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**Analýza návodových textů z hlediska
hodnocení kvality překladu**

(Diplomová práce)

**Analysis of Instructional Texts in the View
of Translation Quality Assessment**

(Master's Thesis)

Autor: Bc. Jana Hainová

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Vedoucí práce: Mgr. Jitka Zehnalová, PhD.

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam citované a použité literatury.

V Olomouci dne

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Table of Contents

1. INTRODUCTION.....	8
1.1 Technical translation and instructional texts – theoretical overview	8
1.2 Thesis objectives and organisation.....	11
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	13
2.1 Pragmatic texts.....	14
2.2 Specialised texts and translation	15
2.3 Technical and scientific texts	16
2.4 Technical texts and instructional texts	18
2.5 Translation of instructional texts for commonly used products	23
2.5.1 The translator of instructional texts.....	24
2.5.2 The target reader of instructional texts.....	25
2.5.3 Quality requirements for instructional texts.....	26
2.5.4 The implications of low quality translations of instructional texts	29
2.5.5 Challenges of translating instructional texts	30
2.6 Conclusion to the theoretical part	32
3. PRACTICAL PART	36
3.1 Assumptions	36
3.2 Method	37
3.3 Louise Brunette’s Model	38
3.3.1 Logic	39
3.3.2 Purpose.....	40
3.3.3 Context.....	40
3.3.4 Language norm.....	41
3.4 Analysis based on Brunette’s model	41
3.4.1 Notational conventions and comments regarding the examples	41

3.4.2	Logic	42
3.4.3	Purpose.....	51
3.4.4	Context.....	53
3.4.5	Language norm.....	58
3.5	Conclusion to the analysis	64
4.	CONCLUSION.....	70
	APPENDICES	73
	RESUMÉ.....	74
	REFERENCES.....	78
	Primary sources	78
	Secondary sources.....	79
	ABSTRACT	86

List of Abbreviations

BT	Back Translation
LSP	Language for Special Purposes
ST	Source Text
TT	Target Text
TQA	Translation Quality Assessment

List of Figures and Tables

Figure 1	Defect matrix (Kubánek and Molnár, 2012)
Table 1	ST and TT numbers, product types and TT word count
Table 2	Quantified data from the analysis

1. Introduction

1.1 Technical translation and instructional texts – theoretical overview

Instructional texts have not had a good reputation in terms of their quality. Indeed, as remarked by Byrne, “Despite the wide scale production of user-guides, it appears quantity has not translated into quality” (Byrne 2006b, 57). Paradoxically, however, quality of instructional texts can be considered an important issue when certain factors regarding the texts are considered.

For instance, Byrne (2007) provides a legal point of view, according to which translated instructional texts acquire a position on par with the original texts. It will not be far from the truth to claim that readers also treat the texts as originals. What is more, as observed by Byrne (2006b, 15), readers consult an instructional text in order to receive the information they need in order to perform a certain task. In other words, most readers approach the text at moments, when they feel unable to figure out a certain procedure by themselves. Last but not least, as Gamero (2001, 105) points out, instructional texts can also be considered to provide means of communication between the company and the target reader. They thus serve as an influential element in creating an overall image of the company.

In spite of the fact that quality issues in instructional texts can lead to serious consequences, there can also be encountered quite a few poor translations in the Czech context. Therefore, it is the task set out in the present Master’s thesis to analyse English to Czech translations of instructional texts for common appliances demonstrating various quality issues in order to shed some light regarding what constitutes a low quality translation in this context and perhaps provide some valuable points of view regarding the quality of instructional texts.

As for a theoretical viewpoint on technical translation in general, it has not always been a point of interest among theoreticians. Indeed, as noted by

Byrne (2006c, 1), technical translation as a field of study came as rather unappreciated in the past and was even considered to be the “ugly duckling of translation”. For instance, Schleiermacher (1813) quoted in Snell-Hornby (1988, 10–11) considered technical translation not deserving academic exploration for its ordinariness. That, however, does not mean that the field has been entirely excluded from scholarly attention. Especially nowadays, due to globalisation and technological development, technical translation has increased in volume including publications regarding this topic. As remarked by Byrne, “Technical translation has enjoyed something of a revival” (Byrne 2006c, 1). This can be seen as a natural response to the needs of the market. As asserted by Kingscott (2002, 247), 90% of the world’s translation production concerns technical translation. Despite the fact that according to Zethsen (1999), it might still be by some considered uninteresting and not requiring too much mental effort, technical translation has begun to be perceived as comprising of more than just a monotonous rendering of factual information.

One of the authors who published on the topic of technical translation is Maillot (1968), who focuses on scientific and technical translation. Similarly, Pinchuck (1977) in his publication provides characteristics of scientific and technical translation in general, commenting on issues such as technical and scientific text typology, grammatical structure, lexical aspects or relevant translation procedures. Other authors who study technical translation from various points of view are, for instance, Göpferich (1992), Wright & Wright (1993b) or Kingscott (2002). Some authors centred their attention towards technical translation with respect to style, such as Wright (1993), or Herman (1993), who concentrates on technical translation and related stylistic requirements, concision or correctness to name a few. Some viewpoints on technical texts and translation were also provided by Newmark (1981, 1988, 1991). Technical translation and related issues have also been discussed by Byrne (2006a, 2007).

Instructional texts in particular have been the focus of attention of Byrne (2006b, 2012), who apart from scientific and technical translation focuses on software manuals and more specifically on their usability. Gamero (2001), in her publication on scientific and technical translation, dedicates a whole part to an

analysis of a corpus of instructional texts from the perspective of sociocultural context or their structure, and attempts at their classification and depiction of related conventions. In addition, Kussmaul (1995) performs a study of instructional texts from a pragmatic viewpoint and draws conclusions relevant for the didactic environment, for instance, the need for students to acquire awareness of pragmatic dimensions such as style or the target readership.

As for Czech publications, one of the important contributors to the theory concerning instructional texts is Světlá, who in her publications focuses on instructional texts mainly in terms of style (see, for instance, Světlá 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c). Instructional texts were also treated by Kraus (1965). Furthermore, a certain theoretical account of instructional texts and their position within the level of style were provided by Čechová, Krčmová and Minářová (2008), and Mistrík (1997).

Quality requirements for technical texts viewed from different perspectives have been the concern of Byrne (2006b). Furthermore, Hansen (1997) focuses on the pragmatic aspect of technical brochures in particular and its importance in regard to quality. The importance of quality of instructional texts was also addressed by Gamero (2001), who in her publication also includes an analysis of defects on the level of text, grammar as well as orthography and further comments on the high frequency of defects in her corpus of instructional texts. Defective translations were addressed by Grijelmo (1998), who provides authentic examples of defective translations of instructions in Spanish. Byrne (2007) discusses the possible impact of low quality instructional texts.

1.2 Thesis objectives and organisation

Instructional texts represent a very common type of texts that are translated and their quality holds an important place. As observed by Zethsen (1999, 70), translation of instructional texts forms a significant part of the work of technical translators. What is more, as pointed out by Wright (1993, 71), these texts rank among the types of texts that require high quality content. They are also frequently translated due to globalisation and development of technology. Nevertheless, instructional texts and their translations in particular have been notorious for their low quality.

As mentioned by Drugan (2013, 35), the notion of quality has been a frequently discussed issue for its nature proves problematic to define. One of the reasons for this might be the fact that each text is linked to dissimilar quality requirements. For that reason, instead of quality it is perhaps more useful to focus on particular qualities that might be desirable in a particular type of texts and contexts.

As is the case with any other text type, instructional texts possess particular characteristics that also correlate with the requirements for their quality. Prior to proceeding to an analysis of defective translations of instructional texts, I will thus firstly focus on instructional texts from a theoretical viewpoint. This thesis is, therefore, divided into two main parts: theoretical and practical. In the theoretical part, I will perform a literature review in order to assess the research on the subject, providing a solid theoretical basis. In particular, I will seek to answer questions regarding classification of instructional texts within a broader category of texts. Furthermore, this part will serve to provide a description of instructional texts in terms of their characteristic features. What will also be of interest will be to find out what the quality requirements are for this type of texts and what possible implications defective translations of instructional texts might have. This part is thus intended to serve as a theoretical gateway to the practical part of the thesis. From the theoretical findings, assumptions will also be made that will underpin the second part of the thesis.

The purpose of the second, practical part will be to analyse poor quality Czech translations of five selected instructional texts for commonly used products. The objective will be to discover what kinds of defects can be considered to be the most detrimental to the overall quality of instructions of the selected type of texts. The translation quality assessment (TQA) model by Brunette (2000) has been considered to be relevant for the respective text type and therefore will be utilised in the analysis. The analysis is expected to provide some useful insights into the degree of seriousness of defects and their typology with respect to instructional texts. It is the aim of this thesis to characterise instructional texts and identify the features that might be relevant for translation quality. By analysing translations of instructional texts that demonstrate quality issues, the intention is to provide objective insights that might prove constructive and beneficial with regard to approaching translation quality.

2. Theoretical background

The present theoretical part of the thesis seeks to conduct a theoretical research in order to enlighten some questions related to instructional texts. The overall aim of this part is to become familiar with this particular type of texts so as to be able to utilise the acquired knowledge in the practical part.

More specifically, the purpose is to clarify the position that is held by instructional texts with regard to other text categories. I will thus begin with a general characterisation of instructional texts and proceed to their more detailed depiction. Specifically, I will attempt to describe instructional texts in relation to their function, the authors or the target readers. Furthermore, the aim is to learn about the basic features of instructional texts with a view to acquiring an understanding into the related quality requirements. In addition, this part seeks to identify the various possible implications that quality issues of instructional texts might have.

As for the organisation of this theoretical part, it will begin with a focus on a general characterisation of instructional texts, in particular, some definitions of pragmatic texts will be provided and then the focus will be directed towards the issues of specialised translation. This will then be followed by reviewing the issue of technical and scientific texts and the position of instructional texts within this categorisation. Next, instructional texts for commonly used products will be discussed with a focus on the author, translator, target reader, and quality related issues. Finally, the most relevant aspects ascertained in the theoretical part will be summarised.

2.1 Pragmatic texts

Instructional texts belong to what is referred to as pragmatic texts. According to Olohan (2009, 40), the term was firstly used by Casagrande¹, who used it to label texts with a predominant emphasis on the information they convey. Other denominations for this kind of texts exist, such as “instrumental texts” (Williams 2004, 162), or “general texts” (Brunette 2000, 170). Furthermore, according to Delisle (1980) as quoted in Roberts (1995, 69), the function of pragmatic texts is first and foremost informative as opposed to literary texts, which can be characterised by their predominant expressive or aesthetic functions. Similar distinction has also been made by Palumbo (2009, 89), who maintains that aesthetic function occupies a secondary position in pragmatic texts.

As far as the communicative situation of pragmatic texts is concerned, Roberts (1995, 73), in her proposed typology of texts, explains that “the general function of a pragmatic text is to be of «immediate practical use»”. A similar feature to that of Roberts is pointed out by Pinchuck (1977, 18), who characterises what he calls a “service text”: “Service texts are . . . the broad range of texts that are mainly utilitarian in nature and commonly aim at a short-term effect”. By the same token, House (1997, 15) talks about “texts of quick consumption”. Furthermore, Brunette (2000, 170) considers pragmatic texts to be “any contemporary non-literary documents intended for readers who share certain common interest but not necessarily specialized knowledge”.

The predominant informative value of pragmatic texts is one of the factors that influence translation requirements. Casagrande (1954) quoted in Olohan (2009, 246) comments on the requirements regarding translation approach to pragmatic texts and states that what is sought is primarily an efficient and accurate target text.

As apparent from the definitions provided above, many particular types of texts can be considered to be classified as pragmatic. These can be further

¹ According to Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, 129), pragmatic texts were by Casagrande presented as one of four categorisations of translations in 1954.

differentiated according to various criteria such as the degree of their specialisation. For instance, Roberts (1995, 78) further differentiates between pragmatic texts that are general and those that are specialised, which include texts from the domains of science and technology. As for concrete examples of pragmatic texts, Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, 129) list, among others, scientific treatises, government documents and instructions.

In essence, pragmatic texts can be considered to be an umbrella term for all texts that focus mainly on conveying information rather than providing an aesthetic pleasure to the reader. Therefore, it is required that they are translated with a focus on an accurate rendering of the information they convey. The term refers to texts that are supposed to serve an immediate function and are intended for a short term usage in practical situations.

2.2 Specialised texts and translation

Pragmatic texts from various specialised subject domains form a group of so called specialised texts. Translation of specialised texts, which is also known as LSP (Language for Special Purposes) translation, has been described by Byrne (2006c, sec. 2.1) as involving “specialised texts which use specialised language to communicate specialised knowledge. Such texts can include anything from legal texts, business communication, technical texts, medical texts, etc.” Similarly, Palumbo (2009, 108–09) perceives specialised translation as a general term covering translation of texts pertaining to various domains, excluding literary texts and performing arts texts. However, there is not a complete agreement on what precisely can be included within specialised translation. To be more specific, disagreement concerns views on the difference between specialised and technical translation.

Wright and Wright (1993a, 1) on the one hand, understand the term “specialised translation” as an alternative one to “technical translation”. In particular, they claim that “technical translation . . . encompasses the translation of

special language texts, i.e., texts written using Languages for Special Purposes (LSP)”. Wright and Wright (1) then go on to provide examples of texts that they believe fall within technical translation such as medical texts, engineering and legal texts. This view is also shared by Hervey (1995) quoted in Byrne (2006c, sec. 2.1), who includes “any specialist field” within technical translation.

On the other hand, one of the opponents of such approaches is Byrne (2006c, sec. 2.1), who claims that while this kind of classification might encourage further research into the field of technical translation, he also makes a point of emphasising that technical translation should be considered just a subcategory to LSP translation. Nevertheless, it is problematic to arrive at a clear conclusion as the boundaries between individual texts are not entirely defined.

2.3 Technical and scientific texts

Unclear boundaries also concern categorisation relating to technical and scientific texts. While they might be used in combination to cover a single group of texts, other approaches perceive scientific and technical texts as two distinct categories. According to Gamero (2001, 26), the perception of scientific and technical texts forming one body of texts is, at least in academic writings, very frequent. However, Gamero (26) further notes that the line between science and technology is not always clear.

The possible relationship between technical and scientific texts stems from the relationship between technology and science. This has been commented on by Pinchuck (1977, 13–14), who maintains that “the relationship between science and technology is one of symbiosis; they do interact but they are quite distinct spheres, with separate aims and motivations”. In other words, science and technology share common features, which are reflected in the relationship between technical and scientific texts. Nevertheless, there are also certain contrasting features that set them apart.

There are, for instance, distinctions regarding the subject matter. This has been discussed by Gamero (2001, 26), who claims that science provides theoretical knowledge while technology focuses on its application. Furthermore, Byrne (2006b, 7) claims that both scientific and technical texts “deal with information based, to varying degrees, on the work of scientists”. However, as observed by Pinchuck (1977, 218–19), the content of scientific texts is more conceptually complex and as a result a higher level of abstractness can be expected as opposed to a lower degree of conceptual complexity in the case of technical texts, which are also more dependent on external information. This is related to the linguistic features of the texts. According to Pinchuck (1977, 219), the language in technical texts can be expected to be more concrete and even containing items falling within the colloquial range. In the case of scientific texts, language can be expected to be far more varied according to the level of specialisation as well as purpose and other factors. In this matter, Byrne (2006b, 8) goes as far as to argue that the language of scientific texts may closely resemble that of literary texts since a broad range of linguistic tools is used in order to present the information but also to hold the reader’s attention or impress. Byrne (8) particularly names the various functions for which scientific texts are used, for instance, “discuss, explain, justify, impress, convey, convert or possibly entertain”. On the other hand, technical texts according to Byrne (9) serve to provide information and assistance to the target reader.

As for the communicative situations in which both texts occur, Gamero (2001, 28) rightly observes that scientific and technical texts are used to disseminate information across both specialist and general public. Gamero (28) further notes that although technical texts are not commonly used in situations where newly investigated information is presented, as is the case of scientific texts, the general scope of communicative situations is much wider in case of technical texts.

Overall, as emerges from the above characteristics of scientific and technical texts, they share features on various levels, which support the views according to which scientific and technical texts form one category. However, there are also various differences. Since instructional texts are commonly included

within the technical text domain, technical and scientific texts will be treated as forming two separate categories in this thesis. Consequently, in the following section, technical texts will be discussed before proceeding to a more specific view of instructional texts.

2.4 Technical texts and instructional texts

Technical texts as a category include texts as products of technical writing. The technical aspect of this type of texts has been considered by White (1996) quoted in Byrne (2006b, 47), who claims that it consists in their “utilitarian, specialised focus” and further defines technical writing as “communicating . . . specialised information in any field (particularly industry), read by technicians, technical managers, owner-operators of machines, and scientific researchers to perform a certain task”. However, to this Byrne (48) objects, maintaining that technical writing accounts for a much wider area, ranging from texts aimed at non-technical audiences, professionals in the field, as well as texts used for promotion and marketing. Similarly, as Gamero (2001, 37) contends, the target readership of technical texts can vary from engineers and technical workers to the general public.

Technical texts also appear in a wide range of situations serving various functions. As claimed by Gamero (2001, 35–37), the communicative situation of technical texts usually relates to industry, product manufacturing or services offered, with the intention mainly to describe or appeal to the reader, but most technical texts are, according to the author, multifunctional. As for the conventional technical documents, Newmark (1988, 151) lists for instance notices and publicity texts, while Byrne (2006b, 50–51) further adds reports or proposals for products and services.

Gamero (2001, 41) argues that there are various subgenres in technical texts, each with its typical characteristics. One such subgenre are instructional texts, which, as noted by Fernández-Parra (2008, 54), create a consistent

subcategory of technical texts as a result of particular shared features. Furthermore, Byrne (2006b, 51) claims that instructional texts represent one of the “mainstays of technical communication”.

As demonstrated by Ciliberti (1990) in her study of instructional texts, they can be extremely varied in nature with many different factors influencing the final form of the text. In addition, written instructional texts can be referred to by various denominations. By way of illustration, Byrne (2006b, 47) provides terms such as “user guide”, “user’s guide” or “manual”. Similarly, Gamero (2001, 78) provides various names for instructions in Spanish. In spite of the diversity, certain commonly occurring characteristics can be identified.

Instructional texts are according to Světlá (2002a, 190) considered to be text types that aim to guide the reader as to how something should be done. They are texts which are by Gommlich (1993, 178) referred to as “transbehavioral II”. These are defined by Gommlich (178) as texts that are to control the behaviour of the reader in accordance with a set of conventionally accepted guidelines. In the same vein, Hatim and Mason (1990, 156) view instructional texts as one specific text type, which, as they state, focuses on “the formation of future behaviour”. In addition, Paris and Scott (1994, 46) consider the function of instructional texts and claim that “instructions are aimed at conveying directions to perform a (set of) task(s)”. Furthermore, Světlá (2002a, 190) appoints a specific, instructional function to instructional texts, which she considers to be a dominant function in this text type. The overall communicative intention of the sender is thus, according to Světlá (2002b, 128), to provide the reader with procedural steps as to how to achieve an expected result.

As for the typical form of instructional texts, they are usually written. As a reason for this, Gamero (2001, 94) points out the need for the text to be available for a later consultation. Apart from this simple written form, instructional texts are also used as part of software documentation, in which case they may appear in an audiovisual format. Byrne (2006b, 52) mentions that the texts can appear in their simplest form as read-me files or as complex technical specifications. In addition,

Světlá (2001, 297–98) also mentions spoken forms of instructions, which can be utilised in the media such as television or radio.

Instructional texts can be considered to demonstrate a certain set of basic linguistic features. As mentioned by Světlá (2002b, 119), most linguistic stylists describe the basic features of instructional texts as stemming from the language of specialised texts. Světlá (2002b, 119) explains this by saying that instructional texts as a text type rest on specialised text types. As for particular examples of these features, Čechová, Krčmová and Minářová (2008, 212–22) name, for instance, clear arrangement, formal language exempt from connotative meanings or accuracy of expressions ensured by the use of terms. Similarly, Baakes (1994) as cited by Zethsen (1999, 2) mentions that there is typically no emotion or expressiveness in technical texts. To this, Kraus (1965, 38) also adds a general tendency towards comprehensibility.

Světlá (2001, 297) perceives instructional texts as independent structures, which are based on the stylistic technique of an instruction but also include other techniques such as a commentary or description. However, Světlá (298) further adds that as opposed to a simple description, instructional texts demonstrate a certain degree of dynamism, in which verbs and nouns play an important role. According to Světlá (2002b, 122), the texts can frequently demonstrate features of more styles. As maintained by Čechová, Krčmová and Minářová (2008, 241), instructions may share common features with administrative texts, particularly with respect to their common regulatory-operational features. Furthermore, Světlá (2001) also considers a shared ground between instructional texts and the publicist style. According to Světlá (2001, 302), if an instructional text is aimed at a specialised audience, the stylistic technique of explanation or description will mainly be used while, on the other hand, the more general the instructional text is, the more stylistic techniques will be combined with the use of enumeration, schemata or pictures. Additionally, Gamero (2001, 109) remarks that each section of an instructional text has its own specific function which is linked to the function of the text as a whole. By the same token, Paris and Scott (1994, 48), in their study of stylistic variations in instructional texts for consumer appliances, identified four different attitudes that can appear within one text; information

provision, eulogy (focus on positive aspects of the product), directive on how to perform a task, and explanation of the preferred means of achieving the task. On the other hand, as pointed out by Světlá (2002b, 122), despite the fact that instructions may be composed of various dissimilar styles, the whole texts are generally considered by readers to be an instruction because it is precisely the instructional aspect that the readers seek. Instructional texts can also appear as forming part of different styles. In particular, Světlá (2001, 297–98) mentions instructions which appear in newspapers or specialised magazines, handbooks and texts used in the administrative sphere.

Světlá (2002a, 190) differentiates between genres of instructions depending on the thematic field that they concern and provides three distinct kinds of texts. Firstly, Světlá (190) mentions texts in which the main aim is to advise as to how something should be used, followed by the second type, which is concerned with instructing the reader how to assemble something. Thirdly, instructional texts can, according to Světlá (190), provide information on how to reach a certain goal through gradual steps, as in the case of instructions for filling in a form.

As maintained by Byrne (2006b, 51), types of instructional texts can vary in content, format and audience. Their overall structure can also vary. Byrne (78) mentions, for instance, the target readers, their knowledge background, the tasks they are supposed to perform, and the complexity of the product in question as structure determining factors. Furthermore, Byrne (78) considers the structure of instructional texts to be of utter importance as it conditions a successful conveying of the information to the reader. Byrne (78) further provides four common structures of these texts, namely “Chronological, General-to-specific, Problem-Methods-Solution and Cause-Effect”. Světlá (2001, 301) maintains that logical sequencing of individual steps forms an essential element. Světlá (2002b, 123) further suggests that there is a hierarchic structuring of instructional texts, which positions individual sections according to their content and thematic independence, with the hierarchically highest section being considered the most independent and the most general one. One of the reasons for this structuring approach is, according to Byrne (2006b, 52), to ensure that any new piece of

information is provided with a sufficient explanation in order to avoid any confusion.

The logical structure of instructional texts can be ensured by linguistic as well as graphic means. According to Světlá (2002b, 123), numbers, headings, orientation expressions or explicit formulations can be utilised for the text structuring. Logical sectioning is further reflected in the division of the text into chapters or subchapters and the overall layout of the text. Gamero (2001, 109) provides examples such as the use of spaces. Bullet points are also utilised in order to create a logical structure in the text, especially in case of sequencing of individual steps. Furthermore, instructional texts, according to Světlá (2001, 298), demonstrate a tendency towards automatisisation. By the same token, Čechová, Krčmová and Minářová (2008, 42) describe instructional texts as having a tendency towards stereotypical language. In other words, instructional texts can usually be structured on the basis of a commonly used model with its typical formal features or linguistic means.

The author of instructions is, similar to the case of technical texts in general, a technical writer. The technical writer in case of instructional texts is, according to Gamero (2001, 93), an employee of the company that produces that particular product and whose identity is not reflected in the text. However, as further remarked by Gamero (93), the text does reflect the sender of the text, which is the company itself. To illustrate this point, introductory sections, in which the company introduces itself or in some cases thanks to the reader for having purchased the product, can be mentioned.

The major task of a technical writer producing an instructional text is, as stated by Gamero (2001, 102), to ensure a successful communication between a particular product on the one hand, and the user on the other hand. For this task, the person in charge must possess knowledge regarding various factors so that the final text is suitable for the particular situation in terms of medium, amount of necessary information, text organisation and other factors. In general terms, considering the overall communicative situation of the particular instructional texts is, as stated by Göpferich (2009, 34), an important quality determining

factor. As for the fundamental factors regarding audience that need to be taken into account when writing technical documentation, Byrne (2006b, 48) names, for example, “age profile, job, experience, knowledge”. Other determining factors have been provided by Ciliberti (1990, 309), who besides the target reader also mentions the nature of the respective product and its complexity.

Instructional texts can be differentiated according to the target audience. Gamero (2001, 88) mentions two main types, which are instructional texts aimed at the general public and texts intended for specialists. However, there is not a clear boundary between these two poles and instructional texts can take the form of simple instructions on packaging aimed at a general audience, more specialised assembly manuals, or even more domain-specific operation manuals intended for professionals in a given field. To illustrate this point, Gamero (87–93) focuses on instructional texts aimed at the general public, which she further divides into various subgenres according to the level of complexity of the subject matter. In particular, Gamero (91) presents six subgenres ranging on a scale from instructions for small domestic devices, such as a kettle, to more complex products, such as a car or a yacht.

2.5 Translation of instructional texts for commonly used products

As is apparent from the above characterisation of instructional texts, they can take on various forms, serve various functions and be aimed at different types of audience. Since the analytical part of the thesis is concerned primarily with instructional texts accompanying common consumer goods and thus aimed at the general audience, the following characterisation of instructional texts will concern this particular type.

Instructional texts for commonly used products typically occur in a situation after having purchased a particular product. They are usually attached to the product in some form such as a leaflet or, in the case of a more complex appliance, a booklet. The presupposed target reader of instructional texts for

commonly used products can be expected to be a member of the general public. It is most likely a person in search of information in order to be able to use a certain product. As remarked by Byrne (2006b, 52), such a person usually does not possess the knowledge necessary to perform a certain task and therefore consults the text with the expectations to learn the necessary information. What is more, Byrne (2006b, 51) also mentions a situation in which the target reader may not even be the actual user of that particular product and will only reach for the text in order to learn the steps that will lead to a successful repair of the product.

Instructional texts have formed an integral part of many products. This, according to Gamero (2001, 103), can be attributed mainly to marketing reasons since it is in the interest of the producer to make the products available to as many people as possible. As Gamero (103) reported, on the European scale, producers are obliged to include instructional texts in the language of the target user of the product since 1995. On this matter, Byrne (2007, 14) claims that the translations are subject to the legal system of the particular country and in this respect are considered in an identical way as texts produced in the original language. As a result, the quality of instructional texts is an important aspect that also influences the requirements placed on the technical translator.

2.5.1 The translator of instructional texts

As far as the role of the translator is concerned, there seem to be divergent opinions as to what is required from the translator. Newmark (1993, 146), on the one hand, does not feel translation of instructional texts to be overly demanding as he particularly claims that technical translation is “the easiest and perhaps the most tedious of any type of translation”. Byrne (2006b, 17) on the other hand, is of that opinion that the demands for a good translator are very close to those in case of technical writers, when he claims, “That the lines separating the role of technical translator and technical writer have become somewhat blurred is inevitable”. By the same token, Kingscott (2002, 248) mentions that translator’s responsibilities can sometimes become rather similar to those of a technical writer, especially if a technical error such as an inadequate rendering of numbers

can cause damage to the target user. The requirements for the translator are therefore also linked to the requirements regarding quality of the target text. Since these requirements are, according to Wright (1993, 71), rather demanding, it can be expected that they will be equally demanding in the case of the translator.

As Byrne (2006b, 16) remarks, good technical translators can be identified according to their ability to make sure the texts are readable and usable for the target reader – an ability usually expected from the technical writer producing the source text in the first place. By the same token, Hansen (1997, 197) also emphasises the importance of keeping the target reader in mind during the translation process.

2.5.2 The target reader of instructional texts

Instructional texts are target user-oriented texts. Indeed, focusing on the target reader has also been mentioned by Crystal and Davy (1969, 236) to be one of the main rules which govern the production of any set of instructions. Similarly, Byrne (2006b, 98) also considers the position of the target user to be central in this kind of communication. In addition, Hansen (1997, 197) emphasises the importance of keeping the target reader in mind and comments on the fact that this is not always taken into account by translators. This means that it is the target reader that needs to be in the focus of both the technical writer and the translator so that the text is as helpful as possible in the given situation and the target reader can achieve the intended task with minimal difficulties.

As stated by Markel (2012, 6), technical documentation and thus instructional texts “address particular readers”. The particular target reader of instructional texts for consumer goods is a member of the general public. Consequently, the knowledge presuppositions regarding the reader should not include any highly specialised knowledge and the information should be provided in such a way so as to be accessible to an average reader.

The expectations of the readers relate to their particular needs and the activity they wish to perform based on the text. The basic requirement of the readers has been expressed by Robinson (2003, 7), who contends that the need of the target reader is for the target text to be reliable. Robinson (7) specifies reliability as concerning the reader's "willingness to base future actions on an assumed relation between the original and the translation." This seems to be particularly valid in the case of instructions as the readers find themselves in a situation in which they rely on the text they are consulting to provide them with some advice. Consequently, the readers approach the instructional text in a specific way. As has been previously mentioned, the readers reach for the texts when they look for some particular information. This means that instructional texts are usually not read from the beginning to end. For instance, Světlá (2002b, 128) notes that the readers actively search for particular desired information that they expect the instructional text to provide. Another interesting point regarding the way instructions are approached by the target readers is that made by Göpferich (1995, 312–13), who states that the target readers do not focus solely on the text but simultaneously pay attention to the product and its usage as it is described in the instructions.

2.5.3 Quality requirements for instructional texts

Apart from the requirement to make the target text suitable for the target readership, other requirements can also be identified. First of all, there are certain legal requirements that the company responsible for the text is obliged to meet. In this respect, Gamero (2001, 105) mentions the requirement for comprehensibility and insurance of safety of the user that is compulsory under European law. To provide a particular example, the EU Resolution C411 (1998) requires product documentation to be clear and understandable as well as correct in terms of grammar. Furthermore, there are other standards and requirements that focus on particular areas of translation of product documentation (see, for instance, Byrne 2006b, 66–68).

Requirements in line with the legal ones have been suggested by various authors. Herman (1993, 11–19), for instance, names three central requirements; clarity, concision and correctness. Clarity, according to Herman (13–17), refers to grammatical or syntactic qualities of the text, the use of the right terminology, and ensuring cohesion by providing an appropriate level of repetition. As far as concision is concerned, Herman (17) states that in order for the text to reach concision, the translator may opt for reorganising the text in order for the reader to be efficiently taken “from section to section”. Finally, Herman (18–19) refers to correctness, which involves ensuring that there is no deviation from the ideas and technical terms present in the source text as well as typographical and grammatical correctness.

Göpferich (2009) states a few requirements that she labels as comprehensibility. In her model, comprehensibility comprises of several dimensions: concision, correctness, structure, simplicity, motivation and perceptibility (40). Concision according to Göpferich (40) requires just the right amount of information without the text being redundant or overly concise. Göpferich (42) particularly talks about four categories of possible violations of the requirement for concision, which regard missing or superfluous details, formulations that are longer than necessary, tautologies or redundancy. The next dimension of correctness regards shifts on the level of denotative meaning, and linguistic issues. The dimension of structure refers to the structure of the content. In this respect, Göpferich (44–46) points to aspects such as functional sentence perspective, and connecting sentences in a logical manner. In addition, Göpferich (46) comments on the position of conditional clauses and main clauses and expresses the need for users to be provided with the information in the same order as they need it. Simplicity is the next requirement and concerns qualities of the text on the lexical and syntactic level. Next is the dimension of perceptibility, which regards the layout of the text. Lastly, motivation is connected to the power of the text to sufficiently motivate the reader, which is a dimension that, according to Göpferich (43–44), does not concern most cases of instructional texts as such.

Wright (1993, 70) takes the stylistic aspect of technical texts into consideration and maintains that “documents must speak ‘the language’ of the

target audience and should resemble other texts produced within that particular language community and subject domain”. Wright (72) distinguishes four interacting levels of focus regarding quality that are, according to the author, imperative to take into account: situational, macrocontextual, microcontextual, and terminological unit level. Situational level, as described by Wright (72), regards the situation, in which the communication takes place. Macrocontext, according to Wright (72), relates to the structure of the text, particularly coherence. Local environment of terms falls within the microcontextual level, and last but not least, terminological unit level accounts for terms as single units (72).

Lastly, Světlá (2002a, 120) mentions clarity, comprehensibility, and an appropriate level of explicitness as the qualities the texts need to possess from the point of view of the reader. Furthermore, while conforming to textual conventions is also an important requirement when discussing the Czech instructions, Světlá (2001, 301–02) mentions the fact that they have been increasingly influenced by the translations of instructional texts.

Quality of instructional texts can also be viewed in terms of usability. Usability has been defined by Viezzi (2013, 385) as “producing a clear and well-presented target text, a text that is easy to follow and easy to understand”. Although this definition concerns interpreting, it can also be applied to the case of instructional texts. By the same token, Byrne (2006b, 97) perceives usability as an indicator of how well a text can help the target reader. Byrne (97–98) particularly provides the following definition expressed in ISO 9241-11, “The extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals with effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction in specified contexts”. Despite the fact that this definition is primarily intended to refer to human-computer interaction, the essence of that definition seems to be relevant for instructional texts too. In the context of instructions, the intended goal of the target reader may be, for instance, successfully learning how to use or set up a specific product. Furthermore, Williams (2004, 131) notes that in order for the text to be usable, it should not contain major errors. Williams (1989, 24) defines major translation errors as follows, “the complete failure to render the meaning of a word or group of words conveying an essential part of the message of the document”.

Overall, the function of the text and the expectations of the readers impose a certain degree of standards on the quality of instructional texts. Certain standards are required by law, which specifies the particular requirements with respect to the presupposed target reader. Frequently quoted requirements concern, for instance, clarity, accuracy, and comprehensibility. The requirements can also be in general terms referred to as usability, which involves the efficiency of the text to provide the relevant information to the target readers in order for them to reach their required goals.

2.5.4 The implications of low quality translations of instructional texts

There are several reasons why translators should strive to produce quality translations of instructional texts. The motivation is influenced by various factors, stemming not only from legal requirements but also from a possible unfavourable impact of translations displaying various kinds of shortcomings and thus considered defective.

As has been mentioned earlier, considering the target reader is of utter importance when producing an instructional text as well as during the translation process. This is among other reasons due to the fact that the readers are in a situation in which they rely on the text. Moreover, as Byrne (2006b, 15) contends, “. . . many people treat translations not as translations but as original target language texts. This is unless, of course, there is some quality issue within the text which identifies it as translation in which case the user will probably lose much, if not all, trust in the text”. What is more, as further pointed out by Byrne (60), not only is the reader’s trust in the text damaged, what can also be affected is the reader’s trust in themselves. Furthermore, a defective text can lead to an injury of a person or property damage, or damage incurred to the product. In this respect, Byrne (52) considers the capacity of the text to prevent the reader from creating dangerous situations leading to serious consequences as one of the principal aims of instructional texts.

What should also be mentioned is the fact that the text provides means for the company to present itself. The text not only serves as an instrument for the target reader, there is a particular company that is addressing the user and creating an image. Indeed, as Wright (1993, 70) maintains, “In the modern commercial/industrial environment, high quality documentation implicitly communicates an overall commitment to high quality products”. Similarly, Gamero (2001, 105) argues that instructional texts serve also as a marketing instrument creating an image of the brand. This leads to the texts holding importance not only for the target readers but also for the company. A defective text may lead to the consumer not trusting the text, the product, and the whole company. Owing to a negative experience, the consumer may decide to choose a different company the next time they wish to make a purchase. Apart from a negative image, it can also impact the company with regard to financial matters. As remarked by Byrne (2006b, 65), complaints as well as cases of users damaging the product and consequently requiring compensation can also be the impact of low quality texts.

In general, a defective text can have a negative impact on various levels. Apart from legal ramifications, it may lead to the reader being unable to complete a required goal. It may be the cause of subsequent damage or the emergence of a dangerous situation placing the reader’s health at risk. Defective translations may also have an impact on the image of the company or lead to a financial damage.

2.5.5 Challenges of translating instructional texts

While instructional texts may by some be considered one of the easiest types of texts to translate (see, for instance, Newmark 1993, 146), there may be identified quite a few challenging aspects. These, as remarked by Gamero (2001, 85), can subsequently impact the final quality of the target text. It is the purpose of this section to focus on some of the aspects that might impede the achievement of what would be considered a high quality translation of an instructional text.

From a general point of view, with the growing market and globalisation, texts that are used as source texts for translations might in fact also be translations. This has been pointed out by Gamero (2001, 103–04), who mentions that cases where translations are performed via an intermediary text (i.e. for instance from Japanese to English, and subsequently from English to other languages) can be one of the factors that have a negative impact on the translation as a final product.

Another issue concerning the point of departure for the translation concerns the quality of the source text. Hansen (1997, 195) mentions source text quality issues as one of the factors that should be taken into consideration when translating technical brochures and provides examples of defects such as linguistic shortcomings or cumbersome formulations. Despite the fact that, as remarked by Brunette (2000, 174), a defective source text should not be considered to be a valid excuse for a defective translation, it does make the work of the translator more complicated than it might be.

As for more specific features of instructional texts, what can pose challenges to the translator is for instance the intersemiotic aspect of some instructional texts. As pointed out by Tercedor-Sánchez (2009, 143), images form part of technical texts in general and their relationship with the texts are such that the overall comprehension of the text closely depends on the interaction between the two sources of message. One such case can, for instance, be the verbal message complemented with graphics such as pictures or diagrams in order to make the overall text more understandable and clear. As a result, a certain degree of dependence between these two types of signals can be expected, which should be taken into account during the translation process.

Another aspect is related to the formal level and regards the space designated for the message. As pointed out by Gamero (2001, 104), frequently, the manuals in various languages are not produced as single texts but rather as a whole document containing more language versions, with each version having its determined place and features, such as length. As a result, the translator is faced with spatial restrictions that need to be reflected in the translation approach.

In addition, there are certain intercultural aspects that might prove problematic. Errors on the intercultural level can, according to Gamero (2001, 104), concern inadequate renderings of culture specific symbols but also culture specific contexts or points of view. This might also concern text-specific conventions that are set by the particular culture, such as ways of addressing the reader. In this respect, Kussmaul (1995, 82–83) mentions the practicality of knowledge of pragmatic dimensions. Furthermore, Gerzymisch-Arbogast (1993) also points out cultural differences in information packaging, which by way of illustration can include providing examples, the aspect of redundancy, or the degree of formality.

What might also be important for the translator to take into account during translation concerns the structuring of the message characteristic of the instructional texts, and the reading approach of the readers. In particular, Byrne (2006b, 20) points out the fact that readers do not read the text as a whole unit but rather search for something in particular. The individual sections thus function as independent units, which is something that should be taken into consideration by the translator. Furthermore, as suggested earlier, not only can each section function independently, the sections can also differ in style, as has been investigated by Paris and Scott (1994). Consequently, the translator should be aware of the different stylistic conventions of the various parts.

2.6 Conclusion to the theoretical part

This theoretical part served as a general introduction to the topic of instructional texts. Its aim was to gain insight into the area of instructions regarding their classification, kinds, basic features, and last but not least quality-related issues. The acquired knowledge regarding instructional texts will now be summarised.

From a broad point of view, instructional texts are classified within pragmatic texts. The common feature of pragmatic texts is their focus on conveying factual information. Furthermore, they invariably serve in practical

situations and thus can be said to be utilitarian texts. Based on this, multiple texts can be included within this category varying in the situation in which they are used, their purpose, domain, and many other aspects. Pragmatic texts regarding a certain specialist field are referred to as specialised texts.

Specialised texts serve to communicate specialised knowledge. Therefore, legal, medical but also technical texts may be included within this category. It should also be noted, however, that some authors regard specialised texts as forming part of a wider category of technical texts. Technical texts are also often considered to correlate with scientific texts. The common ground of technical and scientific texts lies, for instance, in their connection to science and technology. Unlike most scientific texts, however, technical texts focus mainly on the practical application of knowledge. They are considered to be products of technical writing and their target readers can vary with respect to their expertise. As for instructional texts, they are claimed to form a subcategory of technical texts.

Instructional texts are very commonly translated and they are even said to form one of the pillars of technical communication. They classify as a solid subcategory, although there are many different instructional texts varying for instance in form, structure, length, content or the presupposed target readership. They are generally used to provide information and to instruct the readers in how to perform a certain task. They are commonly utilised in practical situations; they provide information that is then practically applied. A common ground with specialised texts can be perceived in the way the information is provided; there is a tendency towards clarity, comprehensibility and logical structuring of information. In this respect, a certain degree of automatised can also be identified.

Nevertheless, attempting to achieve what would be considered a high quality translation of instructional texts can sometimes prove problematic due to various factors. Working with an intermediary or a defective source text can stand in the way of a high-quality translation. In addition, a combination of verbal and non-verbal communication channels or culture specific features can also add to the difficulty of translating instructions.

One of the reasons why quality of translations of instructions is so essential is the fact that the impact of low quality translations can be of various kinds, including serious cases. What is at stake is the image of the company, the trust of the readers, but also the success in completing the intended task. In addition to this, low quality translations can cause damage to the product or even injury. Ensuring that the message is communicated clearly can also spare the company from unnecessary expenditures.

The author of instructional texts is usually a technical writer, whose task is to ensure a successful communication. In order to achieve that, the writer should be acquainted with certain aspects regarding the communicative situation in order to select the most suitable approach. These requirements also regard the translator, whose role is sometimes considered to resemble that of a technical writer.

The translator should be aware of the presupposed target readers and consider them with respect to the complexity of the product. An awareness of instruction-writing conventions is also important. The task of the translator is to ensure that the text fulfills the basic requirements for instructional texts. In case of instructions for commonly used products, the translator should, for instance, ensure suitability of the target texts for an average reader from the general public. The text should fulfill requirements for clarity, comprehensibility, cohesion, as well as compliance with stylistic conventions.

The target readers rely on instructions and invariably consult them when they need it, as opposed to other texts that might be read for personal pleasure. Instructions are consulted with a certain expectation in mind with regard to what the readers wish to find and learn. Furthermore, it is common for the readers to perform some other task while reading the text. Instructional texts can be considered to function as a tool and therefore usability of this tool can be assumed to be the main quality requirement. What can be postulated from this is that if some defects occur in the text, the readers will mostly be concerned with those that limit them from fulfilling their personal aims. It might further be assumed that such defects will mostly regard clarity or comprehensibility of the text, and will therefore be considered the most serious by the target readers. It will be the

purpose of the subsequent, practical part, to analyse defective translations in order to shed light on the kinds of defects that may occur in the texts and what degree of seriousness they might imply.

3. Practical part

In the present practical part of the thesis, the focus will be on assessment of five Czech translations of instructional texts for commonly used products that display various kinds of defects. Through an analysis of the defects, I intend to learn more about their nature and their possible impact on the overall quality of the texts.

3.1 Assumptions

In the subsequent analysis, selected Czech translations of instructional texts displaying a variety of defects will be subjected to analysis. Based on the characteristics of instructional texts obtained in the theoretical part, I will analyse the defects in relation to the quality requirements concerning this type of texts. More specifically, I wish to focus on their seriousness and possible impact on usability. I selected the notion of usability to be the most relevant criterion for the quality of translations of instructional texts due to the fact that instructional texts are above all intended to be usable tools for practical situations. Usability also includes the readers into consideration, who constitute an essential element in the context of instructions. As a point of departure, I selected the definition provided by ISO 9241-11 (1998), which defines usability as follows, “The extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals with effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction in specified contexts”. Although the definition is not primarily intended to be used within the context of instructional texts, I consider it to be broadly applicable in this case as well. Furthermore, prior to the actual analysis, I make the following assumptions:

- Since instructional texts can be perceived as tools and are meant to provide the reader with information presented in a suitable way, I presume that usability of this type of texts will mainly concern coherence of the text.

- With respect to the previous assumption, I further assume that certain defects will be more detrimental to usability and thus more relevant to the target readers than other defects.
- I expect linguistic defects such as spelling, punctuation or grammatical issues to be the least relevant to usability since they will not impact coherence to such an extent.

3.2 Method

The target texts will be analysed in order to find out the problematic cases that might cause the texts to be considered defective. The target texts are Czech translations produced from English source texts as confirmed by contacting the respective companies. The entire target texts will firstly be analysed and cases considered problematic will be highlighted. In order to be able to better determine the nature of the defects and their possible cause, I will also consult the source texts. As a framework, the model of target text quality assessment by Brunette (2000) will be utilised. This model, comprising of four assessment parameters, will serve as a guideline for identifying the defects. I expect that there will be various kinds of defects pertaining to each of the parameters. Therefore, I will attempt to provide a review of these defects through illustrative examples from the texts. Each example will be accompanied by a commentary. The purpose of the commentary will be to provide a broader context of the defects and to discuss their typology with regard to their nature, qualities, and possibly the degree of seriousness.

As for the method of data collection, the aim was to collect translations of instructional texts for commonly used products that displayed a set of quality issues. The method of data collection comprised of collecting instructional texts based on negative reports from the target readers themselves. The texts were mainly provided in a printed form by target readers, who had a practical experience with the texts and felt they demonstrated some quality issues.

The selected texts are aimed for commonly used products, which are portable speaker, alarm-clock, breadmaker, slow-cooker, and sports watch. The texts were produced from English source texts. I am aware of the fact that the source texts could also be translations or they could also display certain quality issues. However, my aim is to analyse the target texts from the point of view of their usability for the target readers and for this reason, the quality of the source texts is not my primary concern. What follows is a table with numbers assigned to each source text (ST) and target text (TT) with reference to the respective products and word count. The assigned number will be used to refer to the respective texts in the following analysis.

Table 1 ST and TT numbers, product types and TT word count

ST, TT number	Product type	TT words
1	portable speaker	1525
2	alarm clock	1394
3	breadmaker	8359
4	slow cooker	5794
5	sports watch ²	5601

3.3 Louise Brunette's Model

The TQA model developed by Brunette (2000) has been selected as a yardstick for the quality assessment of the selected translations of instructional texts. The reason for selecting this particular model is that it is aimed at pragmatic texts in general. As discussed in the theoretical part, instructional texts are included within pragmatic texts and therefore it represents a relevant model for this type of texts.

² While the four preceding texts were analysed in their complete forms, TT 5 had the highest word count and only section with instructions was analysed in this case. The word count of this analysed section is provided in the table.

It is also reasonable to assume that instructional texts function as original texts in the target culture and therefore it is appropriate to apply this model to the analysis of the target texts. Furthermore, while the model is considered to be sufficiently general in order to prove useful for the quality assessment of the selected type of texts, the intention is also to apply it with a view to learn how and to what extent it might be applicable to the evaluation of the selected texts. This, practical part of the thesis will therefore also serve as a testing ground for the applicability of the model in relation to instructional texts in particular. The model is expected to provide an objective guideline as to the possible categorisation of defects and their impact. The model consists of four assessment criteria: logic, purpose, context and language norm. In what follows, each criterion will be briefly described.

3.3.1 Logic

The first parameter of the model is logic, which is, according to Brunette (2000, 174), the most important of all parameters. It concerns only the assessment of the target text since it is the point of view of the reader that is of the assessor's interest. The assessment of logic is related to textual parameters of coherence and cohesion. The assessor should not reach a conclusion based on a single case of a quality issue, but rather evaluate the text based on the way in which the text forms an effective means of communication, paying attention to discrepancies that may be reoccurring. Brunette (175) provides the following definitions of what she understands by logic, coherence and cohesion:

Logic – A quality of a text rigorously constructed in terms of form and content. Logic depends on coherence and cohesion.

Coherence – Continuity of the meaning of a text from one idea to another and plausibility of such meaning.

Cohesion – Linguistic means used to ensure continuity of the form and content of a text.

3.3.2 *Purpose*

This parameter evaluates the text in terms of the degree to which it is appropriate for the intended purpose. It also consists of two constituents: the intention of the author and the effect on the reader. The task of the assessor here is to evaluate to what degree the text serves the intended purpose. Unlike in the case of the parameter of logic, it is necessary to also focus on the source text so that the assessor is aware of the intended purpose of the source text in the first place. Brunette (176–177) provides the following definition of the components that constitute this parameter:

Intention – What is sought by the initiator of the work or the author of the original, e.g. to announce, tell, inform, explain, discuss, recommend, show. It is the ACTION aspect of communication.

Effect – What the initiator of the translation wishes to produce on the target audience, e.g. interest, astound, convince, move, are reflected in the tone. It is the REACTION aspect of communication.

3.3.3 *Context*

This parameter consists of various components that regard the presupposed knowledge of the intended target reader, the situational context regarding the author, and time and place of the production of the text. Other components to be considered are, for instance, sociolinguistic situation or ideological circumstances behind the text production. The assessment of context consists of an analysis of the communication context of the target text, which is considered to function as an original text. What follows is a shortened definition of context as provided by Brunette (178–179):

Context – Non-linguistic circumstances surrounding the production of the discourse assessed.

3.3.4 *Language norm*

Last but not least, there is the parameter of language norm. The aim in this case is to assess any sign of linguistic interferences of the source language that might be present in the target text. Brunette (179) makes a point of noting that errors that can be easily rectified by computerised tools should not form part of the assessment. The reason for focusing on the linguistic interferences is, according to Brunette (179), the fact that it is the way in which the translator stays immune to the pressure created by the source language that reflects the translator's competence. Brunette (180) defines language norm as follows:

Language norm – The rules and conventions of a language set out in authoritative works (e.g. grammar books, dictionaries of language difficulties, spelling standards, standardization notices, style guides, writing books). NOTE: In translation assessment, language norm is applied almost exclusively to language interference.

3.4 Analysis based on Brunette's model

3.4.1 *Notational conventions and comments regarding the examples*

Each of the four parameters is illustrated by authentic examples from the analysed data. The parameters are presented in the same order as provided by Brunette, i.e. logic, purpose, context and language norm. For reference purposes, some conventions are used in this thesis. Each example is numbered in an ascending order and information is provided with regards to the source and target text and their assigned number. Source text and target text are referred to as ST and TT. Each example consists of contextual information, a segment from the target text and its source text counterpart. Should a longer stretch of text be required in order to provide more context, with some information deemed not so relevant for the particular example, omission of such information will be indicated by “[...]”. In order to highlight the defect in focus, back translation (referred to as BT) forms

part of the examples. Each example is then be followed by a commentary provided with a number identical to the example in question. The problematic items in focus are highlighted in the examples by underlining. Considering the quality of the analysed texts, some examples might display various defects. In such cases, I comment mainly on the defects relevant to the respective parameter or, if need be, an additional commentary is included below referred to as “further comments”.

3.4.2 *Logic*

Defects related to the parameter of logic impacted accuracy and completeness of the information provided. The defects ranged from causing the text to completely fail to provide the required information, to a reduced reading comfort. In other words, they impacted the capacity of the text to fulfil its purpose to a varying degree. While in some cases the cause of the defect was not entirely clear, in other cases, the defects seemed to have proceeded from source language interference. A relation of the parameter of logic and language norm could thus be identified. In addition, certain defects could only be detected on the basis of a close comparison of the source text and target text as they were otherwise not explicitly revealed from the target text assessment. Such defects were usually related to information omission.

Example 1 (ST, TT 5)

Context: The user is supposed to select from four available activity levels in order to accommodate the sports watch according to his or her personal needs. The segment provided here forms part of a set-up sequence.	
ST: If <u>you participate regularly</u> in recreational sports or <u>do</u> physical work, and your weekly exercise is:	TT: Jestliže <u>se pravidelně neúčastníte</u> rekreačních sportů nebo <u>děláte</u> fyzicky namáhavou práci a vaše týdenní cvičení je:
BT: If (you) regularly <u>do not participate</u> (in) recreational sports or do physically demanding work and your weekly exercise is:	

Commentary 1

In this example, the defect consists in the form of the verb *neúčastníte*, which is as opposed to *participate* in the source text in a negative form. As a result, the cohesion between the clauses, which is present in the source text, is broken. The contrast of the verbs *neúčastníte* – *děláte* impairs logic of the message.

Example 2 (ST, TT 2)

Context: This segment comes from the final section of the instructions regarding precautions. In the instructions, it appears in the form of an individual bullet point.	
ST: Please note that some units <u>are equipped</u> with a battery safety strip. Remove <u>the strip</u> from the battery compartment before first use.	TT: Všimněte si, že některá zařízení <u>nejsou vybavená</u> bezpečnostním páskem baterií. Před prvním použitím <u>odstraňte tento</u> ochranní pásek z prostoru pro baterie.
BT: Note that some devices <u>are not equipped</u> (with) a safety strip (of) batteries. Before first use remove <u>this</u> safety strip from the space for batteries.	

Commentary 2

A similar case to that in the previous example is provided here. An affirmative verb from the source text (are equipped) became negative in the target text (nejsou vybavená). In the source text, there is a logical connection between the two sentences ensured by the anaphoric use of a definite article *the*. This logical tie, however, is broken in the target text due to the added negative form.

Further comments: What might also be considered is the word order of the sentence *Před prvním použitím odstraňte tento ochranní pásek z prostoru pro baterie*. Given that the information about the safety strip is retrievable from the preceding sentence, it might be suggested that in order to increase cohesion of the message, *tento ochranní pásek* should be preceding the verb *odstraňte*. The example also contains a typographical error in the word *ochranní*.

Example 3 (ST, TT 2)

Context: Closing precautions, the reader is advised as to how to dispose of the product in question. The fragment is presented as an individual bullet point.	
ST: When disposing of this product, ensure it is <u>collected separately for special treatment</u> .	TT: Při likvidaci starého zařízení zajistěte jeho <u>správnou likvidaci</u> .
BT: During disposing (of) old device ensure its <u>correct disposal</u> .	

Commentary 3

This example illustrates a case of a significant omission of information. While in the source text, the reader learns that the product should be collected separately, this information is completely omitted in the target text. Furthermore, the tautological advice in the target text causes an unintended comical effect instead of providing useful information.

Example 4 (ST, TT 5)

Context: This example forms part of a description of what can be seen on the display of the sports watch.	
ST: Field 1 displays the seconds and <u>tenths of a second</u> ,	TT: Pole 1 zobrazuje sekundy a <u>desítky sekund</u> ,
BT: Field 1 displays seconds and <u>tens</u> of seconds,	

Commentary 4

A meaning shift leading to nonsense is illustrated in the example above, where *tenths of a second* were translated as *tens of seconds*. The information results in being inaccurate and possibly also comical.

Example 5 (ST, TT 5)

Context: Part of a description of settings regarding the sports watch. The reader is provided with an enumeration of what can be set up in general settings.	
ST: The GENERAL settings define measurement units, time and date format, <u>as well as button tone use</u> .	TT: GENERAL (OBECNÁ) nastavení určují jednotky měření, formát času a data <u>jako použitý tón tlačítka</u> .
BT: GENERAL (GENERAL) settings determine units (of) measurement, format (of) time and date <u>as used tone (of) buttons</u> .	

Commentary 5

The present example illustrates a case of nonsense that fails to provide the required information. While the connector *as well as* functions to express the relation of addition in the source text, *jako* in the target text lends itself to various possible interpretations and thus causes the information to be misleading and inaccurate. It is not clear how *použitý tón tlačítka* relates to the preceding information.

Example 6 (ST, TT 2)

Context: Section of the alarm clock instructions which is supposed to provide help as to how to silence the alarm. It forms part of a sequence of individual steps.	
ST: Press SNOOZE to silence it for 8 minutes OR Press <u>any other</u> key to turn the alarm off and <u>activate it again after 24 hours.</u>	TT: Stisknutím SNOOZE posunete budík o 8 minut NEBO Stisknutím <u>kteréhokoliv</u> tlačítka vypněte budík a <u>opětovně bude aktivní o 24 hodin.</u>
BT: (By) pressing SNOOZE (you) move alarm (clock) for 8 minutes OR (by) pressing <u>any button</u> (you) turn off alarm (clock) and <u>again (it) will be active for 24 hours.</u>	

Commentary 6

In some cases, the quality of the text fragments was such that the disturbed logic was a result of a combination of defects. The example above illustrates a case of information omission with the exclusion of *other* in the target text. While the button SNOOZE is excluded from the selection (*any other button*) in the source

text, the reader of the target text is advised to press *any* button, i.e. including SNOOZE. Furthermore, the reading comfort is also disturbed by the unusual use of the preposition *o* (*24 hodin*), which hinders the clarity of the sentence.

Further comments: What might also be considered is the ambiguity of the Czech word *budík*, which may refer to the acoustic function of the device but also to the clock as the object. The latter in combination with the verb *posunete* might also be a cause of an unintended comical effect.

Example 7 (ST, TT 4)

Context: This is an extract from a recipe that is included as part of the instructions for use of a slow cooker.	
ST: Use browning / sealing function <u>to</u> <u>brown</u> all sides of beef.	TT: Použijte funkci opečení / zatažení ze všech stran hovězího.
BT: Use function browning / sealing from all sides of beef.	

Commentary 7

While it might be possible to comprehend what the message in the example above conveys, the verb *to brown* seems to be missing in the TT thus negatively affecting the continuity of the sentence. The cumbersome nature of the sentence might also create an unintended comical effect.

Example 8 (ST, TT 3)

Context: The reader is advised as to how to proceed when using the breadmaker. In the text preceding this example, the reader learns how to switch the device on and start a specific baking function. The reader is now advised what to do when the baking/jam making process has been started.	
ST: It is advised that you <u>check</u> the condition of the bread or jam after 10 minutes and at 10 minute intervals.	TT: Doporučuje se <u>kontrolovat</u> stav chleba nebo džemu po 10 minutách a v 10minutových intervalech.
BT: It is recommended to <u>(regularly) check</u> the condition of the bread or jam after (every) 10 minutes and at 10 minute intervals.	

Commentary 8

The source text advises the reader to check the breadmaker after ten minutes once the baking/jam making process has begun and subsequently check it regularly every ten minutes. This, however, is not clear from the target text . The reason for this is the verb *kontrolovat*, which uses the imperfective aspect thus suggesting regularity of the activity. The information regarding the device being checked after ten minutes of being put into operation is thus lost and the segment is redundant; there seems to be no difference between *kontrolovat po 10 minutách* and *kontrolovat v 10minutových intervalech*.

Example 9 (ST, TT 1)

Context: Section with frequently asked questions. The example provided here is one of the questions and answers.	
ST: There is no sound when playing music under the MP3 mode? Ans: [...] Check that the SD card is has been inserted correctly. Check that the SD card has stored supported media files in it. Ensure <u>the SD card is not HC class 6 and above</u> .	TT: Není slyšet žádný zvuk při přehrávání! Odpověď: [...] Zkontrolujte, zda je dobře zasunuta SD karta a jsou na kartě soubory. Ujistěte se, že <u>není karta SD HC třídy 6 a vyšší</u> .
BT: (It) is not heard any sound when playing! Answer: [...] Check if is well inserted SD card and are on the card <u>files</u> . Ensure is <u>not card SD HC class 6 and higher</u> .	

Commentary 9

I would like to comment on the unusual word order of *není karta SD HC třídy 6 a vyšší*, which primarily drew my attention during the analysis for its lack of cohesive tie with the previous part of the text. The sentence begins with a negative form of the verb, which is only then followed by *karta* despite the fact that the latter is fully retrievable from the previous context. Therefore, the retrievable information should precede the verb in order for the sentence to remain cohesive.

Further comments: While my attention was drawn to this example primarily due to the issues described above, based on the comparison with the source text, I encountered another problematic segment that might perhaps be considered to be more serious as it leads to a certain amount of omission of relevant information: *playing music under the MP3 mode – při přehrávání* or

supported media files – soubory. In case of problems with playing music from the device, the consumer may not be able to figure out the problem from the instructions as relevant information regarding the type of files and their suitability for the respective device became lost.

3.4.3 Purpose

The parameter of purpose seemed to form part of the other three parameters since every defect impacted the potential of the text to fulfil its purpose to a certain degree. This was especially clear in case of defects which involved information omissions or reduced coherence of the text. As an illustration, Example 1 can be considered. In this case, the purpose of this particular text fragment in the source text is to provide the consumer with information necessary for the product to fit the consumer's needs. It can be assumed that the same purpose will also be in the case of the target text. However, the target text fragment becomes a nonsense as a result of the described defect. Therefore, the target text fragment fails to fulfill its purpose as a result of affected logic of the text.

Furthermore, some cases might create expectations on the part of the target readers that have not been originally intended. Such case is represented in Example 13 below. In this case, not only does the name of the recipe create different expectations, it is also not cohesive with the remaining part of the recipe. In addition, many of the defects identified in the instructions proved to be prone to creating an additional, unintended effect of the text, particularly a comical one. As an illustration, Example 10 is provided below.

Example 10 (ST, TT 1)

Context: The user has a possibility to use a cable to connect multiple speakers together. The user is being informed about this possibility.	
ST: With this feature, you can now combine your X-mini HAPPY Capsule Speaker together <u>with your friends</u> '.	TT: Díky této nové funkci můžete kombinovat Váš X-mini HAPPY <u>s Vašimi přáteli</u> .
BT: Thanks (to) this new function (you) can combine your X-mini HAPPY <u>with your friends</u> .	

Commentary 10

The example from the source text states that the user has a possibility to combine his or her speaker with the speakers belonging to his or her friends. The possessive case, which is in the source text expressed by using an apostrophe above *friend*, is not expressed in the TT. Consequently, the TT suggests that the speaker can be combined with the friends, which leads to an additional comical effect.

Further comments: What might also be considered is the translation of *feature* as *funkce*, since the idea is to connect a number of speakers together using a cable. Translating it as *funkce* might be considered to be misleading as it refers to a more abstract notion. Furthermore, the example also illustrates a case in which the target text does not utilise the means provided by the target language, namely the reflexive pronoun.

3.4.4 Context

Instructional texts deal mainly with factual information and therefore I did not expect to find many examples of defects that would be classified within the parameter of context. In spite of this, recipe sections forming part of instructions for kitchen appliances proved to be particularly critical for translation in this respect. The problematic cases involved ingredients or names of dishes. Since such defects had an impact on both coherence and cohesion of the text, this parameter was considered to also be related to logic. A limitation of the fulfilment of the purpose of the text was also clear in this case. Defects of this kind might also result in creating different expectations on the part of the reader. In some cases, the source of these defects was considered to be source language interference. In other cases, an inappropriate approach to the pragmatic dimension of the text was deemed to be the cause.

Example 11 (ST, TT 3)

Context: One of the ingredients listed in a recipe for making bread.	
ST: Fast action yeast	TT: Rychle působící droždí
BT: Fast action yeast	

Commentary 11

In this case, the translation of *fast action yeast* does not seem to be appropriate with respect to the context of the target culture. More specifically, in the situational context of the target reader, *rychle působící droždí*, which is a literal translation of the source text counterpart, does not refer to any specific ingredient. As a result, the information provided is misleading to the target reader and cannot be used in the given situation.

Example 12 (ST, TT 3)

Context: Instructions regarding suitable ingredients for baking with the breadmaker.	
ST: Remember <u>strong white bread flour</u> is required.	TT: Pamatujte, že je nutná <u>silná bílá mouka na chléb</u> .
BT: Remember that it necessary <u>strong white flour for bread</u> .	

Commentary 12

In the example above, the reader of the source text is advised with regard to the use of a specific type of flour. The term *strong flour* refers to a common type of flour in the context of the source text culture and thus refers to a specific concept that is familiar to the reader of the source text. In contrast, not only is the Czech *silná mouka* an unusual collocation, it does not trigger any specific concept in the mind of the target reader. From the target text segment, the reader does not learn about the kind of flour that is supposed to be used in order for the device to be able to provide the best results.

Example 13 (ST, TT 4)

Context: Title of a recipe.	
ST: Syrup Sponge <u>Pudding</u>	TT: <u>Pudink</u> se sirupem
BT: <u>Custard</u> with syrup	

Commentary 13

In this example, the reader is provided with a recipe for a *Syrup Sponge Pudding*. The target text, however, provides a misleading name of the product. The problematic word in particular is (*sponge*) *pudding*, which can serve as an example of a false friend; the English *pudding* has been mistaken for the Czech word for *custard*. The different cultural context thus becomes apparent as a result of source language interference.

Example 14 (ST, TT 3)

Context: The reader is advised as to what kind of a bread mix is to be used with a given program on the breadmaker.	
ST: These mixes usually come in two varieties: ' <u>Just add water</u> ' and ' <u>Just add flour and water</u> '.	TT: Obvykle existují dva typy těchto směsí: „ <u>Stačí přidat vodu</u> “ a „ <u>Stačí přidat mouku a vodu</u> “.
BT: Usually exist two types (of) these mixes: „ <u>Suffice (to) add water</u> “ and „ <u>Suffice (to) add flour and water</u> “.	

Commentary 14

Situational context regarding a different classification of bread mixes was not considered in the example above, where a specific bread mix was rendered literally. As a result, the target text reader is provided with misleading information. Moreover, these types of bread mixes are also recommended in other parts of the instructions such as the recipe sections. As a result, the seriousness of the defect could be considered to be increased with the quantity of its occurrence.

Further comments: The parameter of language norm might also be considered in this example regarding the form of writing *tûchto směsí*.

Furthermore, this kind of spelling defect appeared consistently throughout the text. In addition, in parts where this kind of defect appeared in higher concentrations, the reading comfort was negatively impacted.

Example 15 (ST, TT 4)

Context: Safety precautions regarding the use of a slow cooker.	
ST: This appliance is intended to be used in household and similar applications such as <u>farm houses</u> ; by clients in hotels, motels and other residential type environments; <u>bed and breakfast type environments</u> .	TT: Tento spotřebič je určen k používání v domácnostech a podobných situacích jako jsou <u>víkendové domy</u> ; klienty v hotelech, motelech a jiných rezidenčních prostředích; <u>v ubytovacích zařízeních se snídaní</u> .
BT: This appliance is intended for use in households and similar situations such as <u>weekend houses</u> ; clients in hotels, motels and other residential environments; in <u>accommodation facilities with breakfast</u> .	

Commentary 15

The highlighted parts in the example above illustrate cases of insufficient consideration of the situational context of the two cultures. While the main message of this part of the instructions is that the appliance is to be used in household-like environments, the target text explicitly mentions aspects about the environments that draw the reader’s attention but are not entirely relevant. In particular, while *farm houses* refer to a specific type of a residential place, Czech *víkendové domy* is an unusual expression that does not refer to any specific type of establishment. In the second underlined case in the example, *bed and breakfast* is translated as *ubytovací zařízení se snídaní*, explicitly mentioning the fact that the place serves breakfast. Subsequently, the translation in both cases resulted in

creating a comical effect, drawing the reader's attention away from the important information.

Further comments: It might also be mentioned that cohesion of the sentence was impacted. While the relation of the verb *to be used to clients* is explicitly expressed in the source text through the use of the preposition *by*, the target text does not explicitly express this relation. This results in the fact that the first reading of the text might relate *klienty v hotelech* to the situations where the appliance is to be used rather than to the actual users.

Example 16 (ST, TT 3)

Context: This example is from a section where the reader is provided with advice as to how to make a gluten-free bread.	
ST: People who cannot tolerate gluten in their diet (known as Coeliacs), can obtain gluten free bread mix on prescription. It is found in most high street chemists and health food stores but can be expensive.	TT: Lidé, jejichž strava nesmí obsahovat lepek (známí jako celiaci), mohou získat směs na bezlepkový chléb na předpis. Lze ji získat ve většině předních lékáren a v obchodech orientovaných na zdravou výživu, může však drahá!
BT: People whose diet must not contain gluten (known as coeliacs) can obtain mix for gluten free bread on prescription. Can be obtained in most prominent pharmacies and shops oriented on healthy diet, can (be) but expensive!	

Commentary 16

In the source text in the example above, the reader is advised about the possibility to obtain a special, gluten-free bread mix from a doctor on a prescription. Despite the fact that this does not conform to the culture context of the target text, the information is preserved in the target text causing the message to be misleading and even come across as nonsense.

Further comments: Spelling errors can also be noticed in this example (*smûs, vûtšínû*). Furthermore, what might also be considered is a meaning shift in the second part of the fragment. In particular, it might be suggested that *high street chemists* refers to a regular chemists that can be commonly encountered rather than prominent (*přední*) ones that were used in the target text. The appropriateness of the added exclamation mark at the end of the target text segment might also be considered.

3.4.5 *Language norm*

In Brunette's model the parameter of language norm principally regards cases of source language interference excluding cases of linguistic defects regarding spelling, punctuation or grammar. Nevertheless, since my intention was also to consider the seriousness of defects of the latter kind, I also considered them in the analysis and included a few examples of them. Furthermore, the analysed texts displayed a high number of the aforementioned linguistic defects and therefore I deemed them as relevant for my analysis.

As has been mentioned earlier in regard to the previous parameters, defects regarding logic, context and purpose sometimes stemmed from source language interference. In some cases, it became problematic to draw clear boundaries between the parameters. I am therefore aware of the fact that some of the examples below might also be included within other parameters, especially logic since it has been frequently impacted.

Example 17 (ST, TT 1)

Context: The section describes what is indicated by a flashing light on the device.	
ST: Blue (flashing) – Playing through the 3.5mm audio cable or SD card has been ejected	TT: Blikající modrá – přehrává přes 3,5mm audio <u>kabel,nebo</u> je <u>V</u> ysunuta SD karta
BT: Flashing blue – playing via 3.5mm audio <u>cable,or</u> is <u>E</u> jected SD card.	

Commentary 17

The text fragment above exemplifies linguistic defects such as a missing space after a comma or an unwarranted use of capitalisation in the word *Vysunuta*. As can be apparent from the example, this kind of errors proves to be clearly identifiable but does not cause any significant harm to the overall logic of the sentence. However, such a concentration of linguistic defects might be considered to be a cause of a certain degree of reading discomfort.

Example 18 (ST, TT 2)

Context: General recommendations for the use of the alarm clock.	
ST: We recommend that you use <u>alkaline batteries with this product</u> for longer usage and consumer grade lithium batteries in temperatures below freezing.	TT: Doporučujeme, abyste používaly alkalické baterie s tímto produktem pro delší životnost a <u>litiové</u> baterie při teplotách pod bod mrazu.
BT: (We) recommend you use alkaline batteries with this product for longer lifespan and lithium batteries at temperatures under point (of) freezing.	

Commentary 18

This example illustrates a case in which the source language interference is reflected on the level of syntax, particularly the word order. Despite the fact that the expression *alkalické baterie* represents the information that is new and *tímto produktem* represents the information that is already known, the word order of these elements proceeds from the new to old, which might be perceived as a factor that hinders coherence. The example also displays grammar issues (*používaly*, *litiové*), which might add to the reading discomfort.

Example 19 (ST, TT 4)

Context: General instructions for the use of a slow cooker regarding the ingredients that should be used.	
ST: Make sure all frozen ingredients are thoroughly <u>thawed</u> before use.	TT: Před použitím musí být veškeré mražené ingredience zcela <u>roztopené</u> .
BT: Before use must be all frozen ingredients completely <u>heated/melted</u> .	

Commentary 19

This example illustrates a violation of the target language norm which is realised by the use of a word form pertaining to a different stylistic level than would be considered appropriate for this text type. In particular, the word *roztopené* can mean heated but also, in its more colloquial usage, melted. While in some Czech regions, the word may automatically trigger the latter meaning and thus be comprehensible, in regions where it is not commonly used in this sense, the text may become less coherent or even acquire a comical effect.

Example 20 (ST, TT 2)

Context: Description of a remote sensor that forms part of the alarm clock.	
ST: The transmission range may vary <u>depending on</u> many factors.	TT: Dosah může být různý <u>v závislosti od</u> mnoha faktorů.
BT: Range can be varied <u>in dependence from many factors</u> .	

Commentary 20

The example above is a case of a contamination where two distinct expressions requiring two distinct prepositions were combined. The result is therefore a violation of the language norm. Coherence of the fragment was not significantly impacted.

Example 21 (ST, TT 5)

Context: Description of the range of altitude-measuring function on the sports watch.	
ST: Meter range -500 to <u>9,000</u>	TT: Výškový rozsah od -500 do <u>9,000</u> m
BT: Altitude range from -500 to <u>9.000</u> m	

Commentary 21

This example represents a case of a defect caused by a difference between the writing conventions regarding decimal numbers. In particular, the defect is caused due to the fact that the comma that is in the English version used to indicate thousands functions in the Czech context as an indicator of decimals. Such wrong rendering of numbers can be considered to be a serious defect as it directly impacts the accuracy of information and thus hinders the purpose of the text.

Example 22 (ST, TT 4)

Context: The example is from a section providing the reader with general safety precautions.	
ST: Unplug from the socket when not in use, before putting on or taking off attachments, and before cleaning.	TT: Když spotřebič nepoužíváte, připojujete k němu nebo z něj odebíráte součásti a před čištěním ho odpojte od sítě.
BT: When device (you) do not use, connect to it or from it remove components and before cleaning it unplug from network.	

Commentary 22

What seems to be critical in this example is the condensed sentence of the source text, which resulted in a deviation from the sentence structure in the target text. As a result, the reading discomfort related this defect to the parameter of logic since the coherence of the sentence was negatively impacted.

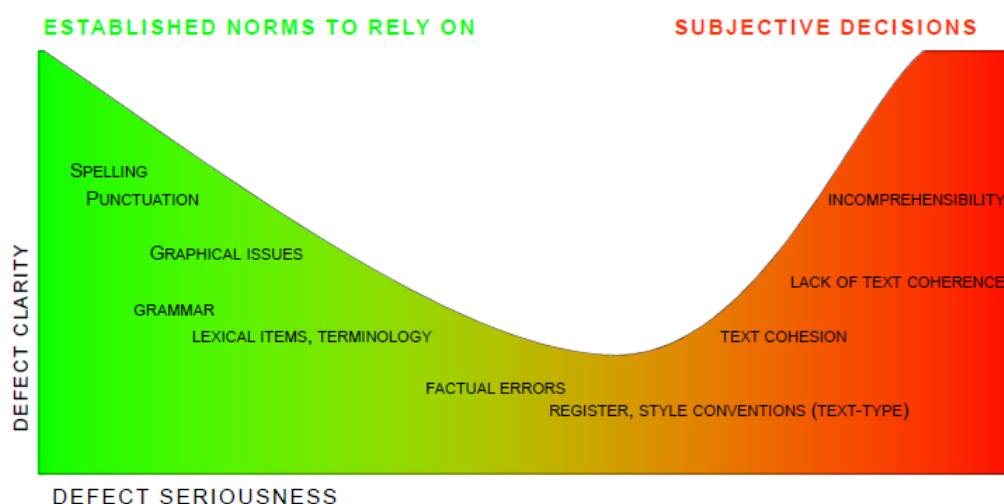
3.5 Conclusion to the analysis

The model by Brunette, which was utilised in the analysis, proved to be applicable to the context of instructional texts and allowed for a good identification of the defects. It served to reveal certain aspects regarding the defects and the individual parameters in relation to the texts in question. The observations can be specified as follows:

- Defects regarding logic involved varying degrees of reduced coherence and cohesion of the text, which had a negative impact on the text fulfilling its purpose. Sometimes, the cause of these defects regarded source language interference thus concerning language norm, or insufficient consideration of the communicative situation, which was related to the parameter of context.
- Purpose of instructional texts proved to be straightforward to identify and a relevant aspect to consider in relation to all the other parameters since all the defects in one way or another impacted the purpose of the text. The purpose of the text was considered to be affected the most by defects related to the parameter of logic. Furthermore, with regard to purpose, defects in instructional texts proved to be prone to creating an unintended comical effect. In the context of this model, this parameter could be perceived as an indicator of usability, which could thus be understood as the capacity of an instructional text or its part to fulfil its intended purpose.
- As for the parameter of context, the analysis demonstrated the diversity of instructional texts and proved that instructions are not excluded from containing culture specific items. Certain types of instructions proved to be prone to a higher occurrence of culturally specific items. This particularly concerned instructions for kitchen appliances, which contained references to culture specific dishes and ingredients. Such defects subsequently impacted logic as well as purpose.
- Defects pertaining to language norm involved not utilising the means of the target language and/or a close adherence to the linguistic surface of the source text. In some cases, such defects became related to the parameter of logic and thus also purpose.

As is apparent from the observations above, the model provided an interesting viewpoint on the nature of the defects. In particular, in attempting to categorise the defects according to the four parameters comprising the model, the defects proved to be highly interrelated and it became problematic to strictly define them within the boundaries of a single category. Furthermore, in attempting to determine the seriousness of the defects, it proved to be equally difficult. This reflects the findings made by Kubánek and Molnár (2012). As can be seen in the defect matrix (Figure 1), the various kinds of defects can be described using a scale from the most explicit defects to those that tend to be evaluated more subjectively. Rather than forming defined categories, the defects therefore appear in a continuum.

Figure 1 Defect matrix (Kubánek and Molnár, 2012)



Defects related to the parameter of logic were perceived as the most serious since they subsequently negatively affected the fulfilment of the purpose, and thus also usability, of the text or its part. At the same time, however, as their seriousness increased so did the subjectivity of evaluation. There are multiple variables that might play a part in determining to what extent a sentence is coherent to the target reader. In the context of instructions, these can involve complexity of the product in question or extralinguistic knowledge of the particular target reader. What might also be considered is the effect that such defects exert on the text as a whole; a particular defect might be considered with

regard to the smaller segment in which it occurs, and its function within the particular section and the whole text. For example, a defect in a sequence of steps to set up a device is likely to exert a more negative influence on the particular section as a whole as opposed to a case of nonsense in a single sentence that functions on its own and is not linked to any of the other segments.

While I also identified a number of solutions that I considered to be adequate and that contributed to the fulfilment of the purpose of the texts, what was brought to the fore of my attention was the significant amount of explicit defects concerning spelling, punctuation and grammar. The analysis demonstrated that such explicit defects could also impair coherence of the text. This regarded cases with high concentrations of such defects, which could have an impact on reading comfort of the text.

I identified a certain number of problematic cases in each target text, which I provide here in order to illustrate the overall quality of the target texts in question. The quantifications are provided in Table 2 below. Given the aforementioned interrelated nature of the defects, I divided the problematic cases into items that are explicit (“Explicit Items”), and other items (“Other”), which included a decreased coherence, decreased cohesion and other more subjective quality issues. Explicit items included spelling, punctuation and grammatical issues.

Table 2 Quantified data from the analysis

	Words	Problematic Items in Total	Explicit Items	Other
TT 1 portable speaker	1 525	80	36	44
TT 2 alarm clock	995	62	31	31
TT 3 breadmaker	8 359	604	513	91
TT 4 slow cooker	5 794	76	19	57
TT 5 sports watch	5 601	234	131	103

As can be seen from Table 2, in case of TT 1, 2 and 5, Explicit items and Other items were represented in each of the analysed texts approximately in an equal proportion. As for TT 3, the higher amount of Explicit items was caused by a presence of a single spelling defect that was repeated throughout the text. In TT 4, the items that I considered problematic concerned mainly unnatural collocations or cases of insufficient consideration of the communication context of the target text, which mainly regarded recipe-related information. While the recipe sections of the instructions for kitchen devices (TT3, TT4) proved to be critical with regard to pragmatic dimensions such as style or knowledge presuppositions of the target readers, I did not register any other section that would tend to contain a specific kind of defects and thus prove particularly problematic. However, the incidence of explicit defects led me to consider their relation to the overall quality of the text. Apart from being simple to identify, explicit defects are also simple to eliminate as opposed to defects included within the category of “Other”, which require considerations of the level of language, but also various contextual levels in order to be avoided. As a result, not only can a

high incidence of explicit defects cause a reading discomfort, it might also carry a certain information value about the overall quality of the text.

The interrelated nature of the parameters as well as the number of defects identified pointed my attention towards areas that might be critical for the translator of instructional texts. Other aspects were also brought to my attention. They can be summarised as follows:

- All of the analysed texts demonstrated a significant amount of linguistic defects such as spelling, punctuation or grammar issues. This was surprising as problematic cases regarding this kind of defects are not difficult to identify and seem to be the easiest to eliminate. In the majority of cases, individual defects of this kind did not cause any significant damage to the completeness of the message or overall coherence of the text. However, their seriousness increased with their concentration and therefore, they should not be underestimated. They might also cause the target reader to approach the text with a certain degree of suspicion.
- In many cases, a decreased coherence or cohesion proceeded from source language interference. The correlation of the parameters of logic and language norm demonstrated the importance of a language-pair specific awareness with regard to translation.
- While it might be assumed that translation of instructional texts is a mechanical task, the analysis seems to prove quite the opposite. It reveals that it is crucial to be aware of the various levels of context. For instance, not respecting the immediate context of the expression or the whole sentence can have a negative impact on cohesion between the sentences. In sections involving sequences of steps, this kind of defect might have a more serious impact on the ability of the whole section to fulfil its purpose.
- Ingredients or recipe writing conventions proved to be problematic for translation due to the fact that they demonstrated a certain degree of cultural specificity. It was frequently the case that defects regarding context led to information loss and a subsequent decrease in usability.

- In the process of the analysis, I also had the opportunity to verify the limitations of an error analysis based solely on the target text. When comparing some of the defects, I identified defects that an analysis based on the target text only would not reveal.

4. Conclusion

In the present Master's thesis, I attempted at creating a theoretical overview of instructional texts. I particularly learned about the texts in a broader context, perceiving them in relation to other categories of texts. I classified them within pragmatic texts and also considered them with respect to scientific and technical texts. In addition, the theoretical research about instructional texts helped me to learn more about the context of their usage, their specific function, and their target readers. In general, instructions are used in practical situations, from which the motivation to consult the texts also arises. Their purpose is invariably straightforward; to provide the reader with information in regard to a certain activity the readers wish to perform. The function of the target texts is usually not dissimilar to that of the source texts and for this reason many of the requirements placed on technical writers, who are commonly responsible for writing instructions, also regard translators of these texts. Target readers of instructions can vary based on various factors and need to be taken into consideration during the translation process of a particular instructional text. The function as well as the target readership of instructions is reflected on the way the information is provided, with organised structure, clarity and usability being one of the important features that should also be preserved in the target texts.

The theoretical findings proved useful for the purposes of the analysis. Specifically, the knowledge presented beneficial for selecting a more specific type of texts for the analysis, which were instructions for commonly used appliances. Furthermore, based on the theoretical research, I was able to select a model for the analysis that I considered the most appropriate; the TQA model by Brunette comprising of four parameters of logic, purpose, context and language norm. The acquired theoretical knowledge about the respective type of texts also served to formulate my assumptions for the analysis. These concerned the requirement of usability and its relation to coherence of the texts, and defects related to spelling, punctuation or grammar and their impact on usability.

In the analysis, I identified defects occurring in the analysed translations of instructional texts according to the four parameters provided in Brunette's model.

The parameters comprising the model proved to be interrelated, with purpose resulting as a relevant parameter to consider with respect to logic, context and language norm as well. In this respect, usability was generally considered in relation to the parameter of purpose; defects that limited the text from fulfilling its purpose were also seen to affect usability of the target text. Nevertheless, it became difficult to objectively determine the seriousness of the defects. This was due to the fact that their seriousness can be subject to various aspects such as the perception of the target reader. In the context of instructional texts, such aspects also concern the characteristic structure of the texts and the fact that they are commonly divided into sections which might function individually. A defect of a similar kind might thus vary depending on the relation of the defective segment in question to the surrounding text. It could generally be determined that the most serious defects concerned the parameter of logic, since defects impacting coherence of the text resulted in limiting the text from fulfilling its purpose.

In contrast, defects that were not expected to affect the purpose of the text regarded mostly spelling, punctuation or grammar issues. These defects proved to be clearly identifiable and they did not impact the purpose of the text to such a degree. However, their increased occurrence within the analysed texts demonstrated that they might negatively affect reading comfort, and thus also coherence of the text. Furthermore, they might also impact the way the text is approached by the target reader.

Despite the fact that purpose of instructions is usually straightforward and they mostly deal with objective information, the analysis of the defects demonstrated that their translation also requires various aspects to be taken into consideration, such as the target reader and situational context. In this regard, cooking related sections of some of the analysed instructions proved to require such considerations. It might be interesting to investigate in more detail the critical areas that stem from the differences between the socio-cultural contexts involved in texts such as recipes.

Overall, this thesis provided me with a concentrated amount of information regarding instructional texts and various issues related to them. The

practical application of Brunette's model contributed to my better understanding of the model and the parameters it comprises. It also led to a better identification of the defects and their better comprehension in regard to their nature or seriousness they might imply. In this respect, I had the opportunity to contrast explicit defects such as spelling or punctuation and more complex defects with regards to their possible impact. In addition, I gained insight into the various defects that can appear in the context of instructional texts for the general public. I believe that the thesis can prove equally useful for others hoping to acquire an overview of instructional texts, learn about the context of defects, and how the assessment model by Brunette can be practically applied.

APPENDICES

1 compact disc containing the analysed source and target texts:

Appendix 1: ST and TT 1 (in full length)

Appendix 2: ST and TT 2 (in full length)

Appendix 3: ST and TT 3 (in full length)

Appendix 4: ST and TT 4 (in full length)

Appendix 5: ST and TT 5 (the analysed part only)

RESUMÉ

V této diplomové práci se věnuji návodovým textům z hlediska hodnocení kvality překladu. Práci dělím na teoretickou a praktickou část. První, teoretická část práce slouží k vymezení a charakteristice návodových textů. Nabyté poznatky pak slouží jako základ pro následnou část praktickou. V praktické části je podrobeno analýze pět defektních překladů návodových textů pro produkty běžné spotřeby. Pro analýzu defektních překladů návodů byl zvolen model hodnocení kvality překladu podle L. Brunette.

Teoretická část si klade za cíl návodové texty obecně zařadit a podrobněji je charakterizovat. Návodů jsou nejprve řazeny do skupiny textů pragmatických, o kterých v práci krátce hovořím. Od pragmatických textů se pak dále postupuje k problematice odborného překladu a textům vědeckým a technickým. Vědecké a technické texty podle některých názorů společně vytvářejí jednu kategorii, nebo jsou chápány jako dvě samostatné skupiny textů. Následuje popis těchto textů a některých jejich společných a rozdílných znaků.

Návodové texty jsou obecně chápány jako samostatná a zároveň poměrně různorodá podskupina technických textů. Proto se práce zaměřuje na charakteristiku textů technických a postupně přechází k bližšímu popisu textů návodových. Návodům se věnuji z hlediska kontextu jejich využití, funkce či struktury. Dále se věnuji roli autora a překladatele návodových textů. Pozornosti se dostává rovněž cílovému čtenáři návodových textů a důležité roli, kterou v tomto kontextu zaujímá. Práce se následně zaměřuje na požadavky, které jsou kladeny na kvalitu návodů. Hovoří se například o potřebě, aby návody byly jasné, srozumitelné a přehledné. Dalším z požadavků souvisejících s kvalitou návodových textů je také jejich použitelnost pro cílového čtenáře, neboť návody jsou obvykle čteny za účelem praktického využití informace v nich obsažené. S kvalitou překladů návodů souvisí také důsledky defektů. Aspekty, které mohou dosažení kvalitního cílového textu znepříjemňovat, se týkají kupříkladu výchozího textu nedostatečné kvality či případných kulturně specifických prvků.

Na základě poznatků získaných v teoretické části práce si stanovuji předpoklady pro analýzu. Obecně považuji návodové texty jako komunikativní nástroj, který má být především použitelný a užitečný pro cílového čtenáře. Z toho usuzuji, že defekty, které by mohly použitelnost textů nejvíce narušovat, budou ty, které nejvíce ovlivní koherenci textu. Oproti tomu předpokládám, že typografické chyby, chyby v interpunkci či gramatické chyby na použitelnost textu nebudou mít natolik výrazný vliv. Analýzou chci zjistit, jaké defekty se ve zvolených textech vyskytují, jaké mohou mít vlastnosti, a jak se může lišit jejich závažnost.

Pro účely praktické části jsem zvolila pět návodů, které souvisí s výrobky běžné spotřeby a jsou určeny širokému čtenářskému publiku. Dva z těchto návodů se týkají kuchyňských spotřebičů, dále se jedná o návod k budíku, reproduktoru a ke sportovním hodinkám. Pro analýzu byl zvolen hodnotící model podle Brunette, který tvoří čtyři hodnotící parametry – logika, účel, kontext a jazyková norma. Před samotnou analýzou se věnuji popisu tohoto modelu. Logika se týká koherence a koheze textu, analýza účelu se zaměřuje na záměr autora textu a účinek na čtenáře, kontext se týká kontextu vzniku cílového textu. Analýza jazykové normy odhaluje defekty způsobené především interferencemi výchozího jazyka.

Při analýze jsem identifikovala problematická místa a hodnotila je v kontextu zvoleného hodnotícího modelu. Jednotlivé parametry jsem v práci ilustrovala příklady defektů z analyzovaných textů, které jsem doplnila o komentář. Při analýze se projevil vztah mezi jednotlivými parametry a fakt, že hranice mezi nimi není příliš ostrá. V důsledku toho pak bylo v některých případech náročné jednotlivé defekty jednoznačně identifikovat v rámci jediného parametru.

Z obecného hlediska se defekty na rovině logiky týkaly převážně koherence a koheze, některé z nich byly způsobeny interferencí výchozího jazyka. Účel prostupoval všemi ostatními parametry, neboť účel textu mohl být v každém případě defektem ovlivněn, ať už v menší či větší míře. Kontext se ukázal být relevantním parametrem především u návodů, které se týkaly kuchyňských

spotřebičů a obsahovaly recepty a odkazy na ingredience. Interference výchozího jazyka v rámci parametru jazykové normy souvisely také s logikou, neboť v různé míře ovlivňovaly koherenci a kohezi textu.

Na základě analýzy byla hodnocena závažnost chyb. Parametr účelu byl považován za nejvíce související s požadavkem na použitelnost textu. Nejzávažněji byly hodnoceny takové defekty, které omezovaly textu plnit jeho zamýšlenou funkci. Defekty tohoto druhu se nejčastěji týkaly parametru logiky, neboť tyto defekty ovlivňovaly koherenci a kohezi textu, která hraje u návodových textů významnou roli. Zároveň se ale ukázalo, že závažnost defektů souvisejících s logikou nelze zhodnotit zcela objektivně. Faktory, které jejich závažnost ovlivňují, se týkají například znalostí cílového čtenáře, které mohou být u každého čtenáře individuální. Roli zde hraje také struktura návodových textů – v některých úsecích může defekt negativně ovlivnit úsek celý, v jiných částech textu je dopad defektu méně rozsáhlý. Při analýze se tedy projevil vztah mezi závažností defektů a charakteristickými vlastnostmi zvoleného typu textů.

Oproti tomu byly nejméně závažně hodnoceny defekty, které bylo možné určit jednoznačně a nedotýkaly se parametru logiky tak výrazně. V tomto případě se jednalo o typografické chyby, interpunkci nebo gramatické chyby. Ovšem vzhledem k tomu, že se v analyzovaných návodových textech tento druh chyb vyskytoval v hojné míře, ukázalo se, že při vyšší koncentraci lze tyto defekty rovněž považovat za zdroj negativního vlivu na čtenářský komfort, a tudíž i koherenci textu.

Problematická místa jsem se rovněž pokusila kvantifikovat. Vzhledem k náročnosti rozdělení defektů do kategorií jsem identifikovaná problematická místa rozdělila na dvě skupiny. První byla tvořena jednoznačně určitelnými defekty, jako jsou typografické chyby, chyby v interpunkci či gramatické chyby. Druhá skupina pak obsahovala zbývající místa, která jsem při analýze zhodnotila jako problematická. Obě tyto skupiny byly v textech zastoupeny do přibližně stejné míry. Výjimkou byl text, ve kterém se projevovала pravopisná chyba napříč celým textem, čímž byl počet jednoznačných chyb zvýšen. U jednoho z návodů se pak projevila kulturní specifičnost související s tematikou vaření, která navýšila

počet méně jednoznačných problematických míst. Tento výsledek poukázal na to, že právě recepty mohou být pro překladatele vzhledem ke kulturní specifičnosti kritické.

Tato práce může posloužit jako zdroj pro získání poznatků týkajících se konkrétního typu textu, tedy návodových textů pro produkty běžné spotřeby, jejich obecného zařazení a vlastností relevantních pro hodnocení kvality jejich překladů. V praktické části je využito teoretických poznatků o zvoleném typu textů a dále je prakticky aplikován hodnotící model L. Brunette. Pomocí modelu jsou ilustrovány druhy defektů, které se v překladech návodových textů pro produkty běžné spotřeby mohou vyskytovat, jejich podoba a jejich případná závažnost v kontextu použitelnosti překladů návodů.

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ABSTRACT

Autor:	Bc. Jana Hainová
Katedra:	Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky Univerzita Palackého v Olomouci
Rok obhajoby:	2013
Název česky:	Analýza návodových textů z hlediska hodnocení kvality překladu
Název anglicky:	Analysis of Instructional Texts in the View of Translation Quality Assessment
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Jitka Zehnalová, PhD.
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Klíčová slova v ČJ:	Pragmatické texty, technické texty, vědecké texty, návodové texty, hodnocení kvality překladu, požadavky na kvalitu překladu, použitelnost, model hodnocení kvality překladu, L. Brunette, logika, účel, kontext, jazyková norma
Klíčová slova v AJ:	Pragmatic texts, technical texts, scientific texts, instructional texts, translation quality assessment, translation quality requirements, usability, translation quality assessment model, L. Brunette, logic, purpose, context, language norm
Anotace v ČJ:	Diplomová práce se věnuje návodovým textům z hlediska hodnocení kvality překladu. Nejprve je podán teoretický pohled na návodové texty. V praktické

části jsou pak analyzovány defektní překlady návodů určených k produktům běžné spotřeby. Při analýze je aplikován model hodnocení kvality překladu L. Brunette. Práce poskytuje pohled na různé druhy defektů, které se v překladech návodových textů vyskytují, a jejich vztah k použitelnosti analyzovaných textů.

Anotace v AJ:

The Master's thesis focuses on instructional texts from the point of view of translation quality assessment. Firstly, a theoretical overview of instructional texts is provided. In the practical part, defective translations of instructions intended for commonly used products are analysed. The TQA model by Brunette is applied in the analysis. The thesis provides a view on various kinds of defects occurring in translations of the analysed instructional texts and their relation to their usability.