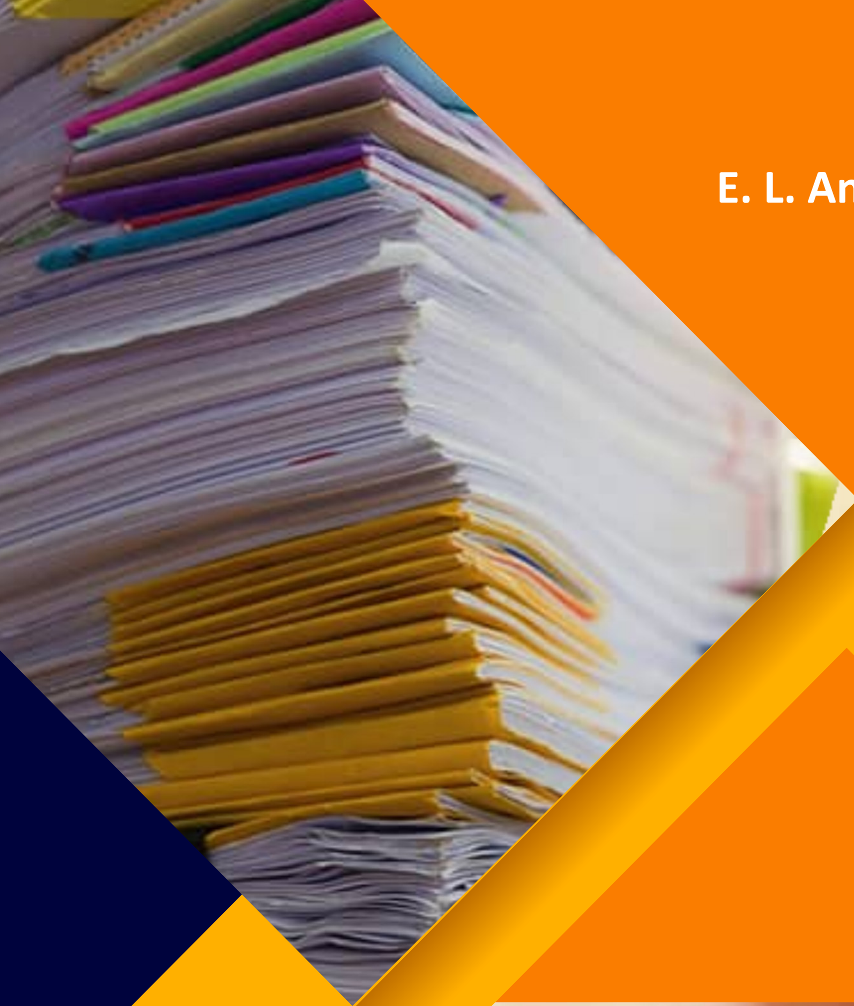
E. L. Ananian



BUSINESS ENGLISH: BASES OF TRANSLATION

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ

ДВНЗ «ДОНБАСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ»
ФІЛОЛОГІЧНИЙ ФАКУЛЬТЕТ
КАФЕДРА ГЕРМАНСЬКОЇ ТА СЛОВ'ЯНСЬКОЇ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ

Е. Л. Ананьян

ДІЛОВА АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА: ОСНОВИ ПЕРЕКЛАДУ

Навчальний посібник

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Навчальний посібник «Ділова англійська мова: основи перекладу» розроблено для студентів магістерського рівня вищої освіти.

УДК 81'25:811.111'276.6(075.8)

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INTRODUCTION

Навчальний посібник «Ділова англійська мова: основи перекладу» розроблено для студентів магістерського рівня вищої освіти.

Мета навчального посібника – ознайомити студентів з основними принципами та особливостями перекладу комунікативно-мовленнєвого продукту ділового спілкування. Контент навчального посібника містить як загальні тлумачення явищ перекладу сучасної ділової англійської мови, так і різні точки зору на певні дискусійні питання, вивчення яких супроводжується аргументованим коментарем.

Навчальний матеріал, представлений у посібнику, активізує процес формування таких компетентностей:

– визначати лексико-граматичні та жанрово-стилістичні особливості писемного й усного ділового англомовного спілкування;

– аналізувати основні соціолінгвістичні аспекти ділового спілкування;

– оперувати стратегіями та прийомами перекладу ділового спілкування;

– передбачувати складнощі в перекладі комунікативно-мовленнєвого продукту ділового спілкування;

– виявляти стандартні й нестандартні перекладацькі проблеми й обирати способи їхнього вирішення, що відповідають кожному конкретному акту перекладу;

– виконувати якісні усні та письмові переклади за рахунок адекватної передачі жанрово-стилістичних та референційно-комунікативних особливостей англомовних текстів комерційної, ділової, економічної, юридичної та політичної тематики, що існують в сфері міжнародних відносин.

– інтегрувати та використовувати систематизовані теоретичні та практичні знання з суміжних теоретичних та практичних філологічних дисциплін з метою комплексного вивчення особливостей ділового усного та писемного мовлення;

– декодувати явища англійського ділового усного та писемного мовлення у порівнянні з аналогічними явищами в українській мові;

– самостійно опрацьовувати науково-методичну літературу за тематикою матеріалу, що вивчається, висувати аргументовані судження, ставити та вирішувати наукові завдання.

За своєю структурою навчальний посібник складається з передмови (INTRODUCTION), восьми лекцій (LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES), глосарію (GLOSSARY) та списку рекомендованої літератури (REFERENCES).

Тематичний матеріал представлено такими лекціями: Lecture 1. General EFL and English for Specific Purposes (ESP); Lecture 2. The Style of Official Documents: Main Notions and Linguistic Peculiarities; Lecture 3. Business Communication: Specificity; Lecture 4. Business Correspondence: General Notions. Typology of Business Correspondence; Lecture 5. International Diplomatic Documents: Treaties and Conventions. Agreements; Lecture 6. Translation Techniques. Generalities; Lecture 7. Business Communication. Translation Peculiarities; Lecture 8. Translation and Negotiation.

До кожної лекції включено список рекомендованої літератури для поглибленого вивчення тематичного матеріалу.

Видання переслідує насамперед навчальні цілі, спрямовані на вирішення завдання теоретично-практичної підготовки майбутніх філологів. Навчальний посібник спрямовано на підвищення у студентів інтересу до перекладу сучасного ділового англійського усного та писемного мовлення, у культивуванні в них особистісної потреби в оволодінні знань з цієї навчальної дисципліни, що є певною складовою формування професійної компетенції майбутніх фахівців.

LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES

Lecture 1. GENERAL EFL AND ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Differences between General EFL and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).**
2. **ESP and Translation as the 'Fifth' Language Skill.**

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1. Differences between General EFL and English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Globalization has had a powerful impact on international communication practice as more and more people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds come daily into contact. This situation requires the adoption of a common language, or lingua franca, which is English. Thanks to the historical and economic developments, among other reasons, of two of the most important English-speaking countries, namely Great Britain and the United States, English has acquired a supremacy status and nowadays it is undoubtedly and officially recognised as the World's Lingua Franca. The term lingua franca, according to scientists' opinions 'originated in the Mediterranean region in the Middle Ages among crusaders and traders of different language backgrounds' and it is aimed at 'serving as a regular means of communication between different linguistic groups in a multilingual speech community'. Many theorists and scholars agree upon the fact that the development of a lingua franca to facilitate communication exchanges between speakers of different languages has often been determined by the necessity to carry out trading and commercial activities in different parts of the world. Nowadays, the term English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is used to refer to the English variety spoken by people whose mother tongue is not English.

The use or adoption of English in international settings, however, may pose both linguistic and cultural problems especially for nonnative speakers. Furthermore, in the specific context of Business communication the correct use of English plays a significant role in terms of successful communication. All too often the incorrect use of English, both in terms of accents or pronunciation as well as grammar and functions, could create communication problems and even misunderstanding.

When teaching Business English, stress should not only be laid upon purely grammatical points, but should also focus on language functions and cultural issues in order to frame business communication as a kind of mediation between cultures. Students may be proficient in English but still fail to use it in appropriate situations. The role of translation is thus fundamental in teaching and showing students mediation strategies and both linguistic and cultural differences through employing a contrastive approach to language. Through translation, students can learn more about problem-solving strategies, improve their analytical skills and strengthen their grammatical and lexical competence and performance.

There are significant differences between general EFL and ESP, although there are also similarities. The main focus in this section, however, is to discuss differences. First of all, it should be stressed that the purposes for mastering English differ. In ESP courses, there is a need to learn English in order to perform specific job-related functions. There is more emphasis, therefore, on language in context or language functions rather than grammar and language structures in general. English is taught and integrated in the learners' subject area of interest. ESP should be thought of not as a different kind of language but a different approach to language teaching and this is why teaching instructions generally differ between ESP and general EFL. In general EFL courses, all the traditional language skills are covered, namely, Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, whereas in ESP more emphasis can be given to only one or two of them according to students' needs. ESP teachers need to perform different tasks not only as language experts but also as content specialists.

Further to these considerations, scientists agree that the use of translation in ESP classes can be a very useful and comprehensive approach to language learning. But in order to practise the translation of business language one needs to acquire fundamental knowledge and professional skills in translation theory in general and in business translation in particular.

2. ESP and Translation as the 'Fifth' Language Skill

Translation has been unpopular for years in foreign language classes due to the negative connotations resulting from the application of the so-called 'Grammar-Translation Method'. This approach to language was used in the past to teach Greek and Latin and eventually generalised to modern language teaching a few years later. The method was heavily criticised for the following reasons which, still to this day contributes to making translation appear an obsolete practice in foreign language courses. First, Instructions were given in the students' L1 so that there was little use of the target language. Second, vocabulary was taught through isolated word lists and so it was difficult for students to see that words may be used in different ways according to context because no context was actually provided. And third, little attention was given to pronunciation.

Today that translation is argued, both from L1 into L2 and vice versa, is a very complex activity which cannot be reduced to a merely linguistic activity in which structures from one language are transferred to structures in another language. Translation needs to be contextualised, and as such it requires attention to both linguistic and extralinguistic factors, such as culture for example. Some experts even criticize the fact that the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages does not include translation in its testing modalities to determine proficiency levels.

Recent literature in applied linguistics, however, has shown significant signs of revival of translation in language teaching and learning. Translation is more and more frequently evaluated as a positive form of interference aimed at enriching rather than harming learners' competence and performance skills. The use of translation in language classes might, of course, have some limitations but also benefits should be explored and taken into consideration. Translation should not be seen, and consequently treated, as a completely different language skill as compared to Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, because it is an activity which includes them and is, to a certain degree, dependent on them.

Translation involves the following series of language skills:

Reading

Before starting translating a text, the source text (ST) should be read carefully and analysed in detail. Thus, through close reading and careful text analysis of the ST one can gain important insights into the comprehension of the text in order to avoid misinterpretations and/or misunderstandings. Before attempting a translation, the text should be read very carefully in order to determine the content in terms of what, how and why it is said. The text can be approached in two different stages, namely, pre-reading and critical reading stages. In the first case, one will get acquainted with the so-called 'skimming' and 'scanning' techniques which will allow him/her to further analyse and evaluate: the role of the title, the name of the author, the type of magazine in which the article is published, the subject matter, the importance of paragraph divisions as discussion markers, the beginning and ending of each paragraph, the importance of drawing a short outline of main points covered, the importance of relating the issue to a larger framework.

The pre-reading stage only takes a few minutes and it provides students with a good initial preparation to read the whole article in a faster and clearer way. Skimming and scanning techniques allow students to get a general understanding of the article whereas critical reading will require them to read through the whole article slowly and carefully, paying attention to every single word and sentence. Critical reading is aimed at developing critical and analytical understanding of the text through questions and replies.

Writing

Translation is an activity which requires good writing skills in each of the three main stages of a translation, namely, decoding the ST, transferring linguistic and cultural elements and meanings into the TL and encoding the text into the new language and context. A good translation should flow naturally; it should reproduce both the style and the context of the original text and respect the TL writing conventions. Translation, therefore, can help students improve their writing skills and, if the task is approached from a contrastive perspective, students have the opportunity to see and evaluate similarities and differences between different writing styles in different languages. They will end up with parallel texts where a contrastive analysis can be carried out.

If translation is carried out from the students' mother tongue to a foreign or second language, then translation can somehow be equated with any composition writing task commonly taught in any language course. If students are asked to write a commentary about all the difficulties encountered when translating the "passage" and the strategies used in order to deal with "them" then translation becomes a sort of composition.

Listening and Speaking

Translation is a communicative activity practiced within a meaningful context. Translation involves interaction between the teacher and the students to discuss rights and wrongs as well as problems related to the translation task. If this communication exchange takes place in the L2 before and after the translation this can help students enhance their oral skills (both listening and speaking). There are many similarities between the way students usually practise oral skills in foreign language classes and translation classes. In both cases students are asked to carry out a conversation on a selected topic using their L2. The fact of carrying out a conversation on translation problems will help students strengthen their level of understanding of the text, relate the text to similar topics covered in their L1, and improve their speaking strategies in order to talk to both the lecturer as well as other students, improve their listening skills through listening to both lecturers and students. Translation can be used to teach and eventually test reading, writing, listening and oral skills and if applied to an ESP context, then it can even serve the role of enhancing specific needs. These needs include grammatical, lexical and cultural knowledge.

Translation as Grammatical Explanation

ESP students tend to have a good level of grammar as a result of their general English learning. It is worth noting, however, that in particular specialized fields grammar may be characterised by a special set of rules. Broadly speaking, Business English is characterized by its simplicity, precision, objectivity, efficiency and courtesy. This implies a different way to use grammar in business texts, especially in authentic texts whose use to exploit grammar may, at times, pose several problems. Authentic texts are characterised by numerous examples of grammatical structures and therefore the ESP specialist needs to identify commonly used or re-occurring structures in business texts. If texts are taken from newspapers, for instance, there might be some interesting and special rules of grammar. For example, the headlines are meant to be ambiguous in terms of comprehension in that they do not always contain a complete sentence.

Another interesting point is that business texts taken from newspapers tend to employ the simple present form instead of more complex structures. The present continuous is also used, at times, but the auxiliary tends to be omitted. A very common structure is the infinitive to refer to the future and passives are found with no auxiliary. Articles and the verb 'to be' also tend to be left out.

One of the most useful tips, in terms of grammar, would be to teach students a basic distinction between simple and complex sentence structures and to highlight differences in translation from one language to another. Italian, for instance, tends to be characterised by very long periods and complex sentence structures as compared to English. Particular attention should be given to the translation of noun-phrases which, especially in specialised texts, often tend to be employed in order to present a concept in a more compact and succinct way. It is interesting to note how both the number and the length of noun phrases in a text can affect the readability of sentences and therefore the overall comprehension. This is especially true in those cases where there is some sort of ambiguity due to the use in English of nominal phrases as in the following example:

'decreased water tolerance phenomenon'

This sentence can be interpreted in three possible ways:

– the phenomenon of tolerance of decreased water;

– decreased tolerance phenomenon to water;

– the phenomenon of water's decreased tolerance.

And it goes without saying that the interpretations mentioned above will require their own variants of translation.

All these interpretations could possibly be correct and so there is a need to contextualize the text and see whether we can work out the correct meaning from the context itself. At times, this happens because the original text has been written without respecting writing conventions. The use of the possessive case or particular punctuation could serve to disambiguate the meaning as in the following examples:

– decreased water-tolerance phenomenon;

– decreased phenomenon of water tolerance.

Translation can play a very important role in this respect and, as it is correctly acknowledges, 'By starting from grammar, students can reach higher level of translation and, vice-versa, by translating they acquire more competence in the knowledge of grammatical structures'. This mutual or reciprocal relationship will, in turn, help students improve their business communication skills (both oral and writing skills).

Translation as Vocabulary Builder

In ESP, students have to learn high-priority lexis first, although in order to avoid lack of comprehension, low-frequency lexical items cannot be ignored either. Students should be taught to not translate word-for-word because ESP lexical items are context-bound and can have a wide range of possible meanings according to the context. The problem is that in some languages courses students are taught to learn language from word-lists in isolation from context, it being claimed that this method allows students to learn faster as compared to learning in context. Referring to the pragmatic concept of 'meaning in context', ESP vocabulary should take place according to the following guidelines: First, the text chosen for translation should be authentic, and second, the text should be contextualised because learning vocabulary involves a much more complex task than simply memorising words and phrases which have different meanings and can be used differently according to context or to collocations. In a contrastive bilingual situation, students can, thanks to translation, improve their ability to find an equivalent in L1 to match a lexical phrase in L2. Translation can teach students to learn vocabulary in two stages: students are taught to make a connection between the meaning and the form of the word, and then they must learn when to use or not use the word, its word relationships, its nuances, and so on.

According to some of the ESP theorists the mastering of vocabulary in the ESP class can be divided into three compartments: *(1)* technical vocabulary, where words are monosemic and are used exclusively in the domain in which they were created; *(2)* sub-technical vocabulary, where words are taken from the general language but have acquired one or several new meanings within the specialised field of application. Words, in this case, are polysemic retaining their original meaning and, at the same time, adding the meanings coming from the specialised area; and *(3)* general vocabulary of frequent use in a specific area, where words come from the general language and retain their meaning in the specialised field. Words are not technical terms, but they are nevertheless needed in order to gain a full understanding of the text.

One of the best vocabulary strategies to master is to 'guess unknown words from context'. This task consists in teaching students to determine first a word's part of speech, and then they should look for clues around the word to help with the meaning. The next step is to ask them to replace that word with a synonym and see whether it makes sense. In the ESP context this could be done more easily as compared to general EFL classes because the command of English is higher and ESP students have already acquired a good knowledge of general English.

Business English written language is often characterised by the extensive use of collocations and idiomatic
expressions, but also by standard phrases which are typically used in business situations.

Translation as Cultural Mediation

Translation is a mediating activity which always takes culture-bound terms and concepts into account in order to be successful in its transposition of a text from one language into another. Business and financial texts are characterised by a large number of culture-bound terms and references which should be known in order to boost their comprehension of texts.

In an increasingly globalized world, paradoxically, the use of a single language, albeit English, does not automatically imply a common culture shared by everybody in the world. Although English has become the world's lingua franca, especially in the business world, the way it is spoken and perceived may cause serious cases of miscommunication and misunderstanding when it is employed either outside the national boundaries or by non-native speakers. Grammar and vocabulary may be correctly employed, but cultural references and the appropriate use of English in specific situations may be a totally different matter. This is why cultural explanations should be provided. Translation can help students improve their understanding of culturally-oriented terms by employing a contrastive approach in which analytical skills are required to find an equivalent term in the target language.

One of the most difficult tasks teachers of Business English face is finding the best way to teach students to appreciate cultural differences and to evaluate their effects on business communication, especially in international settings. From time to time, many language courses tend to teach some cultural features but there is not enough emphasis laid upon the awareness of cultural differences or how to behave in certain situations. Translation can raise this kind of awareness and teach students strategies and techniques to adapt their use of English to learn about, understand and even appreciate other cultures.

Everybody seems to agree upon the fact that cultural differences do exist. In the business world, issues such as etiquette and corporate culture seem to suggest that besides acquiring linguistic skills people also need to acquire cultural awareness. Culture tends to be reflected in diverse aspects of the business world ranging from office furniture to business meetings. Understanding cultural differences and relating them to one's culture can provide a starting point to anticipating and understanding some of the cultural differences that exist in everyday situations and preparing students to change their individual business behaviour and style. Translation, therefore, becomes a form of cultural mediation which is needed in order to carry out communication across cultures. Translation inevitably involves cultural mediation which, especially in the business world, plays an important role in terms of successful communication.

Lecture 2. THE STYLE OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS: MAIN NOTIONS AND LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **The Style of Official Documents: Generalities.**
2. **The Style of Official Documents: Distinctive Linguistic Features.**
3. **Official Documents: Typology.**

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1. The Style of Official Documents: Generalities

The Style of Official Documents It is sometimes called “officialese”. The style of official documents is represented by the following substyles depending on their specific sphere of use:

■ diplomatic;
■ juridical;
■ office and business style.

Galperin I. R. singles out these variants: • the language of business documents; • the language of legal documents; • the language of diplomacy; • the language of military documents.

The *style of diplomacy* is used within the sphere of international communication. It is characterized by emphasized respect, tolerance, standard forms of the beginning and end of a document. Its main genres are: note, communiqué, agreement, memorandum, convention.

The *juridical substyle* (=the style of legal documents) is manifested by these documents: decree, law, code, regulations. These documents refer to the highest state level; juridical competence being obligatory for all representatives of public life. The language of law is characterized by generalization and compositional expressiveness which correlates to maximally precise formulation, absence of connotation according to the regulations between juridical and natural persons.

The sphere of the *office* and *business substyle* (=administrative and office substyle) covers documents of everyday official life: applications, certificates, references, powers of attorney, autobiography, orders, instructions, acts, etc. Some linguists single out the style of office correspondence. Its main genre is the office letter which presupposes keeping to certain requirements: precision and particular structure. Nowadays official business style serves practically all spheres of public, political and economic life of a state: legislative, diplomatic, juridical, bank, industrial, big, middle-size and small business.

Like other styles of language, this style has a definite communicative aim and, accordingly, has its own system of interrelated language and stylistic means. The main aim of this type of communication is to state the conditions binding two parties in an undertaking. These parties may be: the state and the citizen, or citizen and citizen; a society and its members (statute or ordinance); two or more enterprises or bodies (business correspondence or contracts); two or more governments (pacts, treaties); a person in authority and a subordinate (orders, regulations, instructions, authoritative directives); a board or presidium and an assembly or general meeting (procedures acts, minutes), etc.

The aim of communication in this style of language is to reach agreement between two contracting parties. Even protest against violations of statutes, contracts, regulations, etc., can also be regarded as a form by which normal cooperation is sought on the basis of previously attained concordance.

This most general function of the style of official documents predetermines the peculiarities of the style. The most striking, though not the most essential feature, is a special system of clichés, terms and set expressions by which each substyle can easily be recognized, for example: *beg to inform you*, *I beg to move*, *I second the motion, provisional agenda*, *the above-mentioned*, *hereinafter named*, *on behalf of*, *private advisory*, *Dear Sir*, *We remain*, *your obedient servants*.

In fact, each of the subdivisions of this style has its own peculiar terms, phrases and expressions which differ from the corresponding terms, phrases and expressions of other variants of this style. Thus in finance we find terms like *extra revenue*, *taxable capacities*, *liability to profit tax*.

Terms and phrases like *high contracting parties*, *to ratify an agreement*, *memorandum*, *pact*, *protectorate*, *extra-territorial status*, *plenipotentiary* will immediately brand the utterance as diplomatic.

In legal language, examples are: *to deal with a case*; *summary procedure*; *a body of judges*; *as laid down in*.

Likewise, other varieties of official language have their special nomenclature, which is conspicuous in the text and therefore easily discernible as belonging to the official language style.

Besides the special nomenclature characteristic of each, variety of he style, there is a feature common to all these varieties: the use of abbreviations, conventional symbols and contractions, for example: *M. P. (Member of Parliament)*, *gov/govt (government)*, *H.M.S. (His Majesty's Steamship)*, *$ (dollar)*, *Ltd (Limited)*.

Another feature of the style is the use of words in their logical dictionary meaning. Just as in the other matter-of-fact styles, and in contrast intrinsically to the belles-lettres style, there is no room for contextual meanings or for any kind of simultaneous realization of two meanings. In military documents sometimes metaphorical names are given to mountains, rivers, hills or villages, but these metaphors are perceived as code signs and have no aesthetic value, as in: "*2.102 d. Inf. Div. continues atk 26 Feb. 45 to captive objs Spruce Peach and Cherry and prepares to take over objs Plum and Apple after capture by CCB, 5th armd Div.*"

Words with emotive meaning are not to be found in the style of official documents either. Even in the style of scientific prose some words may be found which reveal the attitude of the writer, his individual evaluation of the facts and events of the issue. But no such words are to be found in official style, except those which are used in business letters as conventional phrases of greeting or close, as *Dear Sir*, *Yours faithful*ly, *Respectfully yours*.

Almost every official document has its own compositional design. Pacts and statutes, orders and minutes, notes and memoranda – all have more or less definite forms, and it will not be an exaggeration to state that the form of the document is itself informative, inasmuch as it tells something about the matter dealt with (a letter, an agreement, an order, etc).

It should be mentioned that the overall code of the official style falls into a system of subcodes, each characterized by its own terminological nomenclature, its own compositional form, its own variety of syntactical arrangements. But the integrating features of all these subcodes, emanating from the general aim of agreement between- parties, remain the following:

1) conventionality of expression;

2) absence of any emotiveness;

3) the encoded character of language symbols (including abbreviations);

4) a general syntactical mode of combining several pronouncements into one sentence.

2. The Style of Official Documents: Distinctive Linguistic Features

In the framework of this paragraph some lexico-grammatical features of official business style are analysed. The style of official language is manifested in the sphere of business affairs and communication at the official level correspondingly. It accumulates the peculiarities of the bookish/literary functional and stylistic sphere by far the most than any other style due to its tendency towards exactness, norms, standardization, which facilitates favourable terms of the State Apparatus functioning, manufacturing process and documentation keeping. A great range of documents circulating between establishments and organizations, the rate of their processing make the introduction of individual elements of "the author" (as well as translator) impossible into the style of official documents. The main common requirements to the texts of this style are: exactness, preciseness and laconic brevity of the information transfer, which presupposes no figurativeness, but confirmed proofs, precise inner textual structure, adherence to the formal requirements to documents drafting (standards). From the view-point of linguistics, the peculiar features common to all stylistic varieties of official documents are the following:

■ the use of neutral words in their logical dictionary meaning (expressing neither emotiveness nor figurativeness);

■ the use of specialized terminology, (*public and political*, *professional and industrial*, *scientific*, *book-keeping*/*account*).;

■ the use of abbreviations, conventional symbols and contractions which are to be decoded (see special addenda in dictionaries);

■ the use of verbal nouns: *decision*, *agreement*, *requirement*, etc.;

■ the use of the nouns specifying people by the indications of their actions or relations with the other person: *witness*, *agent*, *client*, *executor*, *plaintiff*, etc.;

■ regular use of "chain" word combinations comprising Participial constructions. They reflect types of dependence between people, objects and phenomena: *the designated liaison officers for this Memorandum of Understanding*, *both parties striving to reach an amicable settlement*, *all disputes and/or controversy related to the matters arising from this Agreement*, etc.;

■ the use of set Attributive-and-Nominal expressions (general scope of the Agreement, Manning Agreement) and Verbal-and-Nominal word combinations (to facilitate the educational exchange of students, to exercise the above right, etc.);

■ the use of compound prepositions: in accordance with, in order to, in connection with, etc.;

■ the use mainly of simple sentences complicated by homogeneous parts of the sentence (subjects, predicates, objects). Compound and complex sentences can be also found in the texts of official documents (mainly not complicated);

■ the use of syntactical parallelism – sentence organization according to one and the same pattern in order to make information perception easier;

■ translation of one-word predicates (or Verb+Noun combinations) from English into Ukrainian using the analytical (split) ones: *to take part*, *participate* *(both variants are possible)* – *брати участь*; ***to control*** – *здійснювати контроль* (instead of – *контролювати*). 12) verbs used both in the form of the Present and Future Simple Tense are translated into Ukrainian in the present tense:

The Agent agrees to perform his obligations and services in accordance with the provisions in Article III of this Agreement.	Агент погоджується виконувати свої обов'язки та послуги згідно з умовами Статті III цієї Угоди.

■ the use of *shall/will + Verb* has a modal meaning of obligation to fulfill this or that requirement:

We will use all reasonable endeavours to enable the accuracy and reliability of the Services.	We will use all reasonable endeavours to enable the accuracy and reliability of the Services.

■ Lexical and grammatical structures of sentences in official documents signal about dual nature of the contents: terms, conditions, and agreement to fulfill them (mainly in agreements, contracts and memoranda of understanding).

■ the use of lexical negation instead of the grammatical one:

The Agent shall be under no responsibility or liability for failure to perform the Manning Agreement by reason of Force Majeure.	Агент звільняється від відповідальності за невиконання обов'язків за цією Угодою про Найм на Роботу, у випадку якщо це невиконання зумовлено обставинами непереборної сили.

When it comes to structural features of official documents, ***the following features are the signs of a good translation***: retaining semantic unity of the source text in its translated version – by taking care of the so-called semantic dominants (a network of direct connections between the core terminological units); keeping the normalized construction of a text (formally organized in a particular way); using proper chains of connectors – sequences of particular linguistic devices that keep the text unity, e.g. *as a result of*, *as the consequence of which* etc.; taking care of the unity by using typical sentences marking the beginning and the end of a text, min-ding proper text division by using formal connectors like separate paragraphs, or indexing the sequence of steps of argumentation.

The texts of official documents are highly standardized at both macro and micro levels. At the macro level their structure is strictly regulated and consists of a preamble, main text body and a concluding part. The standard text structure with changeable elements which is used for information presentation at different language levels is called a frame. The changeable elements within a text frame are called slots.

3. Official Documents: Typology

Classification of documents The main constituent of the official business style is the "*document*" characterized by strict sequence of information transfer. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English gives the following definition to the word "*document*": "*an official paper, book or electronic file that gives information about something, or that can be used as evidence or proof of something*".

Documents are of great legal importance since they certify true facts. They are also used as sources of information. In administrative activities the document serves both as the subject matter and the result of work. Among classification signs of the document the most significant one is its content (including the connection of the information fixed in it with the subject or specificity of activities. This idea is substantiated by A. P. Zagnitko who differentiates the following types of documents depending on classification signs and groups (see *Table 1*)).

№	Classification Signs	Groups of Documents
1.	*Name*	*Application, letter, telegram, certificate, instruction, office memorandum, minutes* and others.
2.	*Origin*	"*Office*" :: "*Personal*". *Office documents* are composed by organizations, enterprises or official persons who represent them. They are officially registered in prescribed manner. *Personal documents* are drawn up by separate individuals beyond the sphere of their office activity or exercise of public and civil obligations.
3.	*Place of Issue*	"*Internal*" :: "*External*". To *internal documents* one can refer the ones operating only within an organization, enterprise or establishment of their issue. To *external documents* one can refer the ones that are the results of negotiations held between establishments or organizations.
4.	*Purpose*	*Organizing, instructive, informational, regular, inquiry-informational, accounting-financial, contractual.*
5.	*Form*	"*Standard*" :: "*Individual*"/"*Non-standard*". *Standard documents* have a similar form and they are filled in strict sequence and according to obligatory rules (*standard letters, instructions, regulations, clauses*). *Individual documents* are composed in each individual case in order to solve specific situations. They are printed or written in hand (*minutes, orders, applications*).

6.	*Period of Exercise*	"*Ordinary*" (without time-limit) :: "*Urgent*" :: "*Top-urgent*". *Ordinary* (without time-limit) *documents* are the ones exercised in terms of a common turn, the order of their exercise is not marked by any law. *Urgent documents* are characterized by immediate exercise or exercise within some definite period. To these documents one can refer *telegrams, telephoned telegrams* (urgency of delivering). To the *top-urgent documents* we refer the documents marked "top-urgent".
7.	*Degree of Publicity*	"*For common use*" :: "*For office use*" :: "*Secret*" :: "*Top-secret*". There is a special seal of secrecy in the upper right-hand corner of secret or top-secret documents. One who divulges the content of these documents carries criminal amenability for it.
8.	*Stages of Composing*	"*Bill*" :: "*Originals*" :: "*Copies*". *Bills* are under the process of authors' work, they undergo office and legal investigation. *Original* is the main type of a document, its first and the only copy. It has a signature of the chief of an establishment and in case of necessity it is witnessed (certified) by a stamp or a seal. *Copy* is the true reproduction of the original. It is always marked by the sign ―copy‖ in the upper right-hand corner. The varieties of the copy are *issue, extract, duplicate*. *Issue* is a full copy of the document delivered from an establishment (the sender) and kept there. When one needs only a part of a document, he/she makes an excerpt. *Duplicate* is the other copy of a document issued if the original is lost. In juridical terms *Original* and *Duplicate* are of equal value.
9.	*Complication (Quantity of Issues)*	"*Simple*" :: "*Complex*". *Simple documents* cover one item, *complex documents* cover several items, which in great extent complicates their processing, exercise and saving.
10.	*Period of Keeping*	Of "*Temporary*" (within 10 years), "*Long-term*" (over 10 years), "*Permanent*".
11.	*Techniques of Production*	"*Hand-written*" :: "*Technically Made*"
12.	*Information Storage Options*	*On paper, disk, photo film, magnetic tape, punched tape, diskette, software*.

Common features of documents There are obligatory attributes of any document which we should take into account while composing documents and while translating them. These features are suggested by I. G. Danilyuk:

■ ***Authenticity*** (represented facts reflect the real state of affairs);

■ ***Precision*** (information cannot be interpreted in any way; neither double nature nor vague commentary of the text are accepted);

■ ***Logicality*** (information is logically organized, without any contradictions; the text contains only necessary information);

■ ***Laconic brevity*** (neither surplus space nor excessive text interpretation is acceptable);

■ ***Argumentation*** and ***conviction*** (regulations, proposals and petitions are properly grounded, they convince the addressee in sufficient extent to take a proper decision);

■ ***Emotional neutrality*** without any manifestation of individual peculiarities of the author's style;

■ ***Results prediction*** (planned consequences that may occur at the end of a document operation, strict conception of its effectiveness);

■ ***Structural*** and ***compositional preciseness*** (the structure of a document presupposes a definite plan: introduction, argumentation, summing up. The main part of a document presents regulations (petition, proposal, and requirement) on the basis of which this agreement is composed.);

■ ***Information simplicity*** (true facts are performed in a simple way, without primitivism);

■ ***Correspondence to the norms*** and ***requirements*** of the official and business communication (the use of emotionally neutral morphemes, words or word combinations; the use of words in their logical dictionary meaning; nouns are used instead of personal pronouns; information is presented on behalf of the third person singular; absence of subjectivism in the text).

Requisites of documents Each document as a unity is the aggregate of particular constituents called *requisites* which can be both *permanent* and *temporary*.

Permanent requisites are printed in the document blank, *temporary ones* are fixed on the blank during the process of its filling-in. The aggregate of requisites placed in a fixed order is called "*формуляр*" in Ukrainian, in English this kind of document organization is called "*form*" (a document with spaces (fields) to be filled in or marked, for a series of documents similar contents are typical):

Fill in the form and show your certificates witnessed by the attorney. – Заповніть цей формуляр і ваші довідки, засвідчені нотаріусом.

A sheet of paper with written requisites containing the permanent information is called *form/blank («бланк»)*. Each establishment, organization, enterprise must have two types of forms/blanks: a) *for letters*; b) *for other documents*. A group of requisites and their permanent constituents performed on the document form/blank as a block are called *stamp*. State standards stipulate *corner-* or *oblong-shaped* stamp form. *Oblong-shaped* stamp form is preferable when the name of an establishment consists of a great many words and cannot be put on the stamp place (that is – there isn‘t any space for it). A blank with the *corner-shaped* stamp form is more preferable since it is possible to fill in the requisites: “address”, “a special seal of secrecy/document access”, “a special seal of endorsement”, “resolution”, etc.

Lecture 3. BUSINESS COMMUNICATION: SPECIFICITY

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Business Communication: Importance of Business Communication in Modern World.**
2. **Business Communication: Business Writing.**

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1. Business Communication: Importance of Business Communication in Modern World

Business communication involves coordinating various tasks between the various tiers in a company, and it also involves all the interactions that the company makes with the outside world. Corporate success is impossible without effective means of business communication.

With the advent of technology to previously unimaginable heights, the importance of workplace and business communication has become even more profound. Gone are the days when businessmen would reach their office and find stacks of letters and notices lying on their desk. This is the digital era, and the presence of BlackBerry's and other mail exchange devices means that these same businessmen are never out of the loop, at any point of the day now. *Communication* is a pretty generic term and it takes up different meanings in different scenarios. When we speak of business communication we literally mean the channels of exchange of thoughts and opinions and orders that exist within a business organization, and also the channels that pass from one organization to another. The two communicating parties can be partners or one of them can be a vendor of the other one. And in today's highly globalized marketplace, these are relationships that are not uncommon by any means.

Latest Communication Technology As already mentioned, the digital era has brought with it many new facets and means for the purpose of business communication. 'Snail Mail' is no longer an option for the parties involved, and today one can reach a colleague or a superior instantly with the touch of a button. BlackBerry smart phones are what started this trend on a big scale, and these gave businessmen the opportunity to check their emails at any time, speak on the phone and text each other at any time, and also make video calls at any time. The Apple iPhone soon found its way into corporate hands, and this eventually led to the introduction of Android based phones as well.

The latest entrant in the field is the Apple iPad and other competing tablets, and these perform all the aforementioned tasks with ease. It is very important for business organizations to embrace the latest technology for communication purposes. Doing so not only showcases an attitude that is open to new innovations, but it also adds an air of professionalism and technological superiority about the company itself.

The Importance of Business Communication Business communication consists of two aspects, internal and external communications. Internal communications take place when people within the same company communicate and interact with each other. Large workforces in the biggest companies make this an essential aspect of running any business, and this involves the passing of orders, the reporting of results, the reporting of complaints, the discussion of new ideas, the examination of client needs, the determining of marketing strategies, the production of the goods and the motivating of employees. All of these aspects are crucial for the smooth running of a business, and embracing new technology in the modern world for these purposes will be nothing but helpful. The other form of communication that is necessary is external communication, and this involves interacting with vendors, clients, customers, press representatives and legal representatives. All of these channels require great tact and showmanship, and no company can survive without following the proper lines of communication. The needs of the clients need to be understood, the progress needs to be regularly conveyed to them, the procurement of raw materials needs to be carried out, the synergy and partnership with other companies needs to be nurtured, and the customers need to be targeted properly. All of these tasks require a concentrated effort from all departments of the organization, and this can only be achieved through proper means.

The importance of business communication in modern-day scenarios must not be underestimated by any means, since this is the life blood of any company.

Embracing new technology for this purpose is also essential, and all successful companies know this.

2. Business Communication: Business Writing

People in organizations spend a lot of time communicating. For example, research studies
regularly find that managers spend over 60 per cent of their time in meetings. In some cases they spend over 80 per cent of their day involved in communication. We also know that there are significant differences among organizations and cultures. In his study of European managers, P. Collett found that Czech managers were most communicative (68 per cent of their time). British managers were average at 62 per cent but French and Bulgarian managers were much lower – 56 percent and 52 per cent respectively.

But how *important* is communication to the organization's well-being? Is there enough evidence to support the claims that 'business communication is a critical success factor for any organization' or that 'good management depends on effective communication'?

The answer is clearly 'yes': 'research overwhelmingly suggests that improved internal communication brings large scale organizational benefits'.

The keystone of business communication is business writing. Business writing should achieve some business objective – it should help to get some necessary job done. For example, you might be writing to give someone accurate business or commercial information. How effectively you achieve your objective will depend in part on the writing style.

Style in writing is concerned with choice. One has to make choices about which words and phrases to use, how to organize paragraphs, and so on. One has to make stylistic choices to create a document which has the appropriate content and tone.

Content criteria What criteria can we use to evaluate the content of a business text? The most common are_listed below, although many texts on business communication focus on the first three:

- accuracy;
- brevity;
- clarity;
- emphasis.

Accuracy

In business writing, accuracy is the most important criterion. Inaccurate and incorrect information can often be more harmful than no information at all. But this raises a problem: *how* accurate must your writing be? A high degree of accuracy often requires considerable detail and qualification of the information. The result could be long and turgid texts which nobody can bring themselves to read.

Consider for example the following simple memo:

TO: General Manager
FROM: Personnel Manager

Support for Staff Canteen

Pursuant to your memo requesting information on staff attitudes to a staff canteen, I wish to report as follows.

In the week beginning 25 January 2001, Messrs Smith, Jones and Kbumalo of this department carried out a survey of staff opinion using a simple questionnaire, which had been prepared by Jo Singh of the Human Resources Department as part of a project for his management development qualification. They were able to give the questionnaire to 470 staff which is 69.24% of the workforce who take lunch and eat in the vicinity of the factory.

In the following week, the questionnaire was analysed using the scanner and software in Human Resources. The results indicated that 89.47% of those questioned were in favour of a staff canteen.

A full copy of their report is attached for your perusal.

Although this memo is only 136 words long, it manages to demonstrate many examples of poor style. For example,

– The reader does not need this level of accuracy. The writer should have rounded off the figure to 89 per cent or even 90 per cent.
– Opinion surveys depend on responses which can change from day to day, and it is not justified to report the result to two places of decimals. Again, rounding off the figures would be much more sensible.

<u>Brevity</u>

The example given above also fails on the criterion of brevity. Over-long documents are usually caused by unnecessary material and/or long-winded writing. In any communication situation, the writer usually has more information than is necessary and must therefore determine:

• what the audience already knows;
• what the audience needs to know;
• what the audience wants to know.

Once you have a clear idea of this, you can trim the message without leaving out important information. If we consider the memo above, we can ask the following questions:

• Is the exact date of the survey needed or wanted?
• Are the names of the investigators relevant?
• What level of accuracy is needed?

If we remember that the detailed information is all included in the report (which the manager could read to check it), the text of the memo can be reduced to the following:

Re: your request for information on attitudes to a canteen.

We have surveyed staff attitudes by questionnaire. We surveyed 70% of the staff and 90% of them were in favour. Our report is attached.

This reduces the passage from 136 words to 34 words, i.e. by 75 per cent.

Of course, you can take brevity too far! The above message can be reduced to only seven words: '90% of staff favour a staff canteen'. But this message would place a greater burden on the reader, who would have to recall the background to the request. There is also the problem of accuracy: *90 per cent of 70 per cent* were actually in favour. This brings us to the next criterion: clarity.

Clarity

Lack of clarity is often due to poor style, rather than difficult subject matter, and may be caused by: • stilted phrases and clichés; • too much detail and repetition; • lack of logical structure; • use of abstract and generic terms.

Consider for example the following letter:

Dear Sir

PACKING AND REMOVAL OF OFFICE FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT

We are in receipt of your esteemed favour of the 30th ult. and subsequent communication with regard to the estimate you require for the packing and removal of your office furniture, equipment and records from your premises at 123 Main St to your new premises at 456 Rivonia Rd on the 20th inst.

We wish to confirm the arrangement whereby our representative, Mr S. Strydom, will call on you at 09:00 hrs on 6th inst. at the above-mentioned address, to make an inspection of the above-mentioned items with a view to estimating the number of packing cases and vehicles we will need to effect the packing and subsequent removal of same.

We trust that the suggested time will suit your convenience. We will then submit our quotation for your consideration and hope that we may be entrusted to undertake the aforementioned work. Our quotation will remain valid for seven days. The time you suggest for removal, 08:00 on 20th inst., will be entirely convenient provided we receive your timeous response.

We beg to remain
Yours faithfully

W. Smith
Removals Manager

This letter is unclear for a number of reasons:

• use of outdated abbreviations and clichés, such as ult. and inst., and 'your esteemed favour';

• unnecessary detail. Does the customer need to know that the cartage contractor has to estimate the number of 'packing cases and vehicles' needed?

• fuzzy facts. What precisely is meant by 'subsequent communication' and 'timeous response'?

• pompous words, e.g. 'timeous', 'in receipt of'.

Emphasis

Important information should be emphasized. But how do we decide what is important? It is:

• information that is important to the audience; and
• information that will support your arguments as writer.

Less important information should be left out or placed later in the text. Apart from ranking items in order of importance, emphasis can be achieved by other methods, such as the following:

• *Format and typography*. The layout and typography of a document can be used to highlight important points. Techniques include use of white space, use of lists and bullet points, and use of headings.

• *Grammatical structure*. We can emphasize a word by making it the subject of a sentence. For example, rather than 'The temperature was measured by an optical pyrometer', you can say 'An optical pyrometer measured the temperature.' This puts the emphasis on the means of measurement.

Of course, emphasis should not be carried to the point where information is distorted or where important facts are concealed.

Using these criteria, the previous letter can be further improved:

How a letter can be improved

Improved letter	*Comment*
REMOVAL OF OFFICE CONTENTS	
Thank you for your letter of 30 June about moving the contents of your offices. We wish to confirm the following points from our telephone conversation.	Gives an immediate audience orientation.
We are able to move the contents of your offices at 08:00 on 20 July as required. We have provisionally included your move in our work schedule.	Immediately confirms that the work can be done.
Mr S. Strydom will visit you at 09:00 here. on 6 July to prepare a quotation and he will submit this to you within 24 hours.	There is no unnecessary information
We will hold your move on our removal schedule until 12 July to give you time to decide on our quotation. If there is anything you wish to know about these arrangements, please contact me at 706 2345(ext. 6781).	Gives a definite date. Also clarifies how the customer can respond.
Yours sincerely	
W Smith Removals Manager	

So, there are certain tonal requirements that almost invariably apply to written communication. The fact that written communication constitutes a permanent record means that writers should:
– avoid undue familiarity;
– adopt a professional tone;
– use a tone appropriate to the status of the receiver;
– be sensitive to the existence of different business practices;
– be sensitive to cultural differences.

NB: "*Leading guides to effective business language*"

Leading guides to effective business language are the following:

1. Never use a METAPHOR, simile or other figure of speech which you are used to seeing in print.
2. Never use a long word where a SHORT WORD will do.
3. If it is possible to cut out a word, always cut it out.
4. Never use the passive where you can use the ACTIVE.
5. Never use a FOREIGN PHRASE, a scientific word or a JARGON word, if you can think of an everyday English equivalent.
6. Use words your reader will recognize easily.
7. Construct straightforward sentences.
8. Keep most sentences short and simple.
9. Use clear and simple punctuation.
10. Make your point, then support it.

Lecture 4. BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE: GENERAL NOTIONS. TYPOLOGY OF BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Business Correspondence: Generalities.**
2. **Business Correspondence: Typology of Business Correspondence.**
3. **Business Letter.**
4. **Memos.**
5. **Curriculum Vitae. Covering letter.**
6. **Contract.**

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1. Business Correspondence: Generalities

In our day to-day life we exchange our ideas, thoughts and other information with our friends, relatives and other people. Sometimes we directly talk to them and sometimes we also write letters to them. In letters we express our feelings in a few words, we may ask for any information or we may write about a complaint in connection with our problems. Similarly businessmen also exchange ideas, information by writing letters. They communicate business information to customers, suppliers and others and at the same time receive a variety of letters from them. In this lesson let us know about different types of letters used in the process of business transactions.

Meaning of Business Correspondence Communication through exchange of letters is known as correspondence. We communicate our feelings, thoughts etc. to our friends and relatives through letters that may be called personal correspondence. A Businessman also writes and receives letters in his day to-day transactions, which may be called business correspondence. Business correspondence or business letter is a written communication between two parties. Businessmen may write letters to supplier of goods and also receive letters from the suppliers. Customers may write letters to businessmen seeking information about availability of goods, price, quality, sample etc. or place order for purchase of goods. Thus, business letters may be defined as a media or means through which views are expressed and ideas or information is communicated in writing in the process of business activities.

Importance of Business Correspondence Nowadays business operations are not restricted to any locality, state or nation. Today production takes place in one area but consumption takes place everywhere. Since the businessmen as well as customers live in far off places they don't have sufficient time to contact each other personally. Thus, there arises the need for writing letters. In the past the situation was not so. Business letters were not essential in olden days. But now the importance of letters has increased because of vast expansion of business, increase in demand as well as supply of goods. Let us learn about the importance of business letters.

● <u>Help in maintaining proper relationship</u> Now-a-days business activities are not confined to any one area or locality. The businessmen as well as customers are scattered throughout the country. Thus, there is a need to maintain proper relationship among them by using appropriate means of communication. Here business letters play an important role. The customers can write letters to the businessman seeking information about products and businessmen also supply various information to customers. This helps them to carry on business on national and international basis.

● <u>Inexpensive and convenient mode</u> Though there are other modes of communication like telephone, telex, fax, etc. but business information can be provided and obtained economically and conveniently through letters.

● <u>Create and maintain goodwill</u> Sometimes business letters are written to create and enhance goodwill. Businessmen at times send letters to enquire about complaints and suggestions of their customers. They also send letters to inform the customers about the availability of a new product, clearance sale etc. All this results in cordial relations with the customers, which enhances the goodwill of the business.

● <u>Serves as evidence</u> We cannot expect a trader to memorise all facts and figures in a conversation that normally takes place among businessmen. Through letters, he can keep a record of all facts. Thus, letters can serve as evidence in case of dispute between two parties.

● <u>Help in expansion of business</u> Business requires information regarding competing products, prevailing prices, promotion, market activities, etc. If the trader has to run from place to place to get information, he will end up doing nothing. It will simply result in loss of time. But through business letters, he can make all enquiries about the products and the markets. He can also receive orders from different countries and, thus enhance sales.

2. Business Correspondence. Typology of Business Correspondence

Many companies and institutions, both commercial and state-run, are interested in establishing and maintaining international ties and partnership with foreign offices. The slightest mistake in business correspondence, or a delay, can lead to losing a business partner, or to a rejection in closing a profitable deal.

Translation is required for both private letters between partners and a wide range of business documents, including diverse correspondence:

- business documentation
- letters
- commercial proposals;
- statements,
- reports;
- applications;
- CVs;
- accompanying letters;
- recommendations;
- agreements;
- thank-you notes;
- complaints
- sponsor letters etc.

Translation of business correspondence requires the mastery not only of languages, but also of skills of business etiquette, stock phrases which are used in various types of writing, and the norms and rules of drawing up business documentation. For example, even dates in English and Ukrainian are written differently.

Business correspondence is different from the ordinary means of communication of distinct characteristics, according to conventional wisdom to follow the seven principles (namely, thoughtful, complete, accurate, specific, concise, clear and polite), whose objective is to maintain a good business relationship, effective communication and conduct of normal business dealings.

It should be mentioned that different experts name different business correspondence types, and some types of business correspondence are, unfortunately, ignored by a lot of experts. Very often the classification of business correspondence depends on the types of business correspondence one needs to know or learn about if he/she is in business.

Business correspondences serve as the typical examples to manifest the influence of situational context. When translating business correspondences, translators should notice that English business correspondence writing has special characteristics (*the details will be given below*).

For instance:

(1) *Dear Mr. Hamper,*

I am afraid your failure to settle your account, which is overdue for more than six months, will leave us with no alternative but resort to legal proceedings.

This is to notify you that unless we receive your check for $ 7,550.00 by June 30, we will place your account in the hands of our attorneys for collection.

Apparently, this business correspondence's field is to collect the payment for goods. To meet the context, six professional words are used in two sentences – *account, overdue, notify, check, attorney, collection*. This is one of the most outstanding features of English business correspondence.

(2) *Thank you for your letter of the 16th of this month. We shall be glad to enter into business relations with your company. In compliance with your request, we are sending you, under separate cover, our latest catalogue and price list covering our export range. Payment should be made by irrevocable and confirmed letter of credit. Should you wish to place an order, please telex or fax us.*

Your prompt reply would be highly appreciated.

This letter aims at establishing business relations with another company. Although it is short, polite words are frequently used in this letter to leave the recipient a good impression.

(3) *You are invited to note two reasons for the price rise as follows*.

In business English, "You Attitude" is frequently adopted to show the respect towards the copartner, even when the writer is expressing requirements. This feature is also decided by the business situational context.

(4) *We should appreciate it if you could advance shipment*.

Modal words "should" and "could" are frequently used in business letters. Besides, "should" here needn't be translated; otherwise, it would lead to mistranslation.

Moreover, a lot of common words are endowed with special meaning by business situational context.

As business English correspondence is a kind of half-official document writing, it inevitably adopts big words to show its authority. For example, "commence" is applied instead of "begin". Some complex prepositional phrases are employed instead of single common prepositions, such as "with reference to" instead of "about", "prior to" instead of "before".

So, a lot of deals are accomplished through business correspondences and are concluded with business contracts, so business English translation becomes particularly important. Mistranslating some words or sentences may bring both parties great economic losses. Good business English translators should have not only profound knowledge of English, but also professional knowledge about business process. Besides, business English translators should be alert enough to the influence of context.

3. Business Letter

<u>*Essential Qualities of a Good Business Letter*</u> A letter should serve the purpose for which it is written. If a businessman writes a letter to the supplier for purchase of goods, the letter should contain all the relevant information relating to

the product, mode of payment, packaging, transportation of goods, etc. clearly and specifically. Otherwise, there will be confusion that may cause delay in getting the goods. Again the quality of paper used in the letter, its size, colour etc. also need special attention, because it creats a positive impression in the mind of the receiver. We may classify the qualities of a good business letter as: **a) Inner Qualities** and **b) Outer Qualities**.

a) Inner Qualities – The inner qualities of a good business letter refer to the quality of language, its presentation, etc. These facilitate quick processing of the request and that leads to prompt action. Let us discuss the various inner qualities of a good business letter.

● *Simplicity* Simple and easy language should be used for writing business letters. Difficult words should be strictly avoided, as one cannot expect the reader to refer to the dictionary every time while reading letter.

● *Clarity* The language should be clear, so that the receive will understand themessage immediately, easily and correctly. Ambiguous language creates confusion. The letter will serve the purpose if the receiver understands it in the same manner in which it is intended by the sender.

● *Accuracy* The statements written in the letter should be accurate to, the best of the sender's knowledge. Accuracy demands that there are no errors in the usage of language - in grammar, spellings, punctuations etc. An accurate letter is always appreciated.

● *Completeness* A complete letter is one that provides all necessary information to the users. For example, while sending an order we should mention the desirable features of the goods, i.e., their quality, shape, colour, design, quantity, date of delivery, mode of transportation, etc.

● *Relevance* The letter should contain only essential information. Irrelevant information should not be mentioned while sending any business correspondence.

● *Courtesy* Courtesy wins the heart of the reader. In business letters, courtesy can be shown/expressed by using words like please, thank you, etc.

● *Neatness* A neat letter is always impressive. A letter either handwritten or typed, should be neat and attractive in appearance. Overwriting and cuttings should be avoided.

b) Outer Qualities – The outer qualities of a good business letter refers to the appearance of the letter. It includes the quality of paper used, colour of the paper, size of the paper etc. Good quality paper gives a favourable impression in the mind of the reader. It also helps in documenting the letters properly. Let us discuss the various outer qualities of a good business letter.

● *Quality of paper* The paper used should be in accordance with the economic status of the firm. Now-a-days the cost of the paper is very high. Therefore, good paper should be used for original copy and ordinary paper may be used for duplicate copy.

● *Colour of the Paper* It is better to use different colours for different types of letters, so that the receiver will identify the letters quickly and prompt action can be taken.

● *Size of the paper* Standard size paper (A4) should be used while writing business letters. The size of the paper should be in accordance with the envelopes available in the market.

● *Folding of letter* The letter should be folded properly and uniformly. Care should be taken to give minimum folds to the letter so that it will fit the size of the envelope. If window envelope is used then folding should be done in such a way that the address of the receiver is clearly visible through the transparent part of the envelope.

● *Envelope* The size and quality of the envelope also need special attention. The size of the letter should fit the size of the letters. The business firms use different types of envelopes i.e., ordinary envelope, window envelope, laminated envelope etc. In window envelope there is no need to write the address of the receiver separately on the envelope. It is clearly visible through the transparent part on the face of the envelope, which may be called as window. In laminated envelope a thin plastic sheet or cloth is pasted on the inner side that gives extra protection to letters from being damaged during transit.

<u>*Parts of a Business Letter*</u> We have discussed above the qualities of a good business letter. The quality will be maintained if we give proper attention to each and every part of the letter. Let us now learn about the different parts of a business letter. The essential parts of a business letter are as follows:

1. Heading The heading of a business letter usually contains the name and postal address of the business, E-mail address, Web-site address, Telephone Number, Fax Number, Trade Mark or logo of the business (if any)

2. Date The date is normally written on the right hand side corner after the heading as the day, month and years. Some examples are 28th Feb., 2003 or Feb. 28, 2003.

3. Reference It indicates letter number and the department from where the letter is being sent and the year. It helps in future reference. This reference number is given on the left hand corner after the heading. For example, we can write reference number as AB/FADept./2003/27.

4. Inside address This includes the name and full address of the person or the firm to whom the letter is to be sent. This is written on the left hand side of the sheet below the reference number. Letters should be addressed to the responsible head e.g., the Secretary, the Principal, the Chairman, the Manager etc. Example:

M/S Bharat Fans Bharat Complex Hyderabad Industrial Complex Hyderabad Andhra Pradesh - 500032	The Chief Manager, State Bank of India Utkal University Campus Bhubaneswar, Orissa- 751007

5. Subject It is a statement in brief, that indicates the matter to which the letter relates. It attracts the attention of the receiver immediately and helps him to know quickly what the letter is about. For example,

Subject: Your order No. C317/8 dated 12th March 2003.
Subject: Enquiry about Samsung television
Subject: Fire Insurance policy

6. Salutation This is placed below the inside address. It is usually followed by a comma (,). Various forms of salutation are:

Very formal (for official business letters)

To Whom It May Concern:	Use only when you do not know to whom you must address the letter, for example, when writing to an institution.
Dear Sir/Madam,	Use when writing to a position without having a named contact.
Dear Mr Smith,	Use when you have a named male contact.
Dear Ms Smith,	Use when you have a named female contact; do not use the old-fashioned Mrs.
Dear Dr Smith,	Use when writing to a named doctor.
Dear Prof Smith,	Use when writing to a named professor.
Dear Chris Harmon,	Type the whole name when you are unsure of the recipient's gender.

Less formal but still professional (business letters)

Dear colleagues,	Use when writing to a group of people.
Dear Mary,	Use when writing to a named female.
Dear John,	Use when writing to a named male.

7. Body of the letter This comes after salutation. This is the main part of the letter and it contains the actual message of the sender. It is divided into three parts.

(a) Opening part It is the introductory part of the letter. In this part, attention of the reader should be drawn to the previous correspondence, if any. For example with reference to your letter no. 326 dated. 12th March 2003, I would like to draw your attention towards the new brand of television.

(b) Main part This part usually contains the subject matter of the letter. It should be precise and written in clear words.

(c) Concluding Part It contains a statement of the sender's intentions, hopes or expectations concerning the next step to be taken. Further, the sender should always look forward to getting a positive response.

8. Complimentary close It is merely a polite way of ending a letter. It must be in accordance with the salutation.

Very formal	
Your sincerely, *Sincerely yours,* *Respectfully,*	Use when you've started with Dear Sir/Madam or To Whom It May Concern.
Sincerely,	Use when you've started with Dear + name.

Less formal but still professional	
Kind regards, *Warm regards,* *Regards,*	not too formal but businesslike
Best wishes,	even less formal

9. Signature It is written in ink, immediately below the complimentary close. As far as possible, the signature should be legible. The name of the writer should be typed immediately below the signature.

10. Enclosures If you have enclosed any documents along with the letter, such as a resume, you indicate this simply by typing *Enclosures* below the closing. As an option, you may list the name of each document you are including in the envelope. For instance, if you have included many documents and need to ensure that the recipient is aware of each document, it may be a good idea to list the names.

11. Copy circulation This is required when copies of the letter are also sent to persons apart of the addressee. It is denoted as C.C.

12. Post script This is required when the writer wants to add something, which is not included in the body of the letter. It is expressed as P.S.

When writing business letters, you must pay special attention to punctuation. Punctuation after the salutation and closing – use a colon (:) after the salutation (never a comma) and a comma (,) after the closing. In some circumstances, you may also use a less common format, known as open punctuation. For this style, punctuation is excluded after the salutation and the closing.

The Layout of a Business Letter

P. COOK & CO. LTD (1)
123 King's Crescent Brighton BR3 6JF
Tel: 0222 123 456 Fax: 0222 123 555

Brown & Brown Luxury Foods Ltd (2)
100 South Road
London SE 1 3PL
1st September 2010 (3)
Your ref: FT/fr (4)
Our ref: CC/mt/25/08
Dear Sir/Madam, (5)
Re: Franchise agreement (6)
I am writing to enquire about the franchise opportunities you are offering, as detailed in yesterday's Financial Mail. (7)
P. Cook & Co Ltd is a medium-sized organisation with 10 years' experience in the catering business. We believe we have much to offer your company because of our specialised services
and established clientele. We therefore wish to explore a mutually beneficial franchise arrangement; I enclose a prospectus for your information. (8)
I look forward to hearing from you in the near future. (9)
Yours faithfully (10)
M. T. (signature)
pp David Smith (11)
Managing Director (12)
Cc , T. Smith, E. Smith
Enc (13)

• (1) The name of the company and its address, phone, and fax details generally appear at the top of the page, together with any Internet and e-mail details.

• (2) Put the address of the recipient on the left-hand side. If you know the name of the person and his/her title, add these above the address too.

• (3) The date can appear on the left- or right-hand side of the letter, though the most usual style is to have everything aligned to the left.

• (4) Add the recipient's and your own file references if needed. **Ref** is short for 'reference'.

• (5) You can start your letter in one of the following ways:

a) If you don't know the name of the person you are writing to, put: *Dear Sir/Madam*, or *Dear Sir or Madam*

b) If you know the name of the person, put: *Dear Mr* (surname) (for a man), *Dear Ms* (surname) (for a woman).

Avoid using *Mrs* or *Miss* unless the person you are writing to has already used the title.

• (6) Write the subject of your letter here. **Re** comes from Latin, and means 'with reference to'.

• (7) You can also start your letters in a number of other ways:

Thank you for your letter of…
I am writing in response to… /regarding / to inform you that /of…/to complain about…
Further to my letter of 12th August… (used to show that you are referring to a previous
letter or conversation)
Further to our recent telephone conversation, I am writing to confirm our meeting.
I would like to enquire about / whether…

• (8) Give further details about the purpose of your letter here.

• (9) You can close your letter in the following ways:

Thank you in advance for your help.
I would be most grateful if you could inform me…
Please, let me know if…
Please, phone to confirm the details.
I look forward to hearing from you /receiving your reply.

• (10) You can write the following expressions before your name.

a) If you don't know the person:
Yours faithfully, Yours truly
b) If you know the person you are writing to:
Yours sincerely, Sincerely
c) Other, less formal ways of ending your letter:
With best wishes, Best wishes, Regards.

• (11) **pp** (per procurationem) means that the letter was signed by Mandy Taylor on behalf of David Smith.

• (12) **cc** (carbon copy) means that a copy of the letter is being sent to the people mentioned.

• (13**) Enc** (enclosure) means that documents are being closed with the letter.

<u>Content and Style of Business Letter</u>

<u>Length</u>

The question often asked is "How long should the letter be?". The answer is, as long as necessary and this will depend on the subject of the letter. The style and the kind of language one uses can also affect the length. The right length includes the right amount of information. The letter should be neither too long nor too short. It is better to include too much information than too little. The worst letter of all is the one that gives every piece of information about a product – except the price.

<u>Planning your letter</u>

Plan your letter in advance. Ask yourself: what do you want your letter to achieve and what response do you expect. Note down everything you want to include in it before you start writing; then read your notes again to see that you have included all the necessary information, that you haven't included any unnecessary information and that you have put the information in the right order.

Simplicity

Commercial correspondence often suffers from an old-fashioned, pompous style of English which complicates the message and gives the reader the feeling that he/she is reading a language he/she does not understand.

Courtesy

The style should not, however, be so simple that it becomes discourteous. Stylistic devices can be used to make the letter more polite: complex sentences joined by conjunctions, rather than short sentences; passive rather than active; full forms rather than abbreviated forms.

Idioms and Colloquial Language

It is important to try to get the right tone in your letter. This means that you should aim for a neutral tone, avoiding pompous language on the one hand and informal or colloquial language on the other hand. A letter may be given the wrong tone by the use of inappropriate vocabulary, idioms, phrasal verbs, and short forms, among other things. You should be wary of using idiomatic or colloquial language in your letters.

Examples:

*You'll get your money back. – The loan will be repaid.

*a couple of hundred quid – two hundred pounds

*prices are at rock bottom – prices are very low

*prices have gone through the roof – prices have increased rapidly

Clarity

Your correspondent must be able to understand what you have written. Confusion in correspondence often arises through a lack of thought and care and there are a number of ways in
which it can happen.

Abbreviations

Abbreviations can be useful because they are quick to write and easy to read. But both_parties need to know what the abbreviations stand for. The abbreviations *c.i.f.* and *f.o.b.*, for_example, are recognised internationally as meaning *cost, insurance*, and *freight* and *free on_board*. But can you be sure that your correspondent would know that *o.n.o.* means *or nearest_offer*?

Typology of business letter

The term "business letters" refers to any written communication that begins with a salutation, ends with a signature and whose contents are professional in nature. Historically, business letters were sent via postal mail or courier, although the internet is rapidly changing the way businesses communicate. There are many standard types of business letters, and each of them has a specific focus.

Sales Letters Typical sales letters start off with a very strong statement to capture the interest of the reader. Since the purpose is to get the reader to do something, these letters include strong calls to action, detail the benefit to the reader of taking the action and include information to help the reader to act, such as including a telephone number or website link.

Order Letters Order letters are sent by consumers or businesses to a manufacturer, retailer or wholesaler to order goods or services. These letters must contain specific information such as model number, name of the product, the quantity desired and expected price. Payment is sometimes included with the letter.

Complaint Letters The words and tone you choose to use in a letter complaining to a business may be the deciding factor on whether your complaint is satisfied. Be direct but tactful and always use a professional tone if you want the company to listen to you.

Adjustment Letters An adjustment letter is normally sent in response to a claim or complaint. If the adjustment is in the customer's favor, begin the letter with that news. If not, keep your tone factual and let the customer know that you understand the complaint.

Inquiry Letters Inquiry letters ask a question or elicit information from the recipient. When composing this type of letter, keep it clear and succinct and list exactly what information you need. Be sure to include your contact information so that it is easy for the reader to respond.

Follow-Up Letters Follow-up letters are usually sent after some type of initial communication. This could be a sales department thanking a customer for an order, a businessman reviewing the outcome of a meeting or a job seeker inquiring about the status of his application. In many cases, these letters are a combination thank-you note and sales letter.

Letters of Recommendation Prospective employers often ask job applicants for letters of recommendation before they hire them. This type of letter is usually from a previous employer or professor, and it describes the sender's relationship with and opinion of the job seeker.

Acknowledgment Letters Acknowledgment letters act as simple receipts. Businesses send them to let others know that they have received a prior communication, but action may or may not have taken place.

Cover Letters Cover letters usually accompany a package, report or other merchandise. They are used to describe what is enclosed, why it is being sent and what the recipient should do with it, if there is any action that needs to be taken. These types of letters are generally very short and succinct.

Letters of Resignation When an employee plans to leave his job, a letter of resignation is usually sent to his immediate manager giving him notice and letting him know when the last day of employment will be. In many cases, the employee also will detail his reason for leaving the company.

E-mails

E-mail (short for *electronic mail*) is a means of sending messages between computers. There are numerous advantages to e-mail. One of the advantages of e-mail over a normal 'snail-mail' letter is that it is quick and direct. It can be used both within and between companies; and is an effective way to communicate quickly and easily with people all over the world. It is especially useful for short messages and for everyday correspondence, e.g. setting up a meeting, passing on information, and making or replying to a request. You can pick up your messages, even when you are travelling, via a laptop or palmtop. With compatible systems, you can access text and graphic documents, and spreadsheets. Whatever you send or receive can be quickly and easily filed.

The disadvantages of e-mail include technical problems which may result in unexpected nondelivery of messages, or attachments arriving in unreadable form. A non-technical disadvantage is that, paradoxically, the ease with which messages can be sent results in large amounts of ‘junk’ and unnecessary communication, which waste time. A major drawback is the lack of privacy and security. Do not use an e-mail to communicate confidential information. It is sometimes said that an e-mail message is like a postcard – anyone can read whatever you have written. However, digital signing and encryption (coding data, so that it can only be read by authorised users), which both work along similar lines, make e-mail more secure.

There are several areas of business communication where more traditional forms of correspondence are still the most suitable. For example, personal and sensitive correspondence such as, messages of congratulation, condolence, or complaint are usually best done by letter.

Confirmation of contracts, memos which are confidential and must be signed to acknowledge receipt and any correspondence which may be needed for legal or insurance purposes should not normally be sent by e-mail. You might find a job on the Internet, but most companies would still expect your application to consist of a completed form with a covering letter.

The first part of the e-mail address is usually the surname or initial of the person you are contacting, or the name of the department, or a shortened version of it. The second part, which appears immediately after the @ (at), is the name of the ISP (Internet service provider) or organisation, or again an abbreviation of it. Usually, the last part of the address includes the domain name suffixes referring to the type of organisation (e.g. ‘co’ for ‘company’, or ‘ac’ for ‘academic’ for a university) and to the country from which the message was sent (e.g. ‘uk’ for the United Kingdom). Other examples of domain name suffixes referring to types of organisation include:

.biz business
.gov government office
.org non-profit-making organisation
.pro profession (e.g. medicine, law).

The layout of a typical e-mail message

The header gives information about the message. In addition to the basic details it may include: **c.c.** stands for carbon copies. Here you insert the e-mail addresses of anyone you want to send copies of the message to. **b.c.c.** stands for blind carbon copies, which you should use if you do not want the main recipient to know who has received copies.

The signature is like the signature block in a letter, although it usually includes more details, e.g. the sender’s company or private address, and telephone or fax numbers. You can programme your email software to add your signature automatically to the end of outgoing messages.

The style of e-mails

E-mail is a relatively recent development and because it is perceived as a quick and informal means of communication, people are often unclear about the style and conventions they should use in business situations. As a general rule, although e-mail correspondence may tend towards informality, it should follow the same principles as any other form of business correspondence. In general, e-mail messages follow the styles and conventions used in letters. Do not confuse personal messages with business messages. In a business message, the same rules of writing apply as for a letter: write clearly, carefully, and courteously; consider audience, purpose, clarity, consistency, conciseness, and tone. Use correct grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, as you would in any other form of correspondence. Do not write words in capital letters in an e-mail message: This can be seen as the equivalent of shouting and therefore have a negative effect. If you want to stress a word, put asterisks on each side of it, e.g. **urgent**. Keep your e-mail messages short and to the point. People often receive a lot of e-mails at work, so conciseness is especially important. In general, limit yourself to one topic per message. This helps to keep the message brief and makes it easier for the recipient to answer, file, and retrieve later. Check your e-mail message for mistakes before you send it, just as you would check a letter or a fax message.

<u>E-mail abbreviations</u>

In order to keep e-mail messages short, people sometimes use abbreviations for common expressions, just as they do in text messaging. These are known as <u>TLAs</u> (three-letter acronyms), although some of them are more than three letters long. Here is a list of some of the most commonly used TLAs:

AFAIK *as far as I know*
BFN *bye for now*
BTW *by the way*
COB *close of business*
CU *see you*
FAQ *frequently asked questions*
Fwd *forward*
FYI *for your information*
IMO *in my opinion*
IOW *in other words*
LOL *laughing out loud*
NRN *no reply necessary*
OTOH *on the other hand*
Thx *thanks*
TIA *thanks in advance*
2 *to*
U *you*
RU *are you*

Use TLAs with great care, and only when you have established a friendly, informal relationship with your correspondent. They should not be used in letters and faxes.

<u>Emoticons</u>

Emoticons (a combination of the words *emotion* and *icon*), also known as *smileys*, are often used in informal e-mail correspondence. They express emotions which may not be evident from the words alone, e.g.:

:-) a smile
:-(a frown

;-) a wink.

On the whole, it is better not to use them in business messages, as they may be considered unprofessional, especially if you do not know the recipient well or are not sure that he or she will understand them.

When writing an e-mail, it will not always allow you to get your message across in the way it was intended as a face to face conversation or a phone call can do. It cannot, for example, convey the same message as if you were speaking it as a hand gesture, facial expression or the tone of your voice might do. Therefore, if you need to express urgency, you should always send the e-mail as ‘high priority’ but be careful about overdoing that. Also, be very careful if you are angered or upset by an e-mail. In fact, It is good practice to always leave an e-mail you receive a good half hour at least before you respond to it if it is of a serious nature or it is something that has upset or annoyed you.

<u>Golden Rules of Internal E-mail</u>

Firstly, don’t write anything that you wouldn’t want anybody within the company to read. Don’t criticise a boss or fellow employee unless you would be happy for the person whom you are criticising to see that e-mail too, as they just might. People have had disciplinary action taken against them as a result of bad-mouthing their boss or supervisor to a colleague within an e-mail. Similarly, unjust criticism or comments that challenges somebody else’s integrity, competence or honesty can, if discovered and traced back to you, result in libel action against you.

<u>Clear and Concise Information</u>

Whilst it is not strictly necessary to use formal language such as ‘Yours sincerely’ in an internal e-mail, make sure that the information you are conveying is still as precise and clear as it would be if you were talking face to face. For example, if you are arranging a meeting, make sure the time, date and location are clearly indicated on the e-mail. You will be only too aware of the vast amount of e-mails that come into your inbox each day so you can be certain that your colleagues, and especially your boss, will get just as many and perhaps even more, so keep the e-mails short and to the point and put an appropriate subject title. That way, your colleagues will know whether they need to look at it straight away or whether it can wait until later.

<u>Send and Response</u>

Clearly understand that although your e-mail will be received within a second or two of sending it, that you should not expect an immediate response. E-mail is one of the most important tools at our disposal these days, giving us the opportunity to send a message to people all over the world in an instant. However, no matter that you will always respond to an e-mail the second it lands in your inbox, not all people are the same and colleagues may be out of the office or simply busy when you send them an e-mail and you should not get annoyed if you don’t get a response straight away. If you prefer, in response to an e-mail that needs a reply, you can always respond to the person in a brief message and tell them you have received it and that you are a bit busy but will get back to them later.

<u>Good E-mail Housekeeping</u>

If you receive lots of e-mails a day from colleagues that are relevant, set up individual folders in your inbox to file them, e.g. meeting mails, mails to reply to later, company information, latest updates etc., so that you can refer to individual e-mails quickly, if you need to. Make sure you delete items from your mailbox regularly to avoid unnecessary storage of out of date e-mails that are no longer relevant.

<u>The Use Of ‘cc’ and ‘bcc’</u>

If you need to send an e-mail to several people simultaneously, only copy in (cc) those who really need to see the e-mail. If it doesn’t concern them directly, don’t cc them in just for the sake of it. It is useful however, to ‘blind copy’ bcc yourself in to any e-mails you might send or keep a record of them in your ‘sent items’ box.

4. Memos

In today's business world memo writing is as an integral part of every organization. It is a document which is used for communication within a company. Memos can be as formal as a business letter however; the heading and overall tone make a memo different from a business letter though.

As memos are generally sent to co-workers and colleagues, you do not have to include a formal salutation or closing remark. Memos follow a particular format, although a company or an organization may choose to develop alternative formats.

Most often memos solve problems either by informing the reader about policy changes, price increases, etc. They could also be used as a means to persuade the reader to take an action, such as attending a meeting, using less paper, or changing a current production procedure and so forth.

Regardless of the specific goal, memos are most effective when they connect the purpose of the writer with the interests and needs of the reader.

Specimen memo:

MEMO

To: All staff
From: James Smith
Subject: New General Manager
Date: 20th September 2010

Richard Evans has been appointed General Manager following the retirement of Peter Williams. All staff are requested to attend an informal meeting in the cafeteria on Monday 20th September at 5 p.m. where they will be introduced to Mr. Evans.

5. Curriculum Vitae. Covering letter

When employers ask for 'applications in writing', you should always send a <u>CV</u> (short for Curriculum Vitae) and a <u>covering letter</u>. These two go together. The CV gives the basic factual information and the covering letter explains why you are interested and shows how you would be just right for the job.

Writing a CV and covering letter is similar to filling in an application form. Your CV should include your personal details, education, qualifications and employment details, while the covering letter acts like the personal statement/relevant experience section.

Unlike an application form however, you have the freedom to choose what to put in, how to make it look and what format to use to emphasise your skills. Constructing a CV is easier than you think.

<u>Format</u>

There is no set way a CV should look. Following these tips will help you to produce a good CV:

- Type or word-process your CV. If you don't have your own computer, your school, local library, careers centre or college should be able to help.
- Print each page on a separate sheet and print on one side only.
- Use black ink on good quality white (A4) paper. Fancy fonts and coloured paper will distract rather than impress a prospective employer.
- Make it clear and easy to follow by being consistent with headings, fonts and use of bolding.
- Leave plenty of white space and wide margins, so it doesn't look cluttered.
- Put your name and full contact details at the top so they are easy to see.
- Make sure it is free of any errors.
- Finally, don't be afraid to use your own judgement. If you're going for an unconventional, creative job – a plain, sensible CV might not be the right approach.

Beyond the basics, it is important that you choose a format that you feel comfortable with and that is appropriate to the employer you are targeting. There are three types of CV format to consider:

Chronological CVs

This is the format most people are familiar with. It is a historical account of your career that is easy to write, popular with employers and a good way of showing career progression, work experience, qualifications or skills gained. It is usually structured like this:

- Employment history – most recent first.
- Additional activities and skills – stating anything that shows you have relevant or transferable skills.
- Education/qualifications - most recent or most impressive first. If they are obscure, elaborate briefly and leave out any irrelevant qualifications.

Functional CVs

Some employers don't like functional CVs as they can appear to be hiding gaps, so try to include a brief history of work experience and education. Aside from this, a functional CV places emphasis on your relevant skills and strengths, giving you the chance to describe yourself through what you can do, rather than jobs you have had. It is a good way of showing what you have to offer if you:

- Are going for your first job
- Have had a series of short-term jobs

Have been out of work

Are returning to work after a break

Are trying to get a job that is very different from what you have done before.

Aims & Content

The main message you're trying to get across is 'I can do this job and I'd fit in well'. No employer has the time to wade through pages of information, so it is up to you to select the bits that are right for this application. Doing so will demonstrate that you have the ability to communicate in a concise and effective way.

The basics you must include:

- Name and full contact details
- Date of birth, rather than age
- Education and qualifications
- Relevant work experience
- Interests, activities and achievements that clearly show relevant and transferable skills
- Details of referees if they have been asked for, otherwise write 'References available on request'

It is also a good idea to include a very brief career profile or objective, summarizing your achievements and ambitions and keeping it relevant to the job you are going for – treat is as a teaser for the rest of your CV.

Unless requested, avoid the following:

- Marital status
- Gender
- Number or ages of children
- Photograph
- Health details
- Nationality
- Salaries earned or expected
- Putting a date on your CV
- Giving your reasons for leaving previous positions

The extras

To make sure your CV gets chosen, you need to go the extra mile. Here is how:

- In your employment history, explain in 10-20 words what the companies do and give a positive description of your roles. Then list the primary duties, achievements and skills gained that show your suitability for the job - do this in five or six bullet points for a recent post, fewer for earlier ones.
- Keep it as short and punchy as possible and avoid using the word 'I'. Instead of 'I led a team of five people', write: 'Led team of five'. Use as many active words as you can. Good words to use include: 'gained', 'initiated,' 'developed', 'managed', 'co-ordinated', 'led', 'supervised', 'trained', 'handled', 'collaborated' and 'organised'.
- Don't include things that happened more than five years ago, unless they still have particular relevance to your application.

• Only add a Personal Interests section to the end of your CV if you feel it is relevant or adds value – and keep it short and positive. Avoid mentioning activities that are passive (watching TV is not very proactive); vague (don't put 'reading' unless you can be specific about authors or genres); or mundane (there is nothing special about 'going to the pub').
• Look critically and objectively at every item you include. If you can't immediately see why it is there, take it out. If you can get someone else to do this as well, that is helpful – particularly if they know something about the career area you are targeting.

There are certain faux pas for CVs:
• The CV is longer than 2 sides of A4.
• Writing anything negative.
• If applying for a specific position, omitting a covering letter explaining one's suitability.
• Using the wrong size of envelope -- CVs are generally put unfolded into C4 envelopes.

Including false information on a CV (on the work experience or the education/training) in order to get a job or anything else of value is fraud, a serious criminal and civil offence. An employer has the right to dismiss an employee or claim money from him or her in a civil court or even have the employee arrested for making false statements.

Cover Letter (Covering Letter)

A cover letter is a brief one page letter sent along with the resume to potential employers. The purpose of the cover letter is to present yourself to potential employers and to let them know what position you are interested in and why you'd be a good fit for their company.

Cover Letter Format

The cover letter format should be almost identical to the regular business letter format.

Cover Letter Writing

Generally the cover letter will consist of three paragraphs. The first paragraph is an introductory one which presents yourself. You want to include information on the position you are looking for and how you heard about and why you are interested in the position and/or company.

The second paragraph should provide information on your skills, strengths, education, qualifications and/or experience. This paragraph should be concise and give specific examples of why you are the ideal candidate and not simply restate your résumé.

The final paragraph should close the letter by requesting an interview and possibly suggesting times that are convenient for you or stating that you can come in at a time that's convenient for the employer. Also you should let the recipient know the best way and/or time to contact you (you should let them know both your contact email and phone number so that they can reach you by their preferred method). Or you can let them that you'll follow up on this letter with a phone call in several days. You should thank them for their time to round off the letter.

Each cover letter that you send out should be unique and tailored to the specific company and position you are applying for. Using one cookie cutter cover letter will lessen your chances of landing an interview. Also be sure to check for grammar and spelling and keep the letter to one page in length.

Specimen Cover Letter

Your Ref: KH 305/9

25 Westbound Road
Borehamwood
Herts
WD6 IDX

Mrs J. Hastings
Personnel Office
International Computing Services PLC
City Road
London EC3 4HJ

11 September 2010

Dear Mrs Hastings,

I would like to apply for the position advertised in *The Guardian* on 4 September for a
Personal
Assistant to the Sales Director.

As you will see from my CV, much of the work I do in my present position is that of a PA. I
deal
not only with the routine work of a secretary, but also represent the Assistant Director at
small
meetings and functions and am delegated to take a number of policy decisions in his absence.

Your advertisement asked for knowledge of languages. I have kept up my French, and learnt Italian for the past two years at evening classes, and have regularly visited Belgium and Italy
with
the Assistant Director, acting as an interpreter and translator for him.

I am also familiar with the latest developments in Information Technology, having just
completed
a one-month course at The City College, in addition to previous day release courses I attended when I was with Johnson Bros.

I am particularly interested in the situation you are offering, as I would like to become more involved with an IT organization. I am quite familiar with many of the software products that
ICS
manufacture for office technology.

As well as my secretarial skills and experience of running a busy office, I am used to working with technicians and other specialized personnel in the field of computers. I have a genuine interest in computer development and the people involved in the profession.

Please let me know if there is any further information you require. I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Carol Smith (Ms)

Encl. CV

Specimen CV

William Smith
99 Long Road
Chesterfield
England
CH68 1PP

Tel: 01111 333 555
E: william.smith@deck-one.co.uk
Born: 26 August 1965

An experienced Data Entry Clerk with computer systems experience
Excellent communication skills at all levels
Looking for a role that includes significant customer contact

Experience

Data Entry Clerk / Customer Inquiries Assistant
Parcel Man Delivery Company
1995 to present

• Received telephone orders from customers and entered in JACKS SOFTWARE
• Updated customer details database to improve information quality·
• Called nation-wide depots checking vehicle availability·
• Liaised with team members to ensure route efficiency for deliveries·
• Employed Windows NT and XP operating systems
• Completed daily back up of database system for data protection

Route Planner
Big Truck Ltd
1992 to 1994

• Received load information from other departments and correlated on company Intranet
• Operated TIGER software system that was linked remotely to vehicles
• Managed four vehicles and worked closely with their drivers to ensure prompt deliveries

Automated Sorting Machine Operator
Royal Mail
1982 - 1992

• Received 6 weeks intensive training in Glasgow
• Maintained and operated sorting robot with specific software controller

Education & Training

• Microsoft Access - Intermediate DEC 01
• Microsoft Excel - Basics DEC 01
• Windows NT4 - End User NOV 01
• GCSE German - 1998
• 3 GCE O Levels

Achievements

Completed a 100-mile sponsored cycle ride and raised over £2000 for a local charity.

Interests

I like to play five–a-side football twice a week with a local team. At the weekends fishing and golfing with my son is very relaxing. Other spare time is spent surfing the Internet or entertaining friends with oriental meals.

Personal

Full clean driving license
British passport
Non-smoker

References are available upon request.

6. Contract

When two or more parties intentionally enter into a legally-binding, voluntary agreement, that's a contract. A contract is an exchange of promises between two or more parties to do or refrain from doing something that is enforceable in a court of law. A formal agreement between two or more parties, a document that states the terms of such an agreement. While most contracts can be and are made orally, such as buying a book or a cup of coffee, legal contracts are written and have certain "binding power" over the obligations of the parties involved. Any breach of contract is recognized by law and remedies are provided.

A written contract must be offered, understood, accepted and signed by all the parties involved. Once the document translation is signed, these parties are legally bound by all of its terms. Because of their importance as such, it is recommended that contracts are only translated by certified translators who are familiar with common contractual terms and their nature and significance in different national and international courts of law. More importantly, because each contract term indicates a contractual obligation, breach of which can lead to the conduct of lawsuits, it should be translated clearly, precisely and free of error. It is recommended that both the original and translated copies of a contract are examined and approved by all the parties involved before they are signed.

The most important feature of a contract is that one party makes an ***offer*** for an arrangement that another ***accepts***. This can be called a ***concurrence of wills*** or ***consensus ad idem*** (meeting of the minds) of two or more parties.

Note **What Is a Business Contract*? The short and sweet contract definition is "a legal document between parties that spells out just what is expected and required of each party." Business contracts require several elements, including:

1. **The parties:** "Parties" to the business agreement are those who are involved. These parties must be listed by name, which may mean the legal name of the business they operate under, and whether they are a customer or a vendor.
2. **Signing authority:** If the signatories do not have the legal authority to sign the contract on behalf of named parties, then the contract may not be valid or enforceable.
3. **Considerations:** This term refers to what each party means to gain from signing the contract, and it can be payment, services or goods.
4. **Receipt:** Each party must receive a signed copy of the contract for their records.
5. **Main terms of the agreement:** These contractual terms need to be very specific to protect both parties' interests. What services are to be performed, at what price, by when, under what circumstances and with what intended results?
6. **Additional terms:** Beyond parties, considerations and deadlines, some terms affect the execution and success of delivering on the agreement. They include particulars about whether the contract can be terminated, by whom and under what circumstances. Additional terms may include whether the agreement can be transferred to or assumed by another party, and how disputes will be

negotiated, such as through arbitration or mediation. Many other factors can be spelled out, too, such as under which state's laws the contract is to be enforced, what legal mailing addresses and contacts are to be used, compensation for breaching and whatever other terms either party may require.

7. **Date:** Finally, the contract must have a date on which it was signed.

Business Contract Categories There are dozens of common business contracts that suit all manner of needs, and you may be surprised at what contracts might exist to protect your interests.

The four most common business contract categories include sales, employment, general business and property contracts.

- **Sales contracts:** These are among the most common contracts used in business, and even in people's everyday lives, because every sale or purchase is an implicit agreement. Sales contracts can detail how goods, services and properties are sold, purchased, returned and transferred. Some examples of sales contracts might be a bill of sale, a warranty agreement, purchase orders and security agreements.
- **Employment contracts:** These include far more contract types than one might suspect. Their purpose is to set the terms of someone's employment. It can cover services for hire, like consultants, dog walkers, distributors, sales reps and independent contractors. When someone is fired, they are given a termination agreement. Non-disclosure agreements are an employment contract intended to protect companies from being liable for indiscreet employees. Non-compete contracts protect a company for a select duration post-employment to avoid valuable employees from being poached by a competitor. These are just a few examples of employment contracts.
- **General business agreements:** These contracts cover all manner of the business – from the formation of the company and partnerships involved through to joint ventures and sale or purchase of stocks. In many businesses, indemnity agreements and waiver of rights are important, as are non-disclosure agreements issued to contractors and other third parties. General business contracts can also include settlement agreements when resolving disputes. Franchise contracts and even the agreement to sell the business would both be considered common agreements.
- **Property contracts:** Leases may not be a frequent contract businesses sign, but they're among the most critical because a bad lease can hamstring a business. Leases can cover everything from parking arrangements to maintenance expectations and security deposits, and even whether pets are allowed to visit let alone remain on the premises. When leasing for a business, it's important to know what the contract requires of the lessee for issues like having tenant's insurance, condition upkeep and property alterations.

Lecture 5. INTERNATIONAL DIPLOMATIC DOCUMENTS: TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS. AGREEMENTS

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Treaty: Specificity.**
2. **Agreement: Characteristics.**
3. **Social and Political Documents: Specificity of Translation.**

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1. Treaty: Specificity

In international law and diplomatic practice the term "treaty" is used in two senses. In a generic sense, it refers to all agreements between states which are of a binding character, and in a restricted sense it refers to a title given to instruments containing such international agreements. Instruments setting out agreements between states bear different titles, such as Treaty, Agreement, Convention, Protocol, Act, Declaration, Statute, Regulations, Provisions, Pact, Covenant, Compromis, Accord, Arrangements, Modus Vivendi, Exchange of Notes and Concordat.

It is, however, not obligatory to give a title to an international agreement, as agreements can be concluded even by exchange of letters or notes. Some of the agreements are highly formal in character whilst others are not. The titles given to international agreements have little significance from the legal point of view, as all international agreements, by whatever name called, are equally binding in nature. In diplomatic literature, the terms "treaty", "convention", and "protocol" are all applied more or less indiscriminately to international agreements. Sometimes the same instrument is designated in different places in its text by different terms. There is no obvious explanation for this diversity of terminology.

International law prescribes neither the form nor the procedure for the making of international engagements, and consequently their form depends upon the will and convenience of the parties. In practice it is governed also by usage and varies depending on whether agreement is reached between states, heads of state, governments (increasingly used), or particular ministers or departments.

It is not every international instrument, however formal it may be, that would be regarded as a treaty. Unless the instrument creates contractual obligations between two or more states, the essential requirements of a treaty are not fulfilled. The binding nature of treaty obligations is the oldest and doubtless the most fundamental rule of international law.

Of all international engagements which are intended to have an obligatory character the most important are "treaties", the term being derived from the French *traiter* [L. *tractare*], which means “to negotiate”. The next most solemn type of international engagement is the ― convention‖, derived from the Latin word *convention* meaning “agreement”. This term is frequently, though not necessarily, employed in connection with agreements to which a large number of countries are parties, and especially to agreements of the law-making type.

The treaty document covers the following parts:

1. The <u>preamble</u> containing: (a) a list of the heads of state in whose names the treaty is concluded; (b) a list of plenipotentiaries; (c) usually a statement of the purposes and objectives of the treaty, sometimes accompanied by a recital of principles and circumstances; (d) a declaration that the plenipotentiaries have the necessary powers.

2. The <u>text</u> generally containing, in the form of numbered articles, the respective agreements of the signatories. It also indicates: (a) the requirements for bringing the treaty into force; (b) its duration; (c) the place where the exchange of ratifications will take place.

3. The <u>final clauses</u>, specifying that the plenipotentiaries have signed the treaty and have affixed their seals thereto, and including information on: (a) the number of signed copies; (b) if in more than one language, the languages used, and that each is equally authentic; (c) the place and date of signature.

According to the importance of a treaty, the preamble can be more or less enlarged. The statements in the final clauses are, on the contrary, usually identical.

The provisions of a treaty determine the manner in which and the date on which the treaty enters into force. Where the treaty does not specify a date, there is a presumption that the treaty is intended to come into force as soon as all the negotiating states have consented to be bound by the treaty.

After a treaty is concluded, the written instruments, which provide formal evidence of consent to be bound by ratification, accession, and so on, and also reservations and other declarations, are placed in the custody of a depositary, who may be one or more states, or an international organization. The depositary has functions of considerable importance relating to matters of form, including provision of information as to the time at which the treaty enters into force. The United Nations Secretariat plays a significant role as depositary of multilateral treaties.

As regards treaties, conventions, etc., these, when concluded between two countries, are now ordinarily signed in two texts, viz., in the respective languages of the two countries, though exceptions occur. In the case of treaties of a general nature — multilateral treaties — concluded between many states, the usual practice was to use French, but now French and English. Those concluded under the auspices of the United Nations normally have texts in its official languages, all equally authentic.

The authenticity of the text is established by means of the signatures of the plenipotentiaries. It will depend on the circumstances whether signature alone is sufficient to bring the treaty into force or whether some further step, such as ratification, is necessary.

2. Agreement: Characteristics

The term «agreement», like the term «treaty» itself, is used in a number of senses. In a generic sense, it covers any meeting of minds — in this case the minds of two or more international persons. A distinction must always be drawn between agreements intended to have an obligatory character (i. e. the assumption of legal rights and duties) and agreements not intended to have such a character. In a restricted sense, the term «agreement» means an agreement intended to have an obligatory character but usually of a less formal nature than a treaty. Like treaties, agreements in this restricted sense may be concluded between Heads of State, between States or between Governments.

No doubt because of its general and relatively innocuous meaning, «agreement» is the term invariably used to describe understandings intended to have an obligatory character concluded (a) between the United Nations and the specialized agencies (including the "relationship agreements" covered by Articles 57 and 63 of the Charter) and (b) between the specialized agencies themselves («inter-agency agreements‖).

A term substantially equivalent to «agreement» is «arrangement». The view that an «agreement» implies an undertaking somewhat more definite than an «arrangement» is not believed to be correct. Other terms sometimes used instead of «agreement», though believed to be substantially similar, are: (a) memorandum of understanding constituting an agreement; (b) understanding; (c) agreed joint statement; (d) memorandum constituting an agreement; (e) joint declaration constituting an agreement.

Sometimes agreements are concluded between a Government Department in one country and a Government Department in another. It depends on the circumstances whether such "interdepartmental agreements" are binding under international law or whether they are merely private law contracts.

Agreements are frequently concluded by exchange of notes, sometimes referred to as «letters». In such cases, the representative of one government sends the representative of another government a note setting forth the arrangements proposed or to be agreed upon. The reply agrees to and frequently repeats the terms of the first note.

A temporary or working arrangement made in order to bridge over some difficulty pending a permanent settlement is usually referred to as *modus vivendi*. This type of a temporary arrangement is made in a most informal way and does not require ratification. Commercial agreements of a temporary nature have often been entered into in the form of a *modus vivendi* by the United States as well as Great Britain.

Most agreements of a binding nature follow the same compositional design, with some variation, as treaties and other international compacts. Generally speaking, diplomats divide international agreements into three parts. The first one is a preamble, which states the overall purpose of the act. The second part embodies the substantive commitments undertaken by the parties and comprises most of the «text». The third part is the «final forms», more or less stereotyped, equivalent to the precautions that governments have been traditionally called to take to guarantee juridical regularity of the negotiation and the qualification of the plenipotentiaries, and the specifications of how the agreement shall be brought into force, how it may be terminated and, sometimes, how it may be amended. This is what is called the «protocolary» or «formal provisions».

2. Social and Political Documents: Specificity of Translation

When dealing with the documents which specify public regulations, translators are to keep it mind that these kinds of documents have the definite linguistic features. Thus, it is recommended that linguists should use the appropriate translation techniques. Let us illustrate the principal approach to the translation of official state documents with the help of the translation example (*the Constitution of the United States of America*) into Ukrainian.

Constitution of the United States of America **11th March, 1861**	**Конституція Сполучених Штатів Америки** **11 березня 1861 року**
PREAMBLE We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.	**ПРЕАМБУЛА** Ми, народ Сполучених Штатів, з метою створення досконалого союзу, установити правосуддя, забезпечити внутрішній спокій, запровадити спільну оборону, сприяти загальному добробуту та забезпечити нам і нашим нащадкам блага свободи – видаємо і встановлюємо цю Конституцію для Сполучених Штатів Америки.
ARTICLE. I.	**СТАТТЯ I.**
Section. 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.	**Розділ 1.** Уся законодавча влада, що надається цим, належить Конгресу Сполучених Штатів, який має складатися із Сенату і Палати представників.
Section. 2. 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.	**Розділ 2.** 1. Палата представників має складатися з членів, котрих кожні два роки обиратиме народ окремих штатів; виборці в кожному штаті повинні задовольняти вимоги, встановлені для виборців найчисленнішого представництва законодавчих органів штату.
2. No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.	2. Представником не може обиратися особа, яка не досягла віку двадцяти п‘яти років і не була сім років громадянином Сполучених Штатів, а також особа, яка не мешкає у тому штаті, де її обиратимуть.
3. Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent	3. Кількість представників і прямі податки мають розподілятися поміж штатами, що увійдуть у цей союз, відповідно до їхнього населення, яка має визначатися додаванням до загальної кількості наявних вільних людей включно з тими, хто відбуває певні терміни служби, за винятком індіанців, які не оподатковуються, трьох п'ятих решти осіб. Фактичний підрахунок має проводитися протягом трьох років після першої сесії Конгресу Сполучених Штатів,

Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, NewYork six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.	а потім кожних наступних десяти років у спосіб, установлений законом. Кількість представників не має перевищувати одного представника на тридцять тисяч мешканців, але кожен штат повинен мати принаймні одного представника. Доки не буде підраховано населення, штат НьюГемпшир має право обирати трьох представників, Масачусетс – вісьмох, Род-Айленд і Плантації Провіденс - одного, Конектикут – п'ятьох, НьюЙорк – шістьох, Нью-Джерсі – чотирьох, Пенсильванія – вісьмох, Делавер – одного, Меріленд – шістьох, Віргінія – десятьох, Північна Кароліна – п'ятьох, Південна Кароліна – п'ятьох, Джорджія – трьох.
4. When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.	4. Якщо у представництві якогось штату звільниться вакансія, то органи виконавчої влади цього штату мають видати наказ про вибори на заступництво цієї вакантної посади.
5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.	5. Палата представників обирає свого спікера та інших урядовців, і тільки їй належить право переслідувати вищих державних урядовців у суді за процедурою імпічменту.
Section. 3. 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.	**Розділ 3.** 1. Сенат Сполучених Штатів має складатися з двох сенаторів від кожного штату, обраних законодавчими органами штату на терміном на шість років; кожному сенаторові належить один голос.
2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.	2. Коли сенатори зберуться після перших виборів, вони мають негайно поділитися на три якомога рівні групи. Сенатори першої групи залишаються на своїх місцях протягом двох років, сенатори другої групи – протягом чотирьох років, і сенатори третьої групи – протягом шести років; таким чином, одна третина сенаторів переобиратиметься кожні два роки; якщо у Сенаті звільниться вакансія внаслідок смерті котрогось сенатора або через будь-які інші причини під час перерви у роботі законодавчих органів відповідного штату, то виконавчі органи цього штату можуть призначити когось тимчасово на цю посаду до наступної сесії законодавчих органів, які

	вже подбають про обіймання такої вакантної посади.
3. No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.	3. Сенатором не може обиратися той, хто не досягнув віку тридцяти років і не був дев'ять років громадянином Сполучених Штатів, а також той, хто на час обрання не мешкає у тому штаті, де його обиратимуть.
4. The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.	4. Віце-президент Сполучених Штатів має бути головою Сенату, але право голосу він має тільки у тому випадку, коли голоси присутніх поділяються навпіл.
5. The Senate shall choose their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.	5. Сенат обирає решту своїх урядовців, а також свого тимчасового голову на час відсутності Віцепрезидента, або коли Віце-президент виконує обов'язки Президента Сполучених Штатів.
6. The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.	6. Тільки Сенатові належить право імпічменту вищих державних урядовців. Сенат засідає з цією метою, сенатори повинні скласти присягу або відповідне підтвердження. Під час розгляду справи Президента Сполучених Штатів, то головувати має голова Верховного Суду. Ніхто не може бути засудженим, якщо за це не проголосують дві третини присутніх сенаторів.
7. Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.	7. У випадках імпічменту вищих державних урядовців присуд не може перевищувати такого покарання, як усунення з посади і позбавлення права обіймати будь-яку почесну, громадську чи платну посаду в Сполучених Штатах, але особу, піддану імпічменту не звільняють від обвинувачення, судового розгляду, присуду і кари згідно із законом.

A translator is to keep to appropriate patterns of lexical and grammatical structures within the frames as well as pay specific attention to translation of standard terms, cliché and set phrases in the texts.

Lecture 6. TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES. GENERALITIES

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Basic Translation Devices.**
2. **Transformation in the Process of Translation.**

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1. Basic Translation Devices

The basic set of translation devices (a kind of 'translator's tool kit') usually comprises partitioning and integration of sentences, transposition of sentence part, replacement, addition and omission of words and word combinations as well as a special type of transformations called antonymous translation.

■ *Partitioning* is either replacing in translation of a source sentence by two or more target ones or converting a simple source sentence into a compound or complex target one.

One is to distinguish between *inner partitioning* (conversion of a simple sentence into a compound or complex one) and *outer partitioning* (division of a sentence into two or more). *Inner partitioning* is used when translating English verbal complexes into Ukrainian:

Come along and see me play one evening. – *Приходь коли-небудь увечері – побачиш, як я граю*.

I want you to listen to this song. – Я хочу, щоб ти послухав цю пісню.

When translating from English into Ukrainian *outer partitioning* (unlike inner) is more a matter of personal translator's choice based on the proper account of stylistic and genre peculiarities and communication intent of both the source text and its translation. While using *outer partitioning* the translator divides a SL sentence into two or more. *Outer partitioning* is out of the question in case of translating official legal or diplomatic documents (laws, contracts, memos, etc.) but it becomes a totally justified translation option in consecutive translation of a long and complex sentence:

There was a real game too, not a party game played in the old school hall and invented by my eldest brother Herbert, who was always of an adventurous character until he was changed by the continual and sometimes shameful failures of his adult life. – *Була і справжня, а не салонна гра, в яку ми грали в актовому залі старої школи. Цю гру вигадав мій старший брат Герберт – людина винахідлива і схильна до всіляких пригод, доки постійні і часом ганебні негаразди дорослого життя не змінили його вдачу.*

■ <u>*Integration*</u> is the opposite of partitioning, it implies combining two or (seldom) more source sentences into one target sentence. Generally, integration is a translation device wholly depending on stylistic peculiarities and communication intent of the text being translated. In oral translation, however, integration may be a text compression tool, when an interpreter is to reduce the exuberant elements of the source text to keep in pace with the speaker:

Олена Філіп'єва любить усі свої ролі. Якщо якусь із них довго не танцює – починає сумувати. – *Olena Filip'eva loves all her roles and even misses them should too much time pass without performing them.*

■ <u>*Transposition*</u> is a peculiar variety of inner partitioning in translation meaning a change in the order of the target sentence syntactic elements (Subject, Predicate, Object, etc.) as compared with that of the source sentence dictated either by peculiarities of the target language syntax or by the communication intent:

"The fight will be boarding at Gate 17 in about fifteen minutes," the girl added with a smile. – *"Приблизно за п'ятнадцять хвилин на цей рейс буде посадка біля виходу номер 17," – посміхаючись, додала дівчина.*

■ <u>*Replacement*</u> is any change in the target text at the morphological, lexical and syntactic level of the language when the elements of certain source paradigms are replaced by different elements of target paradigms:

No sooner did he start his speech than the President was interrupted. – *Не встиг президент розпочати промову, як його перервали.*

The replacements are necessary because English and Ukrainian possess different language systems. The following basic types of replacements are observed in English-Ukrainian translation:

1) replacement of noun number and verb tense and voice paradigms, e.g. replacing singular form by plural and vice versa; replacement of active voice by passive; replacement of future by present, past by present, etc.;

2) replacement of parts of speech (the most common is replacing Ukrainian nouns by English verbs when translating into English);

3) replacement in translation of a negative statement by an affirmative one – this is an efficient device called antonymous translation.

■ *Additions* in translation is a device intended for the compensation of structural elements implicitly present in the source text or paradigm forms missing in the target language.

Additions in translation from English into Ukrainian stem from the differences in the syntactic and semantic structure of these languages. In English, being an analytical language the syntactic and semantic relations are often implicitly expressed through order of syntactic elements and context environment whereas in predominantly synthetic Ukrainian these relations are explicit (expressed in relevant words). When translating from English into Ukrainian a translator is to visualize the implicit objects and relations through additions. So-called 'noun clusters' frequently encountered in newspaper language are especially rich in 'hidden' syntactic and semantic information to be visualized by addition in translation:

Green Party federal election money – *гроші Партії зелених, призначені на вибори на федеральному рівні*;

fuel tax protests – *протести, пов'язані з підвищенням податку на паливо*;

peer-bonded goods – товари, розраховані на споживання певною віковою групою.

■ *Omission* is the reduction of the elements of the source text considered redundant from the viewpoint of the target language structural patterns and stylistics.

Omission is the opposite of addition – to understand it consider the literal translation into English of the above noun clusters from their Ukrainian translation and compare these translations with the original English text:

Green Party federal election money – *гроші Партії зелених, призначені на вибори на федеральному рівні* – *Green Party money intended for the elections at the federal level*;

fuel tax protests – протести, пов'язані з підвищенням податку на паливо – protests related to the increase of the fuel tax;

peer-bonded goods – товари, розраховані на споживання певною віковою групою – goods designed for use by certain age groups.

Furthermore, the meaning of their constituents being the same, a number of expressions do not require translation into Ukrainian in full, e.g., *null and void – недійсний*.

So, as one can see, proper omissions are important and necessary translation devices rather than translator's faults as some still tend to believe.

2. Transformation in the Process of Translation

By *translator's transformations* are meant such major and minor alterations in the structural form of language units performed with the aim of achieving faithfulness in translation. Not all sense units need to be structurally transformed in the process of translation, a considerable number of them are transplanted to the target language in the form, meaning and structure of the original, i.e., unchanged or little changed, and namely:

1) most of genuine internationalisms, some idiomatic expressions, culturally biased notions: *computerization – комп'ютеризація; democratic system – демократична система; finite la commedia – фініта ля комедія (ділу кінець); veni, vidi, vici – прийшов, побачив, переміг*, etc.;

2) many loan internationalisms which maintain in the target language the same meaning and often the same structural form but have a different phonetic structure (sounding): *agreement/concord (gram.) – узгодження; adjoinment/juxtaposition – прилягання; standard of living – життєвий рівень*, etc.;

3) almost all proper nouns of various subclasses (names of people, family names and geographical names, etc.): *Cronin – Кронін, Newton – Ньютон, Ohio – Огайо, General Motors Corp. – корпорація "Дженерал Моторз"*, etc.

Some proper names and family names, as well as geographical names, names of companies/corporations, firms, titles of newspapers, magazines/ journals do not always completely retain their source language form in the target language, e.g.: *Lorraine – Лотарингія, Munich – Мюнхен, Charles V – король Карл П'ятий, Boston Globe and Mail – Бостонська газета "Ґлоуб енд мейл"*, etc. Such proper nouns acquire in the target language a somewhat different sounding and additional explication, which often extend their structure as compared with that in the source language (*Reuters – інформаційне агентство Великої Британії "Рейтер"*).

A considerable number of various different proper nouns do not maintain their form or structure due to the historic tradition or because of the lack of the corresponding sounds in the target language: *Варшава – Warsaw, Харків – Kharkiv*, etc.

Different alterations and changes constantly take place in the process of translation both at word level and at syntactic level. Translation of sense units at the language level, hence, represents a process of constant transformations. The most regular of these are the following two:

1) ‘*inner*’ or implicit transformations taking place at the lexical/semantic level of the target language as compared with the corresponding source language units;

2) ‘*outer*’ or explicit transformations causing some alterations in the target language as compared with the structure of the corresponding sense units of the source language units.

A vivid illustration of *inner* transformation is realized in genuine internationalisms through their synonymous or polysemantic meanings. For example, the noun icon apart from its direct Ukrainian meaning *ікона* may have some in some context also the meanings *зображення*, *портрет*, *статуя*.

Sometimes the meaning (‘inner form’) of an internationalisms or any other language unit may be absolutely unexpected: *national* – 1. *національний*; 2. *народний, державний*. Therefore, inner or implicit transformations disclose the semantic potential of the source language units in the target language.

The *outer*/*explicit* transformation is performed in the process of translation practically of any type of the source language unit; already the change of the Roman type for the Ukrainian or Arabic one presents an explicit or outer transformation (*Львів – Lviv*, *Чоп - Chop*).

A kind of *combined explicit* and *implicit transformation* may sometimes take place too. Thus, the proper name John may have three outer/contextual explicit realizations of its implicit meanings in Ukrainian: 1. *Джон* as in *Джон Буль*, *Джон Кітс*; 2. *Іван* as in *Pope John Paul II – папа Іван Павло Другий*; 3. *Іоанн* as in *John the Baptist – Іоанн Хреститель*.

Outer/explicit transformations may sometimes change the structural form of the sense unit under translation. Thus, the noun the Hebrides becomes Гебридські острови, and vice versa: some Ukrainian and English wordgroups, proper names are transformed in the target language into single words: *Уральські гори – the Urals, the Antarctic Continent – Антарктика, the Arctic Region – Арктика*, etc.

A peculiar type of outer transformation is observed at the phonetic/ phonological level. The outer transformation in this case finds its expression in adopting the spelling and sounding forms of the lexical units of the source language to the corresponding target language phonetic/phonological system, which usually differs from that of the source language. For example: assembly [əˈsɛmbli] – асамблея, ceremony [ˈsɛrɪməni] – церемонія, discussion [dɪˈskʌʃ(ə)n] – дискусія, etc.

A lot of language units have either completely or partly changed their outer form according to the requirements of the target language: *bachelor – бакалавр, charter – хартія, therapeutic – терапевтичний*, etc.

Outer (structural) and inner (lexico-semantic) transformations are often resorted to when rendering the meaning of specific notions of national lexicon, namely:

1) when a single-word notion of the source language is translated by means of a single word (when the notions are internationalism): *mister, miss, barter, etc. – містер, міс, бартер*, тощо.

2) when a word-group notion is conveyed through a common word: *Lord Harry – чорт/чортяка, for ever and ever – назавжди/навіки, to turn one's way – зникнути (втекти)*. 3) when a word-group structure of a specific source language notion is rendered through a sentence structure: *Nosy Porker – людина/той що втручається в чужі справи; doctor Fell – людина, що викликає до себе антипатію*.

Complete transformations are often performed when rendering the meaning of idiomatic expressions, especially of those based on specific notions of the national lexicon: *the Dutch have captured Holland – це всі знають, це всім відомо (пор. "відкрив Америку"); Queen Ann is dead – це вже старе/це вже чули; or in Ukrainian: курям на сміх – for cats and dogs to laugh at*, etc.

Lecture 7. BUSINESS COMMUNICATION. TRANSLATION PECULIARITIES

List of Issues Discussed:

1. Strategies of Business English Translation from the Perspective of Functional Equivalence.
2. Business Communication. Translation Peculiarities: GRAMMAR.
3. Business Communication. Translation Peculiarities: LEXIS.

3.1. Conveying the Names of Companies, Corporations, Firms.
3.2. Units of International Lexicon and Ways of Rendering their Meaning and Lingual Form.
3.2.1. Ways of Conveying the Lexical Meaning of Genuine Internationalisms.
3.2.2. Translation of Loan Internationalisms.

3.3. Ways of Rendering the Meaning of Nationally Biased Units of Lexicon.

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1. Strategies of Business English Translation from the Perspective of Functional Equivalence

Business English translation owns very specific manners and styles. And in this context scientific researches indicate that Nida's theory of functional equivalence can be best applied in business English translation and functional equivalence can be achieved.

Nida's Functional Equivalence Nida's most notable contribution to translation theory is Functional Equivalence, which is also well known as Dynamic Equivalence. Nida's Functional Equivalence theory is often held in opposition to the views of philologists who maintain that an understanding of the source text (ST) can be achieved by assessing the inter-animation of words on the page, and that meaning is self-contained within the text (i.e. much more focused on achieving semantic equivalence). This theory, along with other theories of correspondence in translating, are elaborated in his essay where Nida states that "no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences, it stands to reason that there can be no absolute correspondence between languages. Hence, there can be no fully exact translations." While the impact of translation may be close to the original, there can be no identity in detail. Nida then sets forth the differences in translation, as he would account for it, within three basic factors:

1) The nature of the message: in some messages the content is of primary consideration, and in others the form must be given a higher priority.

2) The purpose of the author and of the translator: to give information on both form and content; to aim at full intelligibility of the reader so he/she may understand the full implications of the message; for imperative purposes that aim at not just understanding the translation but also at ensuring no misunderstanding of the translation.

3) The type of audience: prospective audiences differ both in decoding ability and in potential interest. Nida brings in the reminder that while there are no such things as "identical equivalents" in translating, what one must seek to do is to find the "closest natural equivalent".

Here he identifies two basic orientations in translating based on two different types of equivalence: *Formal Equivalence (F-E)* and *Dynamic Equivalence (D-E)*.

• *F-E* focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content. Such translations then would be concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept. Such a formal orientation that typifies this type of structural equivalence is called a "gloss translation" in which the translator aims at reproducing as literally and meaningfully as possible the form and content of the original. The principles governing an F-E translation would then be: reproduction of grammatical units; consistency in word usage; and meanings in terms of the source context.

• *D-E* on the other hand aims at complete "naturalness" of expression. A *D-E* translation is directed primarily towards equivalence of response rather than equivalence of form. The relationship between the target language receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original (source language) receptors and the message. The principles governing a *D-E* translation then would be: conformance of a translation to the receptor language and culture as a whole; and the translation must be in accordance with the context of the message which involves the stylistic selection and arrangement of message constituents.

Dynamic equivalence includes four aspects:

1) Lexical equivalence: The meaning of a word lies in its usage in language. In translation practice, what confuses us is how to find the corresponding meaning in the target language.

2) Syntactic equivalence: It deals with sentence structure and grammar, such as number, gender, tense, which is more complicated than lexical equivalence.

3) Textual equivalence: It aims to achieve passage equivalence, in which language is not the unique element to be considered, how the language represents meaning and performs its function in a specific context matter most.

4) Stylistic equivalence: Different stylistic works have different language features. Achieving stylistic equivalence needs good mastery of both source language and target language. Different language styles represent different culture elements.

Among these four aspects, Nida believes that the meaning is the most important, followed by the form.

From one Language to another, the expression dynamic equivalence was replaced by functional equivalence. But essentially there are not too many differences between the two concepts.

Strategies for Achieving Functional Equivalence in Meaning The most important principle of business English translation from the perspective of functional equivalence is that two kinds of languages should be equivalent in the meaning. The process of translation from original language to target language by three stages as Nida said: firstly, builds a code; secondly, operates the code; and thirdly, how to relate the two language codes.

Nida's functional equivalence theory requests that the target reader has the same effect on the translation with the original reader on the original version. As Newmark said, "Translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original."

In business English translation from the perspective of functional equivalence, translators pay attention to aim at the equivalent language rather than the same language. In this sense, translators are supposed to remember that the most important thing for business English translation is the meaning of the original version.

In order to achieve functional equivalence in meaning, we should reach functional equivalence in two aspects: lexical level and syntactical level.

Strategies at Lexical Level

1) Selecting the word's meaning based on part of speech (As is known to us, many English words have different parts of speech. Different parts of speeches often have different meanings. When we translate business English, it is better to identify the part of speech of the word in the sentence, and then select the appropriate meaning based on part of speech of this word. There are some examples as followed:

(1) If a particular cargo is partially damaged, the damage is called particular *average*.

(2) It's obvious that the products are below *average* quality.

As for "average", in Sentence (1) it is a noun in which "particular average" means "a partial loss in marine insurance". However, in Sentence (2) it is an adjective, which means "the usual level or amount for most people or things".

(3) We had like to inform you that our counter sample will be sent to you by DHL by the end of this week. After you have *confirmed* it ASAP, we can start mass production.

(4) Payment will be made by a 100% *confirmed*, irrevocable Letter of Credit, available by sight draft.

As for "confirmed", in Sentence (3) it is a verb, which means "to make a position, an agreement"; in Sentence (4) it is an adjective, which means "underbond".

2) Taking account of context and lexical collocation (Taking account of context and lexical collocation is also an important strategy to reach equivalence in the meaning at lexical level. When we translate business English materials, context and lexical collocation influence the word's meaning a lot. A word in English often contains more than one meaning, but there is only one meaning in the specific context. And this meaning of existence depends on its context or lexical collocation. Therefore, whatever we translate business English to Ukrainian or translate Ukrainian to English, it is necessary to determine the target language phrase match according to the content or style adjacent. There are some examples below:

(1) Routine duties of the joint venture company are to be *discharged* by the general manager appointed by the Board of directors.

(2) Party B agrees that the expiration of this license shall not *discharge* party B from its obligation.

As for "discharge", it means "carrying out one's duty in Sentence (1), and "releasing one party from the terms of a contract" in Sentence (2).

(3) We are glad to say that just now the *market* is in a very strong position.

(4) Cotton and silk blouses made in China enjoy a good *market* in North Africa.

As for "market", it means "market quotation" in Sentence (3). When it appears in the phrase "a good market" in Sentence (4), we will translate "good selling".

3) Negative There are huge differences in the expression style between Ukrainian and English. Therefore, it is not the same when negative meaning is expressed in Ukrainian and English. Sometimes it is necessary for translators to translate some affirmative sentences into negative ones or on the contrary.

Strategies at Syntactic Level When translating sentences in business English, based on the syntactic features of business English, we should firstly pay attention to translate long sentences, passive voice sentences and established sentence patterns.

1) Division for long sentence Because of the features of business English, long sentence takes a large proportion in business English. Here the author stresses that division is to divide the long sentence into several independent short sentences which are connected by logic relations and context, not by grammar marks according to Ukrainian practice. What is the most important is that translators must understand the original language clearly. And then it is possible for them to translate a long English sentence into short Ukrainian sentences. Practice with the translation of the examples given below:

- *During the 1950s China exported agricultural products to the USSR and East European countries in return for manufactured goods and the capital equipment required for the country's industrialization program which places emphasis on the development of heavy industry.*

- *In the event that one or both parties fail to fulfill or perform any of the duties provided hereunder on account of Force Majeure, the party (or both parties) shall inform the other party (or each other) of the matter immediately and provided the case is duly verified by the competent authorities, they may delay in performance of or make non-performance of the relevant contract obligations herein.*

- *That was a principle that Apple tragically failed to understand when it backed off from licensing its graphic computer interface, assuring that its market share would be savaged by Microsoft's more open Windows operating system.*

In these three cases, the translator is advices to divide the long and complex sentences into short Ukrainian sentences to help the reader to better understand the meaning.

2) Passive voice

3) Use settled sentence for established sentence patterns In business English, there are many sentence models, which can improve the efficiency of business communication and make one party feel the other party's politeness. Practice with the translation of the examples given below:

- *Please accept our thanks for the trouble you have taken.*

- *We will spare no efforts in endeavoring to be of service to you.*

- *It will be greatly appreciated if you will kindly send us your samples.*

- *We tender you our sincere thanks for your generous treatment of us in this affair.*

- *We should be grateful for your trial order.*

Strategies for Achieving Functional Equivalence in Style Nida thought that functional equivalence in the meaning and functional equivalence in style are the two main factors for business English translation. A successful translator needs to reach equivalence both in meaning and in style.

Translated Text Should Be Formal Qing Xiubai proposes five varieties of style. They are: the frozen style, the formal style, the consultative style, the casual style and the intimate style. We know business English belongs to formal style, so in order to achieve equivalence in style, the target language should be formal. Study the following example:

1. *Subject of the Contract* 1.1. The Seller has sold and the Buyer has bought the machinery, equipment, materials, and services ("Equipment") as listed in Appendix 1 being an integral part of this Contract.	1. *Предмет Контракту* 1.1. Продавець продав, а Покупець купив машини, обладнання, матеріали і послуги ("Обладнання"), перераховані у Додатку 1, який є невід'ємною частиною цього Контракту.
2. *Prices and Total Value of the Contract* 2.1. The Total Contract Value is as follows: Equipment and engineering FOB U.K. port + documentation £ ____ Supervision, start-up and training £ ____ Spare and wear parts £ ____ Freight £ ____ Total price CIF Odessa £ ____ Discount £ ____ Total Contract Value £ ____	2. *Ціни і загальна сума Контракту* 2.1. Загальна сума Контракту складає: Обладнання і техніка на умовах FOB (порт Великобританії) +документація £ ____ Супровід, запуск і підготовка персонал £ _ Запасні і зношувані деталі £ ____ Фрахт судна £ ____ Загальна сума на умовах CIF Одеса £ ____ Знижка £ ____ Загальна сума Контракту £ ____
2.2. The prices are understood to be CIF Odessa including cost of packing, marking, loading on board a ship, stowing and fastening the equipment in the hold, and the cost of the materials used for this purpose.	2.2. Ціни розраховуються на умовах CIF Одеса, включаючи вартість упаковки, маркування, завантаження на борт судна, розміщення і кріплення в трюмі, а також вартість матеріалів, які використовуються для цієї мети.
2.3. The prices are firm for the duration of the Contract and shall not be subject to any revision except on account of any mutually agreed changes or modifications to equipment specification and/or quantities listed in Appendix 1 to this Contract.	2.3. Ціни залишаються незмінними протягом всього строку дії Контракту і можуть бути переглянуті лише у випадку взаємно погоджених змін у специфікації обладнання або його модифікації, а також змін кількості його складових частин, вказаних у Додатку 1 до цього Контракту.
3. *Time of Delivery* 3.1. The Equipment specified in Appendix 1 of the present Contract is to be delivered within two (2) months from the date of opening the Letter of Credit specified in Clause 4.1 of this Contract.	3. *Строк поставки* 3.1. Обладнання, перераховане у Додатку 1 до даного Контракту, повинно бути поставлене протягом двох (2) місяців з моменту відкриття акредитиву, вказаного у п.4.1 даного Контракту.

3.2. The delivery date is understood to be the date of the clean Bill of Lading issued in the name of the Buyer, destination Odessa, Ukraine.	3.2. Датою поставки Обладнання вважається дата видачі чистого коносамента із вказівкою імені Покупця і кінцевого порту призначення – Одеса, Україна.

In international trade, in order to avoid confusion and unnecessary ideological controversy between two parties, the legal documents should be very formal.

Translated Text Should Be Courteous Courtesy is one of the important stylistic features of practical business English. In fact, courtesy plays an important role in the whole business process. It is vital to help to give a good impression on each other, and to deepen a friendship, and to reinforce a business relationship or establish new business. In order to convey two party's sincere, translator should keep this sincere in the translation. Practice with the translation of the examples given below:

- *We should be grateful if you would revise the invoice and let us have a correct copy.*
- *We wish we could accept your counter-offer but unfortunately the price quoted by us is quite realistic, we cannot do so.*
- *Would you please send us your catalogue together with detailed offer?*
- *We hope to enlarge our trade with your country and intend to grant you a 4% discount.*
- *I am really sorry that our products can hardly satisfy your requirement.*

In international trade, in order to maintain relationship between two parties, keeping courtesy is an important strategy.

Strategies for Achieving Functional Equivalence in Culture The stuff above discusses how to achieve functional equivalence in meaning and in style. But these are basic requirements in business English translation. Functional equivalence in culture is at a deeper level.

As a translator, we are supposed to pay special attention to cultural factors in the original language text and strives to preserve them in the target language text from the original cultural messages as much as possible. It is very difficult to achieve functional equivalence in culture totally. In order to try the best to achieve functional equivalence in culture, translators must have a good knowledge of history and background of the original language and the target language. Practice with the translation of the examples given below:

- *Keep Dry.* (<u>Note</u>: Packaging is an important section of business and trade activities. Packing terms can give appropriate guidance for people in the operating process to load and unload, to transport, to store and to sell. Therefore, translation of packaging terms is essential. In English-speaking countries, people are accustomed to use imperative sentences.)
- *Apple think different!* (<u>Note</u>: In 1997, Steve Jobs returned to Apple as CEO and introduced the famous advertisement "Apple Think Different" to pass Apple's

values. Who thinks different are those with independent thinking; those who have the courage to abandon maverick vision; those who are willing to learn new things with an empty mentality; those who are willing to pursue personal goals and make unremitting efforts of the people; those people who want to change the world. Actually, “Thinking different” has become pursuit of American youth nowadays. As for them, thinking different from the others is really wonderful.)

2. Business Communication. Translation Peculiarities: GRAMMAR

The main task of the translator is to pass integrally and exactly the facilities of other language maintenance of original text trying to save its stylistic and expressive features. Under «integrity» of translation we mean the combination of manner and matter on a new linguistic basis. If the criterion of translation accuracy is an identity of information, which is reported on different languages, then it is possible to acknowledge the translation, which passes this information by equivalent facilities only, the right one. In other words, unlike rendering, translation must pass not only what is expressed by the original oral or written text, but also how it is expressed in it.

Being interested in translation of scientific and technical literature the translator must remember that every term must get its formal equivalent. The requirement of necessary translation of every term, certainly, does not provide for that every foreign word must be translated by one Ukrainian word. The equivalent of one-word term can be a permanent combination of words and so on.

As E.F. Skorokhodko says that there is not a necessity to use absolute equivalents in the variety of cases. If the meaning of concept, which is expressed by a term that is translated, is partly represented in text, then replacement of absolute equivalent into the relative one is then assumed. Under a relative equivalent we mean a term, which expresses a concept, allied relatively to the concept, expressed by a term which is translated. Certainly, a relative equivalent can be used only in such context which would allow to pick up thread of the specific signs of object. Relative equivalents, usually, are applied in case when an absolute equivalent appears too bulky. For example, by the absolute equivalent of the English term «share-without par value» is «акція без номінальної вартості», and the action simply can be relative (if a context allows it). Sometimes, through the whole text some foreign term has some unusual meaning – more narrow, that expresses some specific concept. In this case it is possible to use the Ukrainian term which would express this specific concept in translation. It is possible to name such Ukrainian term, which corresponds contextual, not vocabulary, meaning of translation object, a partial equivalent of the letter. Possibility of the use of partial equivalent is determined by a wide context – article, text, the unit of book or dissertation, etc.

Let’s consider the most wide group of terms, namely those which were created by the change of meanings of ordinary words (with the use of internal resources of language). Binomial combinations of words, or the terms to which two momentous words are included, belong, mainly, to such structural types:

– noun + noun (the biggest group): *conglomerate merger, stock merger, index misery, land agent, insurance agent, excise duty*;

– preposition + noun (second group accordingly to the quantity of constituents): *horizontal merger, defensive merger, industrial output, marine insurance, green audit, foreign loan, personal loan, budgetary committee, gross product, domestic currency, unconvertible currency*;

– noun + preposition + noun: *rate of exchange, export of capital, emission of banknotes*;

– Past Participle + noun: *blocked account, listed company, deferred share, issued capital, uncalled capital*;

– Present Participle + noun: *working capital, operating asset, wasting asset, managing agent*;

– a noun in the form of Possessive Case + noun: *Lloyd's Register*.

The examples of trinomial combinations of words are: *choice of marketing means, forced rate of exchange, paid letter of credit, consumer price index*, etc. Word combinations with two adjectives are also widespread, for example: *free economic zone, International Monetary Fund, gross domestic product*.

E.F. Skorokhodko distinguishes two types of multicomponent terms. It can be explained by making such examples, as «gold rush» and «rush for gold». Both terms have the same meaning – «золота лихоманка». However their grammatical structure differs. The first term hasn't any grammatical means of connection which would express grammatical connection between the components of term. The second term is built in a different way – the preposition «for», which expressly specifies the semantic connection of nouns, is used here. For a greater clearness let's make another example: «price fixing» and «fixing of prices» (контроль за цінами). Pay attention that it can interpret the first term variously and, for lack of the proper knowledge, translate it, as, say, «контроль чого-небудь за допомогою цін», that would be, certainly, wrong.

In the process of work a translator can run into considerable difficulties, constrained, mainly, with the ambiguousness of term, possibility to interpret his meaning variously. One must pay attention to what does the determining component of difficult word represent: qualitative signs of object, phenomenon and so on, or the relations of linking, that connect different objects. The first case can create certain problems for the interpreter, because a determining component can be used for description of different sides of connection of difficult term elements. For example, in the English term «bank control» the first component can express a management method, then a term will mean «management by a bank, bank management», and can express a management object, then translation will be «управління банком».

Translation of terms with a determining component which expresses the sign of belonging, on the whole, does not cause difficulties during translation, if the meaning of components of difficult word is known. So, for example, knowing that «stock» is «акціонерний капітал», and «market» is «ринок», it is not difficult to guess, that «stock market» means «ринок акцій» (in more wide sense – «ринок цінних паперів»).

Thus, a translator always must pay attention to the proper explanation of terms, and also to what relationships are between the object and the determining component of difficult word: attitudes of belonging toward the object of terminology or such which represent high-quality signs of the letter.

There are plenty of abbreviations in the English financial documents. An increase in amount of abbreviations which find their application in scientific literature is the fully appropriate phenomenon. Difficult terms need abbreviation by one or another way.

E.F. Skorokhodko writes that according to their application terms can be divided into two groups: text abbreviations and abbreviations of terminology. The first are used by one or a few authors, thus in every special case (for example, in every book, article) they are necessarily explained by authors or in text, or in footnotes (otherwise it is not impossible to understand their content). Terminological abbreviations are current, synonymous brief variants of standard terms (they, as a rule, are clear for the specialists in this area of knowledge).

First of all let's find out what structural types of abbreviations we know: **a)** letter abbreviations; **b)** component abbreviations; **c)** partial abbreviations which consist of a letter or complete word; **d)** mixed abbreviations which consist of letters and syllables; **e)** numeral abbreviations, which consist of letters, words or syllables and numbers; **f)** abridged words.

The letter terminology abbreviations in English are pronounced either as the names of letters which make abbreviation, or as a word which consists of these letters. To the first group belong, for example, such abbreviations as *mge – mortgage – «застава»; IMT – immediately – «негайно»; ins – insurance – «страхування»; j – joint – «спільний»; K.D. – knock down – «мінімальна ціна на аукціоні»; Jsb – joint stock bank – «акціонерний банк»; b. r. – bank rate – «залікова ставка банку»; l.&d. – loss and damage – «збитки при транспортуванні»* and so on.

There are such cases, when the meaning of abbreviation can be found out only after orthographic design of abbreviation. For example, let's take such pairs of abbreviations: *bd. – bond – «облігація»; B/d – brought clown – «знижений»* (about a price).

From the examples given above we can see that even abbreviations in the English financial vocabulary have such quality, as a polysemy. Orthographic design of abbreviation of the same term can be different. For example: *J.A.* and *J/An* express the the same concept of joint account – «спільний рахунок».

It is possible to make examples of partial abbreviations: *e-commerce* (commercial activity with exceptional application of the electronic systems), *e-broker* (broker which works with clients through the Internet), *F. T. Index* (industrial share index which expects newspaper FT); brief words: high tech technology (advanced), showbiz/ show business/ (business of entertainments); component abbreviations: small-cap (stock) – small capitalization (stock) (funds of companies with small capitalization), FTSE SmallzCap (industrial share of small companies, which are accounted by the newspaper FT together with the Throgmorton fund street index); component abbreviations: *ad.val. – ad valorem – «з проголошеної ціни», adv. – advance – «задаток», cap. – capital – «капітал», Ind. – index – «індекс».*

Consequently, as we can see, there is nothing difficult in translation of abbreviations. All information necessary for the interpreter is given in the special dictionaries. Problems can arise up only in the case of appearance of text abbreviations which began to acquire a terminology meaning, used in text without the resulted explanations, and which has not yet be included to the terminology dictionaries.

The negative side of English terminology is its saturation with socalled trade names or trade marks. This question deserves attention, because some of them afterwards get wide distribution and, losing specific slangy maintenance, become the members of terminological system of this branch of industry. E.F. Skorokhodko names these slangy and colloquial expressions and narrowly widespread terms (names of firms) which are used in the system of scientific and technical literature next to the correctly built terms, as terminoids. The difference between terminoids and terms is almost unseen: sometimes the proprietary name or slangy word can provide the essence of a concept better, than specially built term.

A lot of such terms (which at first arose up in a slangy vocabulary and then appeared in the dictionaries of economics and gained a foothold «jargon») exist in English economic literature. There are lots of examples*: «Hong Kong made strong gains in response to and surge in red chips». («Гравці на фондовій біржі Гонконгу отримали величезні прибутки, зігравши на ажіотажі навколо акцій китайських компаній»).* Expression «red chip» is slangy. It means the share of the Chinese company holding. Probably, not so much time will pass, and this combination of words will become the full-fledged members of the English financial terminological system.

Quite often in the system of scientific terminology there are terms, created with the use of the proper names. Unlike the proprietary names which quite often appear by abbreviation of the name of firm or name of inventor, terms about which a language will go presently, as a rule, include for itself the complete proper names and created at once for the use in the system of scientific terminology, but not as brandname marks: *Lloyd's of London – «Лондонський Ллойд» (type of insurance agency, located in London), Lloyd's Register of Shipping – «регістр Ллойда» (a list of unarmoured ships is with their classification on certain groups), Fordism – «система Форда».*

Another question related to the problem which needs close attention is the existence of linguistic parallels and so called «wrong friends of translator». Under linguistic parallels we mean general elements (in particular, lexical) in two unnecessarily family languages. Such linguistic parallels can be casual and appropriate.

Casual linguistic parallels can be caused by casual consonances of words from two not necessarily family languages as Latin (habere) and German (haben) (despite the words from both languages coincide in a meaning, their etymology is different); or the English word «tip» and Ukrainian «тип» (the casual consonantness is at complete absence of community in a value). Appropriate lexical parallels are caused by the conscious borrowing of lexical elements from one language into another.

Translation of legal, economic, diplomatic and official business papers requires sufficient knowledge of terms, phrases and expressions; it also depends on the clear comprehension of the sentence structure, particular grammar and syntactical patterns which are characteristics of this style. Coming across an unknown term in the text a translator can look it up in a dictionary, but if he / she comes across an unknown grammar or syntactical patterns, inadequate translation can distort the content of the source sentence. These are the most widespread English constructions (typical of official business style) causing certain difficulties while translating them into Ukrainian:

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INFINITIVE Depending on the function the Infinitive plays in the sentence it can be translated in the following ways:

■ as an adverbial modifier of purpose the Infinitive can express an independent idea that adds new information about its subject; the adverb only is omitted in translation, e.g.: *The president announced his resignation only after the failure of his drive to push through the merger of the two countries last summer.* *Президент повідомив про свою відставку після того, як минулого літа закінчилася невдачею його спроба об'єднати дві країни.*

■ After the adjectives the last, the only and ordinal numerals the Infinitive is translated as the predicate of an attributive subordinate clause. Its tense form is determined by the context, e.g.: *He was the first high official to be admitted to the inner council of government, to the cabinet.* *Він був першим чиновником високого рангу, якого допустили на закритя засідання Кабінету.*

■ If + noun + be + Infinitive can be translated as «для того щоб», e.g.: *In any event, members of the association should be prepared to put aside partisan interests if consensus on the abovementioned principles is to be achieved.* *У будь-якому випадку, щоб досягнути згоди стосовно вищезазначених принципів, члени асоціації повинні бути готові пожертвувати своїми вузькопартійними інтересами.*

■ The Complex Object with the Infinitive is translated as an object subordinate clause, e.g.: *Both experiments revealed the rated dimensions to be interrelated.* *Обидва експерименти показали, що оцінні параметри тісно пов'язані між собою.*

■ The Complex Subject with passive forms of the verbs *say, think, expect, show, see, find, argue, know, mean, consider, regard, report, believe, hold, suppose, note, presume, claim, admit, interpret*, etc. is translated as a complex sentence with an object subordinate clause. Care should be taken about non-perfect forms of the Infinitive (which are translated in the Present time) and perfect forms (which are translated in the Past time), e.g.: *Still they can hardly be said to have formulated a true scientific theory.* *Усе ж навряд чи можна стверджувати, що вони сформували справжню наукову теорію.* *The term model is held to have important normative significance.* *Вважають, що термін «модель» має велику нормативну значущість.*

■ The Complex Subject with active forms of the verbs *happen, appear, see, prove, turn out, be likely, be certain, be sure*, etc. is translated in two possible ways:

a) The English finite form is transformed into a Ukrainian parenthesis and the English Infinitive into a Ukrainian predicate, e.g.:

So, there appear to be two choices. *Отже, здається, що вибір є.*

b) The English finite form is transformed into a Ukrainian (Russian) main clause («малоймовірно», «здається», etc.) and the English Infinitive into a Ukrainian (Russian) predicate in an object subordinate clause, e.g.:

Neither proposal is likely to work. *Малоймовірно, що будь-яка із цих пропозицій виявить себе дієвою*.

■ If the English predicate has an object by somebody, such predicate-object♦ clusters are translated as a parenthesis «на думку», «згідно з даними», «як показав (установив, описав і т.д.)», e.g.:

The results were interpreted by Brown (1989) to be insufficient to draw any substantial conclusions. *На думку Брауна (1989), цих даних недостатньо для будь-яких суттєвих висновків.*

GERUND Depending on the function the Gerund plays in the sentence, it can be translated as:

■ a noun

Banking on a loss of nerve within the board of trustees may turn out to be misguided. *Розрахунок на те, що у членів опікунської ради нерви здадуть, може стати неправильними.*

■ an infinitive

Under the pressure of national campaign, he showed a positive gift for saying the wrong things in the wrong words at the wrong time. *В умовах напруженої кампанії в масштабі всієї країни він виразно показав здатність говорити не те, що потрібно, не так, як слід, і не там, де слід.*

■ a participle

In Washington there is quiet satisfaction that the French by joining the float have indirectly acknowledged that the U.S. was right all along. *Вашингтон виразив задоволеність з приводу того, що Франція, приєднавшись до країн з плаваючим курсом валют, опосередковано визнала правоту США.*

The Perfect Gerund denotes an action which is prior to the action expressed by the finite form of the verb, e.g.:

After having been colonies for a long time, many Asian and African countries have now become independent states. *Багато країн Азії й Африки, які довго були колоніями, стали зараз незалежними країнами.*

PARTICIPLE

Participle I can be translated as:

■ an attributive clause, e.g.: *In the Article I there was only one item specifying the matter.* *У Статті І був тільки один пункт, який специфікував справу*.

■ an adverbial clause, e.g.: *Heavy artillery and mortal fire broke out again in the city last night, virtually putting the whole population of the city under a state of siege.* *Учора ввечері місто знову зазнало інтенсивного артилерійського та мінометного обстрілу, і всі його мешканці фактично потрапили в облогу.*

■ a separate sentence, e.g.: *The treasury announced that in August the sterling area had a gold and dollar deficit of 44 million dollars bringing the gold and dollar reserve down to the lowest level reached this year.* *Міністерство фінансів оголосило, що в серпні стерлінгова зона мала золотий і доларовий дефіцит у розмірі 44 мільйонів доларів. Отже, золоті й доларові резерви досягли річного рівня.*

Participle II at the beginning of the sentence can be translated as:

■ a subordinate clause, e.g.: *Asked if the United States is rendering military aid to the forces opposing the lawful government in that country, the senator gave an evasive reply.* *На запитання про те, чи здійснюють Сполучені Штати військову допомогу силам, що протистоять законному урядові країни, сенатор відповів ухильно*.

As a part of ***the Complex Object construction***, Participle I and Participle II can be translated as:

■ an object clause, e.g. : *The country would like to see its proposals approved by the General Assembly.* *Країна хотіла б, щоб Генеральна Асамблея схвалила її пропозицію*.

The Nominative Absolute Construction with Participle I and II can be translated in different ways depending on the form of the Participle and the position of the construction in the sentence:

■ in postposition the Nominative Absolute Construction with Participle I performs the function of an adverbial modifier of attending circumstances: *The Prime Minister and the African National Council promptly lapsed into mutual recrimination, seeking to blame the other for deadlock.* *Прем'єр-міністр й Африканська національна рада відразу ж перейшли до взаємних звинувачень, до того кожна сторона намагалася перекласти на іншу провину за те, що вони опинилися у безвиході.*

■ in preposition the Nominative Absolute Construction with Participle I and II performs the function of an adverbial modifier of cause or time: *That done with, the two statesmen had subsided into long and profitable talks about other subjects.* *Після того, як із цим було покінчено, обидва державні мужі заходилися до довгого плідного обговорення інших тем* (adverbial modifier of time).

It being too late for further discussion, the session was adjourned. *Засідання закінчилося, оскільки було дуже пізно, щоб продовжувати обговорення* (adverbial modifier of cause).

■ sometimes Participles may be omitted, but the subject-predicate relations in the Construction are still preserved: *The first conference a failure, another meeting at a ministerial level was decided upon.* *У зв'язку з невдачею першої конференції було прийнято рішення про проведення ще однієї зустрічі на рівні міністрів.*

The debate over, the meeting was adjourned. *Після закінчення дебатів засідання було оголошено закритим.*

■ The second element of the Nominative Absolute Construction can also be expressed by an infinitive. It can be related to a future action: *With the Congress still to be elected, the Republican leadership was already moving to team up with the Southern Democrats, as it did in the palmy days of the New Deal.* *Хоча вибори в Конгресі ще у перспективі, керівництво Республіканської партії вже робить кроки з об'єднання з Демократами Півдня, як у добрі часи «Нового курсу»*.

INVERSION The order of words in which the subject is placed after the predicate is called inverted word order, or inversion. While translating, the target sentence retains the word order of the source sentence in many cases:

Of special interest should be the first article in Chapter I. *Особливий інтерес викликає перша стаття в Розділі I.*

Also treated are such matters as theory construction and methodology. *Розглядаються також такі питання, як створення теорії та методологія*.

Had this material been examined from this viewpoint, the rules that he discovered would probably have gone unnoted. *Якщо б цей матеріал був дослідженим з такої точки зору, закономірності, установлені на його основі, можливо, й залишилися б непоміченими.*

Subordinate clauses of concession with an inverted predicate often serve emphatic purposes and can be translated with the help of Ukrainian combinations «хоча», «який би»:

Such a principle, strange as it may seem, is championed in one form or another by certain scholars. *Такий принцип, хоча це й може здатися дивним, у тому чи тому вигляді обстоюють деякі науковці*.

Useful as it is, the book has two general shortcomings. *Якою б корисною не була ця книга, у ній є два суттєвих недоліки.*

3. Business Communication. Translation Peculiarities: LEXIS

3.1. Conveying the Names of Companies, Corporations, Firms

■ Traditionally, most names of companies (corporations, firms, etc.) are transcribed or transliterated and shortly explicated at the same time. This method is also employed when rendering the names of publishing houses, titles of most newspapers and magazines or journals, and of some public bodies.

It is much easier to translate the names of companies/corporations when their product is indicated as in the following examples: ***British-American Tobacco Co.*** *– об'єднана англо-американська компанія тютюнових виробів "Брітіш-американ тобекко компані"*; ***British and Commonwealth Shipping*** *– компанія по забезпеченню морських перевезень між Великою Британією та її колишніми колоніями "Брітіш енд коммонвелс шіпінґ"*.

Ukrainian companies, firms and other state and private bodies performing the same or similar functions are translated according to the same rule (they are transliterated or transcribed and explicated at the same time): *Київська* ***фірма "Світанок"*** *– Kyiv Svitanok civil services firm;* ***виробниче об'єднання "Краснодонвугілля"*** *– Krasnodonvuhillya Coal Production Amalgamation;* ***Укргазпром*** *– Ukrainian Ukrhazprom natural gas importing and extracting body;* ***"Київоблпобутрадіотехніка"*** *– Kyiv region Kyivoblpobutradiotekhnika home radio engineering services body (firm);* ***акціонерне товариство "Білицька меблева фабрика"*** *– Bilychi Joint-Stock Furniture Factory Association.*

■ Translation of the names of British/American publishing houses is performed according to the same rules: ***Associated Book Publishers*** *– лондонська книжково-видавнича фірма "Ассошіейтід бук паблішерз"*; ***Cambridge University Press*** *– англійське видавництво науко*вої та довідкової літератури при Кембріджському університеті "Кембрідж юніверсіті прес"; ***Harper & Row (USA)*** *– видавництво різної літератури "Гарпер енд Роу" (США)*.

Not infrequently, however, the names of British (American, etc.) publishing houses are scarcely indicated or not mentioned at all. Nevertheless in Ukrainian translation the identifying noun видавництво should necessarily be added: ***Penguin Books*** *– лондонське видавництво "Пенґвін букс"*; ***Raphael Tuck & Sons Ltd.*** *– лондонське видавництво літератури з образотворчого мистецтва "Рафаель Так енд санз лімітед"*; ***Slavic Gospel Press (USA)*** *– американське видавництво Біблій слов'янськими мовами "Славік Ґоспел Прес"*.

Names of Ukrainian publishing houses are rendered into English similarly – with the corresponding identifying noun Publishers or Publishing House added to it: ***видавництво "Український письменник"/"Дніпро"*** *– Ukrains'kyi Pysmennyk/Dnipro Publishers (Publishing House)*; ***видавництво "Музична Україна"*** *– Muzychna Ukraina (musical works and notes) Publishers/Publishing House*; ***видавництво "Школа"*** *– Shkola/Škola Publishers/Publishing House (primary and secondary school manuals, reference books, dictionaries)*.

■ Transcribed or transliterated and mostly shortly explicated in the target language are also the names of news agencies: ***(the British) Reuters (News Agency)*** *– англійське інформаційне агентство "Рейтер"*; ***UPI/ France Presse*** *– інформаційне агентство ЮПІ (США)/Франс-Прес (Франція)*.

■ Names of theatres, cinemas, hotels are also mostly reproduced through transcription or transliteration and explication at the same time: ***Comedy Theatre*** *– театр "Комеді"*; ***Київський державний український драматичний театр ім. Івана Франка*** *– the Kyiv State Ivan Franko Ukrainian Drama Theatre*.

■ Names of hotels are translated in the same way as the names of cinema halls. When the names originate from common nouns (or word-combinations) they may be transcribed, transliterated and explicated or translated: ***the Royal Court Hotel*** *– готель "Роял корт"*, ***готель "Київ"/"Русь"*** *– the Kyiv/ Rus' Hotel*.

■ Names of newspapers, journals, and magazines require special approach on the part of the translator. The thing is that English some more extended explication may be needed for a particular foreign newspaper (magazine, journal) than in Ukrainian: ***газета "Голос України"*** *– the Ukrainian Verkhovna Rada Holos Ukrainy newspaper*; ***"Вечірній Київ"*** *– the Kyiv City Vechirniy Kyiv evening newspaper*.

Very often the body to which the paper belongs or which sponsors its publication may be indicated too: орган міністерства народної освіти України газета ***“Освіта”*** *– Ukraine’s Ministry of Public Education and Culture Osvita weekly*.

The titles of English newspapers, journals and magazines are traditionally less explicated in Ukrainian translation: ***the New York Times*** *– газета “Нью-Йорк таймс”*.

The definite/indefinite article used before the titles of English newspapers/ journals is mostly omitted in Ukrainian translation: ***The Teacher*** *– “Тічер” (щотижнева газета вчителів Великобританії)*.

■ Translation of the names of streets, avenues and squares is predetermined by several factors. Alongside the established tradition, the most important of these factors is the meaning of the component parts making up the name. When used in contextual environment, the names of streets, avenues, roads, and squares may often be simply transcribed or transliterated, since the nouns ‘street’, ‘avenue’, ‘road’ or ‘square’ are familiar to many Ukrainians: ***Dean Street*** *– Дін-Стріт*; ***Milton Street/ Oxford Street*** *– Мільтон Стріт/Оксфорд-Стріт*; ***Wall Street/Fleet Street*** *– Волл-Стріт/Фліт-Стріт*; ***Farringdon Road*** *– Фаррінґдон-Роуд*. The streets (avenues) with numbers instead of the proper names always have the number translated and not given in figures: ***Sixth/Seventh Street*** *– Шоста/Сьома вулиця (Нью-Йорк)*.

Ukrainian names of streets (roads, avenues) are translated according to the common rule, the proper name being transliterated (rarely transcribed) and the explaining common noun вулиця, бульвар, провулок is translated: ***Андріївська/Польова вулиця*** *– Andriivska/Polyova Street*; ***бульвар Лесі Українки/Шевченка*** *– Lesya Ukrainka/Shevchenko Avenue*.

The names of streets and squares given in honour of social, political or historical events/personalities, along with the names formed from regular common nouns, qualitative or relative adjectives, are mostly translated. The names of English squares are also mostly transcribed and explicated (by adding ‘площа’) whether the noun ‘square’ is mentioned or not: ***Clerkenwell Green/Percy Circus*** *– пл. Кларкенвел-Ґрін/Персісеркус*; ***Elephant and Castle*** *– пл. Елефант енд Касл*; ***Grosvenor Square (Hanover Square)*** *– пл. Ґросвенор-Сквер (Геновер-Сквер)*.

■ Names of public bodies, however, are mostly translated. These include political parties, trade unions, national and international bodies of different rank and functions: ***the British Conservative party*** *– консервативна партія Великої Британії*; ***the Democratic (Republican) party*** *– демократична (республіканська) партія*, ***the Labour (Liberal) party*** *– лейбористська (ліберальна) партія*. Names of Ukrainian trade unions are translated in the same way as the English (or American) ones.

■ Special attention should be paid to the translation of the names of institutions, enterprises, geographical objects, etc., bearing honorary names. In English the honorary name precedes the enterprise/body which bears it, whereas in Ukrainian/Russian it always follows the name of the enterprise/ body: ***Humboldt***

State College – *Державний коледж ім. Гумбольдта*; **George Washington Library** – *Бібліотека ім. Джорджа Вашингтона*.

Note. Names of literary and scientific/peace prizes are mainly translated in two ways – with the preservation of the name which the prize bears or with the transformation of the noun into a corresponding relative adjective: ***Nobel Prize*** – *Нобелівська премія (премія імені Нобеля)*; **Pulitzer Prize** – *Пулітцерівска премія (премія ім. Пулітцера)*; **Taras Shevchenko Prize** – *Шевченківська премія (премія ім. Т.Г. Шевченка)*.

English honorary names, therefore, are mostly transformed into relative adjectives in Ukrainian, whereas Ukrainian relative adjectives must be translated, where possible, as corresponding English nouns. The honorary names originating from common nouns or from those denoting historical/revolutionary events may be conveyed in two ways: 1) translated only or 2) transliterated/transcribed and explicated in brackets at the same time.

Special care should be taken to avoid the stylistically unjustified expression "named after". Hence, *the Lviv V.Stefanyk library*, *the Symyrenko Horticultural Research Centre* and **never** *"the named after" Symyrenko Horticultural Research Centre* or *"the named after" V.Stefanyk Lviv library*. It must be repeatedly emphasized that the placement of the honorary name in English translations is strictly predetermined and can not be changed deliberately unless required by the speech situation (style) and content.

3.2. Units of International Lexicon and Ways of Rendering their Meaning and Lingual Form

Internationalisms are such language units which are borrowed from one and the same source language by at least three genealogically different languages in the same or similar lingual form and identical meaning (e.g. *бізнес, менеджмент, інтерв'ю, транзакція*, etc.). International may be not only words and phrases/word-groups, but also morphemes – prefixes, suffixes and even inflexions.

Among the most often occurring international affixes in English and Ukrainian are the following:

1) prefixes: ***anti-***/*анти-*, ***ex-***/*екс-*, ***inter-***/*інтер-*, ***trans-***/*транс-*, ***ultra-***/*ультра-* as in ***export (v.)*** – *експортувати*, ***international*** – *інтернаціональний*.

2) suffixes: ***-ar***/*-ар*, ***-er***/*-ер*, ***-ist***/*-ист*/*-іст*, ***-ssion***/*-сія*, ***-tion***/*-ція*, etc. as in ***volunteer***/*волонтер*, ***constitution***/*конституція*, ***aggression***/*агресія*, etc.

3) inflexions: ***-um***/*-ум*, ***-us***/*-ус*, ***-a***/-а, etc. as in memorandum/мемарандум.

The bulk of these borrowed morpheme, lexemes are found in many languages of a culturally, historically, and often geographically common area as Europe, the Middle East or the Far East. They are used to designate notions belonging to different domains of human knowledge or activity. Hence, there is distinguished:

a) the social and political terminology comprising the most commonly used political, economic, philosophical, historical, sociological units of lexicon (*audit, bank, constitution, parliament, party, president, barter, sophism*, etc.). Here also belong terms designating international law, diplomacy, literary terms (*jurisdiction*, *petition, legal*, *drama,* etc.);

b) natural history/sciences terminology (*physics, mathematics, genetics, chemistry*) used not only in special but also in scientific and popular works and in mass media (*virus, genes, pneumonia*, etc.);

c) numerous technical terms (names of machines and their parts: *motor, carter, starter, accelerator, battery*), as well as names of different means of transport (*bus, metro, taxi*) and communication (*fax, telegraph, telex, radio, e-mail, message*), etc. These and other words and phrases of the kind are referred to as internationalisms, or more precisely **genuine internationalisms**. Their main characteristic feature is semantic singularity. It means that their lexical identity and orthographic similarity in the source language and in all target languages remains unchanged both at language level (when taken separate) and at speech level, i.e., when used in texts/speech.

Apart from genuine internationalisms there exists one more group of international lexis called **translation loan units of lexicon**. These have also a generally common structural form (of word, word-combination) but rarely a similarity in their orthographic form or sounding. Loan internationalisms are mostly different terms designating scientific and technological notions: ***citric aid*** – *лимонна кислота,* ***surplus value*** – *додана вартість,* ***agreement*** – *узгодження*, etc.

Along with these two groups of word internationalisms there also exist many stable **international phraseological/idiomatic expressions** in each language's lexicon. Their fund is constituted by the so-called absolute and near equivalents having a common language of origin – Greek, Latin or modern: ***Heel of Achilles*** – *ахіллесова п'ята;* ***to cross/pass the Rubicon*** – *перейти Рубікон;* ***the die is cast*** – *жереб кинуто;* ***after us the deluge*** – *після нас хоч потоп;* ***the fair sex*** – *прекрасна стать;* ***the tree of knowledge*** – *дерево пізнання*, etc.

A separate subgroup of genuine internationalisms constitute proverbs, sayings and set expressions which are used in their foreign/original lingual form (they are predominantly of Latin, French, English, German origin): ***status in statu*** – *держава у державі*; ***repetitio est mater studiorum*** (Lat.) – *повторення – мати навчання*; ***finita la commedia*** (Ital.) – *настав кінець, крах (справі кінець)*; ***da ist der Hund begraben!*** (Germ.) – *ось де собака закопаний!*; ***O.K., all right*** (Engl.) – *усе гаразд*; ***c'est la vie*** (Fr.) – *таке життя*.

Identification of International Lexicon Units The units of genuine international lexicon are identified on the basis of their common in different languages lexical meaning and identical or only similar lingual form. Loan internationalisms, on the other hand, are identified mainly on the basis of their common sphere of use, their lexical meaning, functional significance and partly – structural form.

Internationalisms are characterized by a similarity of their lexical meaning, by an identity or similarity in their orthographic and sounding form, by their denotative meaning and sometimes by their motivation. Their meaning does not change in any contextual environment. The identification of the international meaning of some lexemes becomes much more difficult when dealing with polysemantic language signs. That is because in English a lot of lexemes may often have one and the same lingual form for several notions, as, for example, in the noun ***conductor***:

Conductor					
кондуктор – genuine internationalism	*провідник* – international loan word	*провід* – international loan word	*громовідвід* – international loan word	*диригент* – pseudo-internationalism	*керівник* – pseudo-internationalism

Apart from the polysemantic words with several meanings, one of which is genuine international and the rest pseudo-international, i.e., non-international, there are also quite a few words in present-day English and Ukrainian which have an identical orthographic form but quite different lexical meaning: ***accurate*** – *точний*, *правильний* but not **акуратний**; ***data*** – *дані* but not **дата**; ***intelligence*** – *розум* but not **інтелігенція**; ***obligation*** – *зобов'язання* but not **облігація**; ***prospect*** – *перспектива* but not **проспект**; ***replica*** – *точна копія* but not **репліка**, etc. These and the like pseudo-international words are often referred to as 'false friends of the translator' (удавані/хибні/фальшиві друзі перекладача).

3.2.1. Ways of Conveying the Lexical Meaning of Genuine Internationalisms

In the process of translation of genuine internationalisms several factors have to be taken into consideration: the lingual form, the lexical meaning, the structure, the source of origin and the orthographic presentation of internationalisms in both the languages. Taking into account various peculiarities of meaning and form of international lexemes, several ways of conveying their meaning can be suggested.

1. Literal Translating of Genuine Internationalisms.

Literal translating of genuine internationalisms should not be regarded as a mechanical substitution of each letter of the source language lexeme for a corresponding letter of the target language. In many a case a letter may be dropped or added (substituted for another) in the target language when it is not in full conformity with its sound or spelling systems. Nevertheless, there are many letter-to-letter transliterated internationalisms in English and Ukrainian. ***Latin***: *symposium – симпозіум, microscope – мікроскоп, rector – ректор*; ***Greek***: *poet – поет, stadium – стадіон, drama – драма, theatre – театр*; ***Italian***: *macaroni – макарони, pizza – піцца, concerto – концерт, duet – дует*; ***Spanish***: *armada – армада, tango – танго, El Dorado – ельдорадо, embargo – ембарго*, etc.

Literal translating can faithfully convey the lexical meaning of many English, French, German and other than European by origin lexemes: ***English***: *bulldog – бульдог, club – клуб, shelf – шельф*; ***French***: *chef – шеф, festival – фестиваль, chiffon – шифон*; ***German***: *Diktat – диктат*; ***Portuguese***: *cobra – кобра, flamingo – фламінго*; ***Czech***: *robot – робот*; ***Japanese***: *kimono – кімоно, tsunami – цунамі*; ***Arabic***: *algebra – алгебра, atlas – атлас, harem – гарем*; ***African***: *banana – банан, zebra – зебра*; ***Australian aboriginal***: *dingo – дінґо, kiwi – ківі*, etc. In many genuine internationalisms there is no absolute literal/orthographic coincidence in the source language and in the target language: *basin – басейн, monsoon – мусон, waltz – вальс, wine – вино, salt – сіль, devil – диявол, muscle – мускул*, etc.

2. Translating via Transcribing/Conveying the Sounding Structure.

Many genuine internationalisms are also faithfully rendered into the target language in their sounding form: ***English***: *boom – бум, box – бокс, jeans – джинси, knock-out – нокаут, round – раунд; French: boulevard – бульвар, bouquet – букет, bourgeoisie – буржуазія, bureau – бюро, prize – приз*, etc.

3. Translating by Practical Transcribing: *bachelor – бакалавр, cocoa – какао, crown – корона/крона, grant – грант, papal – папський*, etc.

4. Descriptive Translating of International Lexemes.

Many genuine international lexemes can be translated into the target language only in a descriptive way. Depending on the nature of the lexemes, their translation may have two realizations:

a) the lingual form of the source language lexeme/s can be retained as the main lexeme/s of the target language word-combination/sentence: *civilizable – той (та, те), що піддається цивілізуванню/цивілізації; classifiable – той (та, те), що піддається класифікації; golf-club –* 1. *клуб гравців з гольфу;* 2. *ключка для гри в гольф*;

b) the lingual form of the internationalism is not or can not be retained in the target language. It happens when the internationalism has not been adopted yet by the target language. Some internationalisms can be substituted in the process of translation with the aim of achieving expressiveness or for the sake of explaining their denotative meaning: *deputize (v) – виступати (бути представником) від когось; epilogic – заключний, кінцевий; park (parking) – ставити машину на стоянку; percenter – лихвар ("процентник"); twopenny – нікчемний/копійчаний (вартий двох пенні).*

5. Translating by Way of Synonymous Substitution.

An international lexeme of the target language can be often substituted in the process of translation for another international lexeme of synonymous or close to it meaning. The existence of some equivalent internationalisms for a notion is explained by its contacts in different periods with different languages: ***base***

(Greek) – база, фундамент (Lat.), ***diagram*** *(Greek) – діаграма, графік, схема (Greek),* ***fashion*** *(French) – фасон, мода (French+Latin)*, etc.

3.2.2. Translation of Loan Internationalisms

A great many of international loans have long become an integral part of each language's lexicon. Despite that, they preserve in each national language the unity of their component parts, i.e., their structural peculiarity, an absolutely identical notional meaning and a common sphere of functioning: ***loudspeaker*** *– (German) Lautsprecher*, (*Italian) altoparlante*, *(Ukranian) гучномовець*, *(Russian) громкоговоритель*, etc.

A bulk of international loan words and expressions are used to designate various grammatical, lexicological, stylistic and other notions. Depending on their nature, as well as on their denotative meaning and their sphere of functioning, international loan units can be rendered into Ukrainian in one of the following three ways:

a) by direct translation of the componental parts without changing considerably their structural form: *coefficient of efficiency – коефіцієнт корисної дії; literal/verbal translation – буквальний/дослівний переклад*, etc.

b) with the help of component translation and some replacements, omissions or substitutions arising from the national peculiarities of the target language, i.e. depending on its stylistic mode of usage: *foreign trade – зовнішня торгівля, living standards – життєвий рівень*, etc.

c) with the help of descriptive translation: *digital computer – цифрова обчислювальна машина; common fraction – простий дріб.*

3.3. Ways of Rendering the Meaning of Nationally Biased Units of Lexicon

The choice of the way of approach to expressing the denotative meanings of the units of specifically national lexicon is strictly predetermined by some definite factors to which belong first of all the semantic and structural complexity (or similarity) of the units of the culturally biased specific lexicon of the source language. The choice of the method of translating may partly be influenced by the sphere of circulation of the specific notion in the source language. The meaning of specifically national units of lexicon can be conveyed by the following methods:

1. <u>By transcription or Transliteration Exclusively</u>. The units of the nationally specific lexicon, whose meanings are rendered at the phonological level, usually belong to genuine internationalisms and comprise social and political units of lexicon in the main (*lord, lady, mister, shilling, kozak,* etc.):

New classified rates per word for ads in ***hryvnias*** *in the Kyiv Post. – Нові тарифи на рекламу в* ***гривнях*** *за слово в газеті "Київ Пост".*

You're a supercilious half-baked ***snob****. – Ти насправді зарозумілий і обмежений* ***сноб****.*

2. By Transcription or Transliteration and Explication of Their Genuine Nationally Specific Meaning.

An additional explication of genuine nationally specific meaning becomes necessary when the unit/notion of the culturally biased lexicon is introduced in the target language for the first time or when it is not yet known to the broad public of the target language readers/ listeners. The explanation may be given either in the translated passage/ speech flow, where the culturally biased unit is used, or in a footnote - when a lengthy explication becomes necessary:

Downing Street *is guarded outside by a single policeman. –* ***Резиденцію прем'єр-міністра Великої Британії*** *охороняє один полісмен.*

Footnotes or lengthy explications should always be used when the culturally biased notions are not yet well-known in the target language. For example, *surfing* when only transliterated/transcribed as *серфінг* will not express its denotative meaning which it in reality is – "the sport of riding waves into shore on a surfboard". Hence, a combined translation must be resorted to: *серфінг* (*ковзання на широкій овальній дошці по високій морській хвилі до берега*).

3. By Descriptive Explaining/Explication Only.

The orthographic form of a considerable number of sense units belonging to the nationally specific lexicon of the source language can not be always rendered into the target language. That happens mostly when the transcription/transliteration can not be helpful in expressing the sense of the culturally biased national unit, or when it might bring about an unnecessary ambiguity in the target language narration/text: *matron – завгосп у навчальному закладі (суміщає економку і медсестру)*.

Such lengthy explanations of specifically national notions are always required in the text of the translation/interpretation. And far from all culturally biased/specific units of national lexicon are so 'heavily' loaded with information that they have necessarily to be explicated in a footnote. Quite often an explanation within the target language may be sufficient too:

I've got some ***shepherd's pie*** *for lunch today – that you used to like so much. – Я приготувала* ***картопляну запіканку з м'ясом і цибулею****, яку ти колись так любив.*

Усі бачили, як ми у церкві ***на рушник стали****. – Everybody saw me and you* ***being married*** *in the church.*

4. By Translation of Component Parts and Additional Explication of Units of the Nationally Biased Lexicon.

The proper meaning of some specific units of the national lexicon can be faithfully rendered by way of regular translation of all or some of their componental parts and explication of the denotative meaning pertaining to the source language unit. The way of rendering the meanings of the culturally biased lexical units involves two simultaneous performances. The first is a regular translation of the main, if not all, componental parts and the next, which follows it, is a more or less exhaustive explanation of the essence pertained to the specific national element of the source language.

When translating at language level (out of context) the explanation may be practically unrestricted: *Battle of Britain – Битва за Англію (повітряні бої англійської авіації з гітлерівськими бомбардуваль-никами над територією Великої Британії, особливо в районі Лондона і Південної Англії 1940-1941 рр.); inner Cabinet – "внутрішній кабінет" (кабінет у вузькому складі), до якого входять керівники найважливіших міністерств на чолі з прем'єр-міністром.*

Such and the like explanations can not be made in the text of a translation, hence they are given usually in the footnotes:

*Well, I can tell you anything that is in an English **bluebook**. – Ну, я тобі можу розповісти все, що написано в англійській **"Синій книзі"**.*

Note. "Синя книга" – збірник документів, що видається з санкції парламенту Великої Британії в синіх палітурках.

When the lexical meaning of the unit of specific national lexicon is not complex it is usually explained in the target language text:

Keep your fingers crossed for me! – Щоб мені була вдача, склади навхрест пальці!

5. By Ways of Word-for-Word or Loan Translation.

When the component parts making up the units of the nationally specific lexicon are at the same time the main transparent bearers of their proper sense, expressed through their meaning, a faithful translation of such sense units may be achieved either by way of word-for-word translation or by way of loan translation.

Units translated word-for-word are the specific national elements of lexicon as *first (second, third) reading – перше (друге, третє) читання (офіційне внесення законопроекту в англійський парламент); стінгазета/стіннівка – wall newspaper; щоденник (учнівський) – student's everyday record book.*

The denotative meaning of many units of the specific national lexicon may be rendered by way of loan translating as well: *Salvation Army (USA, Great Britain) – Армія порятунку; the Order of St. Michael and St. George – орден св.*

Михайла і св. Георгія; орден Ярослава Мудрого – the Order of Yaroslav the Wise/Yaroslav the Wise Order; орден св. княгині Ольги Київської – the Order of St. Olga Princess of Kyivan Rus'.

A faithful translation of the kind of units of lexicon is predetermined by the correct choice of equivalent units for the semes bearing the national peculiarity. The latter may be expressed both verbally or word-for-word and by means of translation loans, which should be resorted to when verbal translating ruins the national peculiarity of the source language culturally biased units. The number of English genuine translation loans in Ukrainian, as well as Ukrainian in English, is considerable: *cornflakes – кукурудзяні пластівці; skyscraper – хмарочос; brain washing – промивання мізків (ідеологічна обробка); гривня – hryvnia; заслужений діяч мистецтв України – the Merited Worker of Arts/Ukraine's merited Worker of Arts; медаль за трудову доблесть – the Medal for Labour Distinction*, etc.

6. <u>Translating by Means of Semantic Analogies</u>.

Some peculiar notions in both the languages may be identical or similar/analogous in their meaning and functioning. It happens due to the existence of common routine or habitual actions, common occupations, social services, food, etc., in the contrasted language communities. Yet, the connotative divergences and sometimes the spheres of use may not always fully coincide in the target language. ***English***: *the City/Town Board of Education – міський відділ освіти; pop corn – кукурудзяні баранці; stewed fruit - узвар/компот; Welldone! Well done! (sports) – Мо-лод-ці! Мо-лод-ці!*. ***Ukrainian***: *залік – preliminary/qualifying test/ examination; дипломна робота – graduation essay/project; курсова робота – term/yearly essay/project; доцент – principal lecturer/reader, associate professor; підвищення кваліфікації – in-service training course; кватирка – hinged window pane/pilot window; консультація – tutorial*.

Lecture 8. TRANSLATION AND NEGOTIATION

List of Issues Discussed:

1. **Negotiating Process from the Translation Studies Point of View.**
2. **Negotiation: Interpreter's Strategy and Tactics.**

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1. Negotiating Process from the Translation Studies Point of View

Negotiation is a process by virtue of which, in order to get something, each party "renounces at something else and at the end somebody feels satisfied since one cannot have everything" (U. Eco).

From the Translation Studies point of view, the negotiating process involves at least two parties: the source text (ST) with the cultural framework in which it was born, and the target text (TT) with the cultural background in which it is expected to be read. The translator (interpreter) is the negotiator between the two parties and has to consider the function of the TT, i.e. the coordinate according to which the TT should be put in an academic context or in a popular one. To put it differently, he guarantees that the reader can rely on the fact that what was said by the author is true.

Furthermore, the best solution is for the translator, as a negotiator, to understand and render the world-picture of the ST, i.e. not only the facts, but also the feelings, values, psychological nuances the implicit judgments, etc. In other words, translation is the only way of understanding the people's way of thinking, ideas and views of life itself. That is why translating cultures has always been related to text translations which ensure that the recipients, i.e. the target readers (TRs), may get all the atmosphere and the background of the written text.

Starting from one of the basic definitions of translation, i.e. a rendering from one language into another, the negotiator between the ST and the TT should consider equivalence in meaning. It is a well-known fact that meaning must remain unchanged in the translating process. The most important aspect the equivalence in meaning refers to is that related to synonymity. Furthermore, in terms of translation it is a referential equivalence according to which a word in one language is synonymous with a word in another language, on condition that both of them refer to the same thing or event in the real world.

However, the translator is also aware that a given word in one language has more than one equivalent in another language, which is prevailing both in the comprehension of a language and in translation. It is most often difficult for him/ her to choose between the synonymous meanings or shades of meaning; s/he has to consider the fact that the senses are not always expressed by a synonym, but by a paraphrase as is the case of culture specific elements, for instance. Thus, the translator's art in negotiating between the two language cultures (LCs) is his way of '*dancing with the words*' his competence in helping the TRs understand the message as it was intended in the ST.

As a matter of fact, in translation proper, there is the ethical obligation of respecting what the author has written. In Eco's opinion, "to establish exactly what the author said is an interesting problem, not only from a semantic point of view, but also in terms of jurisprudence". However, there may be restrictions which admit exceptions. Thus, "when a given expression has a connotative force it must keep the same force in translation, even at the cost of accepting changes in denotation" (U. Eco). From the position of an author he says: "I am not expecting something literally similar to the original […] I want to see how the translator has challenged and emulated his source in his own language" (U. Eco).

What is important is that the translator has to put the TRs in the same situation as the ST writer has put his/ her readers. Thus, it is only by being *literally unfaithful* that a translator can succeed in being truly faithful to the ST.

We consider that the translating process is a process of negotiating between two LCs which can be illustrated by the table on the next page:

Choice of the **ST**

↓

Getting knowledge of the generic structures in the **ST**

↓

Identification of the surface structures in the **ST**

↓

Getting awareness of:

a) the differences between the ST structures and the potential ones in the **TL**

b) the transformations to be made in the **TT**

c) the translation strategies to be used

↓

Cultural negotiation

· Intention of the text

· Message: content and package

· Disambiguation

· Equivalence in meaning

· Paraphrase

· Translator's cultural and linguistic competence, knowledge, skills, experience and sensibility

· Socio-cultural, historical and economic parameters

↓

	Globalization	**TT**
ST	Localization (culturalization of the message)	potential
and	Translation-mediated communication (TMC)	variants
LC$_1$	Adaptation/ adjustment	and
	Domestication	**LC**$_2$
	'Super-translation'	

↓

Re-shaping the content and the package

to fit into the TL and cultural conventions (CCs)

Transformations / shifts

Selection

Final choices

Readability · clarity, logic

↓

TT

TLC background

TT function and readership

TRs' expectations and needs

The concept of faithfulness depends on the belief that translation is a form of interpretation and that (even while considering the cultural habits of their presumed readers) translators must “aim at rendering not necessarily the intention of the author (who may have been dead for millennia), but *the intention of the text*. The intention of the text is the outcome of an interpretive effort on the part of the reader, the critic or the translator” (U. Eco).

Therefore, in the negotiating process of translation, the rendering of the message is of utmost importance. D. Gile considers it to consist of *content* and *package*. The term *package* is related to the linguistic and peri-linguistic choices made by the S(ender) and to “the physical medium through which they are instantiated” (D. Gile). In Gile’s opinion, in written texts, the package includes words, grammatical structures to which page layout, graphics, are added. What is essential is that the interaction of content and package affects the message as a whole. Thus, a good content is supported by good style, and, on the contrary, it is weakened by poor style.

In order to re-send or render the content of the message in a right way in the TL, the translator often needs to make transformations not only with literary translations, but also with industrial translations, when he has to handle scientific and technical terminology. Thus, the translator as the intermediary receiver of the message in the SL has to disambiguate those elements that are not specific to the TLC. Consequently, the translator has to re-shape the content and the package to fit into the TL and its cultural context as expected by the TRs. However, as O’ Hagan and Ashworth put it, the translator is “normally limited in terms of the degree of modifications that can be made and the choice of physical medium in which the message is contained […]”. They consider translation to be a work conditioned by the content and package imposed by the sender. An essential aspect is that the translator’s role is expected to be transparent, which, in reality, is not always the case, since the translator, although supposed to achieve the sender’s aims, “cannot guarantee their fulfillment” (D. Gile).

To put it differently, the requirements of translation are closely related to the *translation competence* and *translator competence*, as distinguished by Kiraly. *Translation competence* refers to the competence of producing acceptable translations, and *translator competence* refers to the skills in rendering the message in a manner appropriate to the context, the experience and knowledge a translator needs in addition to the former.

The general idea that translation is always a **shift** has to be extended to the level of culture. In other words, translation is a shift not only between two languages, but also between two cultures. The translator has to consider rules that are not strictly linguistic, but also cultural, given the role of translation as a **link** or **bridge** between different cultures, not only languages.

The concept of translation may be related to three adjacent concepts about intercultural interface: **transmission**, **representation** and **transculturalization**. These three concepts refer to particular aspects of translation: **communication of content**, **exhibition of content**, and **performance**.

We can imagine *sense/content* at one end and *form/style* at the other:

sense/ content ⟷ *form/ style*

The *sense* may be translated, while the *form* often cannot, and the point where form begins to contribute to *sense* is where untranslatability occurs. This generally holds valid with poetry, songs, advertizing, punning, etc., where sound, rhyme and double meaning are unlikely to be recreated in the TL. Furthermore, we consider this to be valid with culture-specific elements (CSEs), which are extremely difficult to render in the TLC because the sense and the corresponding reality are lacking. Thus, the TRs may not be culturally aware of what was meant by these cultural elements (CEs) in the SLC.

Such cultural elements cannot be translated at the level of the word but at the level of the text, or even at the level of culture, because their message is to function in the TC.

There are lots of elements specific to LC1, which may not exist in LC2, but they have to be expressed in the TL in some way or another, or the translator has to make up for the lack of any corresponding equivalent and employ words / expressions that should be understood by the TRs.

The question may arise: What happens if one term or expression proves untranslatable?

A possible answer is provided by U. Eco: "In these situations, if, out of ten or twenty terms, one proves absolutely untranslatable, I authorise the translator to drop it: a catalogue is still a catalogue even if there are only eighteen terms instead of twenty".

Therefore, untranslatability is in question when, due to the differences in linguistic structure (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), meaning cannot be adequately expressed across language and cultural barriers. In spite of such ST values which require great efforts to convey across cultural and linguistic boundaries, cultural gaps are "in some way or another ***bridgeable***", thus making translation always possible, and in order to achieve this "an important criterion to heed must be TT **comprehensibility**".

Furthermore, translation between cultures can be considered a central practice and aim of cultural anthropology. A further question may arise: *Are the meanings of cultural translation really limited to cultural understanding?* We consider this to be a real challenge to the *globalization* theory.

One of the latest issues in Translation Studies is that translation of and between cultures is no longer the fundamental aspect, but culture itself is now seen as a process of translation. As a consequence, translation is now considered to be a dynamic term of *cultural junction*, *a negotiation of differences*, as well as a difficult process of transformation.

It should be pointed out that **culturalization of the content** draws on the TL knowledge and cultural conventions (CCs) relevant for the field to which the text belongs.

One of the subtlest aspects of culturalization is that cultural issues run deep and hamper globalization. Globalization implies increased interactions among people who do not understand one another's language.

Cross-border business negotiations and products marketing need ways of expression which are different from one language to another. In such situations, language becomes a barrier rather than a means of communication. Moreover, due to the changes in the nature of communication brought about by the increased use of the internet, globalization is now imposing a new set of requirements for translation. It provides multilingual support.

On the other hand, culturalization is discussed in terms of **localization**. As an integral part of globalization, **localization** is applied to content and package to render the message as a whole into an appropriate form in the cultural context of the receiver. M. O'Hagan and D. Ashword call this process the '*culturalization'* of the message. They consider that the emergence of the language management as part of a globalization strategy suggests a new approach to translation. The current trend is to consider the new dimension of translation as emerging from the impetus provided by globalization and its need for localization.

Globalization, with its complexity and multitudes of areas involved, is defined as "a process to enable the message to be adaptable to the condition that may be imposed by receivers who do not share the same linguistic and cultural background as the sender", whereas localization is defined as "a process to facilitate globalization by addressing linguistic and cultural barriers specific to the receiver who does not share the same linguistic and cultural background as the sender" (M. O'Hagan and D. Ashword). Thus, **adaptation** to the specific local appeal is prevailing. Therefore, localization is a process **to adapt** the message to the context of the receiver environment. Moreover, adaptation is looked upon as a process of **re-creating** the message in order to match the receiver environment, i.e. to give it *the look and feel of an equivalent local product*.

In other words, localization means *adding* to a text features that will mark it as being for *a particular local readership*, and *subtracting* features that would mark it as being *for some other local readership*. According to D. Katan, the context of culture "can be perceived at a number of different levels, from environment (e.g. institutions) to beliefs and values (cultural orientations and identity)". At the level of the environment, it is standard practice to add or delete according to the accessibility of the frame.

Thus, the translator is the '***localizer****' who adapts and adjusts the look and feel of the TT to fit it into the TRs' environment*. Considering localization as a culturalization process, the translator is the 'culturalizer' of the message. The adaptation of the message by localization underlines the role of translation as *domestication*, opposed to foreignization. Moreover, the new term '*super-translation*' is now used to make the text more readable by the receiver.

In the context of globalization, *receiver–oriented messaging* in the form of *localization as translation-mediated communication* (TMC) implies transformations of both content and package, translation being more concerned with content than packaging. Therefore, localization is a component of globalization, and translation is a component of localization. As a matter of fact, it is a core to both localization and globalization.

A further concept, that of *internalization*, has occurred to place concern for translation right at the outset of globalization planning – in contrast with the traditional view according to which translation is an afterthought and an isolated activity.

Taking great interest in the linguistic and cultural aspects, the internalization process converting message M1 into M' implies a new type of pre-translation work.

In B. Mossop's opinion, internalization means "removing from a text all those features which will create comprehension problems for an international audience […]".

Readability of the TT is compared with *clarity* and *logic*. It is the characteristic of a text which is *tailored* i.e. adjusted to readers and has a *smooth* sentence structure. The two terms, i.e. *tailoring* and *smoothing* are closely related to readability. *Tailoring* means "adjusting the wording of a text to make it more suitable for its particular readership", and *smoothness/smoothing* refers to "the quality of a text whose sentences have an easily perceptible syntactic structure and easily perceptible connections between sentences" (B. Mossop). It contributes to readability and can be compared with logic.

Therefore, readability is related to the *smooth-flowing language of the TT* suited to the intended readers. Readability must be "distinguished from *clarity*. Clarity is a feature of the meaning of a text, rather than its wording" (B. Mossop). In its turn, clarity should not be confused with simplicity or familiarity. Unclarity of the message is associated with some slip in logic.

2. Negotiation: Interpreter's Strategy and Tactics

As Herb Cohen (*Herb Cohen is a corporate and government negotiator and strategy consultant in areas of commercial dealings and crisis management*) said: "Power is based upon perception – if you think you've got it, then you've got it. If you think you don't have it, even if you've got it, then you don't have it." This is the most important psychological factor in negotiating, so start there. Believe you have the power to negotiate, and you do.

There are three crucial elements to any negotiation: information, time, and power. The more of each you have, the better you will be able to negotiate. However, a positive perception of yourself in the negotiating process and your ability to think and act quickly can compensate for any shortcomings in these areas.

Information is vital. You have to understand your client's needs and position. At the beginning of the negotiation, find out what the client needs. Get all the specifics about the job, including what kind of material it is, how long it is, when it needs to be done, how it has to be delivered, and in what form it is to be delivered. Also try to assess how the client feels about the job. Can you offer any advice or suggestions concerning the job? Can you make the job easier for your client? If you can, do so, for this will strengthen your position by giving you more power.

The one piece of information you will not have is what the client is willing to pay. Remember, always talk about money last. Get the information first. There is no point in discussing your rates until you know you want and can do the job.

Ask questions about the job. Use the tactic of "I'm sorry, but I don't quite understand…" to get more information. Express interest but not conviction. If you appear desperate, the client may perceive that relative lack of power and seek to exploit it.

Time is very important in translator-client negotiations. Most negotiations will occur on the telephone. Telephone negotiations are faster, more competitive, involve greater risk, offer more possibilities for misunderstandings, and are much easier for the client to say "no" in. To minimize these risks and the resulting problems, listen carefully. Take notes on everything that is said. Offer to look at the material and then call the client back. The advantage in a telephone negotiation is usually with the caller, so calling back may put you in a stronger position.

A few important points involving time: Don't rush yourself. Always remember that your client has a deadline. Don't make snap decisions. Think slowly, carefully, and thoroughly about what you say and about what the client says. This avoids the errors and misunderstandings that often impede negotiations.

Power is very important in any negotiation. As a translator, you have the power to fulfill your client's needs. The client's power comes from the ability to give you work and the ability to find someone else. Don't worry about that. The client has called you, meaning they are interested in having you do the job. The only problem you will incur is justifying your price. First, make an offer. If they accept, you are finished. Get a written agreement and start the job.

If they refuse the initial offer and make a counter offer, you can accept it if you are satisfied. If you believe their counter offer is inadequate, you can use the power of precedent ("But this is what I charge all my clients"), the power of morality ("How can you expect anyone to work for such low rates?"), the power of knowledge ("I know I can do this job right and on time. That's why my rates are worth it"), the power of expertise ("I have an MA from MIIS. This makes me worth what I'm asking"), or the power of attitude ("My rates are my rates."). You then move forward by making another offer or sticking to your original one.

The most important element of negotiations to remember is that you are working toward mutual satisfaction. You and the client both have needs to meet. You have to harmonize or reconcile these needs. Though your experiences and information (e.g.: about the market) may differ, you may be able to find common ground. Try to collaborate in a win-win approach that allows the client and you to stay within your limits but be satisfied at the same time.

When negotiating, never take the results personally. You are negotiating for yourself, but don't let ego get in the way. As Santayana said, "ego is just lunacy on a leash." Always be willing to walk away. If the negotiations fail, galaxies will not explode and civilization will not collapse. A failed negotiation is better than one that leaves you or the client unsatisfied. You know each other's terms and can negotiate for another job in the future, perhaps reaching an agreement then. You want relationships with your client. Negotiations are about building relationships. A client that comes back is the best kind of client. Negotiate well and both you and the client will be satisfied. Then do the job well and you will have repeat client.

GLOSSARY

Agreement A negotiated and typically legally binding arrangement between parties as to a course of action.

Attachment An email attachment is any type of file sent along with an email message. Including an attachment in an email is a simple way to share documents and images. One or more files can be attached and sent to over to an email recipient. Attachments can include anything from photos and documents to zipped files, folders, mp3s, and more. Most email providers limit the size of the attachment(s) that can be sent, and the number of attachments allowed per email.

Blacklist The majority of the email sent worldwide is spam. Fortunately, the blacklist exists as a means of sorting through legitimate email versus spam before it reaches your inbox. The email blacklist is a database containing known sources of spam mail that is used to filter and block spam email. Without email blacklists, it would be hard to accomplish much via email. Inboxes would be flooded and the intense traffic between servers would stall a lot of mail from reaching its destination.

Business communication The process of sharing information between people within and outside a company/ Exchanging information in order to promote the goals of the organization, its objectives, aims, and activities, as well as increase profits within the company/ A process through which information, facts, ideas, orders, advices, decisions, etc. are conveyed, sent or exchanged between/among the persons associated with business.

*NB: Elements of Business Communication: Business communication involves six basic elements. They are as follows: 1. Message: This is the subject-matter which is transmitted or passed by the sender to the other party or group of persons. This might be opinion, order, suggestion, attitude, feeling, view, etc. 2. Sender: He/she is the person who intends to make contact for passing information and understanding to other person. 3. Receiver: The person to whom the message is meant for is known as receiver or communicate. 4. Channels: Information is transmitted through certain channels (e.g., radio, television, telephone, letter, e-mail, etc.). The media is selected by the sender considering various factors. 5. Symbols: These are the words, actions and signs which are passed on by the sender while communicating with the receiver. 6. Feedback: When the receiver acknowledges the message of the sender and responds back to him/her, feedback takes place. Without feedback communication is incomplete.

Business contract A legal document between parties that spells out just what is expected and required of each party.

Business correspondence means the exchange of information in a written format for the process of business activities. Business correspondence can take place between organizations, within organizations or between the customers and the organization. The correspondence refers to the written communication between persons. Hence, oral communication or face to face communication is not a business correspondence

Business writing A form of professional communication that typically consists of memorandums, emails, letters, and other documents. Business writing helps employees communicate efficiently.

Cover letter A written document commonly submitted with a job application explaining the applicant's credentials and interest in the open position. Since a cover letter is often one of only two documents sent to a potential employer, a well- or poorly-written letter (or email) can impact whether the applicant will be called for an interview. According to Oxford Dictionary Online, covering letter is used in UK English, and cover letter in US English. They mean the exact same thing.

Curriculum Vitae (CV) A short written description of your education, previous jobs, and sometimes also your personal interests, which you send to an employer when you are trying to get a job. In the US, curriculum vitae is mostly used when applying for academic teaching jobs; resume or résumé is used for other jobs.

NB: Curriculum Vitae vs Resume Your Resume and CV are two important documents that represent your professional identity. However, many people make the mistake of submitting a Resume when a CV is expected, or vice versa. Below you may find the main differences between the two documents.

The Curriculum Vitae

• The Curriculum Vitae includes a summary of your educational and academic backgrounds as well as teaching and research experience, publications, presentations, awards, honors, affiliations and other details.

• The Curriculum Vitae is ideally two pages in length, though it can sometimes go up to three to five pages. (e.g. for senior level candidates, academic CVs etc.) The structure is very systematic and is generally drawn in a specific order.

• The Curriculum Vitae includes everything that you have done and can be classified as work - paid or unpaid. It may contain voluntary and honorary positions and work done in such positions.

The Resume

• The Resume is a precise and very brief document representing at-a-glance your key skills and main achievements. Resumes tend to focus on work experience and skills only.

• The Resume should not be longer than one page.

• The Resume would contain only what is strictly relevant to the job applied and nothing else, within one page.

In Europe, the Middle East, Africa, or Asia, employers may expect to receive curriculum vitae. In the United States, a curriculum vita is used primarily when applying for academic, education, scientific or research positions. It is also applicable when applying for fellowships or grants.

Email came before the entity we call the internet itself. It was crucial to the development of what's known as interoperability, in which different computers exchange information and resources through local area networks (LANs) or wide area networks (WANs). Originally conceived at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), email was developed as a simple way to allow users of a computer to communicate with users on another computer. The success of email resulted in the development of the beginnings of the internet. Email, short for "electronic mail," is one of the most widely used features of the Internet, along with the web. It allows you to send and receive messages to and from anyone with an email address, anywhere in the world.

Email Address Fields

When you send an email, you need to select the address that will receive it. You can add them to one of three fields: To, Cc and Bcc. All three fields can send an email to several recipients in one go, however they work slightly differently.

• To: The "To" line is for the primary recipient. Put the email address here if the message is for this recipient's action and attention only. This line is visible to all other recipients (Cc, and Bcc) by default.

• Cc: Stands for Carbon copy. Cc is an e-mail that is copied to one or more recipients. Both the main recipient (whose address is in the "To:" field) and the Cc' recipients can see all the addresses the message was sent to.

• Bcc: Similar to Cc, Blind Carbon Copy sends a copy of a message for the information of a large number of people. Blind carbon copying is a useful way to let others see an e-mail you sent without the main recipient knowing. It is faster than sending the original message and then forwarding the sent message to the other recipients. It is also good netiquette to use Bcc when copying a message to many people. This prevents the e-mail addresses from being captured by someone in the list who might use them for spamming purposes.

• From: The author's email address is always included in the From field.

Email message It is made up of three components:

• Envelope An email message is very similar to a physical letter that you would send in the mail. There is an envelope, with To/From information, and there is the actual letter on the inside, with its own To/From information. The envelope to/from information is the real information that is used for message delivery, for both email servers and post offices.

When an envelope comes into a post office, they inspect the To address on the envelope, and send it to the correct destination. The post office workers have no knowledge of the letter inside the envelope. The letter inside could have completely different To/From information than the envelope says. The Envelope could say the message is to Joe, but the letter inside may say it's for Mary. Or, the envelope may say it's to Joe, but the letter inside says the message is for Joe and Mary.

The same is true for emails. The envelope To/From is the most important information when delivering a message. If the envelope says the message is to joe@domain.com and mary@domain.com, then the message is sent to both, regardless of what the letter inside (the message header) says the message is "To:". So the message may appear to be for some random person, but actually come to you.

The envelope is something that an email user will never see since it is part of the internal process by which an email is routed.

• Body message The body of a message contains text that is the actual content, such as "Employees who are eligible for the new health care program should contact their supervisors by next Friday if they want to switch." The message body also may include signatures or automatically generated text that is inserted by the sender's email system.

• Header In an e-mail, the body (content text) is always preceded by header lines that identify particular routing information of the message, including the sender, recipient, date and subject. Some headers are mandatory, such as the FROM, TO and DATE headers. Others are optional, but very commonly used, such as SUBJECT and CC.

• Email Address An email address is a unique identifier for an email account. It is used to both send and receive email messages over the Internet. Similar to physical mail, an email message requires an address for both the sender and recipient in order to be sent successfully. Every email address has two main parts: a username and domain name. The username comes first, followed by (@) symbol, followed by the domain name. In the example below, "mail" is the username and "techterms.com" is the domain name (For example: mail@techterms.com).

ESP (English for Specific (or Special) Purposes) The technique of teaching English to students who need it for a particular purpose, such as business dealings

Memo A short official note that is sent by one person to another within the same company or organization.

Memorandum A short written report prepared specially for a person or group of people that contains information about a particular matter/ An informal message, especially one sent between two or more employees of the same company, concerning company business/ A summary of the state of an issue, the reasons for a decision agreed on/

Motivation Letter A motivation letter, motivational letter or a letter of motivation is a letter of introduction attached to, or accompanying another document such as a résumé or curriculum vitae. The main purpose of a cover (motivational) letter is to persuade an HR specialist that you are the most suitable candidate for a given position.

What is the difference between a motivation and a cover letter?

The motivation letter is usually used when applying for something e.g. for acceptance to a university, to a student programme, to a non-profit organization for voluntary work etc. You have to explain why you are interested in the specific activity, your motives, why you want to study or attend the programme, why you choose the specific university or programme etc.

The cover letter is used when you apply for a job. You send both a letter and your detailed CV. In the cover letter, you must state clearly the position you are applying for and explain why your profile matches the position. To put it simply, it must answer the question ''Why you?''. You must keep in mind that the cover letter should highlight you relevant skills and experience to relative to the position. Leave the details in your resume and take the chance to say things that cannot be expressed through your CV. Always finish your cover letter by asking for an interview, and by saying how you can be contacted (e.g. by phone).

Negotiation A strategic discussion that resolves an issue in a way that both parties find acceptable. In a negotiation, each party tries to persuade the other to agree with his or her point of view. By negotiating, all involved parties try to avoid arguing but agree to reach some form of compromise. Negotiations involve some give and take, which means one party will always come out on top of the negotiation. The other, though, must concede – even if that concession is nominal. Parties involved in negotiations can vary. They can include talks between buyers and sellers, an employer and prospective employee, or between the governments of two or more countries.

Netiquette is short for "Internet etiquette." Just like etiquette is a code of polite behavior in society, netiquette is a code of good behavior on the Internet. This includes several aspects of the Internet, such as email, social media, online chat, web forums, website comments, multiplayer gaming, and other types of online communication.

While there is no official list of netiquette rules or guidelines, the general idea is to respect other people online. Below are ten examples of rules to follow for good netiquette:

1. Avoid posting inflammatory or offensive comments online (a.k.a flaming).
2. Respect others' privacy by not sharing personal information, photos, or videos that another person may not want published online.
3. Never spam others by sending large amounts of unsolicited email.
4. Show good sportsmanship when playing online games, whether you win or lose.

5. Don't troll people in web forums or website comments by repeatedly nagging or annoying them.

6. Stick to the topic when posting in online forums or when commenting on photos or videos, such as YouTube or Facebook comments.

7. Don't swear or use offensive language.

8. Avoid replying to negative comments with more negative comments. Instead, break the cycle with a positive post.

9. If someone asks a question and you know the answer, offer to help.

10. Thank others who help you online.

The Internet provides a sense of anonymity since you often do not see or hear the people with whom you are communicating online. But that is not an excuse for having poor manners or posting incendiary comments. While some users may feel like they can hide behind their keyboard or smartphone when posting online, the fact is they are still the ones publishing the content. Remember – if you post offensive remarks online and the veil of anonymity is lifted, you will have to answer for the comments you made.

In summary, good netiquette benefits both you and others on the Internet. Posting a positive comment rather than a negative one just might make someone's day.

Official document An official paper or a set of official papers with written or printed information.

Resume A one- or two-page formal document that job hopefuls submit to hiring managers and employment recruiters as a means of itemizing their work experience, educational background, and special skills. Successful resumes entice potential employers to invite applicants to interview for the position. Resumes are traditionally accompanied by cover letters, in which applicants champion their relevant skills and tout their specific qualifications for a given position.

Spam Originating from the name of Hormel's canned meat, "spam" now also refers to junk e-mail or irrelevant postings to a newsgroup or bulletin board. The unsolicited e-mail messages you receive about refinancing your home, reversing aging, and losing those extra pounds are all considered to be spam. Spamming other people is definitely not cool and is one of the most notorious violations of Internet etiquette (or "netiquette"). So if you ever get the urge to let thousands of people know about that hot new guaranteed way to make money on the Internet, please reconsider.

Subject The subject line in an email is the single line of text email recipients see when they receive your email in their inbox. Since email inboxes are inundated with hundreds, maybe even thousands, of emails per day, catchy email subject lines are more important than ever. This one line of text can often determine whether an email is opened or sent straight to trash. Good email subject lines can make a powerful impact on your readers. The words you choose for your email subject lines can have a big impact on whether or not the hard work you've put into your email will pay off. No matter how sophisticated or well-crafted your email campaigns are, they are worthless if your target audience doesn't open the email. Spending a little extra time on your email subject lines will help you boost email open rates, avoid the spam folder, and get your message in front of the right people.

Threadjacking The act of taking over an e-mail list or discussion thread with a subject unrelated to the original posting.

Treaty A binding formal agreement, contract, or other written instrument that establishes obligations between two or more subjects of international law (primarily states and international organizations).

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