



**Е. Л. Ананьян**

**ОСНОВИ  
ПЕРЕКЛАДАЦЬКОГО АНАЛІЗУ  
ТА РЕДАГУВАННЯ**



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**ОСНОВИ ПЕРЕКЛАДАЦЬКОГО АНАЛІЗУ  
ТА РЕДАГУВАННЯ**

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Навчальний посібник «Основи перекладацького аналізу та редагування» дозволяє організувати та оптимізувати процеси формування та вдосконалення професійних компетенцій майбутнього фахівця. Так, студенти вчаться аналізувати текст, що перекладається, на основі комплексного підходу в контексті функціональних, жанрово-стилістичних, мовних та мовленнєвих ознак, а також з урахуванням перекладацьких технік та норм.

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## ЗМІСТ

<b>ПЕРЕДМОВА</b> .....	<b>4</b>
<b>LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES</b> .....	<b>5</b>
Lecture 1. GENERALITIES OF TRANSLATION STUDIES.....	5
Lecture 2. EVALUATIVE CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSLATION.....	17
Lecture 3. TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE.....	29
Lecture 4. CULTURE-SPECIFIC ITEMS AND TRANSLATION PROCEDURE.....	40
Lecture 5. INTRICATE GRAMMAR: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY.....	46
Lecture 6. MODALITY IN THE TEXT: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY.....	66
Lecture 7. IDIOMATIC VOCABULARY: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY.....	79
Lecture 8. FUNCTIONAL STYLES: STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATION AND REVISION.....	85
<b>GLOSSARY</b> .....	<b>102</b>
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	<b>112</b>

## ПЕРЕДМОВА

Вивчаючи теоретичні та практичні аспекти навчальної дисципліни «Основи перекладацького аналізу та редагування», студенти поглиблюють свій професійний досвід у галузі перекладу; набувають умінь та навичок оцінки тексту перекладу; здійснюють редагування перекладів на основі комплексного підходу з урахуванням жанрово-стилістичних, граматичних, лексичних та прагматичних норм мови перекладу; експериментують з різними техніками перекладу.

За своєю структурою навчальний посібник складається з передмови, восьми лекцій (LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES), глосарію (GLOSSARY) та списку рекомендованої літератури (REFERENCES). Тематичний матеріал представлено такими лекціями: *Lecture 1. GENERALITIES OF TRANSLATION STUDIES*; *Lecture 2. EVALUATIVE CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSLATION*; *Lecture 3. TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE*; *Lecture 4. CULTURE-SPECIFIC ITEMS AND TRANSLATION PROCEDURE*; *Lecture 5. INTRICATE GRAMMAR: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY*; *Lecture 6. MODALITY IN THE TEXT: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY*; *Lecture 7. IDIOMATIC VOCABULARY: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY*; *Lecture 8. FUNCTIONAL STYLES: STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATION AND REVISION*.

Така змістовна наповненість дозволяє організувати та оптимізувати процеси формування та вдосконалення професійних компетенцій майбутнього фахівця. Так, студенти вчать аналізувати текст, що перекладається, на основі комплексного підходу в контексті функціональних, жанрово-стилістичних, мовних та мовленнєвих ознак, а також з урахуванням перекладацьких технік та норм. Продуктом такої діяльності стає саме якісний, адекватний переклад тексту; переклад, який є прагматично адаптованим відповідно до оригіналу та націленим на відтворення того ж комунікативного ефекту, що й текст оригіналу, при збереженні, наскільки це можливо, змістовної та формальної залежності від оригіналу. 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.

## LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES

### Lecture 1. GENERALITIES OF TRANSLATION STUDIES

#### List of Issues Discussed:



1. Translation Studies. General Notions.
2. Approaches to Translation Studies.
3. Dialectics of Translation.
4. Translation Invariant.
5. Unit of Translation.
6. Types of Translation.

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#### 1. Translation Studies. General Notions

The term **translation** itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as **translating**). **The process of translation** between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the **source text** or **ST**) in the original verbal language (the **source language** or **SL**) into a written text (the **target text** or **TT**) in a different verbal language (the **target language** or **TL**). This type corresponds to ‘interlingual translation’ and is one of the three categories of translation described by the Russo-American structuralist Roman Jakobson in his seminal paper ‘On linguistic aspects of translation’. Jakobson’s categories are as follows:

(1) **intralingual** translation, or ‘rewording’: ‘an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language’. **Intralingual** translation would occur, for example, when we rephrase an expression or when we summarize or otherwise rewrite a text in the same language.

(2) **interlingual** translation, or ‘translation proper’: ‘an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language’. It is **interlingual** translation, between two different verbal languages, which is the traditional, although by no means exclusive, focus of translation studies.

(3) **intersemiotic** translation, or ‘transmutation’: ‘an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems’. **Intersemiotic** translation would occur if a written text were translated, for example, into music, film or painting.

Throughout history, written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in interhuman communication, not least in providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes. Yet the study of translation as an academic subject has only really begun in the past sixty years. In the English-speaking world, this discipline is now generally known as ‘translation studies’, thanks to the Dutch-based US scholar James S. Holmes. In his key defining paper delivered in 1972, but not widely available until 1988, Holmes describes the then nascent discipline as being concerned with ‘the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations’. Crucially, Holmes puts forward an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers (Figure 1.).

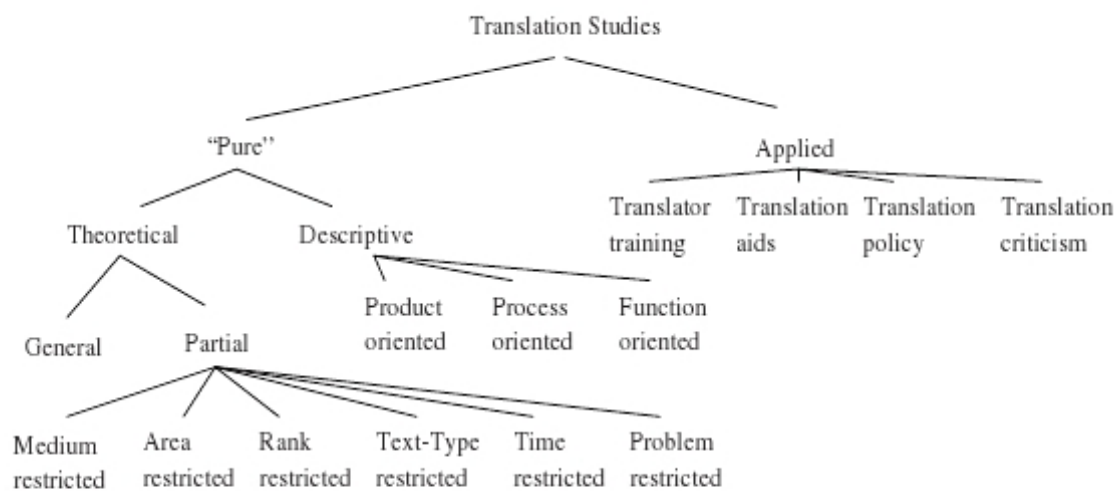


Figure 1. Holmes’ map (based on Holmes 1988)

In Holmes’s explanations of this framework, the objectives of the ‘pure’ areas of research are:

- (1) the description of the phenomena of translation (**descriptive translation theory**);
- (2) the establishment of general principles to explain and predict such phenomena (**translation theory**).

The ‘theoretical’ branch is divided into general and partial theories. By ‘general’, Holmes is referring to those writings that seek to describe or account for every type of translation and to make generalizations that will be relevant for translation as a whole. ‘Partial’ theoretical studies are restricted according to the parameters discussed below.

The other branch of ‘pure’ research in Holmes’s map is descriptive. Descriptive translation studies (DTS) has three possible foci: examination of (1) the product, (2) the function and (3) the process:

(1) **Product-oriented DTS** examines existing translations. This can involve the description or analysis of a single ST–TT pair or a comparative analysis of several TTs of the same ST (into one or more TLs). These smaller-scale studies can build up into a larger body of translation analysis looking at a specific period, language or text/discourse type. Larger-scale studies can be either diachronic (following development over time) or synchronic (at a single point or period in time) and, as Holmes foresees, ‘one of the eventual goals of product-oriented DTS might possibly be a general history of translations – however ambitious such a goal might sound at this time’.

(2) By **function-oriented DTS**, Holmes means the description of the ‘function [of translations] in the recipient sociocultural situation: it is a study of contexts rather than texts’. Issues that may be researched include which books were translated when and where, and what influences they exerted. This area, which Holmes terms ‘socio-translation studies’ – but which would nowadays probably be called cultural-studies-oriented translation – was less researched at the time of Holmes’s paper but is more popular in current work on translation studies.

(3) **Process-oriented DTS** in Holmes’s framework is concerned with the psychology of translation, i.e. it is concerned with trying to find out what happens in the mind of a translator. Despite later work from a cognitive perspective including think-aloud protocols (where recordings are made of translators’ verbalization of the translation process as they translate), this is an area of research which is only now being systematically analysed.

The results of DTS research can be fed into the theoretical branch to evolve either a general theory of translation or, more likely, partial theories of translation ‘restricted’ according to the subdivisions in Figure 1. above.

- **Medium-restricted theories** subdivide according to translation by machine and humans, with further subdivisions according to whether the machine/computer is working alone or as an aid to the human translator, to whether the human translation is written or spoken and to whether spoken translation (interpreting) is consecutive or simultaneous.



- **Area-restricted theories** are restricted to specific languages or groups of languages and/or cultures. Holmes notes that language-restricted theories are closely related to work in contrastive linguistics and stylistics.

- **Rank-restricted theories** are linguistic theories that have been restricted to a specific level of (normally) the word or sentence. At the time Holmes was writing, there was already a trend towards text linguistics, i.e. text-rank analysis, which has since become far more popular.

- **Text-type restricted theories** look at specific discourse types or genres; e.g. literary, business and technical translation.

- The term **time-restricted** is self-explanatory, referring to theories and translations limited according to specific time frames and periods. The history of translation falls into this category.

- **Problem-restricted theories** can refer to specific problems such as equivalence – a key issue of the 1960s and 1970s – or to a wider question of whether universals of translated language exist.

The ‘applied’ branch of Holmes’s framework concerns:

**translator training:** teaching methods, testing techniques, curriculum design;

**translation aids:** such as dictionaries, grammars and information technology;

**translation criticism:** the evaluation of translations, including the marking of student translations and the reviews of published translations.

However, unfortunately, European and American scholars seemed to have been unaware of the achievements of the Russian school of translation studies. Works by V. Komissarov, A. Shveitser, A. Fedorov and many others confirmed the status of translation studies as a discipline of its own even in the 1950s.

There are two terms corresponding to the Ukrainian word “переклад” (the Russian word “перевод”): translation and interpretation. Those who discriminate between the terms refer the term ‘**translation**’ to the written text, and the term ‘**interpretation**’ to oral speech. However, the terms are polysemantic: *to interpret* might mean “to render or discuss the meaning of the text” – an outstanding British translation theorist P. Newmark, for example, states that “when a part of a text is important to the writer’s intention, but insufficiently determined semantically, the translator has to interpret”. The term *to translate* is often referred to any (written or oral) manner of expression in another language.

It should be mentioned that **interpreters** differ from **translators** in a number of important ways but they also share with them certain characteristics and skills:

**NB:** (in the table given below **Language A:** Native language/mother tongue. **Language B:** First foreign language or “active foreign language” because the translator can read, understand and speak it almost like a native. **Language C:** Second foreign language or “passive foreign language” because the translator can read and understand it almost like a native but not speak it so well.

<b>Translators</b>	<b>Translators &amp; interpreters</b>	<b>Interpreters</b>
Have plenty of time to research the text	Both act as cultural and linguistic mediators and influencers	Communicate in real time
Translate from their languages (B, C) to their active language (A) (with some exceptions)	Transfer messages between languages	Must have active language knowledge
Are able to render the text in the target language in the clearest and most accurate way possible	Have knowledge of languages	Work both from A>B and A>C and vice versa (B>A, C>A)
Have excellent research skills	Have knowledge of relevant techniques to transfer the message between languages	Have strong cultural knowledge
Specialize in the language of different fields (law, science, arts, health)	Have researched their topic/text	Have strong listening skills, good communication skills and quick reactions
Have a strong command of communication technologies		Have excellent short-term memory and the intellectual capacity to transfer idioms, colloquialisms & culture-specific elements on the spot
		Can adjust to the type of interpretation required (simultaneous, semi-simultaneous or consecutive)
		Are able to adjust the register of each utterance
		Are able to match the effect of the “voice” of the person being interpreted

We should also differentiate the terms **translating** and **rendering**. When we translate, we express in another language not only what is conveyed in the source text but also how it is done. In rendering, we only convey the ideas (the what) of the source text.

## 2. Approaches to Translation Studies

### SEMIOTIC APPROACH

Language system is the part of semiotics dealing with sign systems. Therefore, semiotic theories may be applied to language functioning. According to the semiotic approach, translation is language code switching. When translating, we switch from one language to another one. American linguist Roman Jakobson in his article “On Linguistic Aspects of Translation” spoke of three possibilities of code switching:

1) **Intralinguistic translation**, or rewording, i.e. interpreting verbal signs through other signs of the same language. This can be done on diachronic level: Chaucer’s text is translated into modern English. When done on synchronic level, this kind of code switching is called a paraphrase. We often deal with paraphrasing when trying to explain or define things. For example, to explain the meaning of the phrase *I am not much of a cook*, we can paraphrase it by *I do not like to cook*, or *I do not cook well*. In the theory of translation, this type of code switching is called a **transformation**. Intralinguistic transfer can also be illustrated by stylistic differentiation (for example, the translation of the text about one and the same incident but given in the expressive publicistic register and in a very formal style of the police report will differ completely).

2) **Interlanguage translation**, i.e. substituting verbal signs of one language by verbal signs of another language, or switching from one language code to another one. This type of code switching is **translation proper**, the object of Translation Studies.

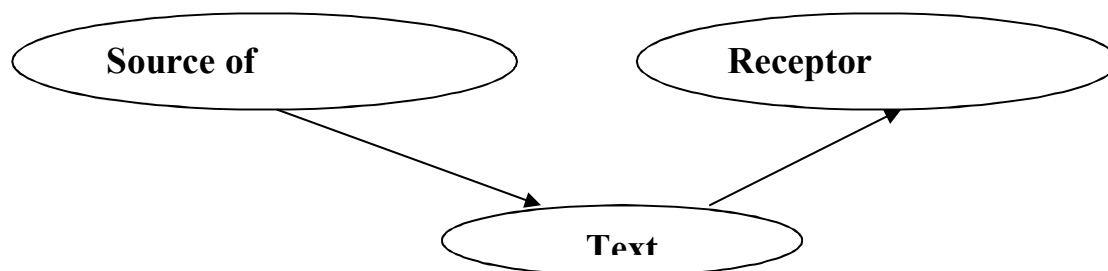
3) **Intersemiotic translation**, i.e. substituting signs of one semiotic system by signs of a different semiotic system. In its broad meaning, the term implies transmutation and can be illustrated by decoding some ideas and themes expressed, for example, in a poem through the “language” of music or dance.

Other linguists adhere to the semiotic approach to translation. J. Catford, for example, defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”.

## COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

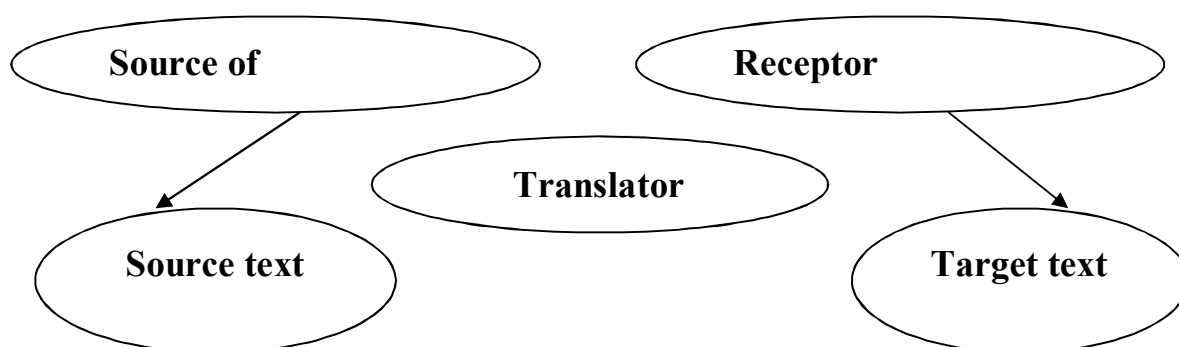
We communicate to transfer information from one person to another. Translation helps people communicate if they speak different languages. Thus, translation is a two-facet phenomenon: on the one hand, it is the process of transferring information; on the other hand, it is the result of this process. As a result a new text is created in translating.

The communicative situation consists of several elements:



A speaker or writer (an author) makes a meaningful utterance called the **text** and addresses it to the listener, reader, or receptor, who understands the purport of the text and reacts to it.

The translation situation doubles the elements of communication. The receptor of the original text in turn becomes a translator who makes a translated text, or target text intended for the receptor speaking another language:



The **source text** is the text to be translated. The **target text** is the end-product, the translated text.

For the translation to be adequate and effective, the target text should be equivalent to the source text. Indeed, when reading tragedies by Shakespeare in Russian, the receptor is but seldom aware that the words s/he sees in the text were not written by Shakespeare but by some other person, a translator. The form of the target text is new but the purport and the content are very close to the original. Paradoxically, the better a translator's work, the less his/her work is observed. The translated text is attributed to the author speaking another language and this text is used everywhere as if it were the original.

Thus **translation** unifies two different language speech acts in one communicative situation. It can be defined as a special type of communication intended to convey information between the participants speaking two different languages. As E. Nida and C. Taber put it, “translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language meaning and secondly in terms of style”.

### **'WORD-FOR-WORD' and 'SENSE-FOR-SENSE' APPROACHES**

Up until the second half of the twentieth century, western translation theory seemed locked in what George Steiner calls a ‘sterile’ debate over the ‘triad’ of ‘**literal**’, ‘**free**’ and ‘**faithful**’ translation’. The distinction between ‘**word-for-word**’ (i.e. ‘**literal**’) and ‘**sense-for-sense**’ (i.e. ‘**free**’) translation goes back to Cicero (first century BCE) and St Jerome (late fourth century CE) and forms the basis of key writings on translation in centuries nearer to our own. Cicero outlined his approach to translation introducing his own translation of the speeches of the Attic orators: “And I did not translate them as an interpreter, but as an orator, keeping the same ideas and forms, or as one might say, the ‘figures’ of thought, but in language which conforms to our usage. And in so doing, I did not hold it necessary to render word for word, but I preserved the general style and force of the language”.

The ‘interpreter’ of the first line is the literal (‘word-for-word’) translator, while the ‘orator’ tried to produce a speech that moved the listeners. In Roman times, ‘word-for-word’ translation was exactly what it said: the replacement of each individual word of the ST (invariably Greek) with its closest grammatical equivalent in Latin. This was because the Romans would read the TTs side by side with the Greek STs. The disparagement of word-for-word translation by Cicero underlined the goal of producing an aesthetically pleasing and creative text in the TL; it had great influence on the succeeding centuries.

Although some scholars argue that these terms have been misinterpreted, the following statement (Jerome’s one) is now usually taken to refer to what came to be known as ‘**literal**’ (**word-for-word**) and ‘**free**’ (**sense-for-sense**) translation. Jerome rejected the *word-for-word approach* because, by following so closely the form of the ST, it produced an absurd translation, cloaking the sense of the original. The *sense-for-sense approach*, on the other hand, allowed the sense or content of the ST to be translated. In these poles can be seen the origin of both the ‘literal vs. free’ and ‘form vs. content’ debate that has continued until modern times.

## **3. Dialectics of Translation**

### **1. Inseparability of form and meaning.**

A translator is to convey not only the ideas and themes of the source text (meaning, sense); s/he should also pay attention to the adequate form to express

these ideas. S/he should not become carried away with a free (loose) form of translation, nor force the target language by following the source text word for word. A translator always bears in mind a standard language of the target text, for, as W. Benjamin put it figuratively, «while content and language form a certain unity in the original, like a fruit and its skin, the language of the translation envelops its content like a royal robe with ample folds».

## **2. Social functions.**

Translation does not exist outside of society. It appeared in society when communities began to trade and exchange ideas. At the same time, translation helps the world community develop. Nations could hardly have achieved the technological success as it is in the 20th century if there had been no translations in electronics, physics, chemistry and other branches of science and technology. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, in the 20th century most of the world's people speak one of about 75 primary languages. A small minority speaks one of 450 secondary languages, and more than 4,400 other languages are in use. Without translation and translators the world would not be able to progress.

## **3. Translation and culture are inseparable.**

Translation could not have developed without culture. Literature, science, and philosophy influence translators' conceptualizations. On the other hand, culture could not have developed without translation, since translations enrich nations with the cultural values of other nations.

## **4. Reflection and creativity in translation.**

Translation reflects the source text but it does not copy it. To translate adequately, a translator must do his or her best to find a proper means of expression. A translator bears in mind that the receptor has a cultural background other than that of a receptor of the original text; therefore, s/he has to be very resourceful in producing the same impact upon the receptor as that of the source text. Special problems arise in translating dialects, foreign speech, puns, poetry, etc. And a translator is in constant search for new tools to solve translation problems.

## **5. Translation is an art and a science.**

Translation is dominated by objective, scientific, and linguistic description and explanation. At the same time it is a subjective choice of means preserving stylistic equivalence of the source text.

## **4. Translation Invariant**

Many linguistic terms have been borrowed from mathematics. Translation invariant is one of them. By **translation invariant** we mean what is in common between the two expressions, a source one and a target one, after our manipulations and transformations of variable phrases. By **translation invariant** we should understand the semantic equivalence of the source and the target texts. Some linguists, however, consider the notion to be broader than this definition. They suppose that it is the real situation described by the text that brings together the source and the target texts. If the situation is understood differently, it leads to

misunderstanding, which can happen in a monolanguage situation as well, and is often the basis for all sorts of comical jokes.

For example, the situation in the shop:

■ *Покупатель*: Я хочу примерить платье в витрине.

*Продавец*: Пожалуйста, но у нас есть примерочная.

■ *Customer*: I'd like to try on the dress in the shop window.

*Salesgirl*: You are welcome. But we have a fitting room.

Different situations verbalized here are caused by different pragmatic emphasis. The customer presses upon trying on a featured dress whereas the salesgirl implies the impropriety of using a shop window. If the translator of this joke had paraphrased the first sentence in a different way (I'd like to try on the dress that is in the shop window), the joke would have been lost, though the meanings of its sentences would have been equally transferred. Therefore, the invariant of translation is based not only on semantics (meaning), but also on pragmatics (communicative intention).

## 5. Unit of Translation

Singling out and defining a unit of translation is a problem widely discussed in Translation Studies. According to R. Bell, a **unit of translation** is the smallest segment of a source language text which can be translated, as a whole, in isolation from other segments (as small as possible and as large as is necessary). Should we consider a word as a translation unit? Though, there exists the notion of a word-for-word translation, the word can hardly be taken for a translation unit. First of all, this is because word borders are not always clear, especially in English. Sometimes a compound word is written in one element, sometimes it is hyphenated, or the two stems are written separately as a phrase: e.g., *moonlight*, *fire-light*, *candle light*. On the other hand, in oral speech it is difficult to single out separate words because they tend to fuse with each other into inseparable complexes: [ˈwudʒə ˈko:lim] – according to the stress, there should be two words, while in written speech we can see four words: *Would you call him?* Furthermore, it is impossible to consider a phrase (word combination) as a translation unit, because its boundaries are also vague.

Thus, it is not a language unit that should be considered in translation, but a discourse (speech) unit. A **translation unit** is a group of words united in speech by their meaning, rhythm and melody, i.e. it is a syntagm, or rhythmic and notional segment of speech. This definition of the unit of translation is process-oriented. If considered from a product-oriented point of view, it can be defined as the target-text unit that can be mapped onto a source-text unit.

## 6. Types of Translation

There are some criteria for classifying translation:

1) **The first one is based on who does the translation:** these days translation may be done by a human translator or by computer.

2) **Form of speech:** according to this criterion, translation as a *written form, sight translation* (or *translation-at-sight, on-sight translation*) as the *oral translation of written text* and *interpreting* as oral translation of oral discourse are differentiated. This criterion also involves *subtitling*, that is visual translation involving the superimposition of written text onto the screen, and dubbing, or the replacement of the original speech by a voice track which attempts to follow as closely as possible the timing, phrasing and lip movements of the original dialogue.

3) **Source text perception:** a translator can see or hear the text.

4) **Time lapse between the source text perception and translation:** consecutive and simultaneous interpreting.

5) **Number of languages in translation situation:** one-way or two-way translation.

6) **Direction of translation:** direct translation, that is, translation into the mothertongue, and inverse translation, or translation into a foreign language.

7) **Methods of interpreting:** note-taking interpretation, phrase-by-phrase interpretation

8) **Functional style and genre of the text:**

### • **Technical translation**

The term “technical translation” can be understood in two ways:

- In its broadest sense, it is about translating user manuals, instructions leaflets, internal notes, medical translation, financial reports, minutes of proceedings, administrative terms in general, and so forth. These documents share the distinction of being for a specific and limited target audience and usually have a limited shelf-life.

- In its most limited sense, technical translation refers to “technical” documentation such as engineering, IT, electronics, mechanics, and industrial texts in general. Technical translation requires some knowledge of the specialized terminology.

- **Scientific translation:** As a sub-group of technical translation, as its name indicates, scientific translation deals with documents in the domain of science: articles, theses, papers, congress booklets, presentations, study reports etc.

- **Financial translation:** Financial or economic translation, of course, deals with documentation relating to the likes of financial, banking, and stock exchange activity. This includes company annual reports, financial statements, financial contracts, financing packages, and so forth.

- **Legal translation:** Legal translation covers a wide range of very different documents. These may include legal documents such as summons and warrants; administrative texts such as registration certificates; corporate statutes and



remittance drafts, technical documents such as expert opinions and texts for judicial purposes; and a number of other texts in addition to reports and minutes of court proceedings.

- **Judicial translation:** Judicial translations, not to be confused with legal or certified translation, refers to the task of translation undertaken in a court setting. Judicial translators specialize in translating documents such as letters rogatory, minutes of proceedings, judgments, expert opinions, deposition, minutes of interrogation sessions etc.

- **Juridical translation:** Juridical translation refers to legally-binding documentation. For example, this could be the translation of documents such as laws; regulations and decrees; general sales and purchase conditions; legally binding contracts such as labor; license and commercial contracts; partnership agreements, accords; protocols and conventions; internal regulations; insurance policies; and bail assurance, among others. The juridical translator must have a solid legal background in addition to their linguistic training.

- **Certified translation:** A certified translator may use their signature to authenticate official translations. These are usually documents which require legal validation and are thus referred to as “certified”. Certified translators often work in courtrooms as juridical translators, or act in the capacity of a legal expert, as well as providing translations of civil status documentation, marital agreements, divorce settlements, deceases, and wills, for example.

- **Literary translation:** This is probably the hardest of all the different kinds of translation, as obviously, the translator must first try to render the semantic content of the original text (as should be the case for the translation of any kind of text), and then in addition deal with a number of other difficulties, such as:

- Polysemic word play specific to literary texts, as behind a word or a phrase, there lie a number of connotations which the writer has tried to transmit or hint at subtly and which the translator must attempt to render;
- The author’s own particular literary style; the translator must try to transmit the unique way in which the writer has couched their ideas;
- Rhythm, meter and the innate balance of the phrase; this is particularly important in poetry but equally present in prose, where the translator must work out the best way to resolve the delicate task of rendering the music inherent to the text – assonance, alliteration and asyndetons.

## Lecture 2. EVALUATIVE CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSLATION

### List of Issues Discussed:



1. Adequate and Equivalent Translation.
2. General Principles of Adequate Translation.
3. Literal Translation.
4. Free Translation.
5. Basic Translation Techniques.
6. The Concept of 'Untranslatability'.
7. Skopostheorie.

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### 1. Adequate and Equivalent Translation

Translation theorists have long disputed the interrelation of the two terms – **adequate translation and equivalent translation**.

V. Komissarov considers them to denote non-identical but closely related notions. He claims that adequate translation is broader in meaning than equivalent translation. Adequate translation is good translation, as it provides communication in full. Equivalent translation is the translation providing the semantic identity of the target and source texts. Two texts may be equivalent in meaning but not adequate, for example:

*Никита грозил: «Покажу тебе кузькину мать» – Nikita threatened, “I’ll put the fear of God into you!”*

The Russian sentence is low colloquial, whereas the English one, though it describes a similar situation, has another stylistic overtone, a rather pious one.

A. Shveitser refers the two terms to two aspects of translation: translation as result and translation as process. We can speak of equivalent translation when we characterize the end-point (result) of translation, as we compare whether the

translated text corresponds to the source text. Adequacy characterizes the process of translation. The translator aims at choosing the dominant text function, decides what s/he can sacrifice. Thus, adequate translation is the translation corresponding to the communicative situation.

For example, *Здравствуйте, я ваша тетя!* can be inadequate to *Hello, I'm your aunt!*, when the Russian sentence is used not in its phatic (i.e. contact supporting) function but in the expressive function (as an interjection) to express the speaker's amazement. Close to this understanding of translation adequacy is E. Nida's **concept of dynamic equivalence**, "aimed at complete naturalness of expression" and trying "to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture." Nida's principle of dynamic equivalence is widely referred to as the principle of similar or equivalent response or effect.

Y. Retsker states that the notion of adequate translation comprises that of equivalent. According to his opinion, an adequate target text describes the same reality as the source text does and at the same time it produces the same effect upon the receptor. Translation adequacy is achieved by three types of regular correlations:

1) **equivalent**, that is regular translation form not depending upon the context (equivalents include geographical names, proper names, terms): *the Pacific Ocean – Тихий океан, Chiang Kai-shek – Чан Кайши, hydrogen – водород*;

2) **analog**, or variable, contextual correspondence, when the target language possesses several words to express the same meaning of the source language word: *soldier – солдат, рядовой, военнослужащий, военный*;

3) **transformation**, or adequate substitution: *She cooks a hot meal in the evening. – На ужин она всегда готовит горячее.*

## 2. General Principles of Adequate Translation

One of the main difficulties of translating lies in the fact that the meaning of the whole text is not exhausted by the sum of meanings of its elements. The meaning of a text is made up by words, syntactic meaning of sentences, lexical semantic connections between words and phrases.

Good practical knowledge of the two languages is quite necessary but not sufficient for translating. Besides this knowledge one must possess a number of skills in translation and be guided by a number of principles worked out by the theory of translation. These principles are connected both with linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects. While translating one must keep in view typological characteristics of both the languages and remember that the same idea may be expressed lexically in one of them and grammatically in the other.

Besides purely linguistic difficulties, translation involves a great number of problems caused by numerous extra linguistic factors. The content of any text is based upon extra linguistic reality, the text itself reflects the cultural background of the author and of the whole people speaking the language, it also reflects the history of the people, their habits and traditions, a peculiar national way of

thinking, etc. All these things should necessarily be taken into consideration in order to translate the text adequately. Another demand upon a person translating any text is that he should be well acquainted with its subject matter.

If all these principles are taken into consideration there will be no danger of so called "literal" translation, which means a word-for-word translation. This type of translation with all its seeming accuracy ignores both linguistic and extra linguistic factors. It leads to preserving the meanings of separate words and at the same time it distorts the meaning of the whole text (sentence), thus often creates an undesirable comic effects.

Furthermore the problem of adequate translation is closely connected with the stylistic aspect of translation – one cannot reach the required level of equivalence if the stylistic peculiarities of the source text are neglected. Full translation adequacy includes as an obligatory component the adequacy of style, i.e. the right choice of stylistic means and devices of the target language to substitute for those observed in the source text. This means that in translation one is to find proper stylistic variations of the original meaning rather than only meaning itself.

A translator is to distinguish between neutral, bookish and colloquial words and word combinations, translating them by relevant units of the target language. It sometimes is hard to determine the correct stylistic variety of a translation equivalent. But the final decision is taken on the basis of the context, situation and the background information.

As it is known there are different types of correspondences between the elements of the SL and TL lexical systems. The meaning of equivalents practically does not depend on the context, so to translate them one should merely look them up in a dictionary. But the demand to consult dictionaries is essential. No guesswork is allowed in translation: a word should be either known or looked up; otherwise there is always a risk of translation the word "*data*" as "дата" or "*billet*" as "билет" or writing some other nonsense of the kind.

It is much more difficult to translate those words of SL which are characterized by partial correspondence to the words of TL. Such words are mostly poly semantic. That is why in order to translate them correctly it is necessary first of all to state which particular meaning of such a word is realized in the utterance. The most reliable indicator in this case is the context in which the word is used.

There is the difference between linguistic context and extra linguistic context (or context of situation). Linguistic context in its turn is subdivided into narrow (context of a phrase or a sentence) and wide (utterance-length context or sometimes context of the whole text). Very often the meaning of a word is revealed in the minimum context, i.e. in a phrase. It is easy to translate the phrases "*green trees*" – "зеленые деревья" or "*green years*" – "юные годы"), if one knows the meaning of the word "*green*" is – *зеленый, юный, незрелый*. However, there are such cases when we need at least a sentence or a paragraph to see what the word means.

So translation of any word begins with contextual analysis of its meaning. After that it becomes possible to choose correctly the corresponding word of TL. All types of context can help to identify the meaning of words in SL especially if the words have partial correspondence to the words of TL. The context also can help to identify the meaning of words that do not correspond to any words of TL. Translation of the words which have no correspondences in the other language at all causes many difficulties and requires special means.

In the process of translating a translator has to find it by himself, which of the meanings of a polysemantic word is realized in a particular context. A translator has to see if under the influence of this context the word has acquired a slightly new shade of meaning and to decide how this new shade of meaning (not listed in any dictionary) can be rendered in TL. Moreover, it has already been said that every language has its specific way of expressing things, a way that may be quite alien to other languages. That is why a literal (word-for-word) translation of a foreign text may turn out clumsy (if not ridiculous) in TL. To avoid ridiculous translation a translator has to resort to some special devices worked out by the theory of translation and known as lexical and grammatical transformations (or contextual substitutions). Lexical transformations are classified as transformation by means differentiation and concretization, transformation of generalization, semantic development, antonymic translation, and compensation. Grammatical transformations deal with transposition, replacements, additions, and omissions.

### 3. Literal Translation

**Literal translation** is the translation that reproduces communicatively irrelevant elements of the source text. This usually happens when the translator copies the source language form on this or that level of the language.

According to the language level, there exist various types of literal translation:

**1) on the sound level:** this type of literal translation results in the so called “translator’s false friends”, that is words similar in sounds but different in meaning: *conductor* – not *кондуктор*, but *дирижер*; *herb* – not *герб*, but *лекарственная трава*; *computer silicon chips* – not *компьютерные силиконовые чипсы*, but *кремниевые чипы компьютера*;

**2) on the syntactic level:** copying the structure of the source language. Sometimes an inexperienced translator is hypnotized by the source language, and, to translate “accurately”, he tries to render the meaning word for word, thus breaking combination rules of his/her own language.

For example: *We often heard his name mentioned.* – *Мы часто слышали его имя упомянутым.*

**3) on the semantic level:** giving the primary meaning of the word or its part, whereas a semantic transformation is required: *But outside it kept on raining.* – *Но снаружи шел дождь*, which is incorrect. Or *подполковник* – *subcolonel*, the word not existing in English.

4) **etymological errors**: disregarding language changes. Words acquire new meanings over time and use: *There, there, don't cry.* – *Там, там, не плачь.*

5) **following the style of the source text**: different registers require different language means. Thus, to use the example by V. Komissarov, to a Russian, who got accustomed to brief and abrupt structures in the weather forecast, an English weatherman's sentence can sound like a poem line: *Mist covered a calm sea in the Strait of Dover last night.* – *Туман покрывал спокойное море в Па-де-Кале прошлой ночью.* Therefore, to produce the same impact upon the receptor as does the original, the translator has to partition the English sentence and make it more adaptable to a Russian: *Прошлой ночью в проливе Па-де-Кале стоял туман. Море было спокойно.*

We can see that very often literal translation is not necessarily a word-for-word translation, although it is often associated with a rather negative evaluation of the translation. Literal translation is sometimes referred to as formal, or grammar translation, though it is not the same.

However, sometimes literal translation on this or that level is a must. The translator cannot do without it when rendering proper and geographical names (*Odessa, Berlin*); some borrowings (*Red Guards* – *хунвейбины* is a literal translation (on a semantic level), into English of the Chinese *hong (Red) wei bing (Guard)*, while the Russian word is a literal reproduction of the Chinese word on a sound level.

In some works, literal translation is called '**faithful**' translation – this term does not necessarily imply the negative connotation of slavish literalism.

#### 4. Free Translation

**Free translation** is the reproduction of the source form and content in a loose way.

This concept means adding extra elements of information or losing some essential ones. Of course, it doesn't mean that a translator is authorized to add details not described by the author, or vice versa to reduce the source text leaving out all the necessary information. Scholars of translation usually take a negative view of this type of free translation, known as adaptation in history of translation.

Nevertheless, free translation is appropriate in some cases: poetry translations are done with a certain degree of freedom. A translator is also free to modernize a classic text in order to subvert established target-language reader-response. Free translation is also admitted in the titles of novels, movies, etc. For instance, the outstanding Russian novel by *Ilf and Petrov* «*Двенадцать стульев*» is known in the United States as “*Diamonds to Sit On*”, which is accounted for by the bookselling advertising policies. The British movie “*Square Peg*” was translated into Russian as «*Мистер Путкин в тылу врага*», since the film translators did not find the adequate Russian idiom to convey the meaning “a person unsuitable for the place in which he works or lives” expressed by the English phrase “a square peg in a round hole”. Recently translation theorists have begun to relate **free translation** to **communicative translation**, depending

on the purpose of the translation, and **literal translation** to the so-called **semantic translation**.

**Communicative translation** tends to undertranslate, i.e. to use more generic, catch-all terms in difficult passages. **Semantic translation** tends to overtranslate, i.e. to be more detailed, more direct, and more awkward. P. Newmark, however, distinguishes semantic translation – as the attempt to render as closely as possible the semantic and syntactic structures of the target language, from literal translation, when the primary senses of the lexical words of the original are translated as though out of context. He defines communicative translation as that which produces on its receptors an effect similar to that on the receptors of the original.

## 5. Basic Translation Techniques

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.*

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. 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.*

**Integration** 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.*

**Transposition** 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.*

**Replacement** 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.

## 6. The Concept of 'Untranslatability'

The notion of untranslatability has been argued by the best minds for centuries, including translation theorists, philosophers, linguists, writers, and poets. According to Scottish philosopher Alasdair MacIntyre, "some degree of partial untranslatability marks the relationship of every language to every other." Total untranslatability, however, is believed to be rare. In fact, it is generally agreed that the areas that most nearly approach it are poetry, puns, and other word-plays. This is because of their connection to sound, images, rhythm, and sense, which are often (if not always) difficult/impossible to render into another language without losing some essential components of the original text. Yet, the term *untranslatable* seems to find its way into everyday speech effortlessly. But are we always using the term correctly?

To find out, let's start with a simple definition. Simple, you say? Not so much, as no two dictionaries agree fully on how to define the term *untranslatable*. Definitions range from the one-dimensional "Impossible to translate" (MacMillan) to the basic "Not able to be expressed or written down in another language or

dialect” (Collins) to the less theoretical “Of a word or, phrase, or text not able to have its sense satisfactorily expressed in another language” (Oxford). While all true, no definition seems to convey fully the reality of the concept of the term as we translators know it. We must turn to more comprehensive works to find a balanced, complete definition with which we can relate. From these sources we learn that:

- Untranslatability is a property of a text, or of any utterance, in one language, for which no equivalent text or utterance can be found in another language when translated.

- Terms are neither exclusively translatable nor exclusively untranslatable; rather, the degree of difficulty of translation depends on their nature, as well as on the translator’s knowledge of the languages in question.

- Quite often, a text or utterance that is considered to be “untranslatable” is actually a lacuna, or lexical gap. That is, there is no one-to-one equivalence between the word, expression, or turn of phrase in the source language and another word, expression, or turn of phrase in the target language. A translator can, however, resort to a number of translation procedures to compensate for this. Therefore, untranslatability or difficulty of translation does not always carry deep linguistic relativity implications; denotation can virtually always be translated, given enough circumlocution, although connotation may be ineffable or inefficient to convey.

In other words, the term *untranslatable* is most often used to refer to lexical gaps (i.e., terms or expressions that do not exist in another language) or cultural gaps (i.e., concepts that do not exist in another culture). However, it is not necessarily because a language doesn’t have a direct lexical or cultural equivalent for a term/expression/concept that there is absolutely no way to express it in another language. Translators have many methods at their disposal to do so (adaptation, borrowing, calque, loanwords, compensation, paraphrase, translator’s notes, etc.). Does this mean that all words, expressions, verbal forms, honorifics, etc., can be translated precisely? No. But it is generally agreed that most, if not all, texts can be exported into another language, even though all elements of those texts (e.g., cultural connotations, rhymes, rhythms, puns, etc.) may not always be exported alongside successfully. So, in essence, no text would be truly untranslatable, but the translation of culturally irreconcilable texts would inevitably result in some degree of loss. It is that loss that validates the notion of untranslatability, even though the text itself can be translated.

In truth, our world is home to so much cultural diversity, so many languages, and so many disparities among them that there are bound to be terms/expressions/concepts that fall so deeply into the lexical and cultural voids that they are labeled *untranslatable*. Indeed, who could argue that some notions are so incredibly specific to a culture that no other culture has a direct equivalent for them? Take the word ‘*mamihlapinapai*’, for example, which is Yahgan for “*a look shared by two people, each wishing that the other will offer something that they both desire but are unwilling to suggest or offer themselves*”. Not surprisingly, it appears in the Guinness Book of World Records as the “most succinct word,”

but it is also considered one of the most difficult words to translate. But is it really untranslatable? Would you say that “*an expressive, meaningful look between two people wishing to initiate something but reluctant to do so*” is a translation (versus a definition or an interpretation)? The answers to those questions depend on your definition of translation.

Translators often come across texts whose idiomatic nature makes it necessary to rethink their definition of untranslatability and to stretch the target language to its very limit. (All of us know how much flexibility, creativity, and innovative thinking are required in the process!) In some instances, a translator will come up with a culturally appropriate equivalent (albeit distant from the original idea). Where choices are limited by factors that cannot be controlled, the translator may substitute the text with something else altogether. In rare instances where a concept is completely unknown to a culture, the translator’s work will go even further to make up for the conceptual void. In all cases, the text will be deemed adequately (albeit creatively) translated and, by extension, translatable. However, there are instances when translators simply cannot make the decision to stretch the language, substitute text, or explain an alien concept, because that decision is simply not theirs to make. These are instances in which translators may find themselves using the word untranslatable to refer to something else altogether.

**When Untranslatable = Does Not Translate Effectively** One such occurrence of a text that is often labeled untranslatable is “must-translate” text that may not translate effectively. We’ve all been there. In order to avoid a simple (to us) explanation that will confuse our monolingual client, we might refer to that text as untranslatable. But should we? Let’s use a simple case of marketing translation gone wrong to illustrate that particular dilemma. We’ve all heard of the Braniff Airlines’ “*Fly in Leather*” campaign that sought to highlight the airline’s luxury leather seats, but was a fiasco in some parts of Latin America, where the slogan “*Vuela en cuero*” was interpreted as “*fly naked/in the nude/topless*”. Braniff’s misstep has become a classic example of unfortunate translation choices, but it might as well have been a case of unheeded warning.

Another case of text that a translator might refer to as *untranslatable* is one that is so unintelligible or inarticulate that the translator cannot commit to a translation. At least not without first attaining a reasonable degree of certainty about its meaning as it was intended originally. Bible translators know this dilemma well, as religious texts are fertile grounds for impenetrable copy (which more and more translators are now choosing not to translate). For example, the new Swedish Bible reportedly features some 67 such instances! In the January 2007 issue of *The Bible Translator*, published by The United Bible Societies, Christer Åsberg, a professor of Swedish language and literature, explains:

*Those who read Ps 141.6b in a sample of modern Bible translations may wonder why the verse is translated in so many different ways.*

• **RSV [Revised Standard Version]:** *Then they shall learn that the word of the LORD is true.* • **CEV [Contemporary English Version]:** *Everyone will admit that I was right.*

- **NAB [New American Bible]:** *and they heard how pleasant were my words.*
- **NJPSV [New Jewish Publication Society Version]:** *but let my words be heard, for they are sweet.*
- **EHS [Evangelical Homiletics Society]:** *sie sollen hören, daß mein Wort für sie freundlich ist (they will hear that my word is favorable for them)*
- **TOB [Ecumenical Translation]:** *eux qui s'étaient régalés de m'entendre dire: (those who were invited to hear me say:)*
- **DB [Die Boodskap]:** *og man skal erfare, at mine ord var gode (and people will find, that my words were good ones)*

*In the 2000 Swedish translation (SB/Svenskbibel), the verse is not translated at all; it is indicated with three hyphens inside square brackets, [—].*

But translators don't have to specialize in ancient texts or languages to face that particular dilemma, and the challenges that the situation creates are not any less exacting. Indeed, when translating current texts, leaving the copy blank is not an option, and dealing with actual writers/clients may at times be even more challenging than translating texts from the ancient ones who are no longer around to explain them.

## 7. Skopostheorie

In the theory of translation Vermeer's approach covers the effect of the produced literary texts on the reader, which he and his followers call "**skopostheorie**". "Skopos" as a word was first used by Hans J. Vermeer in 1978 and then in 1983 in more detailed fashion in his book "Articles on Translation Theories". The word Skopos, derived from Greek means "target" "goal". **Vermeer's Skopos Theory** is mainly based on literary theories which reflects a general shift to communication theory, text linguistics, and text theory and in addition, reception theories.

According to this approach, during translation the target text is formed by the function aimed to be realized by the target text in the target cultural setting. In another saying, translation should be focused on the function aimed at the target text in its own cultural setting. According to this theory every translation is an action and every action has an aim or a purpose, likewise, every translation has an aim. At this point, translator is an actor who takes into consideration the cultural aspects that are contributing factors in the source text and different aspects of the target culture during translation process and who produces a new text on the related cultural platform. Translator has more freedom because depending on the source text was replaced by depending on purpose. Thus, target language, target culture and target reader are prominent. Skopos Theory has a functional quality. The person who assigns a translator for the task of translation has an aim. Translation should achieve the aim of the source text writer and on the other hand, it should function by serving to the determined aim established in accordance with the target world's cultural properties. While functioning in this direction a new text should be produced in such a way that it should create the same effect in the target language.

This concept could have three different uses according to Vermeer. **The first** is the translation process. **The second** is the result of translation, which covers the function of translation. **The third** is the translation method, in other words, the aim of the method. Translation according to Skopos is “not primarily producing an exact equivalent of the source text but to produce a new text in accordance with a certain aim or purpose”. Translator, as a member of a society of a certain culture and an individual, principally is free to choose his own “Skopos” just as every individual is free to choose his own way of behavior. Translation depends on the reaction of a translator to a source text. Translator is free to choose Skopos needed for a source text to be comprehended well by the aimed recipients and also responsible for this task.

To deal with Vermeer’s theory in more detail, the theory comprises “work”, and “translator” who is considered to be in a position of expert. The task and decision making power of translator is quite broad in this approach. As of the properties of the theory, translator-employer, translator-source text writer and translator-reader relationships draw attention. Where the aim of the translator is set by the “employer”, the translator is considered to be an “expert”. The access of the translation to the target text reader depends primarily on how the employer sets the aim of translation. Skopos theory places the translator in the centre. The translator holds all the responsibility; at the same time the translator himself decides whether the translation is good or bad.

This approach named “Skopos Theory” is also adopted by famous translator Nord. Nord explains their approach like: “Skopos theory takes translation act as a meaningful process, which means what the aim of translation product is and what it could give to the reader”.

#### Examples of Skopos Theory products:

##### 1. *Sitting pretty*

*It's great to know that a small car can be the product of big ideas, and whatever your lifestyle it will leave you sitting pretty.* (Promotional brochure of the car)

*Возьми с собой все! Больше пространства – больше возможностей!*

*Этот маленький автомобиль помогает воплотить большие замыслы. С Р\*\*\* ты можешь ни в чем себе не отказывать!*

2. *«Daewoo, that's who» / «Daewoo. Заведи любимую»*

3. *«Winston tastes good like a cigarette should» / «Скажешь у меня нет вкуса?»*  
(«Winston. Сомнений нет – вкус настоящих сигарет»)

4. *«A Mars a day helps you work, rest and play» / «Mars. Все будет в шоколаде»*

5. *«Wake up & Stay Alert» / «Проснись на раз, врубись на два»*

6. *«Hungry? Grab a Snickers» / «Проголодался? Сникерсни!»*

## Lecture 3. TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE



### List of Issues Discussed:

1. Generalities of Equivalence.
2. Levels and Types of Equivalence.

### References

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### 1. Generalities of Equivalence

Translation equivalence does not mean that source and target texts are identical. It is a degree of similarity between source and target texts, measured on a certain level. Viewed from the semiotic angle, the source and target texts can be identical pragmatically, semantically and structurally. Every text should be equivalent to the source text pragmatically, which means that the both texts should have one and the same communicative function. The target text should have the same impact upon the receptor as the source text has. Semantic identity implies describing the same situation, using similar lexical meaning of the units, and similar grammatical meaning of the elements. Structural similarity presupposes the closest possible formal correspondence between the source text and the target text.

According to V. Komissarov, one can distinguish five levels of equivalence: **pragmatic, situational, lexical (semantic), grammatical, structural** levels.

#### ■ Pragmatic level

First and foremost, the translation must retain the same communicative function as the source text. The description and enumeration of speech functions can be found in the work by R. Jakobson, who pointed out the following:

- informative function, i.e. conveying information: *Лавры моего конкурента не дают мне спать. – I am green with envy because of the success of my competitor.*

- emotive function, i.e. expressing the speaker's emotions: *На кой леший мне такой друг? – What on earth do I need such a friend for?*
- conative function, i.e. expressing one's will: *Could you do me a favor, please? – Пожалуйста, окажите мне услугу.*
- phatic function, i.e. making communicative contact: *How do you do! – Здравствуйте!*
- metalingual function, i.e. describing language features: *Don't trouble trouble until trouble troubles you. – На дворе трава – на траве дрова.*
- poetic function, i.e. aesthetic impact:

<p>From fairest creatures we desire increase, That thereby beauty's rose might never die, But as the ripper should by time decease, His tender heir might bear his memory: But thou, contracted to thine own bright eyes, Feed'st thy light's flame with self- substantial fuel, Making a famine where abundance lies, Thyself thy foe, to thy sweet self too cruel. Thou that art now the world's fresh ornament And only herald to the gaudy spring, Within thine own bud buriest thy content, And, tender churl, mak'st waste in niggarding: Pity the world, or else this glutton be, To eat the world's due, by the grave and thee.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(William Shakespeare)</p>	<p>Ми прагнемо, щоб краса потомство мала, Щоб цвіт її ніколи не зачах, Щоб квітнула троянда нетривала, Все наново постаючи в бруньках.</p> <p>А ти, закоханий у власну вроду, Її годуєш полум'ям своїм, Розвалюєш - скажи, кому на шкоду? - Душі своєї багатуючий дім.</p> <p>Ти, хто весні сьогодні пишна пара, Пригноблюєш весняне почуття, Як той багатий, та нещасний скнара, Змарнуєш на вбогості життя.</p> <p>Світ пожалій, не зводь красу до гробу, Віддай природі борг - свою подобу!</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(Переклад Д.В. Павличка)</p> <p>Мы урожая ждем от лучших лоз, Чтоб красота жила, не увядая. Пусть вянут лепестки созревших роз, Хранит их память роза молодая. А ты, в свою влюбленный красоту, Все лучшие ей отдавая соки, Обилье превращаешь в нищету, - Свой злейший враг, бездушный и жестокий. Ты - украшение нынешнего дня, Недолговременной весны глашатай, - Грядущее в зачатке хороня, Соединяешь скардность с растратой.</p>
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	<p>Жалея мир, земле не предавай Грядущих лет прекрасный урожай!</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(Перевод С.Я. Маршака)</p>
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These sentences have only one thing in common: general intent of communication, communication aim, or function. At first glance, the source and target texts have no obvious logical connection; they usually designate different situations, have no common semes (i.e. smallest components of meaning), and have different grammar structures.

### ■ Situational level

The source and the target texts can describe the same situation from different angles with different words and structures:

*I meant no harm. – Простите, я нечаянно. (the situation in the bus);*

*Who shall I say is calling? – Кто его спрашивает? (the situation on the phone);*

*Wet paint. – Осторожно: окрашено! (the situation in the park).*

There are no parallel lexical or structural units in these counterparts. Therefore, their content is different, the word semes are different, the grammar relations between the sentence components are different. Nevertheless, the utterances correspond to each other in their communicative functions and in the similarity of the described situation. Because of this identity, V. Komissarov calls this type of equivalence «identification of the situation».

Frequently one and the same situation is referred to in different languages. This is particularly true of set phrases:

*Fragile. – Осторожно: стекло!*

*Beware of the dog! – Осторожно, злая собака!*

*Push/Pull – От себя/К себе.*

Some situations cannot be translated: for example, “*Приятного аппетита!*” has no corresponding phrase in English. In place of this lacuna, English people use the French idiom “*Bon appetit!*”. There is also no equivalent for the Russian “*С легким паром*” (the following variants are possible: “*With easy (light/good) steam*”, “*Good bath to you!*”).

### ■ Semantic paraphrase

Dealing with the transformation of meaning implies a **semantic variation**, or **semantic paraphrase of the source language utterance**. For example, the sentence in the original can be translated as if the situation were viewed from a different angle:



*He was not unlike his mother. – Он довольно похож на свою мать.*

*He is my son. – Я - мать этого мальчика.*

Or some words of the source language sentence are paraphrased in translation:

*After her illness, she became as skinny as a toothpick. – После болезни она стала худая, как щепка.*

Or the target sentence can verbalize the idea in more detail than the source language sentence:

*Сегодня Борису не до шуток. – Boris is in no mood for joking today.*

On this level of equivalence, the source and the target sentences have the same function (aim), they describe the same situation, and their meanings are approximately identical, whereas their grammar structures are different. As is known, the meaning of each word consists of semes, the smallest sense component. The set of semes in the source and target sentences is the same, but they are grouped differently and, therefore, are verbalized in different ways and do not have the same syntactic structure.

V. Komissarov states that on this level the two sentences match because they have approximately the same method of the situation description.

### ■ Grammatical and structural levels

On this level, the target and the source language sentences manifest **grammar transformations**. For example:

– the passive predicate can be translated by the active: *The port can be entered by big ships only in tide. – Большие корабли могут заходить в порт только во время прилива.*

– Likewise, part of speech can be changed in translation: *We had a long walk. – Шли мы долго.*

– Or the structure of the sentence can be modified: *Jane was heard playing the piano. – Было слышно, как Джейн играла на пианино.*

Any other change of the grammar meaning within the sentence testifies to the equivalence on the transformational level, which is called by V. Komissarov **the level of the invariant meaning of the syntactic structure**. This level of equivalence presupposes retention of the utterance function, the description of the same situation, the same meaning of the source and target sentences, and a very close (but variable) grammatical meaning.

## 2. Levels and Types of Equivalence

Taking into account V. Komissarov's approaches to the theory of equivalence, we can speak about five different types of semantic relationships between equivalent phrases (texts) in two languages. Thus all translations can be classified into **five types of equivalence** which differ as to the volume and character of the information retained in each. Each subsequent type of equivalence

retains the part of the original contents which includes the information preserved in the previous types.

Every translation can be regarded as belonging to a certain type of equivalence. Since each subsequent type implies a higher degree of semantic similarity we can say that every translation is made at a certain level of equivalence.

Each level of equivalence is characterized by the part of information the retention of which distinguishes it from the previous level. The list of levels includes: **1)** the level of the purport of communication; **2)** the level of (the identification of) the situation; **3)** the level of the method of description (of the situation); **4)** the level of syntactic meanings; **5)** the level of word semantics.

- Let us first of all single out translations in which the degree of semantic similarity with ST seems to be the lowest. This type of equivalence can be illustrated by the following examples:

*Maybe there is some chemistry between us that doesn't mix. – Буває, що люди не сходяться характерами.*

*A rolling stone gathers no moss. – Кому дома не сидиться, той добра не наживе. That's a pretty thing to say. – Посоромився б!*

Here we cannot discover any common semes or invariant structures in the original and its translation. Moreover, it comprises the information which must be preserved by all means even though the greater part of the contents of the original is lost in the translation.

Thus we can deduce that in the first type of equivalence it is only the purport of communication that is retained in translation.

- The second group of translations can be illustrated by the following examples:

*He answered the telephone. – Він зняв слухавку.*

*You see one bear, you have seen them all. – Всі ведмеді схожі один на одного.*

*It was late in the day. – Наближався вечір.*

This group of examples is similar to the first one, as the equivalence of translations here does not involve any parallelism of lexical or structural units. Most of the words or syntactical structures of the original have no direct correspondences in the translation. At the same time it is obvious that there is a greater proximity of contents than in the preceding group. Besides the purport of communication there is some additional information contained in the original that is retained.

The information which characterized the second type of equivalence can, therefore, be designated as “identification of the situation”.

- In the next group of translations the part of the contents which is to be retained is still larger. This type of equivalence can be exemplified as follows:

*Scrubbing makes me bad-tempered. – Від миття підлоги у мене псується настрій. London saw a cold winter last year. – Минулого року зима в Лондоні була холодна. You are not serious? – Ви жартуєте?*

In this case the translation retains the two preceding informative complexes as well as the method of describing the situation. In other words, it contains the same general notions as the original. This means that the translation is a semantic paraphrase of the original, preserving its basic semes and allowing their free reshuffle in the sentence. Thus we are faced with a situation that can be explained in terms of the semantic theory. The common semes are easily discovered in the comparative analysis of the translations of this group.

Very often in the context of this group **antonymic translation** is mentioned. **Antonymic translation** is a complex transformation in which an affirmative in sense or structure SL unit is rendered as a negative in sense or structure but identical in meaning TL unit or vice versa. In other words, it is a complex transformation, which describes the situation from the opposite point of view: *Take it easy. – Не переймайся.* (an affirmative SL unit corresponds to a negative TL unit); *Немає лиха без добра. – Every dark cloud has a silver lining; I mean it! – Я не жартую!*

Antonymic translation is used:

1. when there is no direct equivalent for the SL units in the TL:

*He was in (his) short-sleeves. – Він був без піджака.* (to be in (one's) short-sleeves – means not wearing a jacket, it has no direct equivalent in Ukrainian language and is translated automatically – без піджака)

*Я думаю, що він не здасть екзамен. – I think he will fail the exam./I don't think he will pass the exam.*

*The defeat of the team was the result of its inferiority. – Поразка команди була наслідком переваги суперників.*

*Do you mind? – Ви не проти?*

2. when a SL unit has two negations which create an affirmation:

*She was by no means non-elegant. – Вона була досить елегантною.* (This sentence contains two negations: *by no means* and *non-elegant*, which corresponds to an affirmation *досить елегантною*)

*The door was not unlocked. – Двері були зачинені.*

3. to achieve a necessary expressiveness:

*A bomb fell close. – Бомба впала неподалік.*

*No, it makes all the difference in the world. – Ні, не все одно!*

*I don't think it will hurt you. – Думаю, вам це не зашкодить.* (*I don't think – Думаю, will hurt you – не зашкодить*)

*I hope you will stay. – Сподіваюся ви не втечете.*

*She was a woman of character. – Вона була жінкою не без характеру.* (експресивне речення)

4. to avoid the repetition of the same structure close to each other in the same text:

She didn't utter a word and he said nothing. – Вона промовчала і він нічого не сказав.

We can now say that the third type of equivalence exemplified by the translations of the third group, implies retention in the translation of the three parts of the original contents which we have conventionally designated as the purport of communication, the identification of the situation and the method of its description.

• The fourth group of translations can be illustrated by the following samples:

*He was never tired of old songs. – Старі пісні йому ніколи не докучали.*

*I don't see that I need to convince you. – Не бачу потреби доводити вам це.*

*He was standing with his arms crossed and his bare head bent. – Він стояв, склавши руки на грудях, з похиленою непокритою головою.*

In this group the semantic similarity of the previous types of equivalence is reinforced by the invariant meaning of the syntactic structures in the original and the translation. In such translations the syntactic structures can be regarded as derived from those in the original through direct or backward transformations. This includes cases when the translation makes use of similar or parallel structures.

Thus, the fourth type of equivalence presupposes retention in the translation of the four meaningful components of the original: the purport of communication, the identification of the situation, the method of its description, and the invariant meaning of the syntactic structures.

• Last but not least, the fifth group of translations comes that can be discovered when we analyse their relationships with the respective originals. Here we find the maximum possible semantic similarity between texts in different languages. These translations try to retain the meaning of all the words used in the original text. The examples cited below illustrate this considerable semantic proximity of the correlated words in the two sentences:

*I saw him at the theatre. – Я бачив його в театрі.*

*The house was sold for 10 thousand dollars. – Будинок було продано за десять тисяч доларів.*

Here we can observe the equivalence of semes which make up the meaning of correlated words in the original text and the translation; parallelism of syntactic structures implying the maximum invariance of their meanings; the similarity of the notional categories which determine the method of describing the situation; the identity of the situations; the identical functional aim of the utterance or the purport of communication. The relative identity of the contents of the two texts depends in this case on the extent to which various components of the word meaning can be rendered in translation without detriment to the retention of the rest of the information contained in the original.

It is worth noting that the information characterizing different levels is inherent to any unit of speech. Indeed, a unit of speech always has some communicative intent, denotes a certain situation, possesses a certain notional structure, and is produced as a syntactically patterned string of words.

Thus, a translation event is accomplished at a definite level of equivalence. It should be emphasized that the level hierarchy does not imply the idea of approbation or disapprobation. A translation can be good at any level of equivalence.

The structural similarity of ST and TT implies that relationships of equivalence are established between correlated units in the two texts. Many SL units have regular equivalents in TL which are used in numerous TT as substitutes to those units.

Some of the SL units have permanent equivalents in TL, that is to say, there is a one-to-one correspondence between such units and their equivalents.

Thus “*London*” is always rendered into Ukrainian as “*Лондон*”, “*machinegun*” as “*кулемет*” and “*hydrogen*” as “*водень*”. As a rule this type of correspondence is found with words of specific character, such as scientific and technical terms, proper or geographical names and similar words whose meaning is more or less independent of the particular contextual situation.

Other SL units may have several equivalents each. Such one-to-many correspondence between SL and TL units is characteristic of most regular equivalents. The existence of a number of non-permanent (or variable) equivalents to a SL unit implies the necessity of selecting one of them in each particular case, taking into account the way the unit is used in ST and the points of difference between the semantics of its equivalents in TL.

Depending on the type of the language units involved regular equivalents can be classified as lexical, phraseological or grammatical.

Coordinated words in two languages may correspond to each other in one or several components of their semantic structures, while not fully identical in their semantics. The choice of the equivalent will depend on the relative importance of a particular semantic element in the act of communication. For instance, the English word “*ambitious*” may denote either praiseworthy or inordinate desires. Its translation will depend on which of these aspects comes to the fore. Thus “*the ambitious plans of the would-be world conquerors*” will be translated as “*честолюбні плани претендентів на роль завойовників всього світу*”, while “*the ambitious goals set by the United Nations*” will give “*грандіозні цілі, поставлені ООН*” in the Ukrainian translation.

A variety of equivalents may also result from a more detailed description of the same object in TL. The English word “*attitude*”, for instance, is translated as “*відносини, позиція, політика*” depending on the variant the Ukrainian language prefers in a particular situation.

Even if a SL unit has a regular equivalent in TL, this equivalent cannot be used in TT whenever the unit is found in ST. An equivalent depends on the context in which the SL unit is placed in ST. There are two types of context: **linguistic** and *situational*. The **linguistic context** is made up by the other SL units in ST while the **situational context** includes the temporal,

spacial and other circumstances under which ST was produced as well as all facts which the receptor is expected to know so that he could adequately interpret the message.

Thus in the following sentences the linguistic context will enable the translator to make a correct choice among the Ukrainian equivalents to the English noun “attitude”:

- 1) *I don't like your attitude to your work.*
- 2) *There is no sign of any change in the attitudes of the two sides.*
- 3) *He stood there in a threatening attitude.*

It is obvious that in the first sentence it should be the Ukrainian “*відношення (до роботи)*”, in the second sentence – “*позиція (обох сторін)*”, and in the third sentence – “*постава (погрожуюча)*”.

The fact that a SL unit has a number of regular equivalents does not necessarily mean that one of them will be used in each particular translation. True, in many cases the translator's skill is well demonstrated in his ability to make a good choice among such equivalents. But not infrequently the context does not allow the translator to employ any of the regular equivalents to the given SL unit. Then the translator has to look for an ad hoc way of translation which will successfully render the meaning of the unit in this particular case. Such an exceptional translation of a SL unit which suits a particular context can be described as an **occasional equivalent** or a **contextual substitute**. It is clear, for instance, that none of the abovementioned regular equivalents to the English “attitude” can be used in the translation of the following sentence: *He has a friendly attitude towards all.*

An occasional equivalent may be found through a change of the part of speech: *Він до всіх відноситься по-товариськи.*

The particular contextual situation may force the translator to give up even a permanent equivalent. Geographical names have such equivalents which are formed by imitation of the foreign name in TL. Phraseological units or idioms may also have permanent or variable equivalents. Such English idioms as “*the game is not worth the candle*” or “*to pull chestnuts out of the fire for smb*” are usually translated by the Ukrainian idioms “*гра не варта свічок*” and “*діставати каштани з полум'я для кого-небудь*”, respectively. These equivalents reproduce all the aspects of the English idioms semantics and can be used in most contexts. Other permanent equivalents, though identical in their figurative meaning, are based on different images, that is, they have different literal meaning. For example: “*to get up on the wrong side of the bed*” – “*встати з лівої ноги*”, “*make hay while the sun shines*” – “*куй залізо, поки гаряче*”. Now an English idiom may have several Ukrainian equivalents among which the translator has to make his choice in each particular case. For instance, the meaning of the English “*Do in Rome as the Romans do*” may be rendered in some contexts as “*З вовками жити - по-вовчи вити*”, and in other contexts as “*В чужій монастир зі своїм статутом не ходять*”. But here, again, the translator may not infrequently prefer an occasional equivalent which can be formed by a word-for-word reproduction of the original unit: “*В Римі поведься як римлянин*”.

The choice of grammatical units in TT largely depends on the semantics and combinability of its lexical elements. Therefore there are practically no permanent grammatical equivalents. The variable equivalents in the field of grammar may be analogous forms in TL or different forms with a similar meaning. As often as not such equivalents are interchangeable and the translator has a free choice between them. In the following English sentence “*He was a guest of honour at a reception given by the Soviet government*” both the Ukrainian participle “*улаштованим*” and the attributive clause “*який був улаштований*” can be substituted for the English participle “*given*”. And the use of occasional equivalents is here more common than in the case of the lexical or phraseological units. We have seen that in the first three types of equivalence no equivalents to the grammatical units are deliberately selected in TL.

No small number of SL units have no regular equivalents in TL. Equivalent-lacking words are often found among SL names of specific national phenomena, such as the English words “*coroner, condominium, impeachment, baby-sitter*” and the like. However, there are quite a number of “ordinary” words for which TL may have no equivalent lexical units: “*fluid, bidder, qualifier, conservationist*”, etc. Some grammar forms and categories may also be equivalent-lacking (the English gerund, article or absolute participle construction which have no counterparts in Ukrainian).

The absence of regular equivalents does not imply that the meaning of an equivalent-lacking SL unit cannot be rendered in translation or that its translation must be less accurate. We have seen that words with regular equivalents are not infrequently translated with the help of contextual substitutes. Similarly, the translator, coming across an equivalent-lacking word, resorts to occasional equivalents which can be created in one of the following ways:

1. Using loan-words imitating in TL the form of the SL word or word combination, e.g. *tribalism* – *трайболізм*, *impeachment* – *імнічмент*, *backbencher* – *здньюлавочник*, *brain-drain* – *витік мізків*. As often as not such occasional formations are adopted by the members of the TL community and get the status of regular equivalents.

2. Using approximate substitutes, that is TL words with similar meaning which is extended to convey additional information (if necessary, with the help of foot-notes), e.g. *drugstore* – *аптека*, *afternoon* – *вечір*. The Ukrainian “*аптека*” is not exactly a *drugstore* where they also sell such items as magazines, soft drinks, ice-cream, etc., but in some cases this approximate equivalent can well be used.

3. Using all kinds of lexical (semantic) modifying the meaning of the SL word, e.g. “*He died of exposure*” may be rendered into Ukrainian as “*Він помер від простуди*” or “*Він помер від сонячного удару*”.

4. Using an explanation to convey the meaning of the SL unit, e.g. *landslide* – *перемога на виборах приголомшливою більшістю голосів*, *brinkmanship* – *мистецтво ведення політики на межі війни*, etc.

This method is sometimes used in conjunction with the first one when the introduction of a loan-word is followed by a foot-note explaining the meaning of

the equivalent-lacking word in ST. After that the translator may freely employ the newly-coined substitute.

There are also quite a number of equivalent-lacking idioms. Such English phraseological units as “*you cannot eat your cake and have it*”, “*to dine with Duke Humphrey*”, “*to send smb. to Coventry*” and many others have no regular equivalents in Ukrainian. They are translated either by reproducing their form in TL through a word-for-word translation or by explaining the figurative meaning of the idiom, e.g.: *People who live in glass should not throw stones.* – *Люди, які мешкають в скляних будинках, не повинні кидати каміння; to see eye-to-eye with smb.* – *дотримуватися однакових поглядів.*



## Lecture 4. CULTURE-SPECIFIC ITEMS AND TRANSLATION PROCEDURE

### List of Issues Discussed:



1. **Cultural Turn in Translation.**
2. **Definitions and Classifications of Culture-Specific Items (CSIs).**
3. **CSI Translation Procedures and Strategies.**

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### 1. Cultural Turn in Translation

Modern globalization, rapid developments, international relations and other factors require people to communicate not only in-between their own countries and cultures, but also in the international and intercultural medium. Thus, contacts with unfamiliar, foreign and sometimes even alien cultures are an inescapable part of contemporary life. Needless to say, such a clash of cultures sometimes calls out for misunderstandings, as J.F. Aixela states that “each linguistic or national-linguistic community has at its disposal a series of habits, value judgments, classification systems, etc. which sometimes are clearly different and sometimes overlap”. Cultural overlaps, obviously, do not cause problems, however differences pose great challenges to people who are mediators between those cultures – translators. From this start point, we can draw an implication that “translation is a cross-cultural communicative act which enables different cultures to interact”. M. L. Larson claims that “translator needs to understand beliefs, attitudes, values, and the rules of the source language audience in order to adequately understand the source

text and adequately translate it for people who have a different set of beliefs, attitudes, values, and rules”.

Thus, the cultural translation calls not only for considerate translation strategies, but also for an adequate competence of a source culture, the knowledge of cultural subtleties, and, of course, the ability to notice such items of a culture in a broader context. Mediators between cultures, most frequently they are translators or interpreters, have to deal with such differences and take into account cultural norms when translating. Sometimes cultures overlap, meaning that SL and TL cultures are closely related and do not have significant distinctions, however cultures with bigger gaps are threatened to misunderstandings, whereas due to globalization encounters of such cultures are inevitable.

## 2. Definitions and Classifications of Culture-Specific Items (CSIs)

Discussions about translations of cultural units are comprised of different suggestions and approaches. Different names, or terms, are employed by scholars to denominate this one concept; slightly different definitions are provided. Many scholars and linguists have tried to define words or phrases that belong to the culture, however, even the name of the concept is not clearly defined. Some scholars adopt the term “culture-specific item” (Aixela, Davies), others choose cultural words (Newmark) or culture-bound phenomena/concepts (Baker, Newmark, Robinson). Other widely recognized terms are realia (Leonavičienė, Maksvytytė, Mikutytė, Robinson) and non-equivalent lexis (Gudavičius).

Shifting back to the meanings of these intertwined terms, it is relevant to outline their differences or similarities, which differ according to scholars.

For example, Mona Baker defines culture specific concepts as “source-language words [that] express concepts totally unknown in the target culture”. Such concepts may relate to religion, social customs or a type of food.

Gudavičius states that non-equivalent lexis is “the notions of specific cultural realia that do not have equivalents in other languages, since other cultures do not have those things or concepts in their life”. He makes further comments on these non-equivalent lexis items, saying that they are of great importance in the cognition of the material and spiritual culture, therefore such lexis can be categorized into two groups: material and spiritual.

Jurgita Mikutytė presents the definition of realia as follows “unique items or experiences, material and spiritual elements of a culture, inherent to a specific ethnic group, a country or a region, which usually have no equivalents in other cultures or languages”. She distinguishes several types of CSI: geographic realia, ethnographic realia, social and political realia, situational realia, etc. According to her approach a clear dissimilarity of culture-specific items among other non-equivalence items can be observed in this categorization: 1) CSIs are related to a specific culture and 2) other cultures do not possess the same concepts or items.

Even though a number of scholars have discussed and worked on translation of culture-specific items, some have eschewed from defining the

concept of cultural realia, for instance Peter Newmark. He mentions cultural words but he rather avoids explaining the essence. Still his taxonomy of CSIs is accessible and may be used as a practical tool in translation. He singles out five categories under the name cultural categories: 1) ecology; 2) material culture; 3) social culture; 4) organizations, customs, ideas; 5) gestures and habits.

This and the aforementioned classifications slightly differ, even though the items allocated into those categories are based on similar criteria. However, to provide a useful theoretical and practical framework intended to help translate culture-specific items, it is necessary not only to classify those items, but also to establish a clear definition, which is usually left aside. Likewise, Yves Gambier simply asserts that cultural items signify different aspects of life and provides no further explanations. Aixela states that CSIs depend on the context and cannot exist off the context of the source text and the target text. Due to this, Aixela offers a significantly divergent classification of CSI in comparison to the previously mentioned categorizations by Gudavičius, Mikutytė, and Newmark. According to Aixela, all culture-specific items can be assigned whether to proper nouns or common expressions, whereas the latter group includes world of objects, institutions, habits and opinions.

### 3. CSI Translation Procedures and Strategies

Rendering of foreign linguistic and cultural differences into receiving (target) culture raises requirements for the translator to employ different acts and strategies. It is commonly agreed that in the process of translation cultural items possess as many problems as linguistic units, if not more. Thus, different proposals of treating culture-specific items are suggested by linguists, translation theorists and scholars, hence the overwhelming interest in translation procedures of CSIs result in disagreements and divisions of translation strategies.

Scientists suggest various procedures to deal with CSIs (realias, non-equivalences) at the word level, for example, translation by a more general word, translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by paraphrasing, using a related word, cultural substitution, transliteration, transcription, calque, etc.

#### Translation Procedures and Strategies:

- **Transliteration** and **transcription** are both processes by which text is converted from one script to another. Strictly speaking, they are two distinct processes and a given conversion system will be of either one or the other type, not both. However, in practice, the two processes are often like two ends of a continuum, and a given system may be closer to one or to the other, but with elements of both.

There is a technical distinction between them. Technically, transliteration is concerned primarily with accurately representing the *graphemes* of another script, whilst transcription is concerned primarily with representing its *phonemes*.

Let's study the example given by Vlahov and Florin. It concerns the native North-American axe (that in itself is already a transcription by the British colonists of a word in a pre-existing language without a written form): the *tomahawk*. The Russian transcription would be *томахок*, i.e. “*tomahok*”, which is a way to make pronounceable to a Russian speaker this word in a way similar to the American pronunciation. The word entered Russian culture instead as *томагавк* i.e. letter by letter transliterated, in a way that in Latin characters would be “*tomagavk*”, since, usually, the sound of aspirate *h* is rendered in Russian with a hard *g* sound, and *w*, non existing any better, is rendered with a simple *v*.

In addition, transliteration is concerned with scripts, whilst transcription is concerned with writing systems (the way a script is applied to a particular language). Transcription can also be used to examine dialectal variation within a single language.

The differences in the two processes make them suitable for different purposes. Transliteration is useful when studying some aspect of a language or script which does not require an intimate understanding or representation of the language's phonetic systems, or where the pronunciation differences between languages or dialects are not important. Transcription is useful for study which has a greater focus on phonetic systems, for example when determining how closely related two languages are, for language learners wishing to improve their pronunciation, or for examining dialectal variation within a language.

### • Calque

In linguistics, a **calque** is actually a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word translation. The term “calque” is borrowed from French and it derives from the verb *calquer* which means *to copy*, *to trace*. More specifically, we use the verb *to calque* when speaking about borrowing a word or phrase from another language while translating its components so as to create a new lexeme in the target language.

It is difficult sometimes to prove that a particular word is a calque. This often requires a lot of documentation compared to an untranslated term because, in some cases, a similar phrase might have arisen in both languages independently. This is less likely to happen when the grammar of the proposed calque is quite different from that of the borrowing language or when the calque contains less obvious imagery. Calquing is distinct from phono-semantic matching. While calquing includes semantic translation, it does not consist of phonetic matching (i.e. retaining the approximate sound of the borrowed word through matching it with a similar-sounding pre-existing word or morpheme in the target language).

Examples of calques that have been absorbed into English include *standpoint* and *beer garden* from German *Standpunkt* and *Biergarten*; *breakfast* from French *déjeuner* (which now means lunch in Europe, but maintains the same meaning of breakfast in Québec).

The meaning of other calques can be rather obscure for most people, especially when they relate to specific vocations or subjects such as science and law. *Solución de compromiso* is a Spanish legal term taken from the English

*compromise solution* and although Spanish attorneys understand it, the meaning is not readily understood by the layman. An unsuccessful calque can be extremely unnatural, and can cause unwanted humour, often interpreted as indicating the lack of expertise of the translator in the target language.

Some examples of calque: *детский сад* (*Kindergarten*), *коммерческий банк* (*Geschäftsbank*), *красноармейцы* (*Red Army soldiers*), *райсовет* (*District Council*), *утечка мозгов* (*brain drain*).

There are 4 types of calque:

1. **Paronymous calque** or **loan word**: the result of an incorrect correspondence between two words that have similar forms or etymologies but that have evolved differently in their respective languages to the point that they now have different meanings.

2. **Orthographic calque**: This generally appears in the transliteration of the names of places, people and ethnicities. Writing and spelling conventions of the source language that make very little sense in the target language are copied without much consideration. For personal names of people in different languages, the rupture comes when two languages use different alphabets, so with just a few exceptions, when the alphabets are the same the names are written the same. The exceptions include the names of Saints and Popes, nobility and Royal families, and historic figures and classic authors where their name has a traditional translation.

3. **Typographic calque**: takes place when typographical conventions that only exist in the source language are transferred to the new language. For example, the employment of English capital letters has started to creep into Spanish, as well as the use of italics for emphasis and certain uses of quotation marks.

4. **Syntactic** or **structural calque**: is the product of erroneous connection between the elements of a sentence or phrase. The result is the creation of a third language; in this instance, Spanglish.

• **The closest natural translation**: Ideally, a translation must be the closest natural equivalent verbal expression. This refers to the degree of approximation between the source verbal expression (*realia*, in our case) and the translation verbal expression. In such cases we mention relative equivalents. These equivalents cover most aspects of the meaning of the realias but have exceptions relative to established word boundaries, situationality and conventional approximation. So, such realias as *Дід Мороз* and *Santa Claus*, *Sankt Nikolaus*, *Heiliger Nikolaus*, *Weihnachtsmann* are not identical.

• **Descriptive translation** is a complex transformation which is used to explain the meaning of SL units, often with the help of hierarchically different TL units. For example, a word may be translated as a word-combination or vice versa.

Descriptive translation may be used:

a. to render the meaning of equivalent-lacking units, for instance:  
– units of specific national lexicon: *Верховна Рада* – *The Ukrainian Parliament* (Descriptive), *Verkhovna Rada* (Transliteration), *Supreme Council* (word-for-

word), *Supreme Rada* (mixed); *вареники* – a traditional Ukrainian dish, meat or fruit dumplings (Descriptive), *varenyky* (Transliteration).

– neologisms: *stepwife* – the current wife of a women's ex-husband or the ex-wife of a current husband (*зведена дружина – теперішня дружина колишнього чоловіка або колишня дружина теперішнього чоловіка*); *leather spinster* – a successful heterosexual woman who is happily unmarried (*успішна гетеросексуальна жінка, яка свідомо не прагне шлюбу*); *Delhi belly* – a disordered/ upset stomach (*розлад шлунку*); *himbo* – a man who is good-looking but unintelligent or superficial (*хімбо – чоловік, привабливий ззовні, але інтелектуально нерозвинутий і досить поверховий*); *bimbo* – a girl of the same qualities (*бімбо – дівчина або молода жінка таких же якостей – приваблива, але поверхова*); *gaydar* – an intuitive sense that enables someone to identify whether another person is gay (*гейдар – здатність (дар) розпізнавати нетрадиційну орієнтацію іншої людини (геїв)*).

2) to render the meaning of phraseological units or idioms: *as mad as a hatter* – навіжений; *to have light fingers* – бути нечистим на руку; *to rain cats and dogs* – лити як з ведра; *burn not your house to rid it of the mouse* – жертвувати великим, щоб уникнути малої неприємності (*співвідносити засоби та ціль*).

3) in footnotes to explain obscure places in narration: Within the text the words “*spiritual*”, “*metrosexual*” may be referred to as *спірічуел* and *метросексуал* or in a footnotes explained – *релігійна пісня афроамериканців* and *чоловік, який витрачає багато часу та грошей на свою зовнішність та спосіб життя*.

## Lecture 5. INTRICATE GRAMMAR: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY

### List of Issues Discussed:



1. Rendering of the Contextual Meanings of the Definite and Indefinite Articles.
2. Translation and Realization of Contextual Meanings of the Definite Articles.
3. Translation and Realization of Contextual Meanings of the Indefinite Article.
4. Asyndetic Noun Clusters and Rendering Their Meaning into Ukrainian. Approaches to Translating Asyndetic Substantive Clusters.
5. Translation of Two- and Poly-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters.
6. Ways of Rendering the Lexico-grammatical Meanings and Functions of the English Infinitive.
7. Ways of Translating Participles and Participial Constructions.
8. Ways of Translating Gerundial Complexes/Constructions.
9. Ways of Conveying the Passive Voice Constructions.

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### 1. Rendering of the Contextual Meanings of the Definite and Indefinite Articles

The article, both the definite and indefinite, is a functional word serving to identify or determine the noun (cf. *to work* – *the work*), the superlative degree of its quality (*the tallest tree*) or the order of nouns in a word-group (*the first step*) or in a row of similar nouns. In some prepositional phrases and word-combinations

the definite and indefinite articles, however, may change their lexico-grammatical nature (become a particle), as in the expression *the more, the better* (*чим більше, тим краще*), or acquire some peculiar grammatical, functional and lexical meaning (*the Browns/Petrenkos – подружжя Браунів/Петренків*); the article may be lexicalized as in *the Alps/the Carpathians – Альпи/Карпати, at the baker's/butcher's – у пекаря/м'ясника (в хлібному/м'ясному магазині)*. Such and the like lexicalized articles, naturally, in no way weaken or lose their determining, i.e., grammatical function.

On several other occasions the definite/indefinite article may acquire some lexical meaning in contextual environment (only for a time) and thus serve as a peculiar means of „expressive connotation“: *Carot never sold a picture. – Каро не продав жодної картини/ні однієї картини*.

The occurrence of lexically meaningful articles is not occasional or accidental, for it is predetermined by context. In order to faithfully convey each kind of the meaningful articles, it is advised first of all to subject the whole passage, which is to be translated, to a thorough content analysis in order to select possible lexical substitutes for the articles in the target language.

When conveying the lexical meanings of the definite and indefinite articles into Ukrainian, attention should be paid to their functional meanings in the sentence/word-combinations. Thus, the meanings of the definite article are usually expressed through different Ukrainian attributive pronouns, adjectives, participles, adverbs or cardinal/ordinal numerals. The meaning of the numeral one, on the other hand, is always expressed only through the indefinite article, which is historically derived from this part of speech. Cf.: *Most of fellows in the Quarters share a studio. – Багато хлопців з латинського кварталу орендують удвох одну студію*.

## 2. Translation and Realization of Contextual Meanings of the Definite Articles

The definite article when endowed with the lexical meaning in a sentence or passage can have various realizations in Ukrainian. The most common of them are the following:

1) as the demonstrative pronoun **цей (ця, це, ці)**:  
*What his sister has seen in the man was beyond him. – Що його сестра знайшла у цьому чоловікові, він не міг збагнути.*

2) as the demonstrative pronouns **такий (той, та, те, ті), той самий, (саме той, та сама), такий самий**:  
*The fellow behind us in the crowd was talking again. – Той самий хлопець із натовпу позад нас тепер озвався знову.*

3) as the possessive pronoun **її, їхні, свій (своя, своє, свої)**:  
*The room was situated over the laundry... – Його кімната була/знаходилась над пральнею...*

4) as the identifying pronoun **весь, вся, все/цілий**:  
*He looked up, and it seemed that the room was lifting... – Він підвів голову і йому здалося, що вся кімната ходить ходором...*



5) as the relative pronoun **який (яка, яке, які)**:

*She did not know **the** actual fire of love. – Вона не знала, **яке то** справжнє полум'я кохання.*

6) as the indefinite pronoun **якийсь (якась, якесть), певний**:

*For **the** moment the great gulf that separated them then was bridged. He was played by **the** low comedian, who had introduced gags of his own... – На **якусь** мить через велику безодню, що розділяла їх, був наведений міст. Його роль виконував **такий** собі комік з фарсовими вибриками власного штибу.*

7) as the identifying attributive pronoun **сам, сам собою, інший/інша**:

***The toil meant nothing to him. – Сама собою** праця нічого не важила для нього.*

8) as an adjective or adjectivized participle (according to the contextual meaning):

*Martin Eden did not go out to hunt for a job in **the** morning. – Мартін Іден не пішов **наступного** ранку шукати роботи.*

9) as a particle emphasizing the attributive pronoun, numeral or some other part of speech:

*But the story was grand just the same, perfectly grand. – **А так це** оповідання – чудове, ну просто чудове.*

10) very often when the noun in the sentence has another attribute the clearly explicit lexical meaning of the definite article remains superfluous:

*He lay where he had fallen, and from there he watched **the** man in the red sweater. – Він лежав, де впав, і звідти спостерігав **за чоловіком** у червоному светрі.*

11) in many a case the definite article may point to thematic functioning of the noun, which is usually signaled by its initial position in the sentence and pointing to the core of the utterance presenting the basic, known already elements in the sentence:

***The old man** stared at the open door. – **Старий** з острахом дивився на прочинені двері.*

The rheme, the new notional element in the utterance, is more frequently indicated in English by the indefinite article determining the noun in the initial position. When translated into Ukrainian, however, the rhematic noun, as has long been noticed, occupies a terminating position in the sentence/clause:

***A dog** growled in one of the yards as the men went by. – Коли чоловіки проходили повз один з будинків, у його дворі загарчав **собака**.*

### 3. Translation and Realization of Contextual Meanings of the Indefinite Article

The contextual meanings of the lexically charged indefinite article can sometimes be quite unexpected. The most frequent and common of these meanings can be expressed in one of the following ways:

1) by the cardinal numeral **один (одна, одне)**:

*He said something about **a** schooner that's getting ready to go off. – Він тут розповідав щось про **одну** шхуну, яка готується відпливати.*

2) in some contexts the indefinite article may acquire a lexical meaning which corresponds either to the Ukrainian cardinal numeral *один*, to the ordinal numeral *перший* or to the indefinite pronoun **якийсь (якась, якесь)**:

*Only for an instant he hesitated... – Він був у нерішучості (вагався) тільки якусь/першу/одну мить...*

3) by the indefinite pronoun **якийсь** only, without the attendant meanings of the cardinal or ordinal numerals:

*He saw her come down the aisle, with Arthur and a strange young man. – Він бачив, як вона пройшла партером у супроводі Артура і ще якогось незнайомого молодика.*

4) when the lexically meaningful indefinite article precedes the noun under logical stress, it functions as the demonstrative pronoun, which is translated into Ukrainian as **цей, ця, це**:

*How can a man write so badly?.. – Як може ця людина (цей чоловік) писати так погано?..*

5) as one of the possessive pronouns (according to their contextual meaning):

*When she returned with the grammar, she drew a chair near his. – Коли вона (Рут) повернулася з граматикою, вона присунула свій стілець до його стільця.*

6) as the negative pronoun **жоден** or the negative particle **ані** (when the determined noun is preceded by the negative particle **not**):

*You were not following a word. – Ви не чули жодного слова/ані слова.*

7) as the relative adjective **цілий** which is lexically equivalent in the sentences below to the Ukrainian identifying pronoun **весь (вся, все)**:

*...(his) day's work was the equivalent to a week's work of the average successful writer. – ... (його) доробок за день дорівнював доробкові якого-небудь модного письменника за цілий тиждень.*

8) more common in Ukrainian contextual substitutes for the lexically meaningful indefinite article are, however, different relative adjectives, the most often used being **справжній**:

*This small sum seemed a fortune. – Ця маленька сума здалася (Мартіну) справжнім (цілим) скарбом.*

9) the contextual meaning of the indefinite article may some times be expressed in Ukrainian through different adverbs:

*There is a great difference. – Це зовсім різні речі/зовсім інша річ.*

10) The broader context often predetermines the employment of lexically equivalent variants which could scarcely ever be offered for a narrow context:

*He was not to remain a sailor. – Бо ж він не буде простим собі матросом.*

11) the contextual meaning of the indefinite article may be expressed through the interrogative or indefinite pronoun also enforced by some emphatic particles:

*What a lovely day! – Який же гарний день!*

**Note:** Apart from the above-cited contextual meanings of the definite and the indefinite articles there may be some other (implicit) meanings of them. Thus,

the definite article may sometimes have the following additional realizations in Ukrainian:

*a)* that of a pronominal word-group of an emphatic force:

*I want you to get rid of **the dreadful people** you're associated with. – Я хочу, щоб ви врешті-решт перестали спілкуватися з усіма тими покидьками.*

*b)* sometimes the article may substitute an implicit identifying/interrogative pronoun and a particle expressing the contextual meaning of the emphatically used noun with the definite article:

*The pity of it! The pity of it! – Як жаль! Який жаль! А шкода! Дуже шкода!*

There are, naturally, many more contextual realizations of the lexical meanings, pertaining to the definite and the indefinite articles, which they may acquire in a text/at speech level.

#### **4. Asyndetic Noun Clusters and Rendering Their Meaning into Ukrainian. Approaches to Translating Asyndetic Substantive Clusters**

Present-day English abounds in asyndetic noun clusters which are very often used in newspaper and scientific matter/texts. They are word-groups consisting of two, three or more nouns (functionally equivalent to word-groups) like *yarn production*, *yarn production figures*; *the House of Commons debate*; *mother and child care*.

Irrespective of the number of components in these clusters or their structure, they are always in subordinate relation to each other, i.e., they function as adjunct (attributive component) and head (nucleus). The former occupies the left-hand (initial) position and the latter – the right-hand (closing) position in the cluster. The subordinate relation between the parts of the binary asyndetic substantival cluster can be graphically presented as follows: *yarn* → *production*, *the House of Commons* → *debate*, *mother and child* → *care*, *cotton yarn* → *production*.

The semantic interrelation between the component parts in asyndetic noun clusters may often be rather complicated. Each lexeme in the asyndetic substantival clusters adds some new meaning to its general semantic structure. Hence, the more lexemes the cluster consists of, the more unlike the other ways of approach to its translating there may be.

Various approaches to rendering the lexical meaning of asyndetic substantival clusters are predetermined by the following main factors:

- 1) by the number of nouns making up the cluster;
- 2) by the structure of the adjunct and head (or both these components);
- 3) by the semantic relations between the constituent parts of the asyndetic substantival cluster which may be local, temporal and others by nature;
- 4) by the presence or absence of the preceding adjective, participle, possessive pronoun or ordinal numeral.

## 5. Translation of Two- and Poly-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters

### • Translation of Two-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters

The ways of faithful translation of asyndetic noun/substantival clusters into Ukrainian may be predetermined by one of the following three factors: 1) by the lexical meaning of the component parts; 2) by their structural form and 3) by the meaning of the cluster as a whole.

Translation of two-component asyndetic NN-structure clusters may start:

1) with the head noun: *board members* – члени правління; *economy regime* – режим економіки; *policy change* – зміна політики;

2) beginning with the adjunct (functioning as an adjective) or with the head (functioning as a noun): *dinner-time break* – обідня перерва/перерва на обід; *currency reform* – грошова реформа/реформа грошової системи; *liberation movement* – визвольний рух/рух за визволення;

3) the meaning of some asyndetic substantival clusters with compound adjuncts can be rendered into Ukrainian in a descriptive way as well: *nine-men defence* – захист із 9 гравців (спорт); *two-thirds majority* – більшість у дві третіх голосів; *top-drawer family* – родина, що вдягається у дорогу одіж.

The meaning of the A+NN-type substantival clusters can be rendered into Ukrainian by the following main approaches:

1) beginning with the initial adjective after which the head noun and its adjunct noun is translated in succession: *English amateur champion* – англійський чемпіон-непрофесіонал; *leading world jockeys* – провідні (найкращі) жокеї світу; *public protest meeting* – загальні збори/мітинг протесту;

2) beginning with the adjective after which the adjacent to it following noun (adjunct) and then the head noun is translated in succession: *final press conference* – заключна прес-конференція; *London cab drivers* – лондонські кебмени/таксисти; *Royal Shakespeare company* – Королівська шекспірівська трупа;

3) a considerable number of lexically transparent asyndetic substantival clusters of the A+NN-type are translated in reverse order, i.e. beginning with the head noun after which the attributive component and the adjunct noun is translated in succession: *European Cup-winners Cup* – кубок європейських володарів кубків; *Local authority staff* – працівники місцевих органів влади;

4) some asyndetic clusters of the type may be semantically condensed. As a result, more words are needed in the target language to render their meaning, i.e., they are to be translated in a descriptive way: *Royal Berkshire polo ground* – (королівський) стадіон у Беркширі для гри вершників у поло; *London Evening News* – лондонська вечірня газета "Івнінг ньюз"; *Royal Air Force* – військово-повітряні сили Великої Британії.

Two-component asyndetic substantival clusters may often have other than AN+N or AN+NN-type structure of their constituents. These may be of the N+AN, or A+AN+N/AN configuration.

The asyndetic clusters with the N+AN structure of their components may be translated in the following ways:

1) beginning with the AN head sense unit: *US military bases – військові бази США; NATO nuclear weapons – атомна зброя (країн) НАТО; UN General Assembly – Генеральна Асамблея ООН.*

2) a similar approach should be employed when dealing with the N+AN or N+QN/N+VingN structure substantival clusters with the initial proper names components: *the Avior Airline general manager – генеральний директор авіакомпанії “Авіор ерлайнз”; New Times editorial staff – редакційні працівники (журналу) “Нью-Таймз”.*

Extensively exemplified in the newspaper and scientific matter speech styles of present-day English are also A+AN+N-type asyndetic substantival clusters with preceding adjectival, participial and other modifiers in the function of attributes. Among the different approaches to render their meaning into Ukrainian the following are most frequent:

1) starting with the head noun, proceeding to the adjunct (AN) unit and concluding with the adjunct noun: *major Western states interests – інтереси провідних західних держав;*

2) starting with the initial adjective or participle, proceeding to the head noun and concluding with the adjunct (AN) unit: *efficient public transport system – рентабельна система комунального транспорту;*

3) starting with the head noun, proceeding in a reverse order of components to the sense unit with the adjunct noun and concluding with the initial adjective, which becomes a noun in Ukrainian: *Scottish Labour Party resolution – резолюція лейбористської партії Шотландії;*

4) descriptive translating can also be resorted to when dealing with this type of asyndetic substantival clusters: *International Social Security Association – міжнародна Асоціація (з питань) соціального забезпечення.*

#### • **Translation of Three-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters.**

The three-component NNN-type asyndetic substantival clusters split into two main subgroups. The first subgroup constitute the NN+N-type clusters, i.e., the ones with two initial nouns forming a close sense unit having the function of an adjunct to the final head noun. The second subgroup makes up the N+NN-type clusters in which the final two nouns form the head component to the initial adjunct noun. The meaning of the NN+N-type subgroup of substantival clusters can be faithfully rendered into Ukrainian by employing several approaches.

Among the most frequently employed approaches is the 3-1-2 components approach, i.e., starting with the head noun and proceeding to the initial and then to the second noun, both of which form together an NN sense unit: *Suez Canal area – район/регіон Суецького каналу; flat rate increase – ріст/підвищення квартирної платні; science research council – рада з наукових досліджень.*

A considerable number of the NN+N type asyndetic substantival clusters are translated in a descriptive way: *a labour disputes commission – комісія, що розглядає суперечки між профспілками та підприємцями/роботодавцями.*

Among other possible approaches to translating of the three component N+NN-type asyndetic substantival clusters the following are to be pointed out:

1) beginning with the initial adjunct noun of the N+NN-type sense unit: *London trade Unions* – Лондонські трейдьюніони/профспілки;

2) beginning with the head noun and proceeding to the initial adjunct noun and then to the adjunct noun of the head: *Attica state prison* – в'язниця “Аттика” (штату Нью-Йорк) or in the 3-1-2 order: *в'язниця (штату Нью-Йорк) “Аттика”*;

3) beginning with the head noun and proceeding to the first adjunct noun, i.e., in the 3-2-1 order: *U.S. Senate seat* – місце в сенаті США;

4) beginning with the adjunct noun and proceeding to the head noun after which the second noun in the cluster is translated, i.e., in the 1-3-2 order: *world weight lifting championship* – світовий чемпіонат штангістів; *the millionaire press owners* – мільйонери - володарі преси/газетні магнати;

5) beginning with the NN-type sense unit and concluding with the initial noun (N), as in the word-groups *a Government reserve scheme* – резервний проект уряду; *Manchester housing estate* – житловий фонд міста Манчестер;

6) the 3-1-2 order of their components arrangement: *retail trade associations* – спілки роздрібної торгівлі;

7) a descriptive way only: *September amateur stakes* – вересневі любительські/непрофесійні призові скачки.

#### • **Translation of Four-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters.**

The four-component NNNN-type asyndetic substantival clusters are semantically interconnected forming the N+NNN, NN+NN or NNN+N sense units within them. There may also be AN+NNN or AN+ANNN etc. structural forms of them. The most frequent approaches to translating the four-componental asyndetic substantival clusters are the following:

1) starting with the head-noun and proceeding in reverse order to the initial noun adjunct. This approach provides the expression of meaning of the NNN+N, NN+NN, NP+NN+N, N+NN+N structural types of asyndetic substantival clusters: *the US Defence Department officials decision* – рішення представників міністерства оборони США; *the UN Security Council meeting agenda* – порядок денний засідання Ради Безпеки ООН/Організації Об'єднаних Націй;

2) some of the semantic groups of the four-componental asyndetic substantival clusters are translated starting with the head-noun and its preceding adjunct and proceeding to the initial and the following (second) noun: *the Sunday Express newspaper leader writer* – автор передових статей/передовиць газети “Санді експрес”; *a \$40 a week wage increase offer* – пропозиція про підвищення зарплатні на 40 доларів за тиждень;

3) depending on the semantic interrelations between the nouns of the four-componental asyndetic substantival clusters, their translation can also proceed in the 4-2-3-1 order of components: *the House of Representatives Government Operations Committee* – комісія урядових заходів палати представників (при палаті представників);

4) there are also some minute groups of the four-componental substantival clusters with less common approaches like 4-1-3-2: *Nobel Peace Prize Winners* –

лауреати Нобелівської Премії Миру; 3-4-1-2: *Gloucester County Cricket Club* – крикетна команда/клуб Глостерського графства; 2-3-1-4: *Salford West Labour MP Stan Orme* – Стен Орм, лейбористський член парламенту від Салфорд-Веста; 2-4-1-3: *the 40-nation Geneva Disarmament Conference* – Женевська конференція 40 країн з питань роззброєння; 1-4-3-2: *Dartmouth Auto Castings Plants* – заводи відливків автомобільних заготовок у Дартмауті or: Дартмаутські заводи відливків автомобільних заготовок;

5) when the NNNN-type substantival clusters are semantically condensed, they are translated in a descriptive way: *Mr. Hiles, the lobby committee secretary* – секретар комітету/комісії лоббістів пан Гайлз; *the National Union of Railway-men jubilee celebration dinner* – святковий обід з нагоди відзначення ювілейної річниці профспілки залізничників (Великої Британії).

#### • **Translation of Five-, Six- and Seven-component Asyndetic Substantive Clusters.**

These types of clusters belong to rare or rather rare word-groups in English newspaper or scientific and technical matter texts. Nevertheless, the approach to their translating does not differ practically from that of the four-componental asyndetic substantival clusters. It usually starts with the head-noun. Singling out the sense units, formed by the components, usually helps find out the starting component and the correct way of translating the clusters:

*United Post Workers London district council postmen section chairman Mr. Harry Jones* – Гаррі Джоунз, голова Лондонської окружної/районної філії листонош об'єднаної профспілки поштових працівників.

Sometimes, though rarely, the meaning of asyndetic substantival clusters can also be rendered into Ukrainian by fewer words, than in English: *the old books salesman* – букініст, *the land improvement work* – меліорація.

## **6. Ways of Rendering the Lexico-grammatical Meanings and Functions of the English Infinitive**

NOTE: Common English and Ukrainian non-finite forms of the verb, i.e., the infinitive and both participles, are characterized by identical functions in the sentence. Some of their lexico-grammatical meanings, however, are considerably broader in English than in Ukrainian and include the combined tense and aspect, or tense, aspect and voice forms of the infinitive as well as of the present participle derived respectively from the intransitive and from transitive verbs (cf. *to live - to be living, to have lived*; but: *to do - to be done, to be doing; doing - being done, having been done*, etc.)

Translation of English verbals depends not only on their structural, i.e., paradigmatic forms but also on their nature. Thus, a special approach is needed to render into Ukrainian the complexity of meanings contained by some paradigms of the English gerund (or to render the meanings of the Ukrainian *diyepryslivnyk* into English).

Translation of the English infinitive is greatly predetermined by its form and sometimes by its function in the sentence. The infinitive functioning as a single part of the sentence, has usually corresponding equivalents in Ukrainian. The latter are a single infinitive or infinitival phrase when the infinitive functions as

1) the subject:

*It was pretty nice **to get back** to my room. – Було так приємно знову **дістатися** до своєї кімнати.*

2) the simple nominal predicate:

*His son – **descend** to this! – Його синові... **так опуститись!***

3) part of a compound modal or aspect predicate/predicative:

*No, you **couldn't have called** her beautiful. – Ні, її не **можна** було **назвати** гарною.*

4) the object (simple, extended or expanded):

*She taught him **to sit** at a table and **not put** his elbows on it. – Вона вчила його **сидіти** за столом і **не класти** на нього руки.*

5) an attribute (which is less often used in Ukrainian):

*Can I give you anything **to eat** or **to drink**? – Дати вам щось **поїсти** чи **попити**?*

6) an adverbial modifier (usually of purpose, result or consequence) may be conveyed in Ukrainian with the help of an infinitival **щоб-phrase**, a prepositional noun or a noun word-group:

*She wanted time **to think it over**. – Їй треба було часу **для обдумування/щоб обміркувати** це.*

### • *Ways of Translating Infinitive Complexes*

There are three types of infinitival complexes in present-day English:

1) the for-to-infinitival complex;

2) the objective with the infinitive;

3) the subjective with the infinitive complexes.

#### A. **Ways of Translating the For-to-Infinitive Constructions**

Depending on the function in the sentence and on the voice form of the infinitive, the secondary predication word-group may have different equivalents in Ukrainian. The most often occurring are the infinitive, an infinitival phrase introduced by the conjunction *щоб*, a finite form of the verb or a subordinate clause. The realization of a definite meaning may be predetermined by the function of the infinitival for-phrase which may be as follows:

1. The complex subject having for its equivalent in Ukrainian a simple subject expressed by the infinitive or an extended subject expressed by the subordinate clause:

***For me to see you** is the happiest minute in my life... – **Побачити тебе** – для мене найщасливіша мить у житті/є для мене найщасливішою хвилиною...*



2. A complex predicative having for its Ukrainian equivalent either an infinitive functioning as the simple nominal predicate, or a finite form of the verb, i.e., a simple verbal predicate:

*It is not **for you to make terms.** – Це не тобі **ставити умови/Не ти ставиш умови.***

3. A complex object corresponding to a simple or extended object in Ukrainian:

*We are waiting **for the boys back from Hanoi.** – Ми чекаємо **повернення/ на повернення наших хлопців з Ханоя.***

4. An attribute to a nominal part of speech:

*She had only to express a wish **for him to fulfil.** – Варто було їй тільки виголосити якесь (своє) **бажання, він негайно ж виконував його.***

5. An adverbial modifier of purpose or result having for their equivalents a subordinate clause or an infinitive in Ukrainian:

*I left something under your door **for you to read it.** – Я децю залишив тобі під дверима, **щоб ти почитав/тобі почитати.***

## **B. Ways of Translating the Objective with the Infinitive Constructions/Predicative Complexes**

The most common ways of translating the objective with the infinitive constructions are the following:

1. By means of a subordinate clause:

*Do you want me **to take these (slides) away?** – Ви хочете, **щоб я їх (діапозитиви) забрав?***

2. By means of an objective infinitival word-group forming part of the compound modal verbal predicate:

*Slowly, economically, he got dressed and forced **himself to walk.** – Повільно, збираючись з силами, він одягнувся і змусив **себе йти.***

3. By means of a noun derived from the objective infinitive or an object clause:

*He had expected **him to be more sympathetic.** – Він очікував від нього **більше співчуття.***

4. By means of a phrasal/simple verbal predicate:

*He never **made me laugh.** – Він ніколи не **міг мене розсмішити/викликати в мене посмішку.***

## **C. Ways of Rendering the Meaning of the Subjective with the Infinitive Constructions.**

Translation of the infinitival complexes into Ukrainian is predetermined by some factors, the main of which are the following:

1) the lexical meaning of the verb or rather the semantic group to which the verb (after which the syntactic construction is used) belongs;

2) the voice form (active or passive) of the subjective (nominative) infinitive;

3) the structure of the parts of the sentence and that of the sentence itself, which may be simple or composite;

4) the translator's choice of the means and language units conveying the meaning of the subjective with the infinitive constructions.

**A.** When used with the verbs expressing **permission, request, intention, order, compulsion** (*to allow, to permit, to order, to command, to force, to make, to request, to intend, etc.*), the subjective with the infinitive construction may be rendered in Ukrainian in the following ways:

a) with the help of an indefinite personal sentence;

b) with the help of an impersonal sentence having the passive verbal predicate in -но, -то;

c) with the help of an object subordinate clause, for example:

*The inmates were ordered not to try to leave their wards.*

1) В'язням наказали не робити спроб залишити камери.

2) В'язням було наказано/наказали не виходити з камер.

3) В'язням наказали, щоб вони не робили спроб залишити камери.

**B.** The subjective with the infinitive construction used with the **verbs of physical perception** (*to feel, to hear, to see, to taste, etc.*) can be translated with the help of the one-member introductory indefinite personal sentences followed by an object subordinate clause:

*He was seen the first to come.* – *Бачили, що він прийшов першим.*

**C.** Similar ways of translation are employed when the subjective with the infinitive complex/construction is used with the **verbs of mental perception** (*to believe, to deny, to expect, to know, to suppose, etc.*):

*He is supposed to be working in the sanatorium.* – *Вважають (вважається), що він нібито працює в санаторії.*

**D.** When used after the **verbs of saying and reporting** (*to say, to report, to tell, etc.*), the nominative with the infinitive complex is translated with the help of the introductory indefinite-personal sentence followed by an object subordinate clause:

*Paper is said to have been invented in China.* – *Кажуть, що папір винайдений/винайдено в Китаї.*

The verb **understand** with which the subjective with the infinitive construction is used, has a peculiar meaning – **згідно наявних відомостей**:

*The trial is understood to be held next week.* – *Згідно наявних відомостей, суд відбудеться наступного тижня.*

**E.** When used with the verbs **to appear, to chance, to happen, to prove, to seem**, or with the mood phrases **to be sure, to be certain, to be likely/unlikely** the subjective with the infinitive constructions may have different interpretations in Ukrainian. Thus, the verbs **seem, believe, appear**, etc, which function as simple verbal predicates in English are converted into parenthetic words or introductory -

**сь/-ся** impersonal/definite personal sentences (*Вважається/вважають, здається*): *Alice didn't seem to have heard of me.* – *Еліс, здавалося, не чула про мене./Здавалося, Еліс не чула про мене.*

Other contextual semantic variants of sentences with the predicate verbs **to appear, to believe, to seem**, etc. followed by the secondary subject expressed by the subjective infinitive may be the adverb **очевидно** or the modal particle **ніби/нібито**: *He seemed to be thinking of something else.* – *Він, здавалося, думав про щось зовсім інше.*

Sentences with the subjective with the infinitive constructions may have predicates expressing the modal meanings of **certainty, uncertainty, probability**, etc. (*to be sure, to seem, to be certain, to be likely/unlikely, etc.*). Such sentences are not transformed in Ukrainian translation, i.e., they maintain their simple structure, with the predicates turning into modal words/particles or adverbs (such as *можливо, певне/напевне, навряд чи/неможливо, обов'язково*): *But he is sure to marry her.* – *Але він обов'язково (певно таки) одружиться з нею.*

Ukrainian semantic equivalents for the modal words likely/unlikely followed by the subjective infinitive may also be clauses of modal meaning **є можливість (існує ймовірність), не виключена можливість**: ... *we're unlikely to get everything we want in one man.* – ...*навряд чи можна в одній людині поєднати все, що хочеш.*

## 7. Ways of Translating Participles and Participial Constructions

The choice of the method and means for translating English participial constructions into Ukrainian is predetermined by the general implicit and dependent explicit meanings of the participle itself. These meanings reflect the lexico-grammatical nature of the participle as a verbal. Namely: 1) its voice, tense, and aspect distinctions; 2) its lexical and grammatical meanings; 3) its functions in English and Ukrainian word-groups and sentences.

It is not always possible to translate English VingN or NVing pattern word-groups with the help of these same structural types of word-groups in Ukrainian. Especially when the participles originate from the verbs of motion, due to which the word-groups are translated into Ukrainian mostly with the help of attributive subordinate clauses:

*The house was alive with ... running voices.* – *Будинок наповнювали голоси..., що лунали повсюди.*

In some cases, attributive present participles are translated with the help of Ukrainian equivalents of the same nature, even though they originate from the verbs of motion:

*There came a rushing clatter of footsteps.* – *Рантом залунали, наростаючи, кроки полісменів.*

English attributive past participles are mostly translated into Ukrainian with the help of the past participles:

*They came to a **deserted** store. – Вони прийшли до **покинutoї/залишеної** комори.*

English predicative participles may sometimes undergo, when being translated into Ukrainian, turn into a finite form of the verb, i.e., into a simple verbal predicate:

*The weather **looked settled**. – **Настала**, здавалось, погода.*

The English past participle used as part of a compound verbal/nominal predicate may often be translated with the help of perfective and non-perfective verbs:

*What is **done** can not be **undone**. – **Що зроблено, те зроблено**. (Що з воза **впало, те пропало**.)*

When used in an adverbial function, the English indefinite and perfect participles have mostly *diyepryslivnyks* for their semantic and functional equivalents in Ukrainian:

***Having gained** her degree, she was doing no more reading. – **Отримавши** вчений ступінь, вона вже не відводила стільки часу на читання.*

When translating English passive participles preference is given to *diyepryslivnyks*:

*I am going the same day myself **having been detained** here two days by the flood. – **Затримавшись** тут два дні через повінь, я тепер і сам поїду звідси в цей самий день.*

The compound verbal predicate with the component present participle is usually transformed in Ukrainian into the simple verbal predicate expressed by a perfective verb:

*He stopped, and took me up, and the light **came tumbling down** the steps on me too. – Він зупинився й підхопив мене, а світло **поповзло по східцях і впало** також на мене.*

#### **A. Ways of Translating the Objective with the Participle Constructions/Complexes**

The secondary predication constructions with the present or past participle are used with the verbs of physical and mental perception, as well as with the verb **to have**.

The objective with the present participle constructions may be faithfully translated into Ukrainian in one of the following ways:

1) With the help of the object subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **що** or by the adverbial connectors **як, коли**:

*...he heard **her moving** about the room. – ... він чув, **як вона ходила** по кімнаті.*

2) With the help of the adverbial subordinate clauses of time, purpose, manner, etc., which testifies to the existence of functional discrepancies in the two languages at the level of syntactic structure, function, and content:

*I had seen **him** last September **coming across the square** towards the bar of the Continental... – Я бачив його минулого року у вересні, **коли він переходив майдан** до бару в ресторані Контиенталь...*

3) On rarer occasions a faithful translation of the objective with the present participle construction may be achieved either with the help of an object subordinate clause or with the help of a semantically equivalent substantival word-group:

*I heard someone weeping.* – Я чув, як хтось плакав/чийсь плач.

4) With the help of the finite form of the verb, i.e., with the help of the simple verbal predicate:

*I can see you marrying after a drink too many.* – Ти, бачу, як підп'єш, то ще станеш женихатися тут.

The main ways of translating the objective with the past participle constructions are the following:

1) with the help of an object subordinate clause:

*I heard his name mentioned in the crowd.* – Я чув, що/як його ім'я називали у натовпі.

2) with the help of a noun in the metaphorical paraphrase: *Я чув його ім'я на вустах натовпу.*

3) by translating the participial complex to Ukrainian sentences having here identical predicative constructions:

*When I returned I found the fence broken and the house door opened.* – Прийшовши додому, я застав паркан проламаним, а хатні двері відчиненими.

## **B. Ways of Translating the Subjective with the Participle Constructions**

The subjective with the participle are translated into Ukrainian much like the subjective with the infinitive secondary predication constructions. There is, however, some difference between the action expressed by the NVinf pattern constructions and the action expressed by the subjective with the participle N/I/Ving pattern construction. The latter also in Ukrainian expresses an action in process:

*He was heard to sing.* Чули, що він співав.

*He was heard singing.* Чули, як/коли він співав.

English simple sentences with the subjective present participle constructions/complexes are mostly transformed in Ukrainian into a complex sentence introduced by the one-member indefinite-personal principal clause or by the infinitive performing the same syntactic function. The introductory indefinite personal/principal clauses and infinitives are *Кажуть/Як кажуть; Повідомляють; Повідомляється, що; Очікується, що/Очікують, що:*

*He had been seen... pressing his warm lips to the marble brow of an antique statue.* – **Бачили,** ... як він притулявся своїми теплими вустами до мармурового чола античної статуї.

The most confusing for translators are participial constructions with the grammaticalized past participles **given, taken, granted** etc. which are translated into Ukrainian with the help of *diyepryslivnyks*, *diyepryslivnyk* constructions or even via prepositional noun phrases:

*Taken together, the results of the reaction proved the existence of some touch in the solution. – Підсумовуючи/У підсумку наслідки реакції підтвердили існування домішок у розчині.*

### C. Ways of Translating the Nominative Absolute Participial Constructions/Complexes

These English secondary predication word-groups are presented in the three main structurally different types:

1) The nominative absolute participial constructions consisting of a synthetic or analytical paradigm of the present participle. The number of components/elements in the paradigm of the participle has actually no influence on the expression of meaning and translation of this predicative construction:

*This duty **done**, we unfilled our glasses, lit our pipes, and resumed the discussion upon our state of health. – Оскільки з цим було вирішено, ми осушили келихи, запалили люльки й знову стали бідкатись про своє здоров'я.*

2) The second structural type constitutes the nominative absolute participial constructions that contain no participle component at all. The relation of the predication in complexes of this type is implicitly inherent in and is realized through a prepositional or a substantival word-group:

*He sat down, **his face serious and intent**, and his fingers began to race across the keyboard. – Він сів **серйозний і зосереджений** за рояль, і його пальці швидко забігали по клавішах.*

3) The third structural type form subjectless nominative absolute participial complexes:

*Though **being left out all night in the rain**, the metal had not rusted. – Метал хоч і пролежав цілу ніч під дощем, не поіржавів.*

4) The fourth structural type constitute nominative absolute participial constructions whose semantic reference to a part of the introductory clause is quite vague and scarcely traced. Such nominative absolute participial constructions function together with their secondary subjects as regular classes of a semi-composite sentence:

*She reached the lake and stood there staring at it, **the wind whipping the thin night-gown around her body**. – Коли вона підійшла до озера й стала, вдивляючись у нього, **вітер затріпотів тонесенькою нічною сорочкою, що тісно облягала її тіло.***

### D. Ways of Identification of Implicit Meanings in the Nominative Absolute Participial Constructions

Among the most frequent adverbial meanings are temporal and causal, which are rendered into Ukrainian with the help of the corresponding subordinate clauses:

*I can't write **with you standing there**, Margery. – Я не можу, Марджері, писати, **коли ти стоїш там.***

A temporal meaning may also be indicated by an adverb/adverbial expression in the nominative absolute participial construction or by the corresponding tense forms in the introductory clause: *Mr. Quest, **once again***

*interrupted, turned his darky-irritable eyes on him. – Квест, коли його знову обірвали, глянув на нього своїми чорними сердитими очима.*

The nominative absolute participial constructions of causative meaning may also occupy a postpositive position in the sentence, i.e., after the introductory clause:

*We were walking by ourselves for an hour, **George having remained in the hotel to write a letter to his aunt.** – Мидесь із годину ходили вдвох, бо Джордж зостався в готелі писати тімці листа.*

The nominative absolute participial constructions can also express other meanings and relations in the sentence. Then they are translated into Ukrainian respectively as corresponding nominal (or adverbial) subordinate clauses:

*It was Dr. Dornbergen, his **hands inevitably busy with his pipe.** – Це був лікар Дорнберген, руки якого постійно крутять люльку.*

## 8. Ways of Translating Gerundial Complexes/Constructions

Translation of the gerund performing its nominal or verbal functions in the sentence usually does not create great difficulties. Care should be taken, however, when identifying the nature of the **-ing**form verbal, which may influence its way of translation. Thus, the **-ing**form *moving* in the sentence below, where it has an attributive function, may be taken by mistake for the present participle. In reality, however, it has the nature of a gerund which is also proved by its syntactic function:

*Chester liked a **moving day** to be dry and fair. – Честеру подобалось, що в день переїзду була суха гарна погода.*

Gerunds of nominal function are usually translated into Ukrainian as nouns of the corresponding lexical meaning:

***Crying and praying** followed all over the house. – По всьому дому лунав плач упереміш з молитвою.*

Predicative and subjective gerund may also be translated into Ukrainian as the finite verb:

***Deciding is acting.** – Вирішити – це діяти/означає розпочати діяти.*

Nouns and infinitives are usually employed in Ukrainian as functional equivalents for the English non-prepositional and prepositional gerundial objects:

*We a know a thing or two **about financing** plays now. – Ми дещо-таки знаємо про сьогоднішнє фінансування вистав.*

The noun or the infinitive is also used in Ukrainian to convey the gerund in its attributive function:

*I hated **the idea of turning out.** – Про виселення я не допускав навіть думки.*

The perfect gerund is usually translated with the help of the subordinate clause:

*I thanked him **for having helped me.** – Я подякував йому за те, що він допоміг мені.*

The choice of the way of translation of a gerundial complex greatly depends on the paradigmatic form of its gerundial component, its lexical meaning and on the lexical meaning of its nominal/secondary subject component. When used as a complex subject, this secondary predication construction may be rendered depending on the paradigmatic form and meaning of its gerundial component, through the following syntactic units of the same function:

1) as a subordinate noun word-group or a subordinate clause:

*Tom's coming was a blessing.* – *Томів приїзд був великою розрадою.*

2) when used as a complex predicative or part of a compound verbal predicate, the gerundial complex may be translated into Ukrainian with the help of a functionally and semantically equivalent part of the compound verbal aspect predicate expressed by an infinitive or noun:

*It was Shchedryk's singing that made it well-known in Poland and now in France.*  
– *Саме спів дитячого хору "Щедрик" приніс йому визнання у Польщі, а тепер і у Франції.*

3) when used as a complex object, the gerundial construction may have various semantic, functional and partly structural realizations in Ukrainian:

a) the object subordinate clause:

*I didn't like his hearing such stupid things.* – *Мені не подобалось, що він слухає такі нерозумні розмови.*

b) an object subordinate clause or a noun phrase, the choice of which rests with the translator, who suggests the most fitting lexical and structural equivalent for the gerundial complex in Ukrainian:

*I think everybody looked forward to his coming back.* – *1. Думаю, всі чекали, що він повернеться. 2. По-моєму, всі чекали на його повернення.*

4) when used in the attributive function the gerundial complex may be translated in some ways, which are predetermined by the lexical meaning and structural form of the gerundial complex:

a) an attributive subordinate clause:

*...she was tortured by the thought of Michael's unhappiness and her baby being looked after by strangers.* – *...її мучила думка, що Майкл буде нещасливим і що її дитя доглядатимуть чужі люди.*

b) an attributive infinitival word-group or an infinitive: *... there was no chance of their being left for a moment by themselves.* – *... у них не було жодної можливості навіть хвилину побути самим/ щоб їх залишили самими.*

5) when used in an adverbial function, the gerundial complex may respectively be translated as an adverbial modifier expressed by *diyepryslivnyk* or as a functionally corresponding subordinate clause: *On my being settled at Doctor Strong's I wrote to her again.* – *1. Після того, як мене поселили у лікаря Стронга, я знову написав їй листа. 2. Поселившись у лікаря Стронга, я знову написав їй листа.*



## 9. Ways of Conveying the Passive Voice Constructions

English passive constructions are far from always transplanted to Ukrainian language.

Some ways of expressing the passive voice in both languages may coincide in form and structure:

*She was faintly disturbed* by what mother had said. – *Вона була децю стурбована* тим, що сказала її мати.

Others should be transformed, in order to achieve faithfulness in translation:

*In the U.N. peace plan is implemented, frozen Serb assets in the USA would be released.* – *Якщо план мирного врегулювання ООН буде здійснений, заморожені рахунки Сербії у США будуть відпущені.*

English passive forms referring to present tense have mostly no structural equivalents in Ukrainian where the auxiliary verb **to be** (є) is usually omitted and the past participle acquires other morphological (e.g. finite form) and semantic expression:

*Rescue efforts are being hampered* dozens of aftershocks, below-freezing temperatures. – *Рятувальним роботам перешкоджають* повторні поштовхи і температура, що падає нижче нуля.

One more faithful Ukrainian transformation of this passive sentence construction may be achieved by way of conveying it through the so-called middle voice form or **-ся/-сь** verb: *Рятувальні роботи ускладнюються* повторними підземними поштовхами і температурою, що падає нижче нуля.

Depending on the form of the passive construction and still more on the lexical verbal meaning, this voice form may have in Ukrainian some still other transformations, which express the same meaning of the passive construction; they may acquire the following outer forms of expression in Ukrainian:

a) that of an indefinite personal sentence/clause:

*I am told* that pork-packing is the most lucrative profession after politics in America. – *Кажуть*, що в Америці пакування свинини – найбільш прибуткова праця після політики.

b) that of single predicative word/simple nominal predicate:

*They're prepared* to sacrifice everything to satisfy their yearning. – *Вони ладні* пожертвувати всім, аби задовольнити/здійснити своє прагнення.

c) a finite form of the verb/simple verbal predicate:

*He has never been answered.* – *Його ще ніхто і ніколи не спростовував.*

d) an indefinite personal past participle ending in **-но/-то**:

*The room had certainly been transformed.* – *У кімнаті безперечно зроблено перестановку.*

e) any other contextual and structural substitution of the English passive voice predicate verb:

*I must be left* to myself for a while. – *Мені треба якийсь час побути самому/самим* із собою.

Not infrequently the Ukrainian past participle in its predicative function may be one, if not the only possible passive form equivalent of the English passive construction in Ukrainian:

*Their children slept, **their gate was shut** for the night. – Їхні діти спали, і (їхня) брама була зачинена на ніч.*

The common English passive voice constructions with the prepositional object as their subject have generally no equivalent passive constructions in Ukrainian. They are rendered then with the of the indefinite personal forms of the verb (sometimes through reflexive verbs) :

*Why do you not answer when you **are spoken to**? – Чому ви не відповідаєте, коли до вас звертаються?*

Consequently, some English passive voice constructions often change their outer and inner form and become active voice forms in Ukrainian.

## Lecture 6 MODALITY IN THE TEXT : TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY

### List of Issues Discussed:



1. The Lexico-grammatical Expression of Modality through Modal Verbs.
2. Ways of Conveying the Meanings of Subjective Modality.
3. Grammatical Modality: Means of Expressing.

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### 1. The Lexico-grammatical Expression of Modality through Modal Verbs

This kind of modality is realized in both languages via modal verbs/ their lexical equivalents plus the infinitive of the notional verb.

#### 1. CAN/COULD

a) the modal verb can/could expressing physical or mental ability is usually translated into Ukrainian with the help of the modal verbs *могти, вміти* or by means of their equivalents *мати змогу/можливість, бути в змозі/мати силу*: *I saw that he could hardly take his eyes off her. – Я бачив, що він не може/не має сили очей відірвати від неї.*

b) when expressing doubt, distrust, uncertainty, etc. the meaning of can/could is mostly enforced in Ukrainian with the help of the particles *невже, хіба* or the adverb *наверяд*: *It can't be the same man. – Наверяд чи це той самий чоловік.*

c) when expressing the meaning of reproach, surprise or permission the lexical equivalent of the modal verb can in Ukrainian is mostly the stative *можна*: *How can one promise that? – Як можна таке обіцяти/такого наобіцяти?*

d) when the modal verb can expresses irrefutability of action or assuredness of statement, it may be conveyed in Ukrainian, where this kind of modal meaning is usually expressed implicitly, through a definite word-order and sentence stress

(prosodic means): *Can the leopard change his spots?* – *Горбатового могла виправити.*

e) some modal meanings of can/could are expressed in Ukrainian either lexico-grammatically or through phonological means. The choice of the means rests then exclusively with the translator. Thus, in the sentence below the meaning of the modal verb could is under logical stress which may be marked accordingly in Ukrainian: *I could know it without your telling me.* – *Я міг довідатись про це і без тебе.*

**Note.** Some English modal meanings of can have no corresponding equivalents in Ukrainian:

*I can hear you well.* – *Я добре тебе чую.*

*Can you see me?* – *Ти мене бачиш?*

f) in some contextual environment the modal meaning of can may be expressed in Ukrainian through other modal verbs: *How can you talk to me like that?* – *Як ти смієш зі мною так розмовляти?* *We had an awful time getting back, I can tell you.* – *Повинен тобі сказати, дорога назад була страшенно важка.*

g) the modal verb can/could followed by the perfect infinitive and expressing a probable, doubtful, uncertain, incredible, etc. action is usually translated into Ukrainian depending on its contextual meaning. The latter may be expressed: 1) through the past form of the corresponding verb (indicative mood) or 2) through its subjunctive mood form: *Nobody could have saved him.* – *Ніхто його не врятував би/Навряд чи хто врятував би його.*

## 2. MAY/MIGHT

The modal verb may/might with its lexical equivalents *to be permitted/to be allowed* has also some peculiarities of use and expression of meaning.

a) when the modal verb may/might expresses permission it is usually translated into Ukrainian as the stative **можна**:

*At the hospital they told me I might wait.* – *В шпиталі сказали, що мені можна почекати.*

b) the meanings of permission expressed by the modal verb may/might can equally be conveyed by the Ukrainian verbs **дозволяти, не заперечувати**:

*May I speak now?* – *Тепер дозволяєте/можна мені говорити?*

c) when the verb may/might expresses possibility or probability, assumption, uncertainty, admonition, advice, etc., it is usually translated into Ukrainian with the help of the polysemantic verb **могти**:

*I think I may remind him of a time he prefers to forget.* – *Я можтиму/матиму змогу, думаю, пригадати йому той час, про який він воліє не згадувати.*

d) when expressing assumption, probability, presumability, wish, advice etc., the verb may and its past (or subjunctive) form might often acquires some additional modal meaning which is mostly rendered into Ukrainian with the help of different modal particles – **б, ще/ще й, хай**, etc.:

*Let's wait a little more, she **might return** in a couple of minutes. – Зачекаймо трохи, вона **ще може (може ще й)** прийде за кілька хвилин.*

e) when expressing wish, the subjunctive meaning of may is conveyed in Ukrainian either with the help of the particles **хай** or **щоб**, initiating the sentences:

***May they live a long life. – Хай їм щастить.***

f) some modal meanings (supposition, assumption, desire, etc.) expressed in English by may/might are rendered into Ukrainian through modal particles and a peculiar logical word order:

***May He (God) support me too. – Допоможи й мені Боже. (Хай Бог помагає й мені.)***

g) the modal verb may is often used in the language of documents to express polite though severe warning:

*A Member of the United Nations which has persistently violated the Principles contained in the present Charter **may be** expelled from the organization by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. – Держава – член Організації Об'єднаних Націй, яка постійно порушує зазначені в цьому Статуті принципи, **може бути** виключена з ООН Генеральною Асамблеєю згідно рекомендації Ради Безпеки.*

h) the modal verb may/might followed by a perfect infinitive often expresses supposition, desire, uncertainty, probability, etc., of actions which might not have been carried out. When isolated from a contextual environment, the construction of may/might with the perfect infinitive may be treated as polysemantic and consequently offered different interpretations in Ukrainian. Thus, the sentence *She **may have forgotten**, you know; or got the evening mixed.* may have the following five faithful variants:

1. *Знаєте, вона **мабуť забула** чи сплутала вечір.*

2. *Вона **певне забула** або сплутала вечір.*

3. ***Можливо**, вона забула чи сплутала вечір.*

4. ***Цілком імовірно**, що вона забула чи сплутала вечір.*

5. *Знаєте, **а може** вона забула чи сплутала вечір.*

i) there appears still more uncertainty while conveying the meaning of may/might with the negated perfect infinitive as in the sentence *The aircraft **might not have been downed** in the action.* The lexical ambiguity of the construction can be seen from the following possible variants of its interpretation in Ukrainian:

1. *Літак **може й** не збито в тім бою.*

2. *Літак **мабуť** не збито в тім бою.*

3. ***Цілком імовірно**, що літак не був збитий у тому бою.*

4. ***Навряд** чи літак був збитий у тому бою.*

5. ***Може** літака й не збили в тому бою.*

### 3. MUST

a) the modal verb must in English and Ukrainian expresses strong obligation, duty, necessity. In these meanings must has for its direct lexical equivalents the strongest Ukrainian modal verb of this same meaning **мусити**:

Now I really **must** get back to my tasks. End of term in sight, you know. – Тепер я **мушу** серйозно взятись за роботу. Знаєш, скоро кінець семестру.

b) not without the long influence of the Russian language the modal verb *мусити* has been more often substituted by urban Ukrainians for its almost as strong semantically Ukrainian synonym *повинен* or for the modal stative *треба*. To convey the meaning of necessity, duty or obligation, expressed by the modal verb *must* present-day Ukrainians often resort to the adverb **обов'язково**:

*I must sit down. This leg gets tired.* – Я **мушу/повинен** сісти. Щось поболює оця нога.

c) the meaning of necessity, obligation following from a prescription or rule, is often expressed in Ukrainian through strict logical word order or via some other finite verbs with the intensifying adverb:

*The Constitution of the US specifies that a nationwide census, a “head count” of all Americans, **must be taken** every ten years.* – Конституцією США встановлено, що державний перепис (“поголівний облік”) населення **повинен проводитися** кожні десять років.

d) when expressing assumption or supposition, the modal verb *must* may have for its lexical equivalent in Ukrainian a contextually fitting modal adverb or a modal particle:

*That fellow **must be made** of steel. He’s never tired.* – Той хлопець **певне/як** залізний. Він ніколи не стомлюється.

e) some meanings of the modal verb *must* are formally obligatory in English, where they express obligation or certainty but they may not have an explicit expression of these meanings in Ukrainian:

*I must apologize, Agnes, I’m very sorry.* – **Прошу вибачити**, Егнес; мені дуже жаль./**Перепрошую**, Егнес, мені дуже прикро.

f) the usual meaning of *must* in some Ukrainian texts may be weaker than in the English language original. Consequently, it can not be substituted in Ukrainian for either the modal verb *мусити* or for its weaker variant *повинен*. Then, some other equivalents have to be chosen for such nationally predetermined meanings of *must*:

*It **must seem** very funny to you.* – Це **може** здатися/певне здається тобі/дуже дивним.

*Were the people looking at her? They **must be**.* – Чи люди дивилися на неї? **Мабуть/Напевне**, що так.

Some contextual meanings of *must* have a national Ukrainian non-explicit expression of modality: *Come, Dave, you **must see**.* – **Ходіть-но**, Дейве, **подивіться**./**Ходи-но**, Дейве, на свої очі **пересвідчишся**.

g) the Ukrainian modal verb *мусити* or *повинен* is to be used when conveying the meaning of the English syntagme *have got (to)* with the indefinite infinitive having the function of the compound modal verb predicate:

*Doris, I’ve **got something to say** to you.* – Доріс, я **маю/повинен** тобі **дещо сказати**.

h) the modal verb *must* when used with the perfect infinitive usually expresses actions supposed to have taken or not taken place but of which the

speaker is mostly informed. Such meaning is usually rendered into Ukrainian with the help of the modal adverbs or particles **МОЖЛИВО, ОЧЕВИДНО, МАБУТЬ, НАПЕВНО, ПЕВНЕ**:

*So Dr. Brown's whispered words: "The man **must have been** dead a week."*  
– Тут лікар Браун промовив: "Цей чоловік уже мертвий **напевно** з тиждень."

#### 4. HAVE (TO)

a) the modal verb have (to) is of common lexical nature in English and Ukrainian, where its meaning in all substyles corresponds to the verb **мати**:

*Oh, I **have to tell** you something, mamma.* – О, мамо, я **маю** вам щось сказати/розповісти.

b) depending on the lexical meaning of the infinitive that forms the compound modal predicate with it, the modal verb have (to) may often become close to that of the Ukrainian modal verbs **повинен, мусити**, to the stative **треба** or to the modal adverb **потрібно/необхідно**:

*We **have to do** everything we can.* – Ми **маємо/повинні** робити все, що маємо.

c) in some contextual environment, however, the meaning of have (to) may be very close if not equivalent to must (мусити/повинен):

*I **have to leave** you here.* – Я **змушений/повинен** покинути/залишити тебе тут.

d) the modal meaning of the verb have to may be predetermined by the peculiarity of usage and singularity of expressing the same modal meaning in the source language and in the target language, which may sometimes coincide:

*And what **have we to do** with the lives of those who toil for us?* – А що **нам/маємо робити** з життями тих, котрі, як чорні воли, важко працюють на нас?

#### 5. TO BE (TO)

a) the modal verb to be (to) may express obligation or necessity resulting from an arrangement or from a prearranged arrangement/plan. The Ukrainian equivalents for these meanings of to be (to) are usually the modal verbs **мати** and **повинен, мусити**:

*According to the agreement rent **was to be paid** strictly in advance.* – Згідно угоди, квартплатня **повинна була сплачуватися** обов'язково наперед.

b) when to be (to) expresses the meaning of inevitability of some action or event, it is translated into Ukrainian as the modal verb **мати**:

*If the thing **was to happen**, it **was to happen** in this way.* – Якщо вже це **мало скоїтись**, то воно **мало скоїтись** саме так, а не інакше.

The modal verb to be (to) may also express a meaning corresponding to the Ukrainian stative **треба**:

*"It **was to be expected**," Mrs Mors said gently.* – "Цього і **треба було чекати**", - стиха промовила пані Морз.

c) sometimes the modal meaning of the verb to be (to) is faithfully conveyed by means of the Ukrainian infinitival predicate of the sentence and the strictly logical position of the parts of the sentence:

*How **was** President Kravchuk **to have won** the re-election? – Як президентові Кравчуку **було перемогти** на повторних виборах?*

d) when expressing order or instruction (usually in reported speech) the modal verb to be (to) is translated into Ukrainian either with the help of the modal verbs **бути повинним/мати**, or with the help of a subordinate clause respectively:

*You **are to stay** in bed until you are allowed to get up. – Ви **не повинні вставати**, доки вам не дозволять.*

e) when expressing possibility, the modal verb to be (to) is translated with the help of the modal verbs **можна**, **мати**, or with the help of the modal word **МОЖЛИВО**:

*There is a good training **to be had** there. – Там **можна** пройти гарну практику/вишкіл.*

f) when expressing an assumptive or suggested possibility, the meaning of the modal verb to be (to) is mostly rendered with the help of a peculiar logical sentence structure:

*I **am to have** the privilege of sitting next to you. – Мені **винадає** щаслива нагода сидіти поруч з вами./Я **матиму приємність** посидіти поруч з вами.*

## 6. OUGHT TO

a) the modal verb ought to expresses moral obligation, presupposition, desirability, advisability and some other meanings. Its meaning in Ukrainian is mostly very close to that of the stative **треба** or modal verb **слід**, the modal word **потрібно**:

*He **ought never to have given** it (the flute) up. – Йому нізащо **не треба** було кидати гру (на флейті).*

b) the content of the sentence may often display a still stronger meaning of the modal verb ought to, which corresponds to that of the modal verbs **повинен**, **мати**, **мусити**:

*You **ought to know** that you can't have to steal. – Ти **повинен/мусиш** знати, що красти не можна.*

c) the modal verb ought to may acquire some other meanings in different contextual environments:

1) that of the assumptive duty or obligation, necessity, assumption, which is expressed in Ukrainian through the particles **б/би**, **щоб**, and the corresponding infinitive of the verbal predicate or subordinate clause:

*By this time it **ought to have been over**. – На цей час/під цю пору все **мало б** давно вже скінчитися.*

2) the conditional subjunctive meaning expressed through the particles **б/би** and the notional finite verb without the subordinate conjunctions **якби** or **якщо б**:

*You **ought to have seen** her tie he had on... – **Бачили б** ви його в її краватці/Треба було **бачити** його...*



3) when ought to expresses desire or affirmation, assumption, its modal meaning is rendered into Ukrainian through the modal adverbs and modal words **певне, напевне, мабуть**:

*She's said to be very beautiful by people who **ought to know**. – Люди, які **напевне/мабуть-таки знаються** на вроді, кажуть, що вона дуже вродлива.*

4) the meaning of the modal verb ought to may sometimes be rendered into Ukrainian through peculiar word forms (mood forms) of the verbal predicate:

*If you're a poor driver, you **oughtn't to try driving** at night. – Якщо ти поганий водій, то **не їдь (не треба їздити/уникай їзди)** вночі.*

## 7. NEED

a) the modal verb need is known to have two forms of realization, e.g., that of a defective verb and that of a regular verb with modal meaning. The lexical meaning remains in both cases identical. Hence, when used in its paradigmatic forms with the personal endings or with the auxiliary verb *do/does* and the infinitive with the particle *to*, the verb need is translated in quite the same way as its defective form in the present or past tense, always maintaining the meaning of **треба, потрібно, необхідно**: *That **needs** a bit of thinking. – Над цим **треба** ще трохи подумати.*

The meaning of the modal verb need may be rendered in the last sentence implicitly, i.e., by employing semantic transformation:

***Нічого/нема чого** прохати мене.*

b) similar semantic transformations are observed when rendering the meaning of resolute/negative advice or indignation:

*Why **need** we defend it? – **Навіщо/чого це** нам захищати це?*

c) there may be other contextual meanings equivalents of the modal verb need with the Ukrainian equivalent of the modal verb **бути повинним/мусити**.

*Well, nobody **needn't** know about it. – Але ніхто **не повинен** будь-що знати про це.*

## 8. DARE

The verb dare may function in English both as a modal verb and as a regular verb with all its paradigmatic forms. The lexical meaning of the verb, however, remains unchanged and corresponds to the Ukrainian verbs **сміти, наважуватися/відважуватися, насмілюватися**.

a) the verb dare is mostly translated into Ukrainian as **сміти, насмілюватися**:

*She **daren't** come here when I was alone. – Вона **не сміла/не насмілювалася** заходити сюди, коли я був сам.*

b) when in its non-modal formal meaning, the verb dare is translated with the help of the same Ukrainian verbs:

*He longed to read his stories to Ruth but he **did not dare**. – Йому дуже кортіло прочитати свої оповідання Рут, але він **не наважувався/не насмілювався**.*

c) in colloquial English the verb dare is often used either in a phrase form or as a composite word with the verb say – **dare say/daresay**:

“Most people would say so.” – “I **daresay** they would.” – “Більшість так сказали б.” – “**Вважаю/гадаю**, що сказали б.”

The meaning of dare say/daresay may be conveyed as **вважаю, допускаю, цілком імовірно, смію сказати, не без того, щоб; наважуся сказати/стверджувати**, etc. Besides, the verb dare is often used to express indignation as in the following sentences:

How **dare** you **talk** to me like this! – Як ти **смієш** так розмовляти зі мною!

Let him come back, if he **dare**! – Хай тільки свого **носа наважиться показати тут!**

There are four modal verbs in English, which practically lack direct lexical equivalents in Ukrainian: *shall, will, would* and partly *should*.

**A. SHALL** – depending on the intention of the speaker, the modal verb shall may express in combination with the notional infinitive the following main meanings:

1) *will* or *intention*, which can be conveyed in Ukrainian either with the help of the verb **хотіти** or through the logical stress on the verb that implicitly expresses this meaning plus the corresponding intonation (prosodic means) of the sentence:

**Shall** I tell you how I felt as a mate of my high school students? – **Розповісти** вам, як я дорослий, почувався учнем в одному з коледжів?

2) *promise* or *promised assurance, consent*:

**Shall** we say four pounds a week? – **Погодишся** (працювати) за чотири фунти на тиждень?

3) *warning, threat* or *resolute demand* which is usually conveyed in Ukrainian through the imperative verb forms:

I **shall want** your account of how this happened. – **Вимагаю** звіту про те, як ви таке допустили.

4) *compulsion, obligation, order* or *demand*, which is often conveyed through the imperative mood forms of the Ukrainian verb:

You **shall not stay** another hour in my house. Get out! – **Щоб** я за годину тебе тут **не бачив**. Геть звідси!

5) the modal verb shall, expressing *compulsion* or *obligation* according to law or a prearranged agreement, is mostly used in texts of different regulations, proclamations, charters, treaties, contracts, etc. the verb shall forms with the infinitive a sense unit, which is conveyed in Ukrainian through the verb-predicate forming a logical centre in the sentence:

The General Assembly **shall consist** of all the Members of the United Nations. – Збори всіх членів Організації Об'єднаних Націй **створюють** Генеральну Асамблею.

**B. WILL** as a modal verb together with infinitive may express different meanings, the main of which are volition, insistence, determination, intention.

In a number of cases the modal meaning of *will* may coincide with those expressed by its past form *would*. As a result, their lexical equivalents in Ukrainian may be close or even identical as well.

The modal verb *will* may be endowed in different contextual environment with various meanings, the main of them being the following:

1) *volition, demand or assurance* which is expressed in Ukrainian through the corresponding verb, stative or logical/emphatic stress:

*“I will be another kind of president”, said Constantinescu. – “Я буду/обіцяю бути зовсім іншим президентом”, – заявив Константінеску.*

2) *will* as well as *assurance or promise*:

*Trench: “I will save you the trouble.” – Тренч: “Я вже допоможу вам вибратися з цієї халепи.”*

3) *determination, perseverance or promising threat* which is often rendered through lexically explicit Ukrainian verbs, expressing also the future tense at the same time:

*I will prosecute you myself. – Я сам вас судитиму.*

4) *willingness, consent* (in conditional clauses after the following conjunction *if*):

*If you will tell me all about it in a chatty way, I can communicate it to Lady Roxdale. – Якщо ти захочеш мені розповісти про це щиро, я перекажу тоді все леді Роксдейл.*

5) *polite request* which may be expressed as follows:

*I want you to do a most terrible favour. Will you? Will you please? – Я хочу, щоб ви мені зробили страшенно велику послугу. Зробіть? Благаю, зробіть.*

6) *supposition* which is usually expressed in Ukrainian with the help of modal words or by means of the subjunctive mood of the predicate verb:

*This will be the place where they reposed. – Це напевне/мабуть і є те місце, де вони перепочивали.*

7) *habitual volitional actions* which are conveyed as follows:

*After this accidents he will lock himself and not show off. – Після того нещастя він став замикатись в собі і не показуватись.*

*In the afternoon he would go out alone and walk for hours. – Після полудня він, бувало, йшов із дому і годинами не вертався з прогулянки.*

8) *resistance to an action* referring to the present or to the future, which is observed only in English. Consequently, it has no corresponding modal expression in Ukrainian. Cf.:

*Help him, please, the door will not unlock. – Допоможіть, будь-ласка, йому. Двері ніяк не відмикаються.*

9) *condition* which is equivalently expressed in Ukrainian through the subjunctive or conditional mood forms in subordinate clauses of real and unreal condition:

*If he wouldn't mind, I would love to come. – Якби він не був проти (не заперечував), то я б охоче прийшов.*

10) *determination* or *persistence*, which is expressed with the help of set constructions like **I (he, we) won't/would not**. This modal meaning is rendered into Ukrainian by means of the verb **дозволяти/не дозволяти, допускати/не допускати** as well:

*"Ten or eleven", the Sheriff said, "I won't stand for it." – "Десять чи одинадцять років, - сказав шериф, – я все одно не дозволю цього."*

11) *preference, choice* and other meanings as in the set expressions **I'd rather/I would/I'd sooner**, which are usually rendered into Ukrainian with or without the help of the subjunctive mood forms plus such adverbs of manner as **краще, радніше/ліпше**:

*He will/would never set the Thames on fire. – Він навряд чи порох вигадась./Він зірок із неба не знімає.*

*He will die as he lived. – Горбатого (тільки) могила виправить.*

*He who would catch fish must not mind getting wet. – Хочеш рибки – ліз у воду./Лежатимеш на печі – не їстимеш калачі.*

12) to express *favour, benevolence*:

*He wants to know... if you'll invite Daisy to your house some afternoon... – Він хоче знати... чи ви не зволите запросити колись на обід до себе Дейзі...*

**C. WILL** and **WOULD** are used in many set/idiomatic expressions having both subjunctive and non-subjunctive meaning:

*He would give a penny for the young fellow's thought. – Він багато дав би, щоб дізнатися, що цей молодик задумав.*

*You'd make a saint swear. – Ти навіть святого виведеши/вивів би з рівноваги.*

**D. SHOULD** as a modal verb is very often used both in reference to present and to future. It conveys a variety of meanings some of which may be close to the meanings of the modal verbs *ought to, have to, to be to, must*.

The most common direct meaning of the modal (non-subjunctive or future-in-the-past form) verb *should* in Ukrainian corresponds to the statives **слід, треба**, or to the modal word and phrase **потрібно/є потреба**. These equivalents are also mostly employed in order to express the following meaning of the modal verb *should*:

1) *obligation/moral obligation, necessity*:

*What do you think he should do? – І що, по-твоєму, йому слід/треба робити?*

2) *regret, grief, sorrow*:

*I shouldn't have said that. – Мені не слід/не треба було цього казати.*

3) *advice/recommendation, admonition*:

*You shouldn't have consulted me, Esme. – Тобі не треба/не слід було радитися зі мною, Есме.*

4) *supposition/suggestion*, which can be expressed in Ukrainian with the help of modal words or particles:

*Perhaps I should introduce my friend Cosane to you. – Може б мені представити вам мого друга Кокейна?/Мабуть, представлю вам мого друга Кокейна.*

5) *doubt, indignation* and some other emotions expressed through the modal verb *should* may also be rendered with the help of some Ukrainian particles and the implicit meaning of the sentence:

*Why should I wait? – Чому б це мені чекати?*

6) *surprise, indignation* or *pleasure* (with the indefinite or perfect infinitive following the modal verb *should*). These meanings of the modal verb *should* are mostly rendered in Ukrainian through the logical emphatic stress, intonation, particles or through some modal verbs:

*God forbid that I should ever say a good word for you! – Боронь Боже мені сказати/щоб я коли-небудь сказав хоч одне добре слово за тебе!*

7) the modal verb *should* may also express *reproval* or *protest, disappointment*, etc., which may be expressed in Ukrainian with the help of the modal words or statives **треба, слід, потрібно** or with the help of some modal particles:

*I don't know why sometimes I should be sneered at. – Не збагну, чому це іноді з мене треба покенкувати/поглузувати.*

## 2. Ways of Conveying the Meanings of Subjective Modality

Subjective modality implies that the speaker considers the event or action mentioned as assumptive or suggestive (desirable, possible, impossible, doubtful, certain/uncertain, etc.), i.e., as likely or unlikely to take place. This type of modality is expressed in English and Ukrainian with the help of common means: a) modal words, modal expressions or sentences; b) with the help of parenthetical words/expressions or parenthetical sentences; c) with the help of modal particles.

English modals have usually direct semantic and structural equivalents in Ukrainian.

The modal words/expressions or parenthetical elements in the sentences expressing supposition, assumption, presumability, etc. are: *maybe, possibly, presumably, it is likely/most likely, it seems*, etc. These modals present the attitude of the speaker to an event/action as hypothetical, as likely to take (or as having taken place, etc.). Such modals have mostly direct equivalents in both languages:

*It was probably the first time in his adult life that he had ever cried. – Це було мабуть/либонь чи не вперше за все його доросле життя, що він сплакнув.*

English modal words and expressions whose meaning is predetermined by the contextual environment have often a hypothetical meaning, which may correspond to that of some Ukrainian modal particles or parenthetical adverbs/phrases. They include: **perhaps, evidently, scarcely, no/little possibility**,

etc. Their Ukrainian hypothetical modal equivalents may be: **певно, напевно, напевно-таки, десь-то, наврод/наврод чи, справді/насправді**:

*Perhaps, you've seen her portrait in the papers. – Певно, ви бачили її фотографію в газетах.*

Modal words/expressions and parenthetical words/phrase or sentences expressing general assessment of a statement clearly point to the subjective evaluation of the action or event by the speaker. These are the following modals: **certainly, of course, surely, definitely, really, in fact, indeed, naturally, no doubt, without doubt, it is natural**, etc. Their Ukrainian equivalents are: **безперечно, безумовно, без сумніву/немає сумніву, зрозуміло, певна річ, правду сказати, природно, як відомо, як кажуть** and others:

*Well, he certainly must have strained himself to get this menagerie together. – Він, безперечно, мусив би прикласти великих зусиль, щоб прибрати до рук увесь цей звіринець.*

Subjective modality may also be rendered in both languages via elliptical sentences:

*Was it because he was afraid of being lost in a bigger city? Scarcely. – Може це було тому, що він боявся загубитись у великому місті? Навряд.*

### 3. Grammatical Modality: Means of Expressing

Grammatical or syntactic modality expresses actions viewed upon as real, unreal, optative, hypothetical, conditional, incentive, interrogative, etc. The principal means of expressing such actions are mood forms of the verbs (indicative, imperative and subjunctive). These mood forms are realized in sentences of optative or wishful (бажальна), incentive (спонукальна) and subjunctive (умовна) modality.

#### 1. Optative Modality

Optative modality in English and Ukrainian serves to express the wish of the speaker to establish the correspondence of content of the utterance to reality. The main ways and means of expressing this type of modality in English are syntactic. They include characteristic sentence structure, the use of auxiliary and modal verbs, the ascending or descending utterance intonation. In Ukrainian apart from the modal verbs and intonation some specifying modal particles are used: **б/би, аби, щоб/щоби, бодай, десь, либонь, хай, хоч, хоч би, чи не, коли б, якби** and others:

*Я її либонь побачу. – I might see her there.*

*Чи не краще вийти назустріч? – Would it not be better to meet them halfway?*

To express wish with implied regret or unreal wish the stative **жаль** or **шкода** may be used in Ukrainian:

*I wish I had met him when he was younger. – Шкода, що я не зустріла його, коли він був молодшим.*

#### 2. Incentive modality

Incentive modality is mostly expressed in English through the modal verb **let**. The incentive meanings are usually rendered into Ukrainian with the help of the imperative mood forms of the verbal predicate and the particle **хай/нехай**:

*Let him that earns the bread eat it. – Нехай той, хто заробляє свій хліб, і споживає його.*

*Let each tailor mend his own coat. – Хай кожен займається своїми справами.*

Ukrainian incentive sentences introduced by the particle **хай/нехай** are usually translated into English with the help of the modal verb **let** as well: *Нехай мати усміхнеться. Заплакана мати. – Let once more our mother smile. Our tear-ridden mother.*

Incentive modality may also be expressed in Ukrainian with the help of other modal particles. One of the often used for this purpose is **ж/же**, the meaning of which is usually expressed in English through the modal verb **let** and the corresponding intonation:

*Походимо ж, моя зоре. – Oh let us wander still, my fate...*

English incentive meanings can also be expressed through the combination of the particle **long** with the modal verb **may**, which together with the corresponding intonation of the sentence express the meaning close to Ukrainian exclamatory sentences with the particle **хай** or the particles **хай же**:

*Long live and prosper our Motherland! May our Motherland live long! – Хай/хай же живе і квітне наша Батьківщина!*

### **3. Subjunctive modality**

The means of expression and rendering subjunctive modality in English are the modal verbs **could, should, would, might** and the expressions **would rather, would sooner**. These modal verbs are also used to express the corresponding subjunctive meanings in Ukrainian simple and composite sentences: *Пішов би в огонь і воду. – He would go through thick and thin/through many trials.*

## Lecture 7. IDIOMATIC VOCABULARY: TRANSLATION AND REVISION SPECIFICITY



### List of Issues Discussed:

1. Translation of Idiomatic Vocabulary. Peculiar Features.
2. Transformation of Some Idioms in Translating Process.

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### 1. Translation of Idiomatic Vocabulary. Peculiar Features

Idiomatic or phraseological expressions are structurally, lexically and semantically fixed phrases or sentences having mostly the meaning, which is not made up by the sum of meanings of their component parts. An indispensable feature of idiomatic (phraseological) expressions is their figurative, i.e., metaphorical nature and usage. It is this nature that makes them distinguishable from structurally identical free combinations of words Cf.: *red tape* (free word-comb.) червона стрічка – *red tape* (idiom) канцелярський формалізм (бюрократизм); *the tables are/were turned* (free word-comb.) столи перекинуті/були перекинуті – *the tables are turned* (idiom) ситуація докорінно змінилася; супротивники помінялися ролями.

Some proper names can also be endowed with figurative meaning and possess the necessary expressiveness which are the distinguishing features of idioms: *Croesus*, *Tommy* (*Tommy Atkins*), *Yankee*, *Mrs. Grundy*, *Jack Ketch*, etc. These proper names have acquired their constant meaning and can not be confused



with usual (common) proper names of people. As a result their transferred meaning is conveyed in a descriptive way. So *Mrs. Grundy* means *світ, люди, існуюча мораль*; *Jack Ketch* – *кат*; *Tommy Atkins* – *англійський солдат*; *Yankee* (in Europe) – *янки/американець*, etc.

Similarly treated must also be many other English and Ukrainian picturesque idioms, proverbs and sayings, which have national literary images and reflect the traditions, customs, the way of conduct or the mode of life of a nation. Their meaning, due to absence of similar idioms in the target language, can be rendered descriptively, i.e. through a regular explication. The latter, depending on the semantic structure of the source language idiom, may be sometimes achieved in the target language with the help of a single word: *an odd/queer fish* – *дивак*; *Canterbury tale* – *небувальщина, вигадка*; *ніде курці клюнути* – *crammed*; *зубами тертяка вибивати* – *to be chilled*.

Most often, however, the meaning of this kind of idioms is conveyed with the help of free word-combinations: *to dine with Duke Humphrey* – *залишитись без обіду (нічого не ївши)*; *to cut off with a shilling* – *позбавити когось спадщини*; *ноги на плечі* – *to go quickly (or very quickly) on one's feet*; *кивати/накивати п'ятами* – *to run away quickly/hurriedly*.

Faithful translating of a large number of picturesque idiomatic/phraseological expressions, on the other hand, can be achieved only by a thorough selection of variants having in the target language a similar to the original lexical meaning, and also their picturesqueness and expressiveness. This similarity can be based on common in the source language and in the target language componental images as well as on the structural form of them: *a grass widow (widower)* – *солом'яна вдова (вдівець)*; *not to see a step beyond one's nose* – *далі свого носа нічого не бачити*; *measure twice and cut once* – *сім раз одміряй, а раз відріж*; *не знати/тямити ні бе, ні ме, ні кукуріку* – *not to know chalk from cheese*; *вночі що сіре, те й вовк* – *all cats are grey in the dark*; *який батько, такий син, яка хата, такий тин (яблучко від яблуні далеко не відкочується)* – *like father, like son*, etc.

A number of phraseological units, due to their common source of origin, are characterized in English and Ukrainian by partial or complete identity of their syntactic structure, their componental images, picturesqueness and expressiveness (and consequently of their meaning). Such kind of idioms often preserve a similar or even identical word order in the source language and in the target language: *to cast pearls before swine* – *кидати перла перед свинями*; *to be born under a lucky star* – *народитися під щасливою зіркою*; *to cherish/warm a viper in one's bosom* – *пригріти гадюку в пазусі*.

In each language there also exists a specific national layer of idiomatic/phraseological expressions comprising proverbs and sayings, which are formed on the basis of componental images pertaining solely to a concrete national language. Such idioms are first of all distinguished by their picturesqueness, their expressiveness and lexical meaning of their own. Due to their national particularity, these idioms/phraseologisms can not and do not have traditionally

established literary variants in the target language. As a result, their structural form and wording in different translations may often lack absolute identity. In their rough/interlinear or word-for-word variants they mostly lose their aphoristic/idiomatic nature and thus are often subject to literary perfection: *the moon is not seen when the sun shines* – місяця не видно, коли світить сонце/місяця не помічають, коли світить сонце; *it is a great victory that comes without blood* – велика та перемога, яку здобувають без пролиття крові or найбільша та перемога, яка здобувається без пролиття крові.

Similarly translated are some Ukrainian national phraseologisms into English: *один дурень так зіпсує, що й десять розумних не направлять* – *what is spoiled by one fool can not be mended by ten wisemen*; *малі діти - малий клопіт, великі діти - великий клопіт* – *small children – smaller troubles, grown-up children - grave troubles*.

The following ways of faithful rendering the idiomatic/phraseological expressions are identified:

### 1. By Choosing Absolute/Complete Equivalents

This is the method of translating by which every componental part of the source language idiom is retained in the target language unchanged. Translating with the help of equivalents is resorted to when dealing with idioms which originate from the same source in both the languages in question. These sources may be:

1) Greek or other mythology: *Augean stables* – авгієві стайні (занедбане, занехаяне місце); *a labour of Sisyphus* – сізіфова праця (важка і марна праця); *Pandora's box* – скринька Пандори/Пандорина скриня (джерело всіляких лих);

2) ancient history or literature: *an ass in a lion's skin* – осел у левовій шкурі; *to cross (pass) the Rubicon* – перейти Рубікон (прийняти важливе рішення); *the golden age* – золотий вік (золоті часи); *I came, I saw, I conquered* – прийшов, побачив, переміг;

3) the Bible or works based on a biblical plot: *to cast the first stone at one* – першим кинути у когось каменем; *the golden calf* – золотий телець/ідол; *a lost sheep* – заблудла вівця; *the ten commandments* – десять заповідей; *the thirty pieces of silver* – тридцять срібняків; *prodigal son* – блудний син.

A great many absolute equivalents originate from contemporary literary or historical sources relating to different languages (mainly to French, Spanish, Danish, German, Italian, Arabic). **English:** *Time is money* – Час – гроші; *self made man* – людина, що сама проклала собі шлях у житті; *my house is my castle* – мій дім - моя фортеця. **French:** *after us the deluge* – після нас хоч потоп; *the game is worth the candle* – гра варта свічок; *to pull the chestnuts out of the fire* – вигрібати (чужими руками) каштани з вогню; **Spanish:** *blue blood* – блакитна кров; *the fifth column* (introduced by E. Hemingway) – п'ята колона; *to tilt at the windmills* (introduced by Cervantes) – воювати з вітряками; **Italian:** *Dante's inferno* – Дантове пекло; *finita la commedia* – ділу кінець, etc.

Some mots belonging to prominent English and American authors have also turned into regular idiomatic expressions. Due to their constant use in belles-lettres they have become known in many languages. Especially considerable is the amount of Shakespearean mots: *better a witty fool than a foolish wit* – *краще дотепний дурень, ніж дурний дотеп*; *cowards die many times before their deaths* – *боягузи вмирають багато разів*; *something is rotten in the state of Denmark* – *не все гаразд у Данському королівстві*, etc.; *to reign in hell is better than to serve in heaven* (J. Milton) – *краще панувати в пеклі, ніж слугувати в раю*; *the banana republic* (O. Henry) – *бананова республіка*; *never put off till tomorrow what you can do today* – *ніколи не відкладай на завтра те, що можна зробити сьогодні*; *the execution of the laws is more important than the making of them* (T. Jefferson) – *закони виконувати важче, ніж їх створювати/писати*; *Iron Curtain* (W. Churchill) – *залізна завіса*, etc.

The target language variants of phraseological monoequivalents may sometimes slightly differ in their structure or in the order of words from the source language idioms.

## 2. Translation of Idioms by Choosing Near Equivalents

The meaning of a considerable number of phrase idioms and sentence idioms originating in both languages from a common source may sometimes have, unlike absolute equivalents, one or even most of their components different, than in the target language. Hence, the quality of their images is not identical either, though not necessarily their picturesqueness and expressiveness: *baker's/printer's dozen* – *чортова дюжина*; *love is the mother of love* – *любов породжує любов*.

The slight divergences in the near equivalents as compared with the source language idioms can manifest themselves also in some other aspects:

a) in the structure of the target language variant: *to make a long story short* – *сказати коротко*;

b) in the omission (or adding) of a componental part in the target language: *a lot of water had run under the bridge since then* – *багато води сплигло відтоді*;

c) in the substitution of a feature (or image) of the source language phraseological/idiomatic expression for some other (more fitting or traditionally expected) in the target language: *as pale as paper* – *блідий мов стіна*; *to know smth. as one knows his ten fingers* – *знати як свої п'ять пальців*;

d) in the generalization of the features of the source language idiomatic expression: *one's own flesh and bone* – *рідна кровинка*;

e) in the concretization of some features of the original: *a voice in the wilderness* – *глас волаючого в пустелі*; *you can not catch an old bird with chaff* – *старого горобця на полові не впіймаєш*.

## 3. Translation by Choosing Genuine Idiomatic Analogies

An overwhelming majority of English idiomatic expressions have similar in sense units in Ukrainian. These idiomatic expressions, naturally, are in most cases easily given corresponding analogies in the target language. As a matter of fact, such expressions are sometimes very close in their connotative (metaphorical) meaning in English and Ukrainian as well.

Any common or similar traits of idiomatic expressions are the main proof of their being genuine analogies. The latter in each of the two languages comprise also proverbs and sayings as well as the so-called standardized and stable collocations: *he that mischief hatches mischief catches* – *хто іншим лиха бажас, сам лихо має/хто іншим яму копає, сам у неї потрапляє*; *to have the ready tongue* – *за словом у кишеню не лізти*; *there is no use crying over spilt milk* – *що з воза впало, те пропало*; *bear a dead horse* – *товкти воду в ступі*.

Many of such and the like idiomatic expressions may often have two and more analogous by sense variants in the target language. The choice of an analogy rests then with the translator and is predetermined by the style of the text: *nor for love or money* – *ні за що в світі/ні за які скарби в світі*; *don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs* – *не вчи вченого; не вчи рибу плавати; яйця курку не вчать, etc.*; *a crooked stick throws a crooked shadow* – *який Сава, така й слава/який батько, такий син, яка хата, такий тин*; *don't cross the bridges before you come to them* – *не поспішай поперед батька в пекло; не кажи гон, доки не перескочиш*.

#### **4. Translating Idioms by Choosing Approximate Analogies**

Some source language idiomatic and stable expressions may have a peculiar nature of their componental parts or a peculiar combination of them and thus form nationally peculiar expressiveness and picturesqueness of componental images. The latter constitute some hidden meaning, which is mostly not quite explicit and comprehensible, not transient enough for the foreigner to catch it.

As a result, there exist no genuine phraseological analogies for the units in the target language. Since it is so, their lexical meaning can be expressed by means of only approximate analogies or through explication, i.e., in a descriptive way: *kind words butter no parsnips* – *годувати байками солов'я*; *to make a cat's paw of something* – *чужими руками жар вигрібати*; *the sow loves bran better than roses* – *кому що, а курці просо*; *more power to your elbow* – *ні пуху, ні луски!*; *it is six and half a dozen* – *не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила, etc.*

#### **5. Descriptive Translating of Idiomatic and Set Expressions**

The meaning of a considerable number of idiomatic as well as stable/set expressions can be rendered through explication only, i.e., in a descriptive way. Depending on the complexity of meaning contained in the source-language idiom, it can be expressed in the target language in some ways:

1) by a single word: *out of a clear blue of the sky* – *рантом, зненацька*; *poor fish* – *йолоп, бевзь, нікчема*; *to sell smoke* – *піддурювати, підманювати*; *to set a limit to smth.* – *обмежувати, стримувати*; *to go aloft* – *померти*;

2) with the help of free combinations of words (the most frequent): *to run amok* – *нападати зненацька на першу-ліпшу людину*; *to sell someone short* – *недооцінювати когось*; *to shat Abraham* – *удавати з себе хворого (прикидатися хворим)*; *short odds* – *майже рівні шанси*; *to sit above the salt* – *сидіти на почесному місці*; *a stitch in time* – *своєчасний захід/вчинок, своєчасна дія*;

3) when the lexical meaning of an original idiomatic expression is condensed or when it is based on a nationally specific notion/structural form alien

to the target language, the idiomatic expression may be conveyed by a sentence or a longer explanation: *white elephant* – подарунок, якого важко позбутися (те, що приносить більше турбот, ніж користі); *yes man* – людина, що з усіма згоджується, тільки підтакує (підтакувач), etc.

## 2. Transformation of Some Idioms in Translating Process

Taking into account the aims pursued and the contextual environment of the idiom, there must be acknowledged at least two main levels of translating the national idioms:

1) the level of the interlinear rendering, i.e., sense-to-sense translation only, which is quite sufficient to faithfully express the lexical meaning of most of these phraseologisms/idioms;

2) the literary/literary artistic level, at which not only the sense but also the expressiveness, the vividness, the picturesqueness and the aphoristic nature (if any) of the idioms should possibly be conveyed as well.

Compare the examples of translation with the help of transformations of particularly English phraseologisms performed first (1) at the interlinear (sense-to-sense rendering) level and then (2) at the literary/literary artistic level:

***He that doesn't respect, isn't respected*** – 1. хто інших не поважає, сам поваги не має; 2. поважатимеш інших, поважатимуть і тебе;

***It's an equal failing to trust everybody and to trust nobody*** – 1. однакова вада – довіряти всім і недовіряти нікому; 2. довіряти кожному і недовіряти нікому – однакова вада;

***The pleasures of the mighty are the tears of the poor*** – 1. розваги багатих – то сльози бідних/знедолених; 2. вельможні скачуть - убогі плачуть; що панські жарти, то людські сльози.

Transformations become absolutely inevitable when the English phraseologisms or mots contain a passive voice structure, the introductory *it/there*, or some other analytical constructions, as for instance, those with the auxiliary verbs (*do, does, etc.*): *There is no love lost between them* – вони недолюблюють одне одного/глек розбили; *Does your mother know you are out?* – Молоко на губах ще не висохло/ще не допіс. *Can the leopard change his spots?* – Горбатого могила виправить.

## Lecture 8. FUNCTIONAL STYLES: STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATION AND REVISION

### List of Issues Discussed:



1. Peculiarities of Scientific and Technical Literature. Features of Its Translation
2. Publicistic and Newspaper Style Texts and Ways of Their Translation.
3. Official Documents and Features of Their Translation.

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### 1. Peculiarities of Scientific and Technical Literature. Features of Its Translation

To provide the accuracy of the original text in general, it's not sufficient to reproduce only the language component but it's also necessary to consider all the technical features of the text. Thus, technical and special documentation translation is one of the most difficult types of activity which demands some special approach. Technical translation differs from a common one with its specific terminology and style of rendering the information. The scientific and technical literature sublanguage is distinguished with its lexical, grammatical and syntactical peculiarities, among which we can cite the ones listed below.

#### Lexical peculiarities:

1. There's a great deal of syntactic and parenthetical words forming logical links between separate elements in the sentence and inseparable elements of logical development (prepositions and conjunctions *upon, besides, except (for), in regard*

to, in accordance with, in order to, both...and, either...or, provided, providing; adverbs thus, alternatively, also, again).

2. Peculiar terminology usage which can be neither replaced nor explained with other words. That's why the technical documentation translator, in most cases, should also have additional special qualifications in a specific technical field. For instance, the term *cycle*, besides “цикл” and “період” may be generally translated in the following way: *такт* (the interval between two signals of a clock oscillator – Computers science); *період перебування* (*lock-up cycle* – the time of staying in a prison cell – Law); *круговий процес* (Thermodynamics); *вмикати робочий цикл, циркулювати по колу* (Engineering); *замкнений процес* (Mechanical Engineering); *періодичний процес* (polytechnical meaning); *період пульсації, кругообіг, проходить цикл розвитку* (Biology); *квант обчислення* (slang).

3. The necessity of macrocontext while rendering the terms. As an example, let's refer to the following situation: the translator has to translate a document saying about an appraisal procedure of welding and welders (*Pressure Welder Qualification*). Discussing the translation in a formal way, one can find in a technical dictionary that the term *pressure welding* is translated as “зварювання тиском”. Thus we are talking about “атестація зварників, що працюють методом зварювання з використанням тиску”. However, in this case, this variant is not correct as the document being translated is related to the pipeline welding pressure method. The right variant of translation hereby is “атестація зварників, що виготовляють конструкції, які працюють під тиском”.

4. Shortenings and abbreviations which are difficult to understand. The researchers point out that there's no single rule on how to make up the shortenings, that's why it's almost impossible to decipher any shortening or abbreviation without the context. For example, the abbreviation *MCC* can be understood as *Master Control Console* (головний пульти управління), *Mission Control Center* (центр керування польотами) or *Motor Control Center* (станція управління двигунами).

5. Discrepancy of service jobs, especially governing structural units as well as positions of influence and academic degrees. It's often difficult to translate them in both native language and English, even if the name is given in a complete way: *OPS* (*operations*) – “Виробничий відділ”, “Відділ експлуатації”; *Reg* (*regulatory*) in some cases it may be translated as “Служба узгодження (та/чи отримання дозволу та/чи ліцензування і сертифікації) з наглядовими органами”; *professor* – “лектор”, as well as “професор-асистент” (with Master's or Bachelor's degree); *associate professor* – might be translated as “доцент”, and “ад'юнкт-професор” (generally having a Master's degree); *Operations Manager* – “начальник виробничого відділу” and “виконавець виробничого відділу”; *Human Resource Manager* – “начальник відділу кадрів” or just “інспектор відділу кадрів”.

6. Existence of realias which are used in scientific and technical literature as names of firms and establishments, models of an equipment, establishment location, etc. As a rule, realias are not translated but they are either written in the

same way as in the source language or transliterated. Geographical and well-known proper names are translated in transcription of the native language.

7. It's often necessary to translate documents of great volumes. Thanks to this reason and because of informative terms existence and specific vocabulary, technical documentation translation should be further edited.

8. Experience of reading the graphic language of schemes is highly obligatory for a scientific and technical literature translator. For instance, in drawings one can find some symbols of the following type: *ID* or *25 ID*, which is the equivalent of *dBH25* in Ukrainian drawing meaning “*внутрішній діаметр, 25 мм*”; *LG* – the length might be marked as *0.25 Dia x 1LG*, that is, “*Шпилька діаметром 0,25 дюйми, довжиною 1 дюйм*”.

9. There's one more important peculiarity of the scientific and technical translation which concerns measuring units inversion since the measures of weight, length, height and volume greatly differ in many countries as well as in different foreign sources. For example, *Production ('000 m<sup>3</sup>/d)* should be understood as “*Видобування (тис. м<sup>3</sup> на добу)*”. As for the phrase *Total cost of the production is estimated to be US \$4B+* can be translated as “*Повна вартість проекту оцінюється сумою, що перевищує 4 млрд. долл. США*”. Here it's necessary to remember that “*мільярд*” for the English people is *milliard* and *billion* for Americans.

#### Grammatical peculiarities:

The grammar of the scientific and technical style is characterized by frequent usage of participle and gerund; simple sentences as well as expanded and complex ones. The general form of the sentences in scientific and technical literature is complex and compound. Consequently, there are a lot of propositions and conjunctions used along with impersonal verbs in the function of the object and adverbial modifier.

Scientific and technical literature stylistic peculiarities are related to presenting information in the first-person plural form and also concern clearness of expression as well as the absence of emotional, expressive and figurative phrases.

One might encounter the above described difficulties in any type of the scientific and technical translation independently on the area of specialization: adequate translation (equal by sense and style of presenting the information including deep perception of the translation object as well as the source text creative interpretation rendering all the lexical and grammatical features); initial level translation (word-for-word translation with correct sense rendering but lexical and syntactical aspects are not really taken into consideration); literal translation (word-for-word translation where each source language lexical unit is translated correctly, but logical and syntactical links are missing which causes some sense distortion or breaking rules of the language used for translation). It goes without saying that the translator is competent when he or she is able to make an adequate translation. So this is the type of translation future translators should be trained for.



### *Tips for translators engaged in scientific translation:*

Scientific translation is the translation of scientific texts, thus a special knowledge will be required. These texts require a deep knowledge of both the source and target languages, as well as a proper understanding of the subject. Scientific translators are often trained linguists that specialize in fields such as medicine, biology or chemistry. Sometimes they are scientists that have developed a high degree of linguistic knowledge, which they apply to the translation of texts in their field of expertise. Collaboration between linguists and subject specialists is really common in this case. In this article, we will explain you some of the best scientific translation techniques.

**BE CLEAR AND CONCISE** Clarity and concision are the main stylistic goals of scientific translation, which must convey the exact meaning of the original text. Ambiguities and unclear constructions are characteristics of the literary texts and must not be found anywhere in scientific translation. This is the hardest task in scientific translation. Finding the right words can be a struggle sometimes and it can also create repetitiveness in the text, as synonyms of certain words can be rather ambiguous and more suitable for literary work. Avoiding repetitions can sometimes be extremely hard. This is why the translator must have a scientific background that allows her or him to play with the terminology without changing the meaning of the text.

**KEEP AN EYE ON THE MISTAKES IN THE ORIGINAL TEXT** What is also really common among scientific translators is their ability to correct the small mistakes in the original text, as they will be the persons that will read the document most attentively. Common mistakes in scientific work include: inconsistencies between numbers listed in tables, accompanying diagrams showing something else than they should or tables referred to by non-obvious symbols. In this case the translator is advised to correct such mistakes in brackets or footnotes.

**PLAY WITH STRUCTURE AND MEANING** If the syntactic and lexical features of the language differ, it is sometimes necessary to completely recast certain sentences. For instance, highly inflected languages such as Russian and German can string together long chain of independent and dependent clauses with many referents and antecedents and still keeping the whole meaning clear. On the other hand, this would be impossible in English for example. In this case, the translator will have some work to do in terms of structure and meaning. This is one of those times when keeping the sense of a sentence intact can be a real challenge. One of the best techniques to use in these cases is paraphrasing, namely a restatement of the meaning of a text or passage using other words.

**BE AN AVID READER** In order to create a flawless scientific translation, the translator must be as informed as possible. Reading the latest books and academic journals helps you improve your translation skills. Firstly, you get used to the terminology and with the style of this type of work. Secondly, you will be up to date with the latest scientific researches and discoveries, which helps you understand more easily the concepts that you are supposed to translate. You can even create a blog about scientific translation, scientific researches and events. You can write articles or take existing articles and then translate them in the other languages that you know in order to gain more experience (remember to ask permission in order to avoid copyright infringements). This is a good idea particularly for beginners that want to specialize in scientific translation. Remember that the more you specialize in niches and sub-niches the easier it will be to research, write and become an expert.

**PAY ATTENTION TO NUMBERS AND SYMBOLS** In science you will come across a lot of numbers, formulas, diagrams and symbols, which must not be ignored in the process of translation. The sense of a whole page or even chapter can be altered if the translator adds the wrong number or symbol. To avoid this, he must understand very well the topic. Afterwards, he must pay a lot of attention to all the little things. This requires patience and analytical skills, qualities that are indispensable for a scientific translator.

**ALWAYS PROOFREAD YOUR TRANSLATION** At the end of your translation, you should always proofread the texts yourself first and then ask a second translator to proofread your work as well. Ideally, ask other translators who have experience in the field. This way, all the mistakes that you did not notice will be corrected. In case some concepts from the original text are really unclear to you, you can communicate this to the author (if possible) or with the client. It is always better to ask for clarifications, than leaving your work unclear.

**ADAPT YOUR STYLE TO THE TYPE OF DOCUMENT** In science, you will come across different types of documents that require different degrees of formality. If you are translating academic work, you will need to find a very elevated style with complex phrases and less common words. On the other hand, if we are talking about manuals or drug instructions, the translation must be less formal. This type of documents is going to be read by normal people or beginners in the field of science. This is why the language must be more accessible and easy to understand.

In conclusion, scientific translation is always a challenge. The translator must keep up with the constant changes in this field. She must be a scientist or she must read a lot and get as much information about the topics that he is going to translate. The style of a scientific translator must be very clear and concise. The level of formality differs according to the type of documents he has to deal with.

## 2. Publicistic and Newspaper Style Texts and Ways of Their Translation

Several characteristic features pertaining to the belles-lettres style texts are also observed in publicistic substyle works, which are mostly presented by articles on different subjects (social, political, economic, etc.) as well as in essays. The latter, though close to sketches or even to short stories by their composition, have distinctly different features of their own. The main of these are as follows: 1) brevity of expression; 2) the use of personal (author's) comment; 3) careful paragraphing; 4) strong logical and emotional argumentation; 5) extensive use of comparison and similes, epithets, sustained metaphors, etc.

Like the belles-lettres texts the publicistic and newspaper texts can also be faithfully translated only by way of reaching equivalence in the target language at the denotative, structural, stylistic and pragmatic levels of the source language text. Hence, when translating the excerpt of S. Leacock's brilliant essay *Oxford as I See It* (see it below), care should be taken to select in the target language such kind of equivalents, which perform the same stylistic and pragmatic functions as in the source language texts. The student will certainly find no great difficulties in choosing equivalent structural forms of simple extended or composite sentences used by Leacock to create the necessary dynamism in the text of his essay. Certainly, the greatest difficulty will be found in selecting equivalents for some contextual meanings and functions of lexical and lexico-grammatical units, which help create humorous or ironic effect upon the reader and thus form the pragmatic orientation of the excerpt from this essay. Hence, the task will be to choose in Ukrainian not only lexico-grammatical and stylistic substitutions for some language signs and their meanings, but also some prosodic (intonation and stress) means to achieve the necessary fidelity of translation in the target language.

The clue to the pragmatic orientation of the excerpt is partly indicated by the author in the concluding words of the introductory paragraph where he promises to submit «the place (i.e. Oxford University) to a searching scrutiny». The realization of this «scrutiny» on the forthcoming pages is performed, in fact, with great skill, which the translator will have to recreate correspondingly in Ukrainian as well.

The essay as a literary work aims at a psychological influence on the reader or listener in order to convince him of the reality and authenticity of the described topic/subject. This is achieved, as can be seen from the excerpt of S. Leacock's brilliant essay *Oxford as I See It*, by means of the logical and emotional argumentation of the author's point of view, by the use of coherent logical syntactic structures and by often reference to historical events or prominent personalities, etc. Cf. «When I add to this that I had already visited Oxford in 1907 and spent a Sunday at All Souls with Colonel L.S. Amery, it will be seen at once that my views on Oxford are based upon observations extending over fourteen years».

All peculiar stylistic features of the essay including the author's individual style have to be faithfully reflected in the translation of each single sentence.

The excerpt of S. Leacock's essay *Oxford as I See It*

“... The excellence of Oxford, then, as I see it, lies in the peculiar vagueness of the organisation of its work. It starts from the assumption that the professor is a really learned man whose sole interest lies in his own sphere: and that a student, or at least the only student with whom the university cares to reckon seriously, is a young man who desires to know. This is an ancient mediaeval attitude long since buried in more up-to-date places under successive strata of compulsory education, state teaching, the democratisation of knowledge and the substitution of the shadow for the substance, and the casket for the gem. No doubt, in newer places the thing has got to be so. Higher education in America flourishes chiefly as a qualification for entrance into a money-making profession, and not as a thing in itself. But in Oxford one can still see the surviving outline of a nobler type of structure and a higher inspiration.

I do not mean to say, however, that my judgment of Oxford is one undiluted stream of praise. In one respect at least I think that Oxford has fallen away from the high ideals of the Middle Ages. I refer to the fact that it admits women students to its studies. In the Middle Ages women were regarded with a peculiar chivalry long since lost. It was taken for granted that their brains were too delicately poised to allow them to learn anything. It was presumed that their minds were so exquisitely hung that intellectual effort might disturb them. The present age has gone to the other extreme: and this is seen nowhere more than in the crowding of women into colleges originally designed for men. Oxford, I regret to find, has not stood out against this change.

To a profound scholar like myself, the presence of these young women, many of them most attractive, flitting up and down the streets of Oxford in their caps and gowns, is very distressing.

Who is to blame for this and how they first got in I do not know. But I understand that they first of all built a private college of their own close to Oxford, and then edged themselves in foot by foot. If this is so they only followed up the precedent of the recognised method in use in America. When an American college is established, the women go and build a college of their own overlooking the grounds. Then they put on becoming caps and gowns and stand and look over the fence at the college athletics. The male undergraduates, who were originally and by nature a hardy lot, were not easily disturbed. But inevitably some of the senior trustees fell in love with the first year girls and became convinced that coeducation was a noble cause. American statistics show that between 1880 and 1900 the number of trustees and senior professors who married girl undergraduates or who wanted to do so reached a percentage of,--I forget the exact percentage; it was either a hundred or a little over.

I don't know just what happened at Oxford but presumably something of the sort took place. In any case the women are now all over the place. They attend the college lectures, they row in a boat, and they perambulate the High Street. They are even offering a serious competition against the men. Last year they carried off the

ping-pong championship and took the chancellor's prize for needlework, while in music, cooking and millinery the men are said to be nowhere.

There is no doubt that unless Oxford puts the women out while there is yet time, they will overrun the whole university. What this means to the progress of learning few can tell and those who know are afraid to say..."

Stylistically close to the style of essays are many newspaper and journal/magazine articles, dealing with social, political, economic and other subjects. They are aimed at acquainting the reader with some important or disputable problems of various social, political or economic aspects of life. The text of such articles is carefully paragraphed, as can be seen below, too; also it mostly consists of coherent sentences, which can not be omitted without mining the logical structure or sense of the paragraph, which it is the part of. This can be especially observed in the excerpt of the article on economy below. Other articles may contain elements of belles-letters style with emotionally coloured elements and several stylistic devices.

The bulk of newspaper space, however, occupy shorter and longer news items containing generally common lexical material and syntactic structures (clichés) having corresponding equivalents in the target language, and usually presenting no great difficulty for beginning translators.

So, it is very important for any translator or interpreter to render newspaper articles from the SL into the TL in the best possible way. While dealing with the specialized translation, any translator is to pay attention to the difficulties most frequently met in such types of texts. Translation of newspapers differs from generic non-fiction translation. At first sight, one could think that a newspaper text, since it expresses facts, communicates information, is a purely denotative text, therefore relatively easy to translate as far as construction and style are concerned, with a few difficulties of lexical order at the most. Actually, texts are heterogeneous in newspapers. Let us leave aside semiannual, monthly or weekly periodicals that may contain texts that are not very journalistic, i.e. texts that could be easily found even in non-periodical publications and focus our attention exclusively on daily newspapers. They are:

Chronicle – the sections devoted to news reports are those usually having the highest denotative content. Reporting events of international, national or local nature sometimes simply paraphrasing press releases, the personal or political comment of the journalist is minimal, so connotative aspects are likewise. In this kind of translation the difficulties are mainly connected to the standard form in which news is communicated in different cultures. In English, for example, in a news chronicle the verb is usually at the end of the main clause, especially the verb like "say", for example: *The shot was heard in the area of half a mile, Mr. Homer reported.* When translating texts like that into other languages that don't systematically see the main clause in a final position, and if a translator wants to avoid a loan translation, the sentence must be reconstructed inserting the main verb in a standard position.

Political commentaries can create serious problems for translators. Politicians create new words and terms very readily. For example: *road map*, *New Deal*, *Manifest Destiny*, *trickle-down economics*, *detente*, *affirmative action*.

These are words that can be met in a political speech quite often; they are an obstacle for the translator to decode and then, to recode into the target culture. Of course, one must distinguish the translation of a political news story to be published in a newspaper of another country from the translation of a political news story to be published in a different context in the target culture.

In the latter case it is not difficult to create translator's notes and give a metatextual rendering of the inevitable translation residue. But in case of translations for newspapers, where footnotes are not possible and the reader must be able to "consume" the product even in unfavorable contextual conditions, the problem is very trying. The practice of glossing is professionally despicable in general, and translation for dailies is no exception. Attributing explanations or other translator's comments to this or other author would be a serious problem (note that sometimes the authors of political stories are politicians themselves). The translator therefore can only open a square bracket, rapidly explain what he or she cannot translate and insert a "translator's note" acronym, close the bracket and go on. For example: *Peres declared that the road map [a plan by European Union and United States to find a solution to the Middle-East conflict. Translator's note] is still a feasible strategy.*

Of course such clarifications are necessary only when an expression has not been widely used yet. In the example, in the paper such a clarification would not be necessary a few weeks after the introduction of the term.

Contextual references. The very fact that papers by their nature and use have few clarifications, and take a lot for granted, creates a major translation problem. Newspaper text contains a huge ratio of culture-specific implicit. It happens, because they are published every day. To understand today's newspaper, one must know yesterday's, and so on. The whole historical series of papers constitutes a huge hypertext to which today's newspaper makes free reference. This is the reason why the translator should be well informed about different spheres of every day life or in other words should be a highly-educated person.

Another element that newspapers always take for granted is place. When news give no information on place, the town where the paper is made is implied (and in this case a street named or the place where an event took place, without specifying the town). If news is about national policy and no place is stated, the government seat is implied. When talking about local policy and no place is stated, the local government seat is implied. And so on.

Often even cultural coordinates are implied, because a newspaper's reader, implicitly, belongs to an identifiable culture, extending over a necessary time and place (of course an exception is represented by readers of newspapers in an archive). That is why, the name of a soccer player or a TV broadcast can be

inserted as intertextual translation as metaphors of something else and the reader – even the one who doesn't watch TV or follow soccer – must be able to understand at least the connotative value in order to read efficiently.

Local lexicon. Another feature of newspapers is the use of local lexicon. In some cities, newspaper articles can be published in dialect. Often, but in explicitly international papers like for example International Herald Tribune, the local variant of the language prevails, even if proper dialect is not used. For example, in the *Sacramento Bee* you will find an account of events on J Street while *USA Today* will specify near Capital Park. And the *Bee* would say Davis, Galt or Rancho Cordova while *USA Today* would read “near Sacramento” hopefully specifying the direction outside the city. Moreover, there are questions of local or editorial preference in phraseology and/or slang.

Figurativeness. Newspaper articles are rich in idiomatic expressions, which are not so often met in Russian literature and usually bear not so specific character. This figurativeness is drawn from various spheres, at times, the most unexpected ones. For example: *Push-button government* is translated into Russian as *марионеточное правительство*, but not *кнопочное правительство*. The following metaphor can be preserved in the translated variant:

*An icy chill frosted the audience – От его речи на слушателей повеяло холодом.*

Transport terminology provides great many metaphors, especially for newspaper articles. For example: *The question was sidetracked* – *Обсуждение вопроса было отложено в долгий ящик* (word for word translation is *вопрос был загнан на запасный путь*). *British politicians are often guided by the principle „proceed with caution” or even „apply break”.* - *Британские политики нередко руководствуются принципом «тихий ход» или «придерживайся на тормозах».*

It happens that figurativeness of speech is connected with the usage of geographical and geological notions. For example: *The great divide in the Parliament* stands not for *великий водораздел*, but is translated as *размежевание в парламенте*.

Another example of metaphor drawn from Geography and Geology is *crosssection*, which is translated into Russian as *поперечное сечение*. However, in newspaper articles it has quite a different semantic meaning. For example: *The whole cross-section of society* is translated as *Все слои общества*.

The loan-words from sport are widely spread too. For example: *Jockeying for supremacy is going on within the group of Wall Street businessmen.* – *В группе крупных дельцов с Уол Стрит идут буквально скачки с препятствиями.*

It is possible to run into metaphors loaned from the sphere of cookery: For example: *The minister sandwiched Greece in between Egypt and Great Britain* – *По пути из Египта в Англию министр заглянул в Грецию.*

Headlines. Newspaper headlines present a special interest for the translator, since the latter comes across definite difficulties translating them. Headlines are usually composed in such a way, so as to rouse the curiosity of the reader. They are to be translated after the whole article has been translated.

Headlines are classified in the following way:

1) Vagueness as a result of predicate's absence. While translating such headlines it is necessary to imagine the verb.

For example: *Whither Modern Medicine?* – Word for word translation is: *Куда (идет) современная медицина.* However, this headline should take the following form: *Перспективы современной медицины.*

For example: *Nuclear Plan in a Month.* – *План по ядерным разработкам будет представлен через месяц.*

2) Vagueness as a result of usage of verbal forms in improper tense. In such cases the translator should identify the implied time with the help of the context.

For example: *China's Foreign Minister Arrive in New York. The time of Foreign Minister's arrival is not mentioned.* The translator consults the context and makes the conclusion that he is coming today. Hence, it is possible to use the present tense in the translated variant. *Министр иностранных дел Китая прибывает в Нью-Йорк.*

3) Vagueness as a result of auxiliary verbs' omission. For example: *Kofi Annan to Speak at...* (Kofi Annan ( is) to Speak at...) – *Кофи Аннан выступит с речью.*

4) Vagueness as a result of omission of some letters, especially in verbs.

For example: *Transport Worker Strike Cont'ed* (=continued). *Продолжается забастовка транспортников.*

5) Vagueness as a result of great many nouns used in the function of adjectives (the so called attributive groups). For example: *Railway Accident Prevention Committee Meeting* – *Заседание комитета по борьбе с железнодорожными катастрофами.* In similar cases, it is necessary to divide word-combinations by implication and only then to translate the headline from the last word of the combination or in other words in the reverse sequence.

For example: *Automobile Repair Plants Reconstruction Problems.* – *Проблемы реконструкции авторемонтных заводов.*

All the mentioned above difficulties connected with the newspaper articles should be kept in mind by those who deal with translation of periodicals.



### 3. Official Documents and Features of Their Translation

Official documents are among the most often translated specialized texts because of their extensive public usefulness.

Official documents are written in a formal, “cold” or matter-of-fact style of speech. The style of official documents, or ‘officialese’ as it is sometimes called, is not homogeneous and is represented by the following sub-styles, or varieties:

1. the language of business documents;
2. the language of legal documents;
3. the language of diplomacy;
4. the language of military documents.

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:

- a) the state and the citizen, or citizen and citizen (jurisdiction);
- b) a society and its members (statute or ordinance);
- c) two or more enterprises or bodies (business correspondence or contracts);
- d) two or more governments (pacts, treaties);
- e) a person in authority and a subordinate (orders, regulations, authoritative directions);
- f) the board or presidium and the assembly or general meeting (procedures acts, minutes), etc.

In other words, 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.

The most general function 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 sub-style can easily be recognized, for example: *I 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; the succeeding clauses of agreement; to reaffirm faith in fundamental principles; to establish the required conditions; the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law.*

The vocabulary is characterized not only by the use of special terminology but the choice of lofty (bookish) words and phrases: *plausible* (=possible); *to*

*inform* (=to tell); *to assist* (=to help); *to cooperate* (=to work together); *to promote* (=to help something develop); *to secure* (=to make certain) *social progress*; *with the following objectives/ends* (=for these purposes); *to be determined/resolved* (=to wish); *to endeavour* (=to try); *to proceed* (=to go); *inquire* (to ask).

Likewise, other varieties of official languages have their special nomenclature, which is conspicuous in the text, and therefore easily discernible.

Besides the special nomenclature characteristic of each variety of the style, there is a feature common to all these varieties – the use of abbreviations, conventional symbols and contractions. Some of them are well-known, for example, *M.P.* (Member of Parliament); *Gvt.* (government); *H.M.S.* (Her Majesty's Steamship); *\$* (dollar); *Ltd* (Limited). But there are a few that have recently sprung up. A very interesting group of acronyms comprises the names of the USA presidents: *FDR* – Franklin Delano Roosevelt, and accordingly *FDR-drive* in New York; *JFK* – John Fitzgerald Kennedy and *JFK Airport* in New York; *LBJ* – Lyndon Baines Johnson; *W* – for America's President George Walker Bush, but his father is simply George Bush though his full name is George Herbert Walker Bush; *POTUS*, *VPOTUS* and *FLOTUS* – accordingly President/Vice President/First Lady of the United States.

There are so many abbreviations and acronyms in official documents that there are special addenda in dictionaries to decode them. These abbreviations are particularly abundant in military documents. Here they are used not only as conventional symbols but as signs of the military code, which is supposed to be known only to the initiated. Examples are: *DAO* (Divisional Ammunition Officer); *adv.* (advance); *atk.* (attack); *obj.* (object); *A/T* (anti-tank); *ATAS* (Air Transport Auxiliary Service).

Another feature of the style is the use of words in their logical dictionary meaning. There is no room for words with contextual meaning or for any kind of simultaneous realization of two meanings, as in the other matter-of-fact styles. 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 also not to be found in official documents.

Even in the style of scientific prose some words may be found which reveal the attitude of the writer, his individual evaluation of the fact 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 faithfully*.

So, the task of the translator is to know and use the equivalents of such specific vocabulary in the target text. The translator should know that in the target text the abbreviated names of product trademarks are to be given in original spelling. Foreign proper names, names of foreign firms, joint-stock companies, concerns, monopolies are transcoded. Names of machines, appliances, chemicals

are also transcribed. Geographical names and clichés are translated by using equivalents.

The texts of official documents are characterized by high frequency of using nouns, including verbal nouns or non-finite forms of the verbs, by low frequency of using adjectives, relative adjectives are used mainly in set-phrases (e.g. *social protection, regulatory enactment, financial aid* – *соціальний захист, нормативний акт, матеріальна допомога*), pronouns are seldom used to substitute nouns or adjectives).

When it comes to grammar, one of the essential features of this style is the conciseness of the contents and the rigid organization of grammatical structures. It is

achieved by the predominance of noun structures or participles instead of full sentences. Most data are introduced through noun structures (surname, first name, middle name, maiden surname, occupation of father/mother, date of birth, sex, place of birth, registration district, signature, residence of informant, county, city or town, registered number, date etc.). The remaining information is very often given through participial structures, e.g. “*Data concerning smth.*” instead of “*Data which concern*”. There are also impersonal structures like, “*This is to certify*”, “*The stamp duty... was charged*”. Impersonality of the texts is their common feature.

When it comes to structural features of official documents, the following features are a sign 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, minding proper text division by using formal connectors like separate paragraphs, or indexing the sequence of steps of argumentation.

*NB:* The syntactical pattern of the style is as significant as the vocabulary though not perhaps so immediately apparent. Perhaps the most noticeable of all syntactical features are the compositional patterns of the variants of this style. Thus, business letters have a definite compositional pattern, namely, the heading giving the address of the writer and the date, the name of the addressee and his address. The usual parts of the business paper are:

1. **Heading.** The heading, which includes the sender’s name, postal and telegraphic addresses, telephone number as well as reference titles of the sender and recipient, is printed at the top of the notepaper. **Note:** in the United Kingdom all companies registered after 23rd November, 1916, must give the names of the directors, and if any of them are not British by origin, their nationality must be also printed.

2. **Date.** The date should always be printed in the top right-hand corner in the order: day, month, year, e.g. 21st May, 2004 (21/5/04). Another order is usually employed in the United States: May 21st, 2004 (5/21/04).

3. **Name and address,** i.e. the inside address or the direction. The inside address is typed in three, four or more lines whichever is necessary, either at the beginning of the letter, or at the end, e.g., *Messrs. Adams and Wilkinson, / 4, Finsbury Square, / London, E.C.2., England.*

4. **Salutation.** The salutation may be: *Sir, Sirs, Gentlemen* (never ‘Gentleman’), *Dear Sirs* (never “Dear Gentlemen), *Madam, Dear Madam* (for both married and unmarried ladies), or *Mesdames* (plural). Dear Mr., or Dear Mister should never be used! *Dear Mr. Jones, (Mrs. Brown / Miss Smith)* may only be used when the sender is fairly intimate with the person receiving the letter.

5. **Reference.** Underlined heading should look as follows: *Re: Your Order No 12345.* *Re* is not an abbreviation of “regarding”, but a Latin word meaning “*in the matter*”.

6. **Opening.** If you are hesitating for a phrase with which to commence your letter, one of the following will suit your purpose: *In reply / with reference / referring to your letter of...; in accordance with / compliance with / pursuance of your order No.; we greatly appreciate your letter of...*

7. **Body.** The body is the subject matter that should be concise but not laconic. The sentences should not be too long, the whole matter should be broken into reasonably short paragraphs which should be properly spaced.

8. **Closing** or the complimentary close. It usually looks something like this: *Yours faithfully / truly / sincerely / cordially* (not *respectfully* as it is too servile). *Your obedient servant* is used by the British civil service, i.e. by all non-warlike branches of the British state administration. The most appropriate closing is: *Awaiting your early reply with interest / Hoping there will be no further complaints of this nature / Thanking you in advance for any information you can offer.*

9. **Stamp (if any) and signatures.** The closing, with the signature following it, is made to slope off gradually so that the end of the signature just reaches the right hand margin of the letter.

10. **Enclosures.** The Word “Enclosure” should be written either in full or in its abbreviated form “Enc.” Usually at the bottom left-hand corner of the letter.

Consider the structure of a business letter below:

*Mansfield and Co.  
59 High Street  
Swanage (=the address of the sender)  
14 August, 2006 (=the date)*

*22 Fleet Street  
London (= the address of the party addressed)*

*Dear Sir, (=salutation)*

*We beg to inform you that by order and for account of Mr. Jones of Manchester, we have taken the liberty of drawing upon you for \$45 at three months' date to the order of Mr. Sharp. We gladly take this opportunity of placing our services at your disposal, and shall be pleased if you frequently make use of them. (=body)*

*Truly yours,  
Mansfield and Co. (=closing)  
by Mary Smith*

Almost every official document has its own compositional design. Pacts and statutes, orders and minutes, codes and memoranda – all have more or less definite form, 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.

An official document usually consists of a **preamble**, **main text body** and a **finalizing (concluding) part**.

The **preamble** is usually a statement at the beginning of the document explaining what it is about and stating the parties of the agreement, e.g. “*The States concluding this Treaty (Treaty on the Non-proliferation of Nuclear Weapons), hereinafter referred to as the ‘Parties to the Treaty’ ...have agreed as follows...*”. The most important words and phrases are often capitalized as well as the beginnings of the paragraphs in very long sentences listing the crucial issues.

The **main text body** constitutes the central and most important part of the document. It consists of articles – individual parts of a document, usually numbered ones, which state the conditions on which the parties reach their agreement. For example, Article I of the above cited Treaty begins: “*Each nuclear-weapon State Party to the Treaty undertakes not to transfer to any recipient whatsoever nuclear weapons or other nuclear explosive devices or control over such weapons or explosive devices directly, or indirectly...*”

The **finalizing part** comprises the signatures of the duly authorized people

that have signed the document; the amount of copies of the document; the date (more often than not, stated by words, not by figures); the place: “*IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, duly authorized, have signed this Treaty. DONE in triplicate, at the cities of Washington, London and Moscow, this first day of July one thousand nine hundred sixty-eight*”.

Depending on the type of document, the composition and content of its individual parts may slightly vary as, for example, in business contracts setting the conditions binding two parties. A business contract consists of a standard text and changeable elements. In modern linguistics, standard text structures intended for information presentation are called **frames**. A **frame** is understood as a language structure with changeable elements. The changeable elements within a text are called **slots**.

The task of a translator translating official documents is to find target language equivalents of the source text frames and use them in translation as standard substitutes, filling the slots with frame fillers in compliance with the document content.

## GLOSSARY



### **Acknowledgment Letter**

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.

### **Agreement**

A formal decision about future action which is made by two or more countries, groups, or people.

### **“A” Language**

The mother tongue of a translator

### **Adaptation**

Process of converting information into an appropriate format for the target language and culture.

### **Adjustment Letter**

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.

### **Alignment**

Alignment is the task of defining translation correspondences between source and target texts. Alignment is a process that allows text in a range of software packages to be converted semi-automatically into a Translation Memory format for re-use. There should be feedback from alignment to segmentation and a good alignment algorithm should be able to correct initial segmentation.

### **Alignment tool**

Application that automatically pairs versions of same text in the source and target languages in a table. Also called bi-text tool.

### **Ambiguity**

Situation in which the intended meaning of a phrase is unclear and must be verified – usually with the source text author - in order for translation to proceed.

### **Application**

An official request for something, usually in writing.

### **Artificial intelligence**

Branch of computer science devoted to creating intelligent machines that produced the first efforts toward machine translation.

### **Automatic substitution**

Exact matches come up in translating new versions of a document. During automatic substitution, the translator does not check the translation against the original, so if there are any mistakes in the previous translation, they will carry over.

### **Automatic translation**

Machine-based translation process not subject to input by a human translator.

### **“B” language**

A language that a translator can speak and write almost as well as their mother tongue

### **Back translation**

Process of translating a previously translated text back into its source language.

### **Business communication**

Information sharing between people within and outside an organization that is performed for the commercial benefit of the organization. It can also be defined as relaying of information within a business by its people.

### **Business Correspondence**

An umbrella term for all written communication used in business relationships with business partners or for internal communication in the organization.

### **Calque**

In linguistics, a calque is actually a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word translation. The term calque is borrowed from French and it derives from the verb *calquer* which means *to copy, to trace*. More specifically, we use the verb *to calque* when speaking about borrowing a word or phrase from another language while translating its components so as to create a new lexeme in the target language.

### **CAT**

Computer-aided translation, or computer-assisted, machine-aided or machine assisted translation with the aid of computer programs, such as translation memory (see term), terminology management and localization tools, designed to reduce the translator’s workload and increase consistency of style and terminology. Not to be confused with machine translation.

### **Collaborative translation**

Emerging approach to translation in which companies use the elements of crowdsourcing in a controlled environment for working on large corporate projects in short periods of time.



## **Complaint Letter**

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.

## **Context**

Information outside of the actual text that is essential for complete comprehension.

## **Controlled vocabulary**

Standardized terms and phrases that constitute a system's vocabulary.

## **Controlled language**

Language in which grammar, vocabulary and syntax are restricted in order to reduce ambiguity and complexity and to make the source language easier to understand by native and non-native speakers and easier to translate with machine and human translation.

## **Covering letter**

A letter that is sent with something to explain the reason for it or to give more information about it.

## **Cultural adaptation**

Adjustment of a translation to conform with the target culture.

## **Culturally-sensitive translation**

Translation that takes into account cultural differences.

## **CV**

A brief written account of your personal details, your education, and the jobs you have had. You can send a CV when you are applying for a job. CV is an abbreviation for 'curriculum vitae'.

## **Dialect**

Variety of a language spoken by members of a particular locale and characterized by a unique vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

## **Editing**

Editing - Second level of review in the traditional TEP process.

## **E-mail**

E-mail (short for *electronic mail*) is a means of sending messages between computers.

## **Exact match**

Exact matches (during Translation memory analysis) appear when the match between the current source segment and the stored one has been a character by

character match. When translating a sentence, an exact match means the same sentence has been translated before. Exact matches are also called 100% matches.

### **False friends**

False friends are pairs of words or phrases in two languages or dialects (or letters in two alphabets) that look or sound similar, but differ in meaning.

### **Follow-Up Letter**

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.

### **Fuzzy match**

Indication that words or sentences are partially - but not exactly - matched to previous translations.

When the match (during Translation Memory analysis) has not been exact, it is a fuzzy match. Some systems assign percentages to these kinds of matches, in which case a fuzzy match is greater than 0% and less than 100%. Those figures are not comparable across systems unless the method of scoring is specified.

### **Fuzzy logic**

Process that creates near matches in text to translation memory terms when exact matches cannot be found.

### **Inquiry Letter**

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.

### **Interpretation**

The action of the interpreter that translates verbally the utterance of a speaker into the language of a listener. Interpretation always refers to oral communication.

### **Interpreter**

A person who translates speech orally.

### **Letter 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.

**Letter 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.

**Literal translation**

Translation that closely adheres to the grammar and construction of the source text. A literal translation usually appears “stilted” and unnatural.

**Machine Translation (also known as automated translation)**

Translation produced by a computer program or use of a translation program to translate text without human input in the actual translation process. The quality of machine-translated text, in terms of terminology, meaning and grammar, varies depending on the nature and complexity of the source text, but is never good enough for publication without extensive editing. Not to be confused with computer-aided translation!

**Match**

Indication that words or sentences are matched - either partially or fully - to previous translations.

**Meaning-for-meaning translation**

Translation for which the words used in both languages may not be exact equivalents, but the meaning is the same.

**Memo**

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

**Mother tongue**

Native and first learned language of an individual.

**MT**

MT - Abbreviation for machine translation.

**Native language**

First language that a human learns naturally, usually since childhood.

**Networking**

When networking during the translation it is possible to translate a text efficiently together with a group of translators. This way, the translations entered by one translator are available to the others. Moreover, if translation memories are shared before the final translation, there is a chance that mistakes made by one translator will be corrected by other team members.

**Ontology**

Description of the relationships between concepts, objects, and other entities within a given field.

**Order Letter**

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.

**Plain English**

Method of writing English that employs a clear and simple style, usually for the purpose of improving readability. Among its features are using only active verbs (no passive voices) and making sure that each word has only one meaning.

**Post-editing**

Process by which one or more humans review, edit, and improve the quality of machine translation output.

**Project manager**

Individual who carries out management and coordination tasks for a given translation project. Commonly abbreviated PM.

**Pre-editing**

Process by which a text is edited prior to translation in order to clarify ambiguous terms and increase translatability.

**Pre-translation**

Phase of translation process in which documents are prepared for conversion into another language. Usually includes an automated analysis against translation memories so that previously translated text is inserted in a file, therefore avoiding rework and associated costs.

**Project setup**

Translation preprocessing steps include tasks such as glossary and style guide preparation, project planning, file preparation, content familiarization, and training.

**Proofreading**

Practice of checking a translated text to identify and correct spelling, grammar, syntax, and coherency and integrity errors, (usually carried out by a second linguist or translator. - not necessarily. Proofreading can be done by editors with no second language.

## **Pseudo-translation**

is a procedure which simulates how a translated document will look after translation and how much extra DTP or other work will be required before actual translation is done. This can help in setting the appropriate timelines of projects.

## **Revision deals with...**

- Reading for the big picture and trying to see your writing as readers see it.
- Recognizing your paper's organization (or lack of it): is your information presented logically? Do you jump from one idea to the next or does it seem to flow naturally? Do you use subheadings?
- Sharpening your introduction and thesis statement: is it clear from your introduction what your paper will cover and/or argue? Do you follow through on what you promise in the intro and with your thesis?
- Adding details and examples: did you fully explain your main points? Are your reasons and examples adequate to support your thesis?
- Eliminating unnecessary details: did you include anything that might throw the reader off or lead to confusion? Did you repeat yourself? Keep in mind that re-stating a key point is effective.

## **NB: Proofreading deals with...**

- Reading s-l-o-w-l-y. Donotrushtroughit.
- Rewriting awkward or unclear sentences
- Correcting punctuation, grammatical, and mechanical errors
- Correcting spelling mistakes
- Formatting citations, cover sheets, footnotes, and references correctly

## **NB: Remember...**

- Revision usually occurs after you finish a rough draft of your paper. You may go through several rounds of revision before you're ready to proofread.
- Revision should be done **prior to** proofreading. Revision tackles the biggest issues first. If you proofread first, you may spend time polishing text that won't make it into the final paper.
- Students are sometimes tempted to fix grammar or spelling problems without considering issues like order, transitions, and introductions/conclusions. Remember: proofreading is just **one part** of the overall revision process.
- It's not a good idea to rely on spell-check or grammar-check. They make miss takes two.
- The Writing Center can help you with revising or proofreading your paper. We can also help you determine which process you need to focus on and how to get started.

## **Sales Letter**

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.

## **SL**

Abbreviation for Source Language, the language a translator translates from.

## **Source Culture**

The culture where the text you have to translate has been produced.●

## **Style guide**

Document that describes the correct grammar, punctuation, spelling, style and numeric formats to ensure consistency and quality in a translated text.

## **Style sheet**

Document or template that describes the structure and format of a document, with instructions regarding fonts, page size, spacing, margins, paragraph styles and tag mark-ups to ensure consistency and quality in a translated text.

## **Target audience**

Group of people who receive the information rendered by the interpreter in the target language.

## **TC**

Abbreviation for Target Culture

## **Target Culture**

The culture you have to translate a text for.

## **TL**

Abbreviation for Target language

## **Target language**

Language into which the text is translated.

## **Technical translation**

Translation of technical texts, such as user or maintenance manuals, catalogues and data sheets.

## **Term**

Word, phrase, symbol or formula that describes or designates a particular concept.

## **Terminology**

Collection of terms

**Terminology analysis**

Process carried out prior to translation in order to analyze the vocabulary within a text and its meaning within the given context, often for the purpose of creating specialized dictionaries within specific fields.

**Textual parsing**

It is very important to recognize punctuation in order to distinguish for example the end of sentence from abbreviation. Thus, mark-up is a kind of pre-editing. Usually, the materials which have been processed through translators' aid programs contain mark-up, as the translation stage is embedded in a multilingual document production line. Other special text elements may be set off by mark-up. There are special elements which do not need to be translated, such as proper names and codes, while others may need to be converted to native format.

**Text style**

Characteristics of terminology, style and sentence formation within a given text.

**Transcription**

The process of transcribing a speech to obtain a written text. The text can then be translated.

**Transcreation: (or creative translation)**

The adaptation of a creative work into another language or culture. Therefore, it is more than direct translation or localization of the text, as transcreators focus on capturing the desired persuasive or emotive effect of the original. Transcreation services is a growing new industry.

**Translatability**

Degree to which a text can be rendered into another language.

**Translate-edit-proof**

Most common set of steps used for linguistic quality assurance in translation production processes. Commonly abbreviated TEP.

**Translation**

Process of rendering written communication from one language into another, or the output that results from this process. Translation is the communication of the meaning of a source-language text by means of an equivalent target-language text. The word translation derives from the Latin *translatio* (which itself comes from *trans-* and *fero*, together meaning to carry across or to bring across).

**Translation capacity**

Average number of characters, words, lines, or pages that a professional translator can translate within a given time frame, such as a day, week, or month.

**Translational Equivalence** is the similarity between a word (or expression) in one language and its translation in another. This similarity results from overlapping ranges of reference.

A *translation equivalent* is a corresponding word or expression in another language.

**Translation unit (also TU)**

Segment of text treated as a single unit of meaning.

**Transliteration**

Process of converting words from a source text or audio file into a written text that facilitates pronunciation of the words.

**Transculturation**

A process of cultural transformation marked by the influx of new culture elements and the loss or alteration of existing ones.

**Translator**

A person who translates *written* words.

**Transmission**

The action or process of transmitting something or the state of being transmitted.

**Treaty**

An agreement under international law entered into by actors in international law, namely sovereign states and international organizations.



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