

## Translation of English News Headlines into Korean

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### 1. Introduction

One of the noticeable changes in translation strategies is that the establishment of the strict equivalence between the Source Text (ST) and the Target Text (TT) as a translational purpose has gradually given way to creation of the TT in conformity with the target culture norms. Consequently, the translator is required to make a precise judgment on the intended function of the TT in its cultural environment and translate accordingly.

Vermeer (1989) defines translation as a type of human interaction, claiming that as with other human interactions, the overall process and problem-solving strategies of translation should be determined by the purpose of translation, that is *skopos*. In other words, the most important consideration in translation as a communicative event should be how to accommodate the communicative needs of target audience. Vermeer aptly captures this new approach to translation in the phrase 'dethroning of the source text', thus making a rather radical claim that the ST merely represents an information-offer or a means for the creation

of a new text.

A similar view echoes in Snell-Hornby (1988), in her saying that translation as a cross-cultural event requires an analysis of context enveloping the texts. Agar (1992), claiming that the separation of language from culture is meaningless, advocates an integrated study of the two -language and culture. Against the backdrop briefly discussed above, this paper seeks to analyze translation of English news headlines into Korean. The study is based on theories developed in genre analysis, but also draws heavily on theories of pragmatics and translation studies

## 2. Genre Analysis

### 2.1. Discourse Community

Swales (1990) is an excellent introduction on genre, providing us with a conceptual basis for analyzing the data used in this study, namely news article headlines. Before we jump into the notion of genre, let us begin our discussion with his definition of discourse community, another indispensable concept in his work.

The idea of discourse community is proposed by Swales as an alternative to speech community, which was originally defined as “composed of those who share similar *linguistic rules*” (Bloomfield 1993, italics in original). Swales notes the difference between these two concepts by saying:

A speech community typically inherits its membership by birth, accident or adoption; a discourse community recruits its members by persuasion, training, or relevant qualification (1990: 24).

What he suggests is that a person is not born into a certain discourse community, but rather he joins a specific discourse community whose public

goals correspond with his communicative goals. This difference is aptly captured when he compares a discourse community to a “SPECIFIC INTEREST GROUP” (1990:24). As with interest groups, a discourse community is characterized by a set of shared public goals. As such, the decline in the level of accord among community members runs the risk of impeding communication, or in worst case, breaking apart the community itself.

The statement that a community has a shared goal does not mean, however, that the composition of its membership is always constant. To the contrary, the border of discourse communities remains permeable so much so that people come and go freely, even though the survival of the community requires a reasonable balance in the proportion between newcomers and old hands.

The second characteristic of a discourse community is that each community has mechanisms that enable its members to communicate. Correspondence, newsletters, or conversations would be typical examples of these mechanisms. Swales further notes that the primary goal of employing these routinized forms is to facilitate exchange of information and feedback among members. The next question he raises is how this goal can be served. He provides an insightful answer by saying that a discourse community retains specific genres devised to achieve the aims. More importantly, genres create discursial expectations as to textual considerations such as a topic, forms, and participant roles in a given context.

## 2.2. Genre

Attempts to pin down the concept of genre entails an array of obstacles. One of the reasons is that researchers who resort to this concept have come to it by various routes and they have yet to reach an agreement on the clear-cut definition. While acknowledging that the idea of genre still remains fuzzy, Swales defines genre as “a class of communicative events in which language

(and/or paralanguage) plays both a significant and an indispensable role” (1990: 45). His emphasis is placed on the primacy of language in defining genre so much so that activities where language plays a secondary role are ruled out of consideration.

Another important feature in his definition of genre is the notion that communicative purposes serve as the primary criteria by which to judge whether particular communicative events constitute a genre. For Swales, genres are “communicative vehicles for the achievement of goals” (1990: 52). We find a significant convergence at this juncture between Swales and *Skopos* theory in so far as both of them define communication/translation as “an action designed to achieve a particular purpose” (Vermeer 1989: 4).

Swales goes even further to argue that “recognition of communicative purpose by discourse community members is the rationale for the genre”(1990: 47). This rationale in turn produces discursal conventions which influence textual considerations including schematic structure and lexical/syntactic choice.

Building on the notions of family resemblance and prototypes by Rosch (1973), Swales argues that a genre has central and marginal members and that the primary determinant of their centrality is communicative purpose, followed by such properties as form, structure, and audience expectations. What is specially noteworthy with this claim is the observation that as a prototypical member of a category varies culture to culture, prototypical properties of a genre, rhetorical structure for instance, differ discourse community to discourse community.

Swale’s eye-opening research inspired many other studies. Vergaro (2002) is one of many researchers who investigate different discourse strategies in the genre of money chasing letters written in Italian and English. One of her findings is that English business letters are more likely to claim common ground with the receiver than their Italian counterparts by referring to shared knowledge and experience.

Scollon (2002) represents another study concerned with comparison of

different rhetorical structures of different cultures. Comparing Chinese and English newspaper articles, he argues that while English newspaper articles use the inverted pyramid style which carries news stories in the order of descending importance, some of Chinese news articles employ the traditional *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* structure (“introduction, elucidation of the theme, transition to another viewpoint and summing up - the four steps in the composition of an essay”, Hinds 1983).

### 3. News as a Genre

#### 3.1. Headlines as a Sub-Genre

Van Dijk (1988) defines news as “a news item or news report, i.e., a text or discourse on radio, on TV or in the newspaper, in which new information is given about recent events” (1988:4). This paper, however, will exclude news on radio and TV, hence concerning itself solely with news as presented in the press media.

News report is composed of a headline, a byline, a lead and a news story. A headline, among others, is the most noticeable element in news reports, in the sense that it carries the summary of the whole news story and takes up the most noticeable place in the news paper (Bell, 1991). Scollon (2002) states that “the main heading is the topic of news item, therefore it is always printed in solemn and bold types and prominently featured”(2002: 769).

Analyzing news structure, van Dijk (1988) explains that a headline, often along with a lead, expresses a ‘macroproposition’, that is, the most important information or a topic, which is inserted into the beginning superstructure category.

Headlines in our English data are divided into two categories- those headlines which directly summarize the main ideas of the news story and others which are indirectly related to the accompanying text. In the latter case,

the meaning of headlines can be grabbed only after we have read the whole story. In addition, metaphors, idioms, and word plays typify the latter category. Our data suggest that weekly magazines rather than news papers use more examples of the latter type. It should be noted, however, that considerable further research would be required to support this observation.

### 3.2 Data

The data in the paper are drawn from two sources: (1) *The Korea Herald* and their Korean translations published on line; (2) *Newsweek* articles and their Korean translations.

## 4. Translation of Newspaper Headlines

### 4.1. No Change

The most dominant pattern in the data is no change by which the meaning of the ST is transferred without modification to the TT. The English headline example (4.1) is made up of two elements, ‘who’ (U.S. and Philippines) and ‘what’ (agree on troop deployment). The Korean translation retains both of these elements without any meaning modification, addition, or deletion.

The same holds for the headlines in example (4.2). One noticeable difference between the ST and the TT, however, concerns syntactic composition by which the verbs in the English texts are nominalized in the Korean texts.

- (4.1)  
 U.S., Philippines agree on troop deployment (TKH, May 21,  
 2003)  
 미국, 필리핀 군사 배치에 동의

(4.2)

Peongchang fails to win bid for 2010 Olympic Game (TKH, July 3, 2003)평창 2010 동계 올림픽 유치 실패

## 4.2. Addition and Specification

Along with no-change translation, the most popular translation strategy employed by the translators is explication, which means increasing the amount of verbalized information, text internal and text external. The English headline in example (4.3) is mostly about ‘what’(mutual offensive) with the other element ‘who’ remaining unspecified.

(4.3)

Risky mutual offensive

(TKH, April 23,

2003)

미국과 북한의 위험한 상호공세

The Korean translation, however, imparts additional information regarding the actors (U.S. and North Korea). The strategy of increasing the amount of verbalized information seems to stem from the translator’s assessment that the literal rendering of the ST would not be informative enough for target readers to grasp at a glance what this news article is about.

The following headlines drawn from the entertainment section concern a popular Korean fashion model and a celebrated pop singer respectively. It can be safely assumed that most Koreans are familiar with these persons, whereas the news paper’s target audience, namely foreign residents, should not be able to identify them when given their names. The Korean translations reflect the translator’s judgment that word-for-word translation of *Korean model* or *singer* is not informative enough for local readers and thus it needs a specification.

(4.4)

Korean model requests probe into death rumor (TKH, July 17, 2003)

모델 변 정수 사망 소문 조사 요청

(4.5)

Singer denies posing nude (TKH, July 17, 2003)

김완선 누드 파문 공식 부인

The claim that speakers in interaction weigh their utterances to make them optimally informative under a given circumstance underpins Grice's maxim of Quantity (1975), Beaugrande and Dressler's standard of informativity (1981), relevance theory of Sperber and Wilson (1986). Just as utterances with low informativity would not make any contribution to moving forward conversation, translations which fail to carry sufficient information for the target audience do not do any service to them. Hence, translation constantly requires the translator to calculate the TT audience and its knowledge expanses.

#### 4.3. Stylistic Variation

Our data seem to suggest that English headlines employ more vivid verbs compared with their Korean translations. To back up this observation, Itule and Anderson (1994) advises news writers to use in headlines "vivid verbs and colorful words" (1994: 74).

Example (4.6) appeared amid the rumors that Representative Kim Un-yong, leader of Korean bidding team for the 2010 Winter Olympic Games, did not do his best at the bidding campaign.

(4.6)

Did Kim kill Olympic bid? (TKH, July 7, 2003)

김운용의원 동계 올림픽 유치 방해 의혹

The verb *kill* in the ST is replaced with the verb denoting *interfere*, a toned-down form in the TT. This modification might be attributable to the fact

that *cukita*<sup>1)</sup>(to kill) takes an animate patient as its object, while its English equivalent *kill* has a relative latitude to allow an inanimate object as well as an animate one.

Another possible explanation should be that the Korean translation in example (4.6.) is modeled after Korean newspaper headlines concerning the same story. The following example is drawn from *Naeway Economic Daily*, a sister paper of *The Korea Herald*, which caters to local readers with a main interest in economic issues.

(4.7)

“평창패배 김운용 위원 방해타” (NWED, July 4, 2003)

“*Pyeongchang failed because of Rep. Kim Un-yong's interference*”

(my translation)

We find a noticeable resemblance between the Korean translation in (4.6) and the Korean headline in example (4.7): (1) the verb *banghayhata*, possibly quoted verbatim from the news source, is used; (2) both examples make it explicit that the argument concerning Kim is not an established fact, rather it is still a *suspicion* as indicated in example (4.6) or somebody else's claim as notified by quotation marks in example (4.7).

Another related difference between English and Korean lies in the fact that in the English headline, the actor is only identified by his last name even without the specification of their title, whereas the Korean translation presents additional information such as the person's full name and his job. The Korean translation thus reflects the convention that people are not identified only by their last names (Kirk, 2001).

#### 4.4. Domestication of English Headlines

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1) The Yale system is used for the Romanisation of Korean.

Headlines frequently invoke familiar slogans and buzzwords to add an entertaining flavor to the text (*Hankuk sinmunuy munchey*: 1997). The following is an example of invoking a familiar slogan with which any Korean should be familiar.

(4.8)

China trying to stop suicide

(THK, March 7, 2003)

중국 자살과의 전쟁

The Korean translation evokes the image of ‘war against crime’, a campaign which was operated in the early 1990s by former President Noh with a view to eradicating violent crimes in the society. The campaign was enthusiastically received by the public at the time and it still remains as an often quoted phrase. The translator could have rendered the ST to the TT word-for-word, however he chose to evoke the *war against crime* frame<sup>2)</sup>, which seems to be a viable solution, in the sense that it conveys the ST’s meaning without any loss, meanwhile adding an originality to the translation.

#### 4.5. Translation of Idioms and Allusions

It has been long acknowledged that idioms pose inherent translation problems, especially so when there are no ready equivalents in the target language. For instance, the English idiom *A rolling stones gather no moss* should be one of the most misunderstood idioms in Korea. Most Koreans

2) Fillmore (1982) defines frame to be “any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any one of them a person has to understand the whole structure in which it fits” (1982:111). Borrowing Fillmore’s example, the word BREAKFAST is fully understood when we understand “the practice of having three meals a day, at more or less conventionally established times of the day, and for one of these meals to be the one which is eaten early in the day, after a period of sleep, and for it to consist of somewhat unique menu”(Fillmore 1982:128).

understand it to mean that persons on the move do not lag behind. It is because *moss* is viewed negatively by Koreans as something which results from inertia or motionlessness<sup>3</sup>).

Headlines, both English and Korean, make frequent use of idiomatic expressions. The problem lies in that English idioms in the headlines in most cases do not have literal Korean equivalents. The lack of Korean equivalents should represent predicaments for the translator. Let us see how professional translators resolve such dilemmas.

(4.9)

Peoung Chang loses Olympic bid by the skin of their teeth.

(TKH, July 4, 2003)

평창 동계 올림픽 유치 3표차로 무산

The Korean translation above typifies the specification strategy. Instead of resorting to literal translation of the phrase *by the skin of their teeth*, the translator opted to provide specific information concerning the result of the ballot. The following example is another example of presenting a summary rather than rendering the ST word-for-word.

(4.10)

Smoker's rights go up in smoke

(TKH, July 4, 2003)

금연 구역이 확대된다.

While the English headline in (4.10) is obviously tuned to creating an alliterative effect with the two s's (*smoker* and *smoke*), the Korean translation is more oriented to presenting a summary of the following news article.

Headlines, both English and Korean, represent a wealth of alliterations,

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3) Schmitt (lecture at GSIT) notes that the English idiom the early bird catches worms sounds like a riddle whose meaning does not come instantly to most Germans

rhymes and word plays. While example (4.10) is representative of the translation by which the alliteration is sacrificed for the sake of presenting a gist of the news story, the following example illustrates the case in which a rhetorical effect of a rhyme<sup>4)</sup> in the ST is preserved by means of an alliteration in the Korean translation.

(4.11)

Reform or Deform?

(TKH, June 16, 2003)

개혁인가 개악인가?

The last example concerning the translation of idioms is an example of replacing the English idiom with the Korean idiom, thus evoking a similar frame to Korean readers.

(4.12)

Euro's strength - poisoned chalice for Europe's economy

(TKH, May 5, 2003)

유로화 강제 빛 좋은 개살구

While *poisoned chalice* refers to something which seems very good when it is first received, but in fact does great harm to the person, *bichcohunkaysalgu* (*tempting wild apricot*) in the Korean language means something which looks good in appearance but useless in substance. Thus, the common thread between the two expressions is the claim that a stronger Euro is a bad news to European economy.

Investigating the translation of allusions, Leppihalme (1997) defines an

4) Alliteration refers to the patterned repetition of the initial sound, whereas rhyme means the correspondence of terminal sounds of words in a sentence.

Example 1: *Wale waddled in waves.* (alliteration)

Example 2: *arrival, survival, revival* (rhyme)

allusion as “a variety of uses of preformed linguistic material in either its original or a modified form, and of proper names, to convey often implicit meaning”(1997: 3). She divides allusions into two categories: key phrase allusions and proper-name allusions.

(4.13)

1. key-phrase allusion:

Apparently taxis *all turn into pumpkins at midnight*.

2. proper-name allusion:

I felt like *Benedict Arnold*.

Studying the translation of English allusions into Finnish, Leppihalme maintains that improper transfer of allusions could lead to culture bump, which she defines as something milder than culture shock to TT readers, since the readers could not retrieve the intended meaning. Let us refer to example (4.14) to see how allusive English headlines are translated into Korean.

(4.14)

*Starbucks Cup half full*, analysts say (TKH, April 28, 2003)

분석가들, 스타벅스의 야심 덜 채워졌다고 판단

The phrase *cup half full* in the English headline is allusive of the Biblical line *My cup is full*, an exclamatory phrase expressing complete satisfaction and gratitude. It appears that the translator has decided to sacrifice the allusion and replace it with its literal message. Leppihalme notes that strategies for allusion translation is, in a large measure, are employed in harmony with TT readers' familiarity with particular allusions. The question remains, however, whether what is called as the translator's judgment on his/her readers is always accurate and reliable.

## 5. Translation of Magazine Headlines

As we have mainly concerned with translation of news paper headlines in the previous section, in this section we explore how headlines of news magazines are translated. Itule and Anderson (1994) note that magazines as a genre differ from newspapers, notably in that the former allows journalist to write in-depth articles with much greater room for creativity.

The first thing to be noticed with magazine headlines, when compared with newspaper headlines, is its creativity and much more frequent and massive use of such rhetorical devices as word play, allusions, metaphors, and etc. Headlines in *Newsweek*, for instance, make use of more colorful and flamboyant expressions, which sometimes makes it hard to predict what the story is about. This distinct feature of magazine headlines should be attributable to the aforementioned characteristics that magazines enjoy: creativity and relative latitude in terms of space limit<sup>5)</sup>. While news papers are, in general, organized around one particular story, magazine articles usually represent a mixture of successive events and their consequences, often capped with visibly colored perspectives.

The creativity and massive use of rhetorical devices in magazine headlines make the job of translation, understandably, more difficult. In the following section, we examine how the translator works out a solution to translation problems with regard to magazines headline. The following discussion would primarily deal with those aspects which were not covered in the previous discussion of newspaper headlines.

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5) According to Itule and Anderson (1994), most newspaper stories run 10 to 12 inches, while magazine articles range 50 or more inches.

### 5.1. Replacement with Summary-oriented Translations

Kirk (2001) finds that the Korean translations of Newsweek headlines are not, in many cases, direct translations of their English sources. She maintains that “English titles tend to be concise and suggestive while Korean titles are direct and explanatory” (Kirk 2001:191). The following are some of the examples which correspond with her observation.

(5.1)

Boom before the Bombs

(NW, January 13, 2003)

전쟁과 상관없이 집값은 마구 뛰다

(5.2)

The Road Less Traveled

(NW, April 14, 2003)

수렁에 빠진 관광 산업

Example (5.1) deals with the great hike in house price in Iraq with the impending war. With the English headline only, it is impossible to grasp the general message of the article. In contrast, the Korean translation patterns after headlines in Korean newspapers, thus providing a summary of the whole article. The same holds for example (5.2). In the meantime, however, such rhetorical devices as alliteration in (5.1) and allusion in (5.2) have been sacrificed.

### 5.2. Translation of Presupposition

The main interest in the section is to examine how a headline takes advantage of presupposition and subsequently whether presupposition in the ST is transferred intact to the TT. Presupposed knowledge, roughly defined as knowledge which the speaker supposes to be shared with the hearer, generally

goes unchallenged in the conversation.

Let us consider how headlines exploit presupposition in the following example.

(5.3)

Iraq or North Korea: Who is the biggest threat? (NW, January 13, 2003)

김 정일과 후세인 누가 더 위험한가

The original text carries a presupposition that both Iraq and North Korea represent a big threat to the U.S. The question is which one is the biggest threat, while the underlying proposition that North Korean and Iraq represent serious threats goes undisputed. The same presupposition is established in the Korean translation.

The only difference, however, is that *Iraq* and *North Korea* in the ST are replaced in the TT with their leaders *Hussein* and *Kim Jong Il* respectively, thus revealing metonymic relations between the nations in the ST (Iraq and North Korea) and their leaders in the TT (Hussein and Kim Jong Il). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) presents an eye-opening observation about metaphor and metonymy.<sup>6)</sup> Example (5.3.) corroborates their observation the name of institutions can stand for an individual or a group of individuals.

With regard to the use of the nation's name, Develotte and Rechniewski (2002) point out that "naming a country creates a fictitious entity which is almost invariably then personified." It appears that the fictitious entity in the ST is personified in the TT in example (5.3).

While the above example represents a case in which the presupposition is transferred safe and sound from the ST to the TT, the following example provides a case in which the presupposition is substituted with something else

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6) Lakoff and Johnson propose that metaphor and metonymy are not linguistic problems but conceptual problems in that the basis for metaphor and metonymy is human experiences. Metaphor, however, differs from metonymy in that the former enables us to understand and experience one thing in terms of another, while the latter enables people to refer to something by means of what is related to it.

in an effort to make the intended meaning more explicit. The following article is about North Korean leader Kim Jong Il's sons and their prospect of succeeding to the power.

(5.4.)

Heirs to the Kingdom

(NW, January 13, 2003)

차세대 '위대한 지도자' 누가 될까

The ST presupposes the US view that North Korea is a kingdom, rather than a democratic republic as the nation contends to be. To borrow the concept of frame by Fillmore again, the frame of KINGDOM evokes naturally a 'frame element' such as HEIR, with the accompanying 'script' of the throne transmitted from father to his son. The Korean translation, by comparison, reflects the translator's decision to disregard the KINGDOM frame but convey simply what the following story is about.

### 5.3. Colloquialism

In the section, we are going to explore how colloquial headlines in the ST are dealt with in the process of translation.

(5.5)

America Alone

(NW, February 17, 2003)

“왕따” 부시

The English headline in example (5.5) is drawn from the news story that American has failed to win support from its old European allies over the war against Iraq. We find again that the name of the nation is replaced with the name of its leader, thus personified in the Korean translation. What is to be noted is that the TT is much more colloquial than the ST, as *wangtta* is a term which was originally used by teenagers when they referred to a victim of collective alienation by peer students at school. Even though the term has now

crept into the language of adults, it is still a word which would be frowned upon by certain settings.

The use of this term *wangtta* in the TT seems to suggest that the translator has sought for the social/interactional goal of forging a solidarity with readers at the cost of sounding too colloquial.

The following example is in contrast with the preceding one in that the ST, written in an informal style, is transferred into the TT with the formal tone.

(5.6)

What, Me worry? (NW, March 17, 2003)  
국민이 싫다고 해도 전쟁은 한다?

The above example dovetails with the general pattern in which the more rhetorically vivid STs are rendered into the message-oriented TTs.

The last example to be discussed with reference to colloquialism concerns the practice of referring to a person, especially an important political figure, by his first name instead of his last name accompanied with the official title. What is particularly interesting with the U.S. news concerning Iraq is that the Iraqi President Saddam Hussein is frequently referred to by his first name as seen in the following example.

(5.7)

The Saddam Files (NW, January 13, 2003)  
후세인의 비밀 파일

The Korean translation, however, chose to use the last name as is the convention with the headlines. In human interactions of any kind, the choice between the first name and the last name is a complex matter which involves on the part of interactants meticulous calculation of various factors such as power and solidarity. The general assumption is that the more familiar people are, the more likely they will interact on the first-name basis. Even though

there is a relatively voluminous body of literature on this topic, I will contend myself here with noting that choosing one form rather than another conveys metamessage how the person is defining the other person. In the example above, referring to the Iraqi leader by his first name in the ST is not motivated by any solidarity with him, but it is intended to make fun of him since the use of his first name *Saddam*, which happens to be one of the most common and possibly typical first names for males from the Middle East, deprives him of authority, thus belittling the man who thinks that he is bigger than he really is.

## 6. Conclusion

This paper has so far discussed various strategies employed by the translator in the translation of English news headlines to Korean. We have observed that the summary-presenting headline is the most prototypical example as far as translated Korean headlines are concerned. It has been also noted that “the norms governing the formulation of translated texts differ from those which govern original compositions” (Toury 1995:71).

Based on this observation, claim is made that the strategies illustrated in the discussion are all reflective of the translator’s judgement that the TT should be coherent with the textual conventions in the target culture. What this means is that any modifications in the translation mandated by structural differences between English and Korean news writing are intended to make the TT functionally equivalent with the ST.

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K C I

[국문초록]

## 영어 신문 표제(headlines) 번역

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본 논문은 영어 신문의 표제가 한국어로 어떻게 번역되는지 살펴보았다. 신문의 표제는 기사의 특질을 정확하게 뽑아내어 쉽고 명료하게 쓰여져야 하는 한편 생생하고 매력적이어야 한다. 따라서 기사를 압축하고 요약하는 기능 외에도 표제는 다양한 수사적 장치를 이용하고 있다는 것을 살펴보았다.

영어 신문 표제가 다양한 수사적 장치를 이용하거나 원문 독자(source text readers)와의 공통 지식에 의존하여 해석을 유도하는 경우, 번역시는 난관에 부딪히게 된다. 본 논문은 이와 같은 상황에서 번역사가 어떤 전략을 구사하는 지 고찰해 보았다.

원문의 표제가 기사 내용을 요약하는 경우는 번역상 큰 어려움은 수반되지 않았다. 반면, 표제가 잡지의 경우에서 더 두드러지듯이 내용 요약보다는 언어 수사적인 효과를 통해 생생한 분위기를 전달하는 것에 치중할 경우, 번역사는 대체적으로 번역문에서 전체적인 내용을 전달하는 전략을 추구하는 것으로 관찰되었다. 이것은 한국 신문(잡지)의 경우 표제가 내용을 요약하여 제시하는 기능에 비중을 두고 있기 때문인 것으로 분석된다. 본 논문은 이와 같은 번역사의 전략이 번역사 자신이 가지고 있는 한국어 신문 표제에 대한 전반적인 지식에서 기인한 것으로써, 이것은 또한 번역문 독자가 갖고 있는 텍스트상의 기대를 충족하기 위한 전략으로 분석된다.

▶주제어: Skopos, Schema, Frame, News Production Format