *freezing* or *stopping* the puck, but actually means simply *shooting* the puck from behind the red line all the way to the other end of the rink. As other problems in the translation of terms Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 364) mentions synonymy, that is instances where the same concept has multiple different designations, as well polysemy and homonymy, which both refer to instances, where the same word or term has multiple different meanings.

In her paper Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 361) states that the first priority for a translator is to find an appropriate equivalent (counterpart) for each SL term. In addition to identification and understanding of the terms, this may prove to be the problematic phase, since terms in different languages are often only partly equivalent, or the equivalent term is completely missing from the other language one is working on. Therefore, it is left for the translator to find the appropriate equivalent or to come up with a new one.

Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 365) has divided different types of equivalents into two main groups, of which the first one includes two subgroups:

- (1) natural equivalent (luontainen vastine)
 - (1.1) complete equivalent (täysi vastine)
 - (1.2) partial equivalent (osittainen vastine)
- (2) artificial equivalent (keinotekoinen vastine)

Based on this division *natural equivalents* are either *complete equivalents*, where the concepts are completely corresponding with each other, or they are *partial equivalents*. Partially equivalent terms correspond with each other on some level but may have slight differences in the meaning. Reasons for partial equivalence of the terms lie usually in the differences between the realities of two different cultures and language communities. *Artificial equivalents* are created so that the translator is able to refer to a certain concept in the source culture. They are used in instances where the TL is missing an equivalent term, or the equivalent is partial, but the translator decides not to use it for some reason. (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 365–366)

To be able to avoid these problem areas, Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 362–363) argues that the translator should be aware of the concepts behind the terms and also the relations between these concepts. She even states that relations between different concepts and the whole conceptual systems they construct are as important as understanding the concept itself. If one's personal knowledge is not enough, specialized dictionaries, glossaries, and personal term banks can be helpful, but Vehmas-Lehto highlights that all the necessary information may not be found even from these sources. As an additional source of information, she emphasizes the use of parallel texts and the use of experts in the field. (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 361–363, 366–371) Both of these sources could be seen as vital sources of information especially in the case of ice hockey terminology.

3 TRANSLATION STRATEGIES IN TERM TRANSLATION

Since one of the aims of this thesis is to point out and analyze the translation strategies used in term translation, it is important to discuss the theoretical background and the most influential strategies behind this study. In this chapter I will first define what translation strategy is as a concept, and how it is understood in this thesis. Secondly, I will discuss translation strategies in general. After this I will introduce a couple of different views and approaches for translation strategies and processes in more detail. I will be focusing my discussion on strategies that emerge most visibly from the collected material and have worked as a basis for the categorization of the material.

Strategy as a concept, meaning “A plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim” (OED 2018), is surely well-known to many of us. The word is used in various situations throughout our lives and we may have heard it in the contexts of economic or military world, as well as in sports and even board games. In translation studies, on a general level, strategy has the same meaning. However, Chesterman (1997: 87) argues that since the study in the field has produced several distinctions between different strategies, and even different kinds of methods, rules, and procedures within them, it has created notable confusion from a terminological point of view.

Chesterman (1997: 88–92) approaches the definition by listing some general features that are associated with translation strategies. According to him translation strategy is (1) intersubjective, (2) problem-centered, (3) goal-oriented, (4) potentially conscious, (5) a process, and (6) involves text manipulation. Especially one of these features, the problem-centered characteristic, seems to be an intrinsic part of translation strategies. For example, David Bergen (2006: 111) mentions that “Most researchers agree that strategies are used by translators when they encounter a problem – usually this means that a direct, literal translation is not sufficient for the task they are working on.” This orientation is connected also to this thesis closely. Since specialized terms are quite seldom translated literally because of their special nature, translators usually need to use different strategies in order to be able to produce an equivalent and/or functional translation.

For the purpose of clarity in this thesis, it is important to make a distinction between different levels of strategies. These are (1) global strategies, (2) local strategies, and (3) meta-strategies. The most universal of these are the *global strategies*, which guide the translation on a general level. These could be seen as some sort of guidelines that the translator follows when completing a translation task. (Bergen 2006: 111, 114; Chesterman 1997: 90)

To be able to produce a functional translation that follows the basic ideas of the considered global strategy/strategies, one needs *local strategies*. These emerge on a more specific level and are usually used with problems within the translation task. For example, if translators need to solve how to translate a problematic structure, idiom, or term, they may resort to different local strategies. (Bergen 2006: 117; Chesterman 1997: 90–91)

It is possible to go into even more specific level of strategies that Bergen (2006: 111) calls *meta-strategies*. These are strategies that are used, when trying to identify what strategies translators have used in their translation process. Since the purpose of this thesis is not to study this meta level of translation, I will be dealing only with local and global strategies.

3.1 Classification of Strategies by Chesterman

In his book, *Memes of Translation*, Chesterman (1997) discusses translation and various different phenomena around it, such as norms and ethics in translation as well as translation as a theory. In this book, Chesterman also introduces his own classification of translation strategies, with which one might be able to solve translation problems as well as analyze particular translations in more detail. The classifications are partly based on various proposals made by other theoreticians from the field of translation, such as Catford (see 1965), and Vinay and Darbelnet (see 1995), and is in fact an attempt to aggregate functional translation strategies into one overall framework. (Chesterman 1997: 92–93)

Chesterman's (1997: 93) classification of strategies is divided into three levels: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. Since Chesterman's classification includes 10 strategies per level, 30 strategies altogether, and the categorization used in this thesis is derived exclusively from the syntactic and semantic level strategies, it is not beneficial to go through all of the strategies. Therefore, I will list the different levels and strategies, and highlight the strategies used in my own categorization by **bolding** them in the list. After each level, I will introduce only these strategies more thoroughly with examples of each strategy.

Semantic strategies are local strategies that have to do with semantics on a lexical level. And since they are called semantic strategies they are closely intertwined with the concept of meaning. Chesterman mentions that several of the strategies derive from Vinay and Darbelnet's strategy called *modulation*. (Chesterman 1997: 101–102) The semantic level strategies are:

- 1) **Synonymy**
- 2) Antonymy
- 3) **Hyponomy**
- 4) Converses
- 5) Abstraction change
- 6) Distribution change
- 7) Emphasis change
- 8) Paraphrase
- 9) Trope change
- 10) Other semantic changes

From the semantic level strategies, my categorization of the material includes synonymy and hyponymy, to which I refer to as *semantic relation*. *Synonymy* strategy means that the translator does not select the apparent equivalent word but uses a synonym or a near synonym. For example, if one was to translate the Finnish word *maalivahti* into English, he/she could avoid using the word *goaltender* and instead use the word *goalie*. This strategy can be used for stylistic purposes or simply just to avoid repetition, if the same term has already been used multiple times. (Chesterman 1997: 102) Even though synonymy defies the basic principle of terminology, that there should be only one term

for each concept, I think the use of synonymy for stylistic purposes is sometimes even necessary.

Like synonymy, *hyponymy* strategy uses words with semantic relationships, and consists of *hyponyms* and *hypernyms*. A hyponym is a part of a larger category, while a hypernym is a term describing that larger category. (Chesterman 1997: 102–103) Since the relations between ice hockey terms and concepts are not as familiar for everyone, I will not use ice hockey terms as an example but explain hyponyms and hypernyms with an example of three simple general language words: bulldog, dog, and animal. *Bulldog* is a hyponym in relation to *dog*, whereas *dog* is a hypernym in relation to *bulldog*. Same way *dog* is a hyponym to *animal*, and *animal* is a hypernym for *dog*. If a translator is not able to think of an exact equivalent for a SL term, by using hyponyms and hypernyms, the translator may be able avoid this problem. In the end, the words are still semantically related, and therefore the result translation could be seen as partial equivalent for the original word. Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 365–366) stated that reasons for partial equivalence of the terms, in this case hyponymy, lie usually in the differences between the realities of two different cultures and language communities.

The second level of strategies consists of syntactic strategies. These strategies tend to affect the grammatical structure or the form of the TT, in relation to the ST (Chesterman 1997: 94–100). As on the semantic level, there are 10 strategies also on the syntactic level:

- 1) **Literal translation**
- 2) **Loan, calque**
- 3) **Transposition**
- 4) Unit shift
- 5) Phrase structure change
- 6) Clause structure change
- 7) Sentence structure change
- 8) Cohesion change
- 9) Level shift
- 10) Scheme change

From the syntactic strategies, literal translation, loan, calque, and transposition strategies are included in the categorization used in this thesis. *Literal translation* means

“maximally close to the SL form, but nevertheless grammatical” translation, and Chesterman (1997: 94) mentions this to be a “default” strategy for many theorists, and therefore it should be used always unless it generates a problem in the translation. On the other hand, in the translation of specialized terms this guideline could be seen even as harmful, if the word has not been identified as a term. In this case, the translator may use this “default” strategy without really understanding the actual concept and the relations behind it, and therefore accidentally lead the reader astray.

The strategy of *loan*, *calque* in brief includes either borrowing of individual words (loan) or whole linguistic structures (calque) from SL to TL (Chesterman 1997: 95). For example, it can mean either using the English ice hockey term *spin-o-rama*, which means performing a 360-degree spin with the puck, as it is in Finnish TT (individual word) or translating the English ice hockey term *hat trick* to *hattutemppu* in Finnish text (linguistic structure with literal translation into Finnish). The use of loan and calque is often present when there is a need to create a new term for the TL (Cabre 1999: 93–94). This could be seen to be the case especially with the translation of ice hockey language, since ice hockey as a subculture and its history in North America is much bigger and older than in Finland or rest of the world, and therefore also the language is richer and more developed. This automatically generates the need for the creation of new terms while translating.

Transposition strategy derives directly from Vinay’s and Darbelnet’s taxonomy, and it means any type of change in word class. For example, an ST noun becomes a verb in the TT or an ST adjective becomes an adverb in the TT. Chesterman (1997: 96) reminds that this strategy may also involve some structural changes. Additionally, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 94–99) note that the change between word classes should not change the sense of the message. I think it is also important to mention that transposition can be either obligatory or optional (Munday 2012: 87). For example, if the verb to be translated does not exist in the target language in the form of a verb, one is forced to change the word class or to use an alternative strategy.

Even though the categorization of this thesis does not include any other of Chesterman’s syntactic strategies, I think paraphrase and unit shift strategies are worth mentioning,

since they are present in the *other strategies* category. *Paraphrase* strategy is used for instances, where the situation of the TT is described by using different stylistic or structural means. This means that the translation is more liberal and concentrates on the overall message of the text and may ignore some semantical details of the term. In some contexts, paraphrasing can even cause too loose translations, and therefore the result can be seen as undertranslated. (Chesterman 1997: 105) Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 38–39) describe the same strategy as *équivalence*, and state that it can be especially useful in the translation of idioms and other such expressions. *Unit shift* is also derived from previous theories (see Catford 1965) and the change or the shift happens between different units or levels of the text that are morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and paragraphs (Chesterman 1997: 96). Thus, if a single word in the ST is translated as a phrase or a clause, a unit shift has taken place.

The third, and the final level of strategies presented by Chesterman (1997: 108) is the pragmatic strategies. As mentioned before, I have not used these in my own categorization, but they are worth mentioning, since some of them can be seen to function in the background of syntactic and semantic strategies. Again, there are 10 different strategies on this level:

- 1) Cultural filtering
- 2) Explicitness change
- 3) Information change
- 4) Interpersonal change
- 5) Illocutionary change
- 6) Coherence change
- 7) Partial translation
- 8) Visibility change
- 9) Transediting
- 10) Other pragmatic changes

Pragmatic strategies function on the highest level of all three levels, and therefore usually involve the use of syntactic and semantic changes in the translation as well. According to Chesterman (1997: 108–109) these strategies reflect on the global strategies of the translator (how the text is translated as a whole), whereas I can see some of the strategies already representing a global strategy. For example, *cultural filtering* strategy could be

seen as global strategy, since it has the same meaning as Nord's (see 1997) *target culture oriented* or Venuti's (see 1995) *domesticating* translation strategy; the SL words and terms are adapted to follow the TL culture and norms. These are generally presented as global strategies by translation theorists (Bergen 2006: 114–115). Additionally, *visibility change* can also be seen as a global strategy, or then just as a local strategy that is used for only certain translation problems within a text. This again depends on how one uses the strategy, and how one understands and wants to define a global strategy.

In his introduction to this classification, Chesterman (1997: 93) highlights that the above-mentioned strategies and groups may overlap to some extent, and deviant strategies do exist and occur. Then again this is the case with all classifications and strategies, since it would be quite impossible to form a universal classification of strategies, that would 1) work in practice, 2) be adaptable between different language-pairs, 3) make clear distinctions between categories without any overlapping, 4) use accessible and clear terminology, and 5) be flexible enough to be used with various different text types.

3.2 Classification of Strategies for Translating Realia by Leppihalme

A great deal of problems in translation are caused by culture-bound words and concepts, especially if the cultures and the languages in question have considerable differences between them. Such problems have been studied for example through the concept of *realia*. Realia is a term often referred to as, to quote Ritva Leppihalme (2001: 139), “extralinguistic culture-bound translation problems”. Basically, this means words and/or phrases that present problems for the translator and that stem from the differences between source and target cultures and their reality, not from the differences between source and target language systems and usage. (Leppihalme 2001: 139; Leppihalme 2011: 126)

The term *realia* comes from Latin, meaning “real things”. If we look at the concept on a more general level, Leppihalme (2011: 126) states that besides referring to concrete things and material items, *realia* can refer also to culture-bound abstract concepts and

phenomena. Leaning on this notion, along with Ingo's (1990: 18–24) and Ahmad and Rogers' (2007: 487–489) claim that main problems in special-purpose translation are partly caused by cultural differences, I saw fit to derive some of my own categories for the material from Leppihalme's classification for translation strategies for realia (see Leppihalme 2001).

Besides the fact that realia are partially present in my material, Leppihalme's classification was partly applicable to the material I have collected. It also had some confluence with Chesterman's (see 1997) and Vinay and Darbelnet's (see 1995) classifications, and this confirmed the idea of including Leppihalme's studies into the theoretical framework of this thesis. Therefore, I will next present and give examples of each of the seven translation strategies proposed for translating realia.

Leppihalme (2001: 140) makes same the distinction between global and local strategies that was discussed in the beginning of this chapter. When talking about realia, that is culture-bound items, the global strategies are often either domestication or foreignization, since foreign elements are usually either emphasized (foreignization) or brought closer to the target audience (domestication). Then again, the strategies for the translation of realia, presented by Leppihalme (2001: 141), are local strategies, and therefore should be dependent on the possible global strategies used. As with Chesterman's strategies, I will list the different strategies, and highlight the strategies used in my own categorization by **bolding** them in the list. After this, I will introduce only these strategies more thoroughly with examples of each strategy. The seven local strategies are:

- 1) Direct transfer
- 2) **Calque**
- 3) **Cultural adaptation**
- 4) Superordinate term
- 5) **Explicitation**
- 6) Addition
- 7) **Omission**

The definition of *Calque* is the same as already presented in Chesterman's classification (see the previous section). As an example of this, Leppihalme (2001: 14) mentions the

translation of the word *kalasauna* [fish sauna], which was translated as *fishing sauna* in the English translation of a novel by famous Finnish writer, Arto Paasilinna. An ice hockey example of calque would be if the term *sudden-death*, which is used together with the term *overtime* to define the type of the overtime period, is translated in Finnish as *äkkikuolema* [sudden death]. From Leppihalme's example, we can conclude that small changes in pronunciation and spelling must be allowed in this category.

Cultural adaptation is quite similar to Vinay and Darbelnet's (see 1995) category, called adaptation. It means that the translator transfers all connotations and associations of the word or a phrase but uses functional equivalents from the target culture and language. An example of this would be to translate *Madison Square Garden* (the home arena for the NHL team New York Rangers) into *Hartwall Areena* (the home arena for the KHL team Helsingin Jokerit) in Finnish. This strategy quite clearly leans towards domesticating global strategy, and is used especially in children's literature, as well as in subtitles, where one needs to read and digest the words and connotations more quickly. (Leppihalme 2001: 142)

Explicitation is quite a self-explanatory strategy, since it means making something explicit for the benefit of the reader of the text. In Leppihalme's (2001: 143) view, it means that source-culture references in the TT are made explicit by adding a clarification into the target text or by making the source-text meaning clearer by replacing a ST word by another word or phrase. By using an ice hockey example, explicitation is used, if the term *peewee team* is translated into Finnish for example as *alle 13-vuotiaiden joukkue* [team for under 13 years of age], since peewee is the level of junior hockey teams in Canada that consist of players under 13 years of age. The reason for using explicitation is to make the target text more reader-friendly by removing potential problems caused by cultural differences. Some readers may, however, find this strategy annoying, especially if they are familiar with the source culture. (Leppihalme 2001: 143)

The last category, *omission*, is also a self-explanatory strategy, where something is omitted from the translation. This is usually used when there is unnecessarily detailed passage in the text that might be interesting for a reader from the source culture but would

supposedly complicate the understanding of the text for a reader from the target culture. In the translation of realia, Leppihalme (2001: 145) mentions that often only some of the details are omitted. Sometimes omission is used for the sole purpose of avoiding problematic realia, thus saving the translator the trouble of finding an alternative word or a phrase.

Like Chesterman, Leppihalme (2001: 14) also highlights that the above-mentioned strategies may overlap to some extent and can be used as a combination. Therefore, it is possible to use calque and complement it with omission in the translation process. She also mentions that her categorization offers a comprehensive assortment of strategies, but there are naturally alternative strategies that can be applied into the translation of realia. (Leppihalme 2001: 144–145)

4 ANALYSIS

In this chapter I analyze the material that I have collected from the point of view offered by the theoretical framework. This is done by giving examples of the excerpts from the categories discussed previously, which are then followed by a discussion of each of the examples. Before presenting the examples, I will also present statistics, that is how the material was distributed between the categories. The examples seen in this analysis have been chosen on the basis of the richness of their content and their relation to the translation strategies used in the type category in question. In other words, I have chosen to use as an example those excerpts that illustrated their categories in the best possible way.

First, I will discuss the type categorizations. Both, on-ice and off-ice type categories will be reviewed and commented on a general level, after which the two of the most challenging categories of both, on-ice and off-ice terms, will be treated in more detail in their own subsections. Before moving into the more detailed discussion of the challenging categories, which is the core of this thesis, I will also present statistics and comment on a general level the translation strategies used in the material. This way I am able to provide an overview of the totality, that is how the translation strategies were used with the whole material and offer some important background information that support the following more detailed discussion of the findings.

4.1 Term Type Categories

As mentioned in the method section (see 1.2), the categorization for different types of terms was created expressly for this study and is not leaning on any previous work on the field. The terms were first divided under two sections; on-ice terms and off-ice terms. The categories were then established by looking at and searching for any unifying factors between the terms. The final categories are:

- (A) On-ice terms
 - (1) Locational terms
 - (2) Action terms
 - (3) Shooting, scoring, and passing terms
 - (4) Colloquial terms
 - (5) Other (on-ice) terms
- (B) Off-ice terms
 - (1) Ice hockey level and league terms
 - (2) Game system and tactics terms
 - (3) Proper noun terms
 - (4) Person-related terms
 - (5) Other (off-ice) terms

The division between the different types of on-ice terms in the entire material was relatively even and none of the categories were over-represented (see Diagram 1). Even though *shooting, scoring, and passing terms* (19)⁵ along with *action terms* (16) represented the largest categories in on-ice terms, no great deviation was found in the quantities between different categories. The smallest categories were *colloquial terms* (7) and *other terms* (10), whereas *locational terms* (14) served as a median category. The total number of challenging on-ice terms found in the material was 66.

Interestingly, also the distribution of different types of on-ice terms in Fleury EN was very similar to the ones in Gretzky EN. Since the authors (apart from the co-author) and the translators were different in both books, I would have expected more divergence in the comparison of the challenging terms between the autobiographies. This can naturally be coincidental, or then the problematic areas may really lie in the aforementioned types of terms. The only notable difference was that in Gretzky EN the most terms with challenges in their translation were found in the categories of *locational terms* (8) and *shooting, scoring, and passing terms* (9), whereas two largest categories of on-ice terms in Fleury EN were clearly *action terms* (9), along with *shooting, scoring, and passing terms* (10).

⁵ All the numbers in square brackets after a category signifies the overall number of terms in the aforementioned category

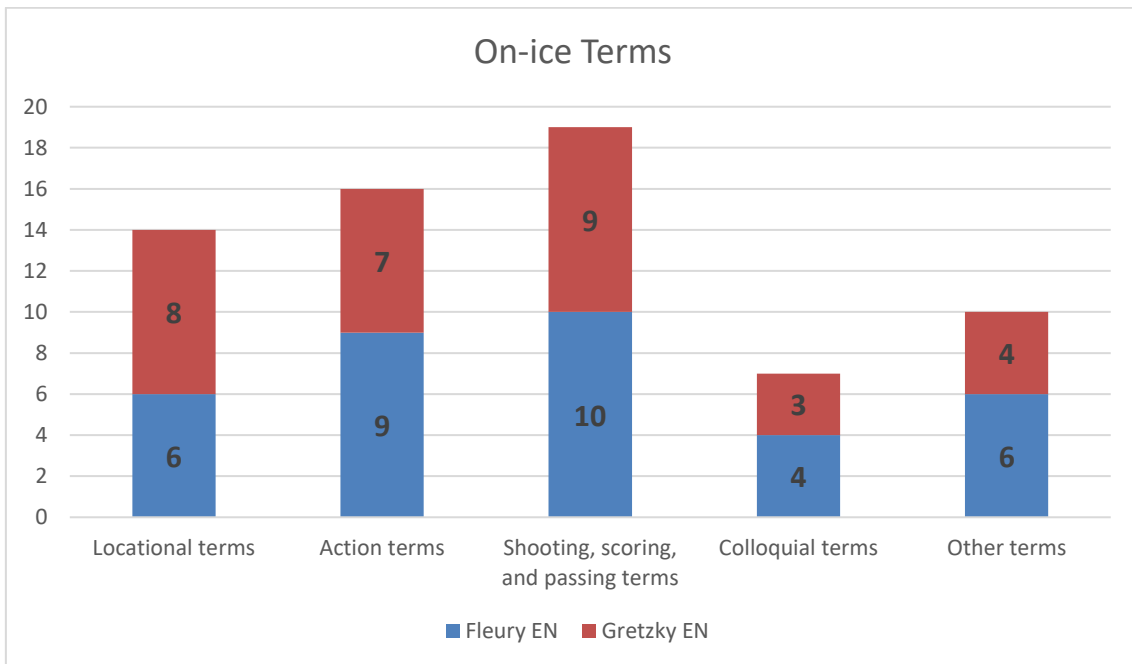


Diagram 1. Quantities of different types of on-ice terms

The distribution of off-ice terms, that is challenging terms related to outside factors that act in the background of the sport, was more uneven than of on-ice terms (see Diagram 2). Terms referring to *ice hockey league and level terms* (15) was distinctly the largest category including over double the amount of challenging terms compared to the smallest categories, *proper noun terms* (7) and *person-related terms* (7). Second most terms were in the *game system and tactics terms* category (11) and *other terms* (8) represented the intermediate. The total number of off-ice terms were 48.

Like with the on-ice terms, there were many similarities with the distribution of off-ice terms found in Fleury EN and in Gretzky EN. In both *ice hockey league and level terms* represented the largest category, whereas *proper noun terms* and *person-related terms* were the smallest categories. However, in Fleury EN the *game system and tactics terms* was among the smallest categories, even though it was the second largest category overall.

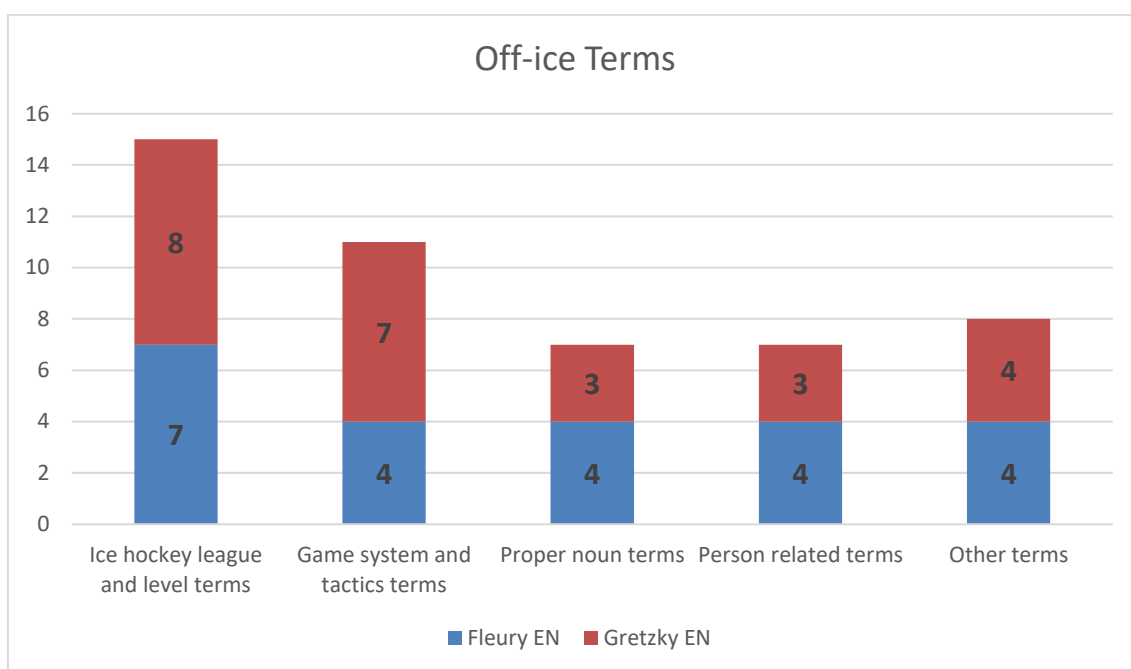


Diagram 2. Quantities different types of off-ice terms

Based on the statistics of the challenging term types, it seems that overall there were more instances of challenging terms with the on-ice than off-ice related words. One reason for this may be that since the terms were collected from chapters that concentrated around the theme of ice hockey and seemed to have the highest density of ice hockey language in them, these chapters undeniably consisted of many descriptions from single games and happenings on ice. On the other hand, if we look at the largest categories from both on-ice and off-ice terms, the off-ice category of *ice hockey league and level terms* is also represented, which then insinuates that in the chosen chapters there must have been also discussion about off-ice elements of ice hockey. In the following subsections (see 4.3) the largest type categories from both, on-ice and off-ice terms, are discussed in more detail.

4.2 Translation Strategy Categories

As previously stated, the categorization for different translation strategies used in the term translation was derived from Andrew Chesterman's (1997) proposal of different translation strategies and Ritva Leppihalme's (2001) proposal of translation strategies for translating realia. Additionally, I have included into my categorization categories also for other used strategies and translation errors. The final categories were as such:

- 1) Adaptation
- 2) Explicitation
- 3) Semantic relation
- 4) Loan and calque
- 5) Omission
- 6) Synonymy
- 7) Transposition
- 8) Other strategies
- 9) Error

As can be seen from the following diagram 3, clearly the largest translation strategy used overall was *explicitation* (22) with *semantic relation* (17) being the second. The next largest categories were *other strategies* (13) and *error* (16), even though neither of these cannot really be seen as separate translation strategies. *Synonymy* (11) and *loan and calque* (12) strategies, together with the *transposition* (12) strategy, constituted the median of individual strategies used. The least used strategies were *adaptation* (6) and *omission* (5).

Principally, there was not that much divergence in the strategies used for term translation between the two translators. This is interesting in that since the translator was not the same person, and neither was the publisher, the strategical choices could have deviated more visibly. Then again, the time difference between these two translations was only five years, and I suppose that the translation norms of this specific field have not changed significantly within such a short time period. Also, it is quite possible that Fleury's translated autobiography has been used as an additional source of information by Tuomisto, the translator of Gretzky EN.

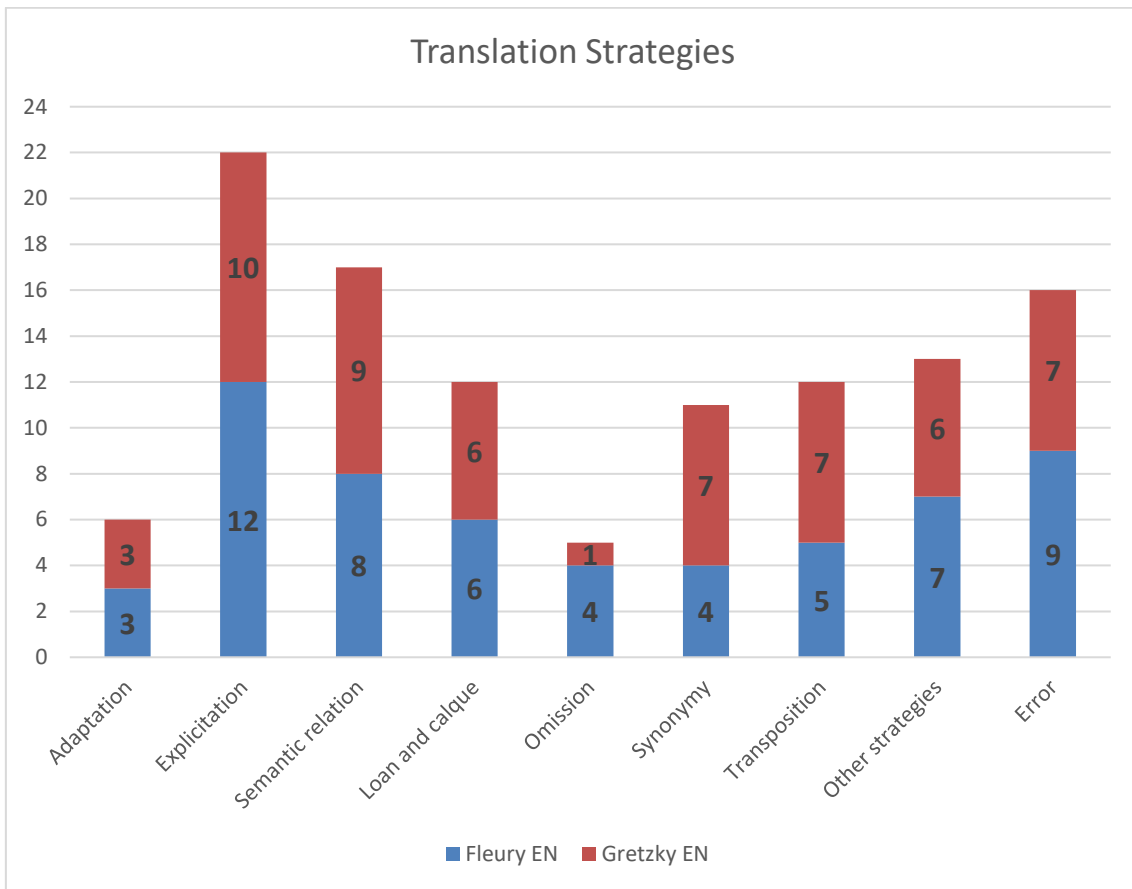


Diagram 3. Quantities of different types of translation strategies used

In any case, with this material, both translators had used the strategies of *explication* and *semantic relation* the most, which mirrored the results of the whole material. The main differences emerged in the use of *omission* and *synonymy* strategies. In Fleury FI, omission had been used visibly more often than in Gretzky FI, whereas in Gretzky FI the translator had relied more on the strategy of synonymy than in Fleury FI. I think it is important also to take note of the relatively high number of errors in both translations, which then highlights the challenging nature of ice hockey terminology. On average, in Gretzky FI mistranslations took place with every eighth term, whereas in Fleury FI this happened with every sixth term. As already mentioned, more detailed discussion of the most challenging categories and translation strategies used in them will be presented in the following sections.

4.3 Discussion of the Most Challenging Term Categories

By creating categories for different types of challenging terms and dividing the material into these categories, I was able to find out the most challenging term types in the material studied in this thesis. Since this helped me answer my first research question, in the following sections I will try to find an answer to my second research question: How are these most challenging terms translated, that is what translation strategies have been used in the translation of these terms? As already mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, this is done by reviewing the most challenging term type categories from both, on-ice and off-ice terms. Each of the following subsections deals with one category and discusses the different translation strategies used in them with the help of examples from the material.

4.3.1 Shooting, scoring, and passing terms

As it became evident from the diagrams presented earlier (see section 4.1), the category of shooting, scoring, and passing terms represented the largest category of challenging terms. The reason for it being the largest category may well lie in the difference between the development of English and Finnish ice hockey language, and of course the fact that the game culminates into goal-scoring, which usually requires shooting and passing. Because ice hockey was allegedly invented in Canada (at least the contemporary ice hockey as we know it) and therefore has been known and played much longer in North America than in Finland, the language and the sport itself has naturally had more time to develop. North America also has significantly larger ice hockey language user community, since according to the International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF 2017) the number of registered people playing the sport in the USA and Canada is almost twentyfold compared to Finland. These numbers do not even include recreational players, or the vast non-player audiences ice hockey has in these countries. Therefore, it is not strange that there are more terms in English ice hockey language to describe concepts especially about the goal-scoring situations; in the end, goal-scoring is the ultimate objective of the game.

An example of this would be for example the number of English terms referring to different types of passes; sweep pass, flip pass, saucer pass, bank pass, back pass, drop pass, behind back pass, tap pass, centering pass, give and go pass, hand pass, no-look pass, etc. There is also at least the same amount of terms for different types of shots in ice hockey. Many, although not all, of the most frequently used passes and shots in ice hockey do have an equivalent term in Finnish, but with many such instances in the material the situation was made clear otherwise by rephrasing the whole sentence with the use of different types of translation strategies (see example 3). Of course, some of the terms did not have an established equivalent in Finnish, and with these instances rephrasing has been even required (see example 2).

In the translation of the terms of this category in the material, the translators had used every strategy at least once, apart from *adaptation*. There were also two instances of both, *error* and *other strategies* found from the material. Of the translation strategies used with this type category, *transposition* was the largest category with 5 instances, and the second most used strategy was *explicitation* with 3 instances. *Omission* and *semantic relation* were used only once, and the rest of the strategies twice.

In example 2 below we can see how transposition was used in the material with shooting terms. Even though *bad-angle shot* is quite commonly used in English ice hockey language, in Finnish it has no established equivalent term, and therefore needs to be expressed by rephrasing the term somehow. This was the case also with the other terms in this category, where transposition had been used. In this case the translator had decided to express the term in Finnish by altering the word class form of the term from an adjective and a noun to a verb and inflected nominals (an adjective and a noun).

- (2) They would let you wheel around the perimeter all night, passing back and forth and taking **bad-angle shots**. (Gretzky EN: 348)

He antoivat vastustajan pyöriä ympäriinsä laidoilla koko illan syöttelemässä edestakaisin ja **huonoista kulmista laukoen**. (Gretzky FI: 347)

They would let the opponent wheel around the boards all night, passing back and forth and **shooting** from **bad angles**. (Own back-translation)

In the category of shooting, scoring, and passing, all instances of transposition existed with phrasal terms, such as in example 2 above. Such terms were *quick release*, *empty-netter*, *screen shot*, and *centering pass*. As Ingo (1990: 235–236) stated, the use of phrasal elements in terms is used particularly in analytic languages, such as English. These types of terms may not be that easily translatable into a synthetic Finnish language, at least in the form they exist in the SL, and therefore an alternative way of conveying the same meaning is needed. To me the use of transposition with terms, such as in example 2, seems functional and even advisable. In the end, with the strategy of transposition, the most important thing is that the meaning of the message should not be changed, and with the instances where transposition had been used, the translators have succeeded in this.

As mentioned already, *explicitation* was the second most used translation strategy with shooting, scoring, and passing type terms. With these instances, I would argue that explicitation was not always needed. For example, in the example 3 below, the English term *wraparound* has an established equivalent term in Finnish; *vanhanaikainen* [old-fashioned] (Lennox 2008: 42, Raevuori 2005: 290). For some reason, the translator has decided to leave the equivalent term out and rather rephrased the sentence by explicating the term to match the situation, even though the equivalent term is widely used in Finnish ice hockey language and would have actually taken less space in the TT.

- (3) Then Loob put one in on a **wraparound**. (Fleury EN: 69)

Sitten oli taas Loobin vuoro. Hän **kiersi maalin takaa** ja tuikkasi kiekon sisään. (Fleury FI: 88)

Then it was Loob's turn. He **circled from behind the net** and put the puck in. (Own back-translation)

There are at least three possible reasons why the translator has not used the equivalent Finnish term in the translation: (1) the translator/publisher has wanted to make the language less specialized and used general language to cover the situation, (2) the translator/publisher has thought this to be textually more fluent and functional, or (3) the

translator has not been aware of the Finnish equivalent term. I would argue that the explicitation of the English term in the translations has been done most likely for stylistic purposes either by the publisher or the translator. The reason to this is that if a reader would decide to choose this autobiography of a former NHL star, they would quite surely have at least some level of expertise in the language of ice hockey, and therefore be aware of this Finnish term and its meaning. In any case, since this Finnish term is extremely common term in Finnish ice hockey language, and therefore would not have required much information retrieval even if the translator's own knowledge of the sport would not have been that sufficient, it seems quite odd that the translator would not have been aware of the Finnish equivalent term *vanhanaikainen*. Nevertheless, even though the reason for this explication is left on the level of speculation, I would argue that in the end the translation itself would not disturb the reader, even though it can diminish its credibility in the eyes of an expert on the field.

In example 4 below, the required use of explicitation can be seen in the translation of a shooting type term. This is a typical example of a situation where explicitation is a good choice of translation strategy: source-culture references in the TT are made explicit by making the source-text meaning clearer by replacing a ST word by another word or phrase (Leppihalme 2001: 143). First of all, the text itself does not state what type of shot this *fifteen-footer* is. Secondly, in Finnish culture the metric system is used instead of the imperial system. Both of these facts imply that the translator should not use a literal translation for the term, and the translator has clearly been aware of this, as can be seen from the example.

- (4) I opened the scoring against the Kings, banking a **fifteen-footer** off their goalie, Kelly Hradey. (Fleury EN: 72)

Avasin maalitilin Kingsiä vastaan **kaukaa ammutulla lämärillä** ohi vastapuolen maalivahdin, Kelly Hradeyn. (Fleury FI: 91)

I opened the scoring against the Kings with a **slapshot fired from far away** past the opponent's goalie, Kelly Hradey. (Own back-translation)

The only thing that requires speculation in this example, is that how has the translator been able to know which type of shot was in question in this instance. As we can see from the example, the term *fifteen-footer* has been explicated to a slapshot. However, this does not become evident anywhere in the context, that is within the actual sentence or even the sentences near this instance in the original book. I suppose the translator might have made conclusions based on the size of an ice hockey rink; if one shoots the puck from fifteen feet away from the goal, it would mean that the shot does not take place right in front of the net, and therefore the puck was shot closer to the blueline. This might mean that a slapshot is needed for the player to be able to score. However, even if the shot would have been taken from the blueline it does not exclude the possibility that it could have been for example a wrist shot. Thus, I would argue that the translator has taken some privileges and made a strong assumption in the translation of the term. However, eventually this does not affect the end result that much or complicate the understanding of the text itself.

As stated previously, also the strategies of *synonymy*, *loan and calque*, *omission*, and *semantic relation* along with *error* and *other strategies* were present in this type category. Since these were all found only in one or two instances, there is no reason to go through each of them. I will, however, present one more example from this type category that seemed interesting from the point of view of this thesis due to its challenging nature, and one example of *omission* that deviated from the other instances, where this strategy was used.

Even though synonymy can be a great tool stylistically, it can as easily be a misleading strategy, and for example Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 364) states that synonymy can lead to problems in the translation of specialized terms. As was mentioned earlier in the method section (see 1.2), synonymy was used to translate the term *shootout*. The official Finnish equivalent for the term is *voittomaalikipailu* [game-winning goal competition] (Finhockey 2019), and I have seen synonyms, such as *voittomaalikisat* [game-winning goal contest] and *voittolaukauskilpailu* [game-winning shot competition] to be used. Both, the official term and *voittomaalikisat* was also used by the translator of Gretzky EN. Nevertheless, the translator had also ended up using a problematic synonym (see example 5 below) with a shooting type term that could even be seen as a mistranslation.

In the example, the translator has used the term *rankkari*, which is an abbreviation of the term *rangaistuslaukaus* [penalty shot]. The original English term *shootout* means a contest whereby both teams take a series of penalty shots to determine a winner of a game that has ended in a tie after the overtime, whereas *rankkari* [penalty shot] is a “one time uncontested breakaway” that is caused by a specific type of foul play during the regulation time or overtime (Lennox 2008: 51; Shorey 2004: xix).

- (5) When you're on a breakaway, all you see is net. When you're in a **shootout**, you're thinking about the goalie. (Gretzky EN: 245–246)

Kun on läpiajossa, näkee vain maalin. Kun vetää **rankkaria**, ajattelee maalivahtia. (Gretzky FI: 249)

When you're on a breakaway, all you see is the net. When you're taking a **penalty shot**, you're thinking about the goalie. (Own back-translation)

The reason that I have counted this translation as a synonym, rather than as an error, is that at least ten years ago the Finnish term *rangaistuslaukaus* [penalty shot] was generally used to refer to both, penalty shots and shootouts. At some point however, Finnish ice hockey authorities proceeded to follow the terminology of the International Ice Hockey Federation and it was decided that it was not appropriate to use the same term for both occasions. Terminologically speaking this was a great thing, since they are two completely different situations; another one is a penalty for breaking the rules and the other one is a way of deciding the winner in a tie situation. I believe the old term is still used in unofficial contexts, and therefore the use of this term in this situation cannot be seen as a translation error. Nevertheless, if one is not familiar with the term's history, this could have been interpreted as an error and therefore is a bit problematic term to be used.

Omission can be used with instances where there is unnecessarily detailed passage in the text that could possibly complicate the understanding of the text for a reader from the target culture. Also, according to Leppihalme (2001: 145) omission is sometimes used simply to avoid problematic words, which then saves the translator the trouble of finding an alternative option. This was the case also with every instance of omission in the material, apart from one instance of a shooting, scoring, and passing type term (see

example 6 below) where the term *rebound* has been completely omitted from the translation. Rebound is quite a common term in ice hockey and is regularly used also in Finnish ice hockey language either as it is (rebound) or as translated (paluukiekko). I would also argue that the terms more colloquial version, *ripari*, is widely known in the Finnish ice hockey societies. Therefore, it is quite strange that the translator has decided to omit the term from the translation, even though there exists an established Finnish equivalent for the term and the translated word would not have extended nor complicated the translation in anyway.

- (6) Loob picked up the **rebound** from Al's point shot and Newie funneled it in. (Fleury EN: 71)

Loob nappasi Alin vedon, ja Newie ohjasi sen sisään. (Fleury FI: 90)

Loob picked up the shot from Al, and Newie tipped it in. (Own back-translation)

Even though this tiny detail that has been omitted would probably not disturb the reader, it does change the semantics of the sentence. In the original passage, Al has shot the puck and created a rebound (possibly off the goalie), which Loob then picks up and shoots into the goal by a redirect from Newie. The translation, however, states that Loob catches Al's shot and then shoots the puck towards Newie. Therefore, even though this cannot be seen as a mistranslation, it could be argued if the use of *omission* was really the optimal strategy in the translation of this fairly common ice hockey term.

Other than the previous example, I was not able to find omissions from the material that would have been in any way critical for the translation. Basically, in all the other instances omission was clearly made for textual reasons, or the information omitted was available for the reader from the context. Whether the translator has made the omission in the above example consciously or unconsciously, it must be stated that omission as a strategy needs to be used carefully, even with problematic words. For example, Leppihalme (2001: 144) states that in Finland, the contemporary literary translators see the use of omission as a last resort. This could be the reason, why omission was the least used (together with adaption) strategy also in the material of this thesis.

In summary, the translation strategies used with shooting, scoring, and passing terms were divided between multiple different strategies. Overall the strategies used were applicable in their contexts, with the exception of the two instances of *error*, obviously. In some cases, such as in examples 3, 5 and 6, it could be argued if the translation strategy was optimal precisely for that term, but none of these instances could be seen as mistranslations either. In the end, if there are no mistakes in the translation, the stylistic issues are usually always debatable and dependent on multiple different factors, such as the personal style of the translator and the guidelines of the publisher.

4.3.2 Action terms

The second largest on-ice category of challenging ice hockey terms was *action terms*. It was also the second largest type category overall. After a closer inspection on the terms and the translation strategies used on them, it was quite clear that the challenges with terms describing action, that is verb terms, were mainly present with terms that do not have established complete equivalents in Finnish ice hockey language. Challenges occurred especially with complex terms, such as *make a play*, which was present in the material multiple times. An example of its translation and discussion of the term's complexity can be seen in the following examples 7 and 8. Secondly, some of the challenges in this type category seemed to be intertwined with terms that are used also in general language but have a specialized meaning in the context of ice hockey. This is also discussed in more detail later on, with example 10.

Before moving on to the examples, it is important to briefly review the translation strategies used with this type category. Interestingly, the category of action terms deviated from all the other largest categories in that the most used translation strategy overall, *explicitation*, was not used at all in the translation of this type category terms. The most used translation strategy within this category was *semantic relation* with 6 instances, which was present mainly in the translation of the aforementioned term, *make a play*. *Transposition*, with 3 instances, and *synonymy*, with 2 instances were the other two

separate strategies used. In addition to these, there were also 3 instances of *error* and one instance of *other strategies* in the material.

As mentioned already, phrasal verb term *make a play* occurred in the material multiple times and seemed to have been challenging for the translators, since there was variation in its translation. Even though the strategy of *semantic relation* was used in each instance, the translators had used different semantically related words that naturally had a slightly different meaning in the TT than the original English term. *Make a play* is a commonly used term in English ice hockey language, and it basically means to create scoring opportunities or otherwise improve one's situation on the ice. The term is quite vague and can be used in many situations, and it comprises the acts of passing, shooting, deking, dribbling and all other ways that may contribute to one's own game and possibly even end up in a scoring opportunity. In my opinion this is also what makes the term quite challenging to translate.

Most frequently the translators had used a hypernym in the TT to translate this challenging term. An example of this can be seen in example 7 below, where the multifaceted original term has been translated by using a hypernym, or a superordinate term *pelata* [to play] in Finnish. This is a good choice in that a superordinate term includes also its hyponyms and therefore does not exclude anything out semantically. In this case, the Finnish word *pelata* is a concise way to express the original message, and it seems to work in this context, since in my opinion the reader would not get any crucial additional information from the text even if the term would be explicated for the reader.

- (7) When you are offensively talented, you expect to **make** good **plays** every night. (Fleury EN: 69)

Lahjakas hyökkääjä odottaa **pelaavansa** hyvin ilta toisensa jälkeen. (Fleury FI: 88)

A talented forward expects to **play** well night after another. (Own back-translation)

Of course, it can be argued that the translator could have tried to come up with a partial equivalent for the English term, such as *luoda paikkoja* [to create opportunities] which would have corresponded with the original term quite closely. Then again, this type of generalization in the translation of ice hockey terms has been present throughout the material, which can be seen especially in the frequent overall use of *explicitation*, and therefore the use of hypernyms seems an appropriate choice of strategy.

An opposite use of *semantic relation* was also present in the material with this same multifaceted term (see example 8 below). In this instance the translator had decided to use a hyponym, that is a subordinate term in the translation, and had translated the term *make a play* as *syöttää* [to pass]. In this situation it can be argued that the expression in the TT has narrowed down the meaning of the original text by using a hyponym, and therefore excluding some of the other actions that are encompassed into the English term.

- (8) If you take the puck off a defenseman or a player in his own end, you don't have as many players to beat in order to score or to **make a play**. (Gretzky EN: 241)

Jos ottaa kiekon puolustajalta tai pelaajalta tämän omassa päädyssä, ei ole yhtä montaa pelaajaa ohitettavana päästäkseen laukomaan tai **syöttämään**. (Gretzky FI: 245)

If you take the puck off a defenseman or a player in his own end, you don't have as many players to beat in order to shoot or to **pass**. (Own back-translation)

However, in the example sentence above, the context may explain the use of hyponym at least to some extent. In this instance, the sentence ends in two verbs, *to score* and *to make a play*. These have been translated into Finnish as *laukoa* [to shoot] and *syöttää* [to pass]. In my opinion, it is possible that the translator has decided to translate only the latter verb by explicating it into two different verbs in Finnish, since it seems that the verb *score* has been omitted from the TT. This would be a stylistic choice, through which the translator has been able to avoid the use of phrasal verbs in Finnish, such as *tehdä maali* [to score] and *luoda paikkoja* [create opportunities], and therefore keep the sentence structure simple and easy to read. Of course, it is also possible that the verb *to score* has been

mistranslated, but I would argue that this is hardly the case, because *to score* is an extremely common term and is not restricted only to ice hockey.

The category of action terms consisted also of verb terms, that are not that complex, but do not have an established equivalent in Finnish. In these instances, the strategy of *transposition* was usually used. In example 9 below, we can see an unambiguous verb *to roof*, which, in the context of ice hockey, means to shoot the puck in to the roof of the goal. The verb itself then consist not only the act of shooting the puck but also the object or the specific target of the shot. In Finnish language, there does not exist a verb that would comprise this same meaning, and therefore the translator has had to come up with an alternative way of expressing the verb.

- (9) One time during a division final, I skated down the middle of the ice, dropped the puck back between my legs and shot it at the goalie from behind my knee, **roofing** it and making him look like a Bambi in the headlights. (Fleury EN: 45–46)

Kerran divisioonafinalissa luistelin keskialueella, päästin kiekon jalkojeni väliin ja laukaisin sen polveni takaa suoraan **maalin kattoon** ja sain veskarin näyttämään bambilta auton valoissa. (Fleury FI: 63)

One time during a division final, I was skating in the neutral zone, let the puck slide between my legs and shot it from behind my knee straight **to the roof of the net**, and made the goalie look like a Bambi in the headlights. (Own back-translation)

In the above example, the translator has translated the verb term as *maalin kattoon* [to the roof of the net], and therefore changed the word class of the term. In this context this seems to work, since the act of shooting has already been mentioned earlier in the sentence (*laukaisin sen* [I shot it]) and the translation of the term has been connected to this same clause. This way the translator has been able to avoid changing the sense of the message, which according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 94–99) is essential if transposition is used. Since the overall meaning has been kept alike, and at the same time the translator has avoided the use of repetition of the verb *laukaista* [to shoot] in the sentence, I think it is safe to say that the translator has succeeded in the translation of this

challenging verb term by using transposition. Almost an identical solution of the same verb term was also present in the material collected from Gretzky's books.

In regard to verb terms that did not have an established equivalent in Finnish ice hockey language, it must be stated that according to Lindqvist (2008: 27–28) in English language it is usual and quite productive to create terms by changing the word class of the original term, whereas in Finnish this is not that common. This was strongly present also with some of the terms of this type category, such as *to high-stick*, *to cross-check*, and also *to roof* seen in the above example, that are clearly derived from their original noun forms. By creating verbs from nouns, one is able to easily express the action referring to these nouns. However, since this procedure is not as easily applicable into Finnish language, there may naturally emerge challenges in the translation of such verb terms.

As stated previously, there was also challenges in the material of action terms with general language verbs that have a specialized meaning in ice hockey language. An example of this can be seen in the following example 10, where the term *to trip* has been translated as its general language equivalent *kompastua* [to stumble]. In this instance, however, tripping does not refer to stumbling or falling down but to a deliberate or an accidental act that causes the opponent to lose their footing which in ice hockey is always called as tripping and should result in a minor penalty. This can be concluded from the context, that is the words before the term. If the word would refer to the general language concept, the English ST should state “who *had* tripped” instead of “who *was* tripped”, which then again indicates that the person did not trip on their own but were tripped by someone else.

- (10) With less than a minute left, Cournoyer intercepted a clearing pass and sent it over to Paul Henderson, who was **tripped** and crashed into the boards. (Gretzky EN: 234)

Kun peliaikaa oli jäljellä alle minuutti, Cournoyer katkaisi purkukiekon ja syötti sen Paul Hendersonille, joka oli **kompastunut** ja kaatunut laitaan. (Gretzky FI: 239)

When there was less than a minute left, Cournoyer intercepted a clearing pass and passed it over to Paul Henderson, who **had tripped** and crashed into the boards. (Own back-translation)

The reason for this mistranslation, which was categorized under the *error* category, is most likely the deceptive appearance of the term. According to Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 362–363), many terms can resemble general language words by their form. Since this term, like many terms, is derived from general language and its form is identical to its general language verb, this has evidently caused problems in the identification of the term, and therefore also caused the mistranslation.

As discussed already, *synonymy* means the use of a synonym or a near synonym in the translation, instead of the apparent or the most frequently used equivalent word. According to Chesterman (1997: 102), this strategy is used mainly for stylistic purposes or just to avoid repetition, if the same term has been already used previously. This was the case also in the material with action terms, where synonymy was used clearly for these reasons. The term *tip*, which can be seen in the following example 11, was present in the material more than once and appeared multiple times also outside the chapters chosen for the material, so it is only natural that the translator has decided to avoid repetition and make the text sound more fluent.

- (11) Finally, Mullie **tipped** in a pass from McCrimmon and tied it up 1-1.
(Fleury EN: 81)

Lopulta Mullie **napautti** McCrimmonilta saamansa syötön maaliin ja tasoitti pelin 1-1. (Fleury FI: 102)

Finally, Mullie **tapped** in a pass from McCrimmon and tied the game up 1-1. (Own back-translation)

In the above example the term *tip*, which means the act of redirecting or deflecting the puck with one's stick into the goal, has been translated as *napauttaa* [to tap]. The established Finnish complete equivalent for the English term would have been *ohjata* [to redirect], but since the term has appeared in the text already multiple times, the translator has obviously wanted to use alternative ways of expressing the same action. With this type of instances, where a term has been present in the text multiple times, I think it is important to emphasize that even though synonymy defies the basic principle of

terminology, that is there should be only one term for each concept, I think the use of synonymy for stylistic purposes is fitting and even inevitable.

In short, the translators have been able to come up with suitable solutions for challenging action terms in the material through the strategies of *semantic relation*, *synonymy*, and *transposition*. Based on this division between the translation strategies used in this term type category it can be stated that, in general, by using these strategies the translators have mainly been able to create a functional translation solution for possibly problematic action terms. This obviously does not refer to the 3 instances of *error* found in the material of this type category.

4.3.3 Ice hockey level and league terms

From the off-ice terms, the category of ice hockey level and league terms was clearly the largest. This category, together with *action terms*, was also the second largest category altogether. Because of the depth and complexity of different levels and league systems in North American ice hockey culture, compared to the ones in Finland, it was not surprising that these types of terms have been challenging to translate. For example in Finland, there is only one professional league for men, whereas in North America there is one major and four minor professional leagues. There are also many differences in junior and minor ice hockey levels, their naming, and age limits between Finland and North America. These are demonstrated in table 5 below. Regionally, there can also be some additional categories and variations with terms and age limits within these general categories. Additionally, the junior and minor levels may comprise different skill levels for each category.

To see the total complexity of the differences between the ice hockey systems, something must be stated separately about the highest junior/minor level hockey, and leagues outside of national governing bodies in North America (USA Hockey and Hockey Canada). In Finland, the level of A-juniors is divided by skill level, of which each basically consists of one league, whereas in North American *junior hockey* (all the other categories for ages 18 and under are referred to as *minor hockey* in North America) comprises numerous

different leagues. For example, just the highest level in Canada, that is *major junior*, consists of three different leagues and the highest level in USA of one league. Lower skill levels, then again, consist of several different leagues. In addition to these, there exist independent leagues in North America that operate outside the organizations of USA Hockey and Hockey Canada. Furthermore, *college hockey* is again a separate concept, and for many players it is a stepping stone towards NHL, just like major junior leagues.

Table 5. Differences between minor and junior hockey age categories in Finland and North America (Finhockey 2019, Hockey Canada 2019a, Hockey Canada 2019b, Hockey Canada 2019c, Hockey Canada 2019d, Hockey Canada 2019e, Hockey Canada 2019f, USA Hockey 2019a)

Finland		Canada		United States	
Level	Ages	Level	Ages	Level	Ages
G-minors	8 or under	Initiation	8 or under	Mite	8 or under
F-minors	10 or under	Novice	10 or under	Squirt	10 or under
E-minors	12 or under	Atom	12 or under	Peewee	12 or under
D-minors	14 or under	Peewee	14 or under	Bantam	14 or under
C-juniors	16 or under	Bantam	16 or under	Midget 16 & under	16 or under
B-juniors	18 or under	Midget	18 or under	Midget Minor 18 & under	18 or under
A-juniors	20 or under	Junior	21 or under	Junior	20 or under

Because of the complexity of the terms seen in this term type category, the translation strategies used by the translators were divided mainly between the strategies of *explicitation* and *adaptation*. This seems logical due to the fact that both of these strategies are seen especially useful in instances, where the translator tries to avoid possible cultural problems (Leppihalme 2001: 142–143). Explicitation was the most used strategy, with 6 instances, and adaptation second, with 5 instances. Other than these two, *loan and calque* and *semantic relation* strategies were both used once. In addition, there were also 2 instances of *error* found in the material.

From translational perspective, it is not only the complexity of the ice hockey systems that makes this category confusing for the translator. The other confusing thing must be the diverging terminology between the countries. In each country (Finland, Canada, and USA), there are different terms for different age levels (see table 5) and skill levels. In addition, with terms such as *junior* and *minor*, the translator needs to have a good understanding of the ice hockey league and level systems in each country and pay extra attention to the context. For example, the Finnish term *juniori* [junior] can refer to basically any of the age levels of minor and junior hockey. In contrast, in North America the term *junior* can refer only to one age level, junior level ice hockey (see table 5), or to games and tournaments of World Juniors (players of 20 years or under playing for their national teams) in international hockey. Additionally, in Canada, the junior level consists of skill levels of major junior, Junior A, Junior B and Junior C that also can add to the confusion when encountering such a term during a translation process.

As it has been already mentioned, *explicitation* was the most used translation strategy overall and it was also the most used strategy in this type category. A typical use of explicitation in the material can be seen in example 12 below, where the previously discussed challenging term *junior* has clearly been identified and understood by the translator, since the translated term, *junior-sarja* [junior league], is not indicating to have anything to do with minor hockey. Even though the English term in this context does not have any established equivalent term in Finnish, this translation could be seen to act as an artificial equivalent, since the translator has created an equivalent so that he has been able to refer to a certain concept in the source culture (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 365–366).

- (12) Others go to **junior**, where they play twice as many games and where it's a lot more like the NHL. (Gretzky EN: 239)

Toiset taas menevät **junior-sarjoihin**, joissa pelataan kaksi kertaa enemmän otteluita, ja joissa meno muistuttaa paljon enemmän NHL:ää. (Gretzky FI: 243)

Other, then again, go to **junior leagues**, where they play twice as many games and where it's a lot more like the NHL. (Own back-translation)

In my opinion, this use of explicitation is quite fitting for this context, since with it the translator has clearly been able to avoid the confusion between the formal equivalents of the English term *junior* and the Finnish term *juniori* [minor]. Instead, the term *junior* has simply been explained to the reader by using a compound word, where it becomes evident that the authors are referring to the junior-level leagues in North America. This type of use of explicitation, where the meaning has been clarified to the reader, was used successfully also with other possibly challenging ice hockey level and league terms in the material, such as *tyke*, *minors* (*minor leagues*), and *midget hockey*.

As it has been already covered, adaptation was the second largest category with ice hockey league and level type terms. Since ice hockey cultures, and cultures in general, between Finland and North America have their differences, and the fact that adaptation is used especially with such occasions, I was somewhat surprised at first how few instances of adaptation was found in the material overall. Closer inspection revealed that, apart from one instance, adaptation was used only with terms that referred to ice hockey level or leagues in North America. Such terms in this category were: *Tier II*, *major junior*, *junior*, *junior B hockey*, and *minors*.

In the following example 13 we can see two instances where adaptation has been used. The first term, *Tier II*, refers to the second highest level of ice hockey played in the United States, whereas *major junior* refers to the highest level (USA Hockey 2019b). In this case, when talking about the levels in the USA, the highest level would be called Tier I, but since the authors are Canadian, they have used the equivalent term used in Canada. In this instance, the translator has decided to adapt the term *Tier II* into a Finnish term *kakkostaso* [second level], and *major junior* into *junioreiden ykkösliiga* [juniors' top league], that are both applicable also if one was to discuss Finnish ice hockey player in this situation. Since these terms do not actually have established equivalent terms in Finnish language, the use of these functional equivalents makes them clearly adaptations. By using adaptation, the translator has leaned towards domesticating global strategy and wanted to make the text sound more familiar to the reader (Leppihalme 2001: 142).

- (13) He wasn't in good shape. He was playing in **Tier II**, not even **major junior**. (Fleury EN: 47)

Hän ei ollut hyvässä kunnossa ja pelasi **kakkostasolla**, ei edes **junioreiden ykkösliigassa**. (Fleury FI: 64)

He wasn't in good shape and was playing on **second level**, not even in the **juniors' top league**. (Own back-translation)

It is also worth noticing that for example explication was used with terms regarding ice hockey levels and leagues often, but in this instance the translator had decided to avoid this strategy. The reason for this could possibly lie in the fact that by explicating both terms, this short sentence in the ST would have undoubtedly doubled in size in the TT. Another reason could be that the translator has used adaptation, since explicating both of the English terms would have required a great deal of background work and more information retrieval, which then would have taken much longer than just transferring the terms into another culture and language by using adaptation. Since all the rest of the adaptation terms of this type category were used similarly as in the previous example, there is no need for multiple examples to be reviewed.

Even though the translators have been able to avoid most of the problems with ice hockey league and level type terms, there were two instances where the term had caused clear problems. Example 14 below demonstrates how the complex term *junior* has ended up confusing the translator. In the example, the term *junior tournaments* has been translated as *junioriturnaus* [minor hockey tournament], even though in this case it is most probably referring to international tournaments of youth national teams. There are three things that support this presumption. Firstly, youth national teams usually play their games in the form of tournaments. Secondly, the term *juniorikiekko* (*minor hockey*) is listed in the sentence previously, and that term semantically already includes *junioriturnaukset* [minor hockey tournaments]. It would be odd for the authors to mention two single things with such close meanings, when they are clearly listing different types of events or levels of ice hockey. Additionally, minor hockey tournament rules are usually dependent on the regions and age levels in question, and do not exclusively end up in shootouts as the sentence implies.

- (14) The European teams always had shootouts, though – whether it was in minor hockey, **junior tournaments**, club championships, or the league, it was part of their repertoire. (Gretzky EN: 284)

Eurooppalaiset joukkueet kuitenkin menivät aina voittomaalikisaan – oli kysymys juniorikiekosta, **junioriturnauksista**, seuramestaruuksista tai liigasta, se kuului heidän valikoimaansa. (Gretzky FI: 284)

The European teams, however, always went to game-winning goal contests – whether it was about minor hockey, **minor hockey tournaments**, club championships, or the league, it was part of their repertoire. (Own back-translation)

In this case, the challenge emerges clearly from the deceptive form of the term, since the English term, *junior*, is translated with the formally equivalent Finnish term, *juniori*. According to Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 363–364), this type of deceptive similarities can mislead the translator to think something incorrect about the term, and I believe this is exactly what has happened in this instance. Naturally, it is possible that the translator has been aware of the English term and its meaning, and has created a Finnish partial equivalent for it, but in that case I would argue that the TT equivalent is clearly misleading.

Since the other complex term, *junior*, has been dealt with in the previous examples in various contexts, it is important to look at the other confusing term in the material, *minor*. The term *minor* can refer to either minor hockey played by young hockey players before junior hockey level, or to the *minor professional leagues* that refer to the other professional leagues in North America, apart from NHL. Surprisingly, for the term *minor*, the translators of both books had managed to avoid the confusion between the two separate concepts and translated the term with the correct meaning in every instance by using either *explicitation* or *adaptation*, which can be seen also in the example 15 below.

- (15) He played a few years in the **minors** but never played an NHL game. (Fleury EN: 48)

Hän pelasi muutaman vuoden **allemmassa sarjassa**, muttei koskaan yhtään NHL-peliä. (Fleury FI: 65)

He played a few years in the **lower level**, but never played any NHL games. (Own back-translation)

In this example, the translator has applied the strategy of adaptation and has used a partial equivalent to replace the ST term. According to Vehmas-Lehto (2010: 365), partially equivalent terms correspond with each other on some level but may have slight differences in the meaning, and the reasons for partial equivalency of the terms lie usually in the differences between the realities of two different cultures and language communities. This is also the case in this instance, since in North America there exists multiple leagues below NHL that are basically on the same level (second highest level), whereas in Finland there exists only one league on the second highest level, called Mestis. In other instances of the term *minor* in the material, *explicitation* was used. In those instances, the term *minor* was merely explicated in the TT into *alempi liiga/alemmat liigat* [lower league/lower leagues].

Overall, I think that the translators had succeeded in the translation of the challenging off-ice terms regarding ice hockey leagues and levels. The fact that explicitation and adaptation were the most used strategies, and there was only one error with terms including the challenging term *junior*, signals that the translators had clearly paid extra attention into terms with possible cultural challenges and were able to use suitable translation strategies with such terms.

4.3.4 Game system and tactics terms

From the off-ice terms, the category of game system and tactics terms was the second largest. The terms in this category had much in common with the terms in the shooting, scoring, and passing category; many of the English terms in the material do have an established equivalent in Finnish ice hockey language, but for some reason the translators had decided to express the term by other means. Because of the differences between the North American and Finnish ice hockey cultures and languages, and their development, there were obviously also some English terms in the material that do not have an

established Finnish equivalent, and with these cases some type of rephrasing is naturally even required.

Unsurprisingly, also the game system and tactics term category mirrored the results of the complete material in that *explicitation* was the most used translation strategy in the translation of its terms. With as many instances, the strategy of *synonymy* shared the title of the most used strategy in this type category. Other strategies used were *semantic relation* and *adaptation*, and two instances were counted under the *other strategies* category. I think it is also worth mentioning that there were no instances of *error* with the terms of this type category which deviates from the results of the other most challenging term type categories.

As I mentioned already, this type category consisted of various English ice hockey terms that are quite basic and have an established equivalent term in Finnish. In fact, all instances, apart from two, could be described as such. Therefore, it could be argued if some of these terms could have been translated without using an alternative translation strategy, such as explicitation in example 16 below.

- (16) He raced into the Montreal zone on a **forecheck** and stole the puck. (Fleury EN: 86)

Hän kiisi Montrealin alueelle **ennen kuin vastustaja oli saanut hyökkäyksensä kunnolla käyntiin** ja sieppasi kiekon. (Fleury FI: 107)

He raced into the Montreal zone **before the opponent had properly started their offense** and stole the puck. (Own back-translation)

In this example the translator has decided to express the short term, *forecheck*, by explicating it into a long sentence, even though there exists a short and generally used term in Finnish, *karvaus* [forecheck]. In case the term really has seemed too specialized, for example for the publisher, I would have understood if the term was translated by explaining the term concisely. However, if one looks at how detailed the translated sentence is and how this has prolonged the final sentence, it is only natural to wonder if

this explicitation could have been left out. To my eyes, as a “hockey enthusiast”, this seems even a bit like an underestimation of the reader.

For example, in Gretzky’s book, the translator had also used explicitation in the translation of the exact same term (forecheck) by adding only a short clarification after the equivalent Finnish term: *karvausta korkealla* [forecheck deep in the zone]. Even though this explicitation could be seen as an unnecessary one as well, since in this case the reader would still need to know the meaning of the term *karvaus*, the end result is much more compact and values the reader.

In my opinion, in the two instances where the English term does not really have an established equivalent term in Finnish, the translators had managed quite well. These terms were *grinding game* and “*firewagon*” *hockey*, and the strategies of explicitation and adaptation were used. Since this thesis have dealt with numerous examples of explicitation already, excellent use of adaptation can be seen in example 17 below, where the term “*firewagon*” *hockey* is translated into Finnish as *hurlumhei-kiekko* [hassle hockey].

(17) Up till then we played so-called “**firewagon**” **hockey**. (Gretzky EN: 343)

Siihen asti pelasimme niin sanottua **hurlumhei-kiekkoa**. (Gretzky FI: 343)

Up till then we played so-called **hassle hockey**. (Own back-translation)

The original English term in the example is very restricted culturally to Northern American ice hockey, and it was originated in the 1950s to express the high-speed end-to-end style of ice hockey in the NHL that was the trademark of the Montreal Canadiens at that time (Lennox 2008: 40). Nowadays it is used in North American ice hockey when talking about this same type of end-to-end action with undisciplined playing style that ends up in a great number of scoring opportunities and goals scored. Therefore, this term can be seen as quite a specialized one and I have not heard of, nor was I able to find out, any established equivalent term in Finnish that would have the same semantical meaning. The Finnish term, *hurlumhei-kiekko*, has been used a lot especially in ice hockey related

articles and in spoken ice hockey language, but I have noticed that its meaning often varies depending on the writer of the article and the context. For example, sometimes it is used to refer to games where a lot of penalties are called for both teams and some hassles or even fights occur, even though there would not be that many scoring opportunities. Then again, sometimes it is also used to describe games that are closer to the English concept, where the game is extremely eventful and has a great deal of scoring opportunities. Nevertheless, with such instances I have heard the Finnish term *havaiji-kiikko* [Hawaiian-style hockey] to be used more often. In general, this term is used in situations that mirror the meaning of the English term *firewagon hockey* more closely, at least based on my experience.

There is one abstract and complex game system and tactics type term that occurred also in the material of this thesis twice, once in Fleury EN and once in Gretzky EN. This term is worth covering, because it is used in ice hockey jargon and in interviews constantly, but each time it seems to be translated or explained differently in Finnish. This term is *momentum*, and an example of its translations in the material can be seen in the following examples 18 and 19.

(18) He didn't want to let you get any **momentum**. (Gretzky EN: 349)

Hän ei halunnut antaa vastustajalle yhtään **siimaa**. (Gretzky FI: 349)

He didn't want to cut the opponent any **slack**. (Own back-translation)

(19) We were dragging, so Crispy sent Gary Roberts out to pummel Brian Bradley to change the **momentum**, but it backfired. (Fleury EN: 69)

Meidän pelimme oli tahmeaa, joten Crispy lähetti Gary Robertsin nuijimaan Brian Bradleya **laittaakseen peliin vauhtia**, mutta taktiikka epäonnistui. (Fleury FI: 88)

Our game was sticky, so Crispy sent Gary Roberts out to pummel Briand Bradley to **get the game going**. (Own back-translation)

The term *momentum* in sports cannot be explained easily and concisely. Basically, it refers to the process of either positive or negative change in the performance and the level of doing caused by a simple event or events, which can then affect the whole outcome of

the game. For example, Shorey (2004: xvii) presents an easily understandable definition for the term *momentum change* that helps grasping the meaning of the concept: “when a team scores a goal and starts to come back from a 1 or 2 goal deficit.” I have never heard of an established Finnish equivalent for this term, apart from the term *momentum* itself, which has been borrowed into the Finnish ice hockey language and is used in it as it is from time to time.

In the above examples, the translators have ended up rephrasing this difficult term in the translation, and both of these instances were categorized as *other strategies*, since the translations do have some semantical resemblance with the meaning of the English term and therefore could not be counted as mistranslations in the context. In the example 10 the term has been translated into Finnish as *siima* [fishing line], being a part of a Finnish idiomatic expression, *antaa siimaa*, which could be interpreted in English as *to cut some slack*. In example 11 the term is a part of a phrase *change the momentum*, which has been translated as *laittaa peliin vauhtia* [to get the game going].

In my opinion, both of the translations in the examples reflect greatly on the meaning of the English term and seem to function in these instances. Of course, it could be argued if the strategy of *loan and calque* could have been applied in both instances, since the word *momentum* is used in the Finnish ice hockey language from time to time, especially among players and experts on the field. Then again, this type of domesticating global strategy, where difficult and culture-bound terms are clarified and expressed otherwise to the reader, has been present throughout the material: especially with the most challenging terms strategies like *explicitation* and *adaptation* have been strongly present, whereas foreignizing strategy of *loan and calque* has been used rarely. From this, it can be noted that the translator and/or the publisher has clearly tried to generalize ice hockey terms and, by doing this, possibly bring the end text available for a wider audience.

As a conclusion of the translation strategies used with this type category terms, it must be stated that the quantities between the different translation strategies used varied only slightly. Even the most used strategies of explicitation and synonymy had only two instances more than the least used strategy, adaptation. Therefore, it is quite difficult to

draw any prominent conclusions or generalizations based only on this type category. Nevertheless, I believe it is safe to say that the examination of this type category and the strategies used in it reasserted the fact that explicitation really is the most used translation strategy with challenging terms of this case study.

5 CONCLUSIONS

This study focused on the translation of ice hockey related terms in two different autobiographies. More specifically, my focus was on English ice hockey terms where an established equivalent term did not emerge in its Finnish translation in the target texts. As the translation of the terms used in the special field of ice hockey has not been studied quite extensively, my main purpose was to contribute to this area of research, and possibly lay the basis for further research.

This study consisted of three research questions. Firstly, I wanted to find out which types of terms have been the most challenging ones to translate. Secondly, I wanted to discover what translation strategies the translators had used to translate such terms. Thirdly, by analyzing the material based on these questions, I wanted to find out why these particular terms have been so challenging to translate.

To be able to answer the first research question, I divided the material into 2 sections based on whether the terms were related into on-ice occurrences, that is single game-related, or off-ice occurrences, that is concepts affecting in the background of the game. After this I constructed 10 categories altogether (5 on-ice, 5 off-ice) based on the similarities and unifying factors found between the terms. Overall there were more instances of challenging terms with the on-ice than off-ice terms. This must be partly caused by the fact that since the terms were collected from chapters that were wrapped around the theme of ice hockey and seemed to have the highest density of “hockey language” in them, these chapters undeniably consisted a great deal of descriptions from single games and happenings on ice.

From the on-ice categories, *shooting, scoring, and passing terms*, together with *action terms* proved to have been most challenging to translate, and these were also the largest categories overall. Then again, from the off-ice categories, the most challenging term types were *ice hockey league and level terms* and *game system and tactics terms*, of which the first one was also the second largest category overall together with action type terms.

After figuring out the most challenging term type categories, I needed to find out what translation strategies have been used to translate these most challenging term types; this allowed me to answer my second research question. There was naturally a great deal of variation between the translation strategies used in different most challenging term type categories, and each strategy, including *other strategies* and *error*, was used at least once. However, within these four challenging term type categories, especially *explicitation* was used considerably. It was the most used strategy in both of the most challenging off-ice term type categories, and second most used also with *shooting, scoring, and passing terms*. Since, according to Leppihalme (2001: 143), explicitation is used to make the target text more reader-friendly by removing potential problems caused by cultural differences, or to make the source-text meaning clearer for other reasons by replacing a ST word by another word or phrase, it is no wonder that it was also the most used strategy when translating challenging terms.

Other most used strategies with the most challenging type of terms were *semantic relation* and *transposition*. Semantically related words are quite useful as well, when talking about challenging terms caused by differences between the realities of two different cultures (Vehmas-Lehto 2010: 356–366). As mentioned before, if a translator is not able to think of an exact equivalent for a SL term, by using hyponyms and hypernyms, the translator may be able avoid this problem. Eventually, the words still share semantic features, and therefore the result translation could be seen as a partial equivalent for the original word. Then again, *transposition* becomes useful with situations where a word, for example a verb, does not exist in the TL as a verb. Munday (2012: 87) refers to this as obligatory transposition, and this type of transposition was present especially with instances in this material, where a change in the word class seemed to end up in a functional solution that did not change the overall meaning of the message.

I think it is also worth mentioning that the strategy categories of *synonymy* and *error* were strongly present in the translation of the most challenging type terms as well. Chesterman (1997: 102) states that synonymy is commonly used for stylistic purposes or simply just to avoid repetition, and in my opinion, this was usually the case with synonymy in the material of this thesis as well. Errors or mistranslations, however, are difficult to reason

without hearing the translators themselves. Partly the mistranslations seemed to be intertwined with especially difficult terms and terms that are deceitful by appearance, but many of the errors seemed simply to be careless mistakes.

Since ice hockey cultures and their realities between North America and Finland naturally have their differences, it was not a surprise that terms related to different levels and leagues, and systems and tactics proved out to be among the most challenging terms to translate. This also confirmed my assumption that cultural differences are among the most notable reasons that cause challenges in term translation in the specialized language of ice hockey. Most of the terms, especially off-ice terms, were concepts that do not exist in the Finnish ice hockey culture as such, and therefore it is challenging to find or invent an equivalent term for them. In these cases, translation on a lexical level can turn out to be impossible, and the translator may have to resort to other ways of expressing the same concept (Ingo 1990: 20–21). This was also what the translators had done with the terms concerning this study.

With the largest on-ice term type categories, however, challenges were caused also by differences between the languages. For example, for many English terms in the *shooting, scoring, and passing terms* and *action terms* categories, there did not exist natural complete equivalents in Finnish, which obviously had forced the translators to use alternative translation strategies with them. With action terms, it was also clear that some verb terms were derived directly from their original noun term form in English, which then again is not that common, or even possible in Finnish. It must be also stated that some of the challenges in both, on-ice and off-ice categories, were due to ambiguous and otherwise multifaceted terms.

As mentioned already, many of the terms in this material did not have an established equivalent term in Finnish ice hockey language, and therefore the challenges in their translation does not come as a surprise. A minor surprise was the fact that some of the English terms in the material did have an equivalent term in Finnish, but they were not used for some reason. This can be caused by the lack of time or knowledge of the

translator, but my conclusion of the matter is that in most of these instances, the Finnish equivalent term was excluded simply for stylistic reasons.

Overall, it must be stated that some of the challenges in the translation of terms must be due to the fact that neither of the texts represented a completely specialized text-type. Therefore, in many instances, the translators may have disregarded terminological aspect, that is using possible equivalents, and decided to focus more on the overall fluency and readability of the text. It is also possible that the publishers may have wanted to implement more generalized and explicated translations for specialized terms, so that the final product could be targeted to a wider audience. This would also explain why the strategies of *explicitation* and *semantic relation* was so strongly present in almost every term type category.

The most problematic issue during this MA thesis proved to be the lack of previous research conducted on this specific field of term translation in the field of ice hockey, along with the lack of specialized ice hockey dictionaries (from English to Finnish). Even though my theoretical framework about LSP, terminology, and translation strategies helped me analyze the material to some extent, most of the discussion about the actual terms, and their meaning and background, was based mainly on my own expertise on the field. Luckily, I was able to find some support for my argumentation from a few books about ice hockey and a Finnish sports dictionary, as well as the websites of the governing bodies of ice hockey in Finland, Canada, and USA.

I believe I could have added to the credibility of this thesis, for example, by using outside experts in the material collection (i.e. what can be counted as terms) and in the analysis of the translation choices. This could have been performed by conducting a usability test on readers with expertise from the field of ice hockey. Additionally, I could have conducted an interview with the translators, which would have helped me to answer which were the most problematic terms during the translation process and clarifying some of the translation choices made by the translators. However, due to the scope and restrictions of a MA thesis, these were excluded from the methods. In my opinion, with the methods used in this thesis, I was able to kick-start research about the ice hockey term

translation and hopefully this thesis will inspire more research to be conducted on the matter in the future.

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