

Хмельницький національний університет
Кафедра германської філології та перекладознавства

ТЕОРІЯ ПЕРЕКЛАДУ

Методичні рекомендації та настанови до проведення
семінарських занять та самостійної роботи для здобувачів другого
(магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності "Філологія.
Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша англійська"

*Затверджено на засіданні кафедри
германської філології та перекладознавства
Протокол № 8 від 20.05.2022*

Хмельницький, 2022

Теорія перекладу. Методичні рекомендації та настанови до проведення семінарських занять та самостійної роботи для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності "Філологія. Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша англійська" / В.Б. Крамар. – Хмельницький: ХНУ, 2022. – _29_ с. (англ., укр.).

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Редактор-коректор: Яремчук В. С.
Комп'ютерна верстка:

Макетування здійснено редакційно-видавничим центром
Хмельницького національного університету (м. Хмельницький, вул.
Інститутська, 7/1).

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Дисципліна «Теорія перекладу» є однією із фахових дисциплін при підготовці фахівців освітнього рівня «магістр» за спеціальністю 035 – «Філологія» та спеціалізацією 035.04 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська. Вона входить до циклу вибіркових дисциплін професійної та практичної підготовки студентів і може бути корисною для здобувачів інших рівнів вищої освіти та спеціальностей.

Мета дисципліни – вивчення основних понять процесу перекладу і його закономірностей; аналіз і критика поглядів найвизначніших перекладознавців на різні стратегії перекладу.

Завдання дисципліни полягає у тому, щоб:

- навчити студентів аналізувати теоретичні концепції провідних перекладознавців;
- виробити вміння застосовувати теоретичні концепції для вибору адекватних перекладацьких стратегій щодо різних текстів і комунікативних ситуацій;
- здійснювати систематизацію стратегій перекладу відповідно до культурно-історичного контексту;
- володіти принципами, методами і прийомами теоретичного аналізу перекладознавчих;
- здійснювати теоретичну інтерпретацію та всебічний перекладознавчий аналіз.

У результаті вивчення дисципліни поглиблюють та розширюють набуті нормативні фахові компетентності та результати навчання, зокрема:

- аналізують результати перекладацької діяльності щодо їхньої відповідності загальним теоретичним вимогам;
- здійснюють систематизацію застосованих перекладацьких рішень відповідно до обраної перекладацької моделі;
- ефективно працюють з електронними довідниками та іншими електронними ресурсами для розв'язання завдань теоретичного аналізу результатів перекладацької діяльності.

Методичні рекомендації складаються із сучасних текстів, запозичених з оригінальних англomовних джерел. Вони є зразками сучасних досліджень в галузі теоретичного перекладознавства, містять численні посилання на перехресні джерела, що дозволяє

використовувати методичні вказівки також для повторення вивченого протягом курсу матеріалу, для самостійної роботи з текстами.

Семінарське заняття передбачає вивчення автентичних матеріалів теорії перекладу, опрацювання теоретичного матеріалу, аналіз наявних перекладів різних епох. До кожного заняття додаються завдання з самостійної роботи.

Загальні вимоги та рекомендації

Тематика семінарських занять.

Тема 1. Задачі, зміст і структура дисципліни.

Тема 2. Принципи типології перекладу. Види перекладу

Тема 3. Одиниця перекладу. Поняття еквівалентності. Теорія неперекладності.

Тема 4. Лінгвістичні теорії перекладу.

Тема 5. Переклад і текст. Теорія скопосу.

Тема 6. Формальна і динамічна еквівалентності.

Тема 7. Прагматичні аспекти перекладу.

Тема 8. Постлінгвістичні теорії перекладу.

Семінари за темами 1-4 і 8 є семінарами-бесідами, 5-7 є семінарами-диспутиами.

Узагальнений зміст семінарських занять

Ознайомлення з темою та планом заняття;

диспут на визначену тему за повідомленим планом;

виступи доповідачів та їх опонентів, "мозковий штурм";

робота зі студентами, що не взяли участі в диспуті, але готові до відповіді;

- рецензування та обговорення рефератів;
- висновок, узагальнення з кожного питання.
- мотивована оцінка роботи студентів;
- поточний контроль знань.

Метою семінарських занять є:

- забезпечення умов для поглиблення і закріплення знань набутих в процесі вивчення навчальної інформації;
- спонукати студентів до колективного творчого обговорення найбільш складних питань навчального курсу;
- оволодіння методами аналізу фактів, явищ і проблем, що розглядаються та формування умінь і навичок до здійснення різних видів майбутньої професійної діяльності.

Завдання семінарських занять:

- закріплення, поглиблення і розширення знань студентів з відповідної навчальної дисципліни;
- сформувані вміння постановки і рішення інтелектуальних завдань і проблем;
- удосконалення здібностей по аргументації студентами своєї точки зору, а також по доведенню і спростуванню інших суджень;
- демонстрація студентами досягнутого рівня теоретичної підготовки;
- формування навичок самостійної роботи з літературою.

Методи та форми проведення семінарського заняття.

Семінар-диспут:

- студенти в ситуаціях полеміки вчать аргументовано захищати свої думки, переконання, ідеї;
- наявність питань, що розглядаються;
- вибір методів роботи студентів.

Семінар з виступами студентів:

- видача індивідуальних завдань студентам;
- виконання студентами рефератів, доповідей, повідомлень;
- наявність обговорюваних питань чи проблем;
- форми роботи для вирішення питань, проблем.

Вимоги щодо підготовки до семінарського заняття.

-проаналізуйте тему заняття, подумайте над його основними проблемами, які винесені на обговорення;

-опрацюйте рекомендовану навчальну, наукову та методичну літературу, при цьому обов'язково конспектуйте і занотуйте прочитане, виписуйте те, що, на ваш погляд, сприятиме ефективному засвоєнню матеріалу;

-намагайтеся сформулювати свою думку з кожного питання і обґрунтуйте свої міркування;

-запишіть запитання, які виникли у вас під час підготовки до проведення семінарського заняття, зверніться за консультацією до викладача-методиста.

Методика підготовки реферату

Обсяг реферату - близько 20 сторінок.

Структура роботи:

Титульний аркуш - це перша сторінка, на якій вказується міністерство; назва навчального закладу, в якому виконується робота;

назва віддалення (кафедри); повна назва теми роботи; прізвище та ініціали студента-дослідника, курс, група, відділення; прізвище, ініціали, вчене звання наукового керівника; рік і місце виконання роботи.

Зміст - сторінка роботи, яка містить назву та номери початкових сторінок усіх розділів, підрозділів та пунктів; заголовки змісту повинні точно повторювати заголовки в тексті і розміщуються один під одним (перелік умовних позначень при необхідності).

Вступ - обґрунтовується актуальність теми, її практична значущість; визначається об'єкт, предмет, мета і завдання дослідження; розглядаються методи, за допомогою яких воно проводилось; розкривається структура роботи, її основний зміст. Обов'язкова частина вступу - огляд літератури з теми дослідження, в який включають найбільш цінні, актуальні роботи (10-15 джерел). Огляд повинен бути систематизований аналізом теоретичної, методичної й практичної новизни, значущості, переваг та недоліків робіт.

Розділи і підрозділи основної частини - проаналізований і систематизований матеріал викладається відповідно до змісту у вигляді окремих розділів і підрозділів (глав і параграфів); кожний розділ висвітлює самостійне питання, а підрозділ окрему частину цього питання; відмічається головна ідея, а також тези кожного підрозділу; розкривається теорія питання та досвід практичної роботи.

Висновки - підсумок проведеної роботи, подаються у вигляді окремих лаконічних положень, методичних рекомендацій, які відповідають поставленим завданням; відмічається не тільки позитивне та недоліки, а також і конкретні рекомендації щодо їх усунення;

Список використаної літератури - відображає обсяг використаних джерел та ступінь вивчення досліджуваної теми; містить бібліографічний опис джерел, використаних студентом під час роботи над темою.

Додатки - не є обов'язковим елементом і не входять до основного ліміту обсягу роботи, однак підвищують рівень довіри до результатів роботи, свідчать про їхню достовірність; містять допоміжний матеріал у вигляді зразків анкет, тестів, таблиць допоміжних цифрових даних, схем, графіків, карт, ілюстрованого матеріалу та ін.

Основні вимоги до змісту реферату:

- актуальність теми, відповідність її сучасному стану певної галузі науки та перспективам розвитку, практичним завданням відповідної сфери;

- вивчення та критичний аналіз монографічних і періодичних видань з теми;
- вивчення та характеристика історії досліджуваної проблеми та її сучасного стану, а також передового досвіду роботи у відповідній галузі;
- чітка характеристика предмета, мета і метод дослідження, опис та аналіз проведених автором експериментів;
- узагальнення результатів, обґрунтування їх, висновки та практичні рекомендації.

Питання до самоконтролю.

1. Визначення поняття “переклад”.
2. Вплив структуралізму на розвиток перекладознавства.
3. Сутність перекладу. Переклад як результат та процес.
4. Основні розділи теорії перекладу і її місце серед інших дисциплін.
5. Основні теорії мовних значень.
6. Загальнолексичні питання перекладу.
7. Способи передачі мовних значень. Референційні значення: випадки повної відповідності, випадки часткової відповідності, випадки відсутності відповідності.
8. Способи передачі безеквівалентності лексики.
9. Сутність прагматичного значення.
10. Класифікація типів прагматичних значень: стилістична характеристика слова, реєстр слова, емоційне забарвлення слова.
11. Розбіжності та збіг при передачі референційних та прагматичних значень.
12. Передача метафоричних значень в дзеркалі перекладознавчої теорії.
13. Посібники, комп’ютерні і онлайн ресурси необхідні перекладачу в процесі перекладу.
14. Відтворення структурних і тематичних особливостей мистецьких епох у перекладі.
15. Збереження засобів текстової зв’язності.
16. Особливості відтворення заголовків.
17. Діалогічне мовлення у перекладі.
18. Передача лінгвістичних значень.
19. Поняття перекладацької еквівалентності.
20. Особливості першого рівня еквівалентності. Досягнення мети комунікації.

- 21. Характерні риси другого рівня еквівалентності. Ідентифікація ситуації.
- 22. Третій рівень еквівалентності. Збереження загальних понять при перекладі.
- 23. Максимальний ступінь близькості змісту оригіналу і перекладу на четвертому рівні еквівалентності.
- 24. Лексикографія як перекладацька наука. Проблеми одномовної і двомовної лексикографії.
- 25. Провідні теоретики перекладу в англomовних країнах.

Заняття I.

I. OBJECT, SUBJECT, TASKS OF TRANSLATION STUDIES.

The English term translation, first attested in around 1340, it derives either from Old French translation or more directly from the Latin translatio ('transporting').

Translation studies, or theory of translation is a scientific discipline that studies the translation process and the results of translation activities.

The object of translation studies is translated texts and their originals. Comparison of forms, sequential relationships, intersentential structure, organization and mapping of texts provides researchers with objective data for the development of translation theory.

The subject of translation studies is the processes of translation that interpret and create discourse.

As to the object and subject of translation studies are divided into **three types**:

- 1) general theory of translation,
- 2) partial theory of translation, and
- 3) special theory of translation.

Areas of research in translation studies as suggested by Williams and Chesterman (2002) include:

- a. Text analysis and translation;
- b. Translation quality assessment;
- c. Translation of literary and other genres;
- d. Multi-media translation;
- e. Translation and technology;
- f. Translation history;
- g. Translation ethics;
- h. Terminology and glossaries;
- i. The translation process;
- j. Translator training;
- k. The characteristics of the translation profession.

Main tasks of the science

1. Determine a translation as an object of linguistic research, point out its differences from the other types of linguistic mediation.
2. Develop principals to classify translation activities.
3. Analyze the nature of translation equivalence as a basis of ST and TT communicative equivalence.

4. Develop general principles and features of individual and special theories of translation for various combinations of languages.
5. Outskirt main points and vectors of history of translation.

Basic translation theories

Roughly, the translation theories are divided into three main groups which quite conventionally may be called

1. transformational approach,
2. denotative approach,
3. communicational approach.

In other terms this division may sound like: linguistic, functionalist, pragmatic. Other divisions and sets of terms are also proposed. They differ in nuances, still the core structure remains the same.

The transformational theories consist of many varieties which may also have different names but they all have one common feature the process of translation is regarded as transformation.

According to the transformational approach translation is viewed as the transformation of objects and structures of the source language into those of the target. Within the group of theories which we include in the transformational approach a diving line is sometimes drawn between transformations and equivalencies.

A transformation starts at the syntactic level when there is a change, i.e., when we alter, say, the word order during translation. Substitutions at other levels are regarded as equivalencies, for instance, when we substitute words of the target language for those of the source. Three levels of substitutions are usually distinguished: morphological equivalencies, lexical equivalencies, and syntactic equivalencies and/or transformations. Real translation transformations are more complex and often at different levels of languages involved in translation.

Transformational approach is insufficient when the original text corresponds to one indivisible concept which is rendered by the translator as a text in another language also corresponding to the relevant indivisible concept. For instance, the translation of almost any piece of poetry cannot be explained by simple substitution of target language words and work combinations for those of source language. Here **denotative approach** translation is applied. It's not just mere substitution but consists of the following mental operations:

- translator reads (hears) a message in the source language;
- translator finds a denotatum and concept that correspond to this message;
- translator formulates a message in the target language relevant to the above denotatum and concept.

According to this approach we deal with similar word forms of the target languages and concepts deduced from these forms, however, as opposed to the transformational approach, the relationship between the source and target word forms is occasional rather than regular. To illustrate this difference let us consider the following two examples:

The sea is warm tonight – Сьогодні ввечері море тепле. (Regular correspondence)

Staff only – Службове приміщення. Now equivalence between the original sentence and its translation is occasional (i.e., worth only for this case) and the concept, pertaining to the whole sentence cannot be divided into individual components.

The **communicational theory** of translation is based on the notions of communication and thesaurus. Naturally enough when communicating we inform others about something we know. That is in order to formulate a message; we use our system of interrelated data, which is called a thesaurus. We shall distinguish between two kinds of thesauruses in verbal communication: language thesaurus and subject thesaurus. Language thesaurus is a system of our knowledge about the language which we use to formulate a message, whereas subject thesaurus is a system of our knowledge about the content of the message.

So, in regular communication there are two actors, sender and recipient, and each of them uses two thesauruses (Although they use the same language their underlying knowledge bases may differ). In special bilingual communication (i.e. translation), we have three actors: sender, recipient, and intermediary (translator). The translator has two language thesauruses (source and target one) and performs two functions: decodes the source message and encodes the target one to be received by the recipient (end user of the translation).

One may note that the communicational approach pays special attention to the aspects of translation relating to the act of communication, whereas the translation process as such remains unspecified, and one may only presume that it proceeds either by a transformational or denotative path.

Task:

Answer the questions:

1. *What are the basic theoretical approaches to translation?*
2. *Review the terms “theoretical”, “descriptive” and “applied” as they refer to Translation Studies. Review the “map” of the discipline, proposed by Toury and Holmes.*
3. *Speak on the following key aspects of translation: a process, a product and a function.*
4. *What is translation according to the transformational approach?*

5. *What are the steps involved in translation according to the denotative approach?*

6. *What are the principal differences between transformational and denotative equivalencies?*

7. *What is translation according to the communicational approach?*

8. *What is the key to successful translation according to this approach?*

Discussion. State your own opinion upon the problem.

1. Is it enough for the translator to have profound and extensive experiences of one or more foreign languages? Is experience of the culture or cultures in which it is natively spoken essential?

2. How important is rich experience of your mother tongue (s)? Is it essential to be exposed to people who speak it in different regions, social classes, and professions?

3. Is extensive experience of a certain subject matter enough for the translator, if s/he has a rudimentary working knowledge of the foreign language a source text in that field is written in? If so, does that experience need to be hands-on practical experience of the field, experience of the objects and the people who handle them and the way those people speak about the objects? Or is it enough to have experience of books, articles, and coursework on that subject matter?

4. What roles should intuition play in translation? In what areas of translation it is the most important?

5. Investigate the use of other terms, such as ‘adaptation’, ‘version’ and ‘transcreation’. In what contexts are they used? How easy is it to define these terms? In the light of your findings, try to write a definition of ‘translation’

Заняття II.

II. TRANSLATION STUDIES TYPOLOGY. LITERARY AND LINGUISTIC TRANSLATION.

Nowadays researchers distinguish the two branches of pure translation studies: **descriptive translation studies** or translation description and **theoretical translation studies** or translation theory. Descriptive translation studies is the branch of the discipline which constantly maintains the closest contact with the empirical phenomena under study. There would seem to be three major kinds of research in DTS, which may be distinguished by their focus as:

1. product-oriented,
2. function-oriented,
3. and process-oriented.

Theoretical translation studies or translation theory, is, as its name implies, not interested in describing existing translations, observed translation functions, or experimentally determined translating processes, but in using the results of descriptive translation studies, in combination with the information available from related fields and disciplines, to evolve principles, theories, and models which will serve to explain and predict what translating and translations are and will be. Such theories may be:

1. rank restricted,
2. means restricted,
3. area restricted,
4. text - type restricted,
5. time restricted,
6. problem restricted.

Rank-restricted theories, for example are those, that deal with discourses or texts as wholes, but concern themselves with lower linguistic ranks or levels. Traditionally, a great deal of writing on translation was concerned almost entirely with the rank of the word, and the word and the word group are still the ranks at which much terminologically-oriented thinking about scientific and technological translation takes place. Most linguistically-oriented research, on the other hand, has until very recently taken the sentence as its upper rank limit, largely ignoring the macro-structural aspects of entire texts as translation problems. The clearly discernible trend away from sentential linguistics in the direction of textual linguistics will encourage linguistically-oriented theorists to move beyond sentence-restricted translation theories to the more complex task of developing text-rank (or “rank-free”) theories.

Rank restricted theories find their implementation through literary and linguistic approaches.

The most general difference between the literary and the linguistic approaches may be summed up like this:

1) Literary approach: studies the translation of works of art (i.e., works of outstanding writers, poets)

Linguistic: interests in a wide variety of text types (e.g., **technical and scientific texts, advertisements, users’ manuals**, as well as literary texts)

2) Literary: examines the work of **outstanding** translators

Linguistic: (also) interests in the everyday work of **great masses** of translators and interpreters.

3) Literary: focuses on **individual**, sometimes even unusual, original and surprising solutions

Linguistic: considers “mass” solutions worthy of inquiry too, trying to describe and explain all of the operations (transformations) carried out by the translator.

4) Literary: concentrates on the **product** of translation

Linguistic: explores the **process** of translation (what goes on in the mind of the translator)

5) Literary: **normative** (prescriptive) by nature → what translation should be like, what translators should do

Linguistic: **descriptive** → what translation is like and what the translator does while translating.

6) Literary: contains **evaluation**

Linguistic: **avoids evaluation** and regards everything that is intended as a translation as a legitimate object of study.

Concerning the results of translation, the following types of translation may be distinguished:

1. Literalism The translation follows the original word for word, or as close to that ideal as possible. The syntactic structure of the source text is painfully evident in the translation.

2. Foreignism The translation reads fairly fluently but has a slightly alien feel. One can tell, reading it, that it is a translation, not an original work.

3. Fluency The translation is so accessible and readable for the target-language reader as to seem like an original in the target language. It never makes the reader stop and reflect that this is in fact a translation.

4. Summary The translation covers the main points or "gist" of the original.

5. Commentary The translation unpacks or unfolds the hidden complexities of the original, exploring at length implications that remain unstated or half-stated in the original.

6. Summary-commentary The translation summarizes some passages briefly while commenting closely on others. The passages in the original that most concern the user are unpacked; the less important passages are summarized.

7. Adaptation The translation recasts the original so as to have the desired impact on an audience that is substantially different from that of the original; as when an adult text is adapted for children, a written text is adapted for television, or an advertising campaign designed to associate a product with sophistication uses entirely different images of sophistication in the source and target languages.

8. Encryption The translation recasts the original so as to hide its meaning or message from one group while still making it accessible to another group, which possesses the key. "Creative interpretation" signals the undeniable fact that all text-processing involves some degree of interpretation and thus some degree of creativity, and beyond that, the translator's sense that every target language is more or less resistant to his or her activities.

As to other branches of the studies closely related to translatology is the **methodology of translation teaching**, which develops the best curriculums and classes for translators training in educational centers as well as teaching methods, testing techniques, curriculum design.

Translation criticism performs the evaluation of translations, including the marking of student translations and the reviews of published translations.

TASKS

1) *Translate the portion of the text (from Kathryn Stockett The Help) both in literary and linguistic way. The scene represents conversation of two-colored helps. Try to render as close as possible the way they speak and the impact this scene should have upon a reader. Comment on the main differences in target texts. Mind the language they speak is rather colloquial and is not grammatically correct.*

The bus cross the bridge and make the first stop in the colored neighborhood. A dozen or so maids get off. I go set in the open seat next to Minny. She smile, bump me hello with her elbow. Then she relax back in her seat cause she don't have to put on no show for me.

"How you doing? You have to iron pleats this morning?"

I laugh, nod my head. "Took me a hour and a half."

"What you feed Miss Walters at bridge club today? I worked all morning making that fool a caramel cake and then she wouldn't eat a crumb."

That makes me remember what Miss Hilly say at the table today. Any other white lady and no one would care, but we'd all want a know if Miss Hilly after us. I just don't know how to put it.

I look out the window at the colored hospital go by, the fruit stand. "I think I heard Miss Hilly say something about that, bout her mama getting skinny." I say this careful as I can. "Say maybe she getting mal-nutritious."

Minny look at me. "She did, did she?" Just the name make her eyes narrow. "What else Miss Hilly say?"

I better just go on and say it. "I think she got her eye on you, Minny. Just . . . be extra careful around her."

"Miss Hilly ought to be extra careful around *me*. What she say, I can't cook? She say that old bag a bones ain't eating cause I can't feed her?" Minny stand up, throw her purse up on her arm.

“I’m sorry, Minny, I only told you so you stay out a her—”

“She ever say that to me, she gone get a piece a Minny for lunch.”

She huff down the steps.

I watch her through the window, stomping off toward her house. Miss Hilly ain’t somebody to mess with. Law, maybe I should a just kept it to myself.

2) *Make a table that shows what type of translation is the best one for certain communicative activities or literary genres or specific texts.*

3) *Find an English text with much implicit information and translate it with the help of commentary type.*

Perform a Test

What are the main criteria to classify translations?

A. Give definitions to the other branches of descriptive and theoretical translation studies.

B. Illustrate each branch of investigation with examples.

C. What types of translation exist as to formal principle?

D. What types of translation may be distinguished as to genre stylistic restrictions?

In modern translatology term ‘translation’ has:

A. A one established definition

B. B two opposite definitions

C. C three correlated definitions

D. D has no precise definition

In modern linguistic theory translation is considered as:

A. communicative transfer from one language into another one

B. production with the means of other language of a text which is communicatively equal to the original text

C. usage of two languages in communicative process

D. manifestation of bilingual activity in communicative process

Types of translation are classified according to:

A. Level of knowledge of a translator, volume of source text, types of translation transformations

B. Method of source text perception and target text production, level of translation equivalency, volume of source text

C. Method of source text perception and target text production, genre and stylistic features of source text, goal of translation, level of translation equivalency

D. Volume of source text, level of translation equivalency, types of translation transformations

According to the genre and stylistic characteristics of the source text such types of translation are distinguished:

- A. Faithful and literary translation
- B. Free and literary translation
- C. Informative and literary translation
- D. Simultaneous and literary translation

The main tasks of translatology are:

A. Study of the process of translation and its norms, systematization of regular translation equivalences, description of ways and methods of translation, research of the history of diplomatic relations

B. Study of the process of translation and its norms, systematization of regular translation equivalences, description of ways and methods of translation, research of the history of translation theory and practice

C. Systematization of regular translation equivalences, research of the history of translation theory and practice, study of language and its norms

D. Study of language and its norms, description of ways and methods of translation, research of the history of translation theory and practice

According to the level of equivalency there exist such types of translation:

A. Adequate, literal, free, verbal (syntactical assimilation), faithful (exact)

B. Simultaneous, adequate, literal, free, faithful (exact)

C. Sequential, literal, free, verbal (syntactical assimilation)

D. Literal and adequate.

Заняття III.

III. UNIT OF TRANSLATION AND PROBLEM OF EQUIVALENCY.

Translation unit is a segment of a text which the translator treats as a single cognitive unit for the purposes of establishing an equivalence. Traditionally a single word, a phrase, one or more sentences were treated like a translation unit but nowadays most researchers consider text as a main unit of translation.

The term text may be seen as the way of sentences sequence, formally organized to serve certain purposes like narrating, informing, arguing etc. What the 'text analyst' is primarily concerned with would be the analysis of such textual phenomena as sequential relationships, intersentential structure, and text organization.

Texts acquire efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness when they occur within a variety of genres. A genre is defined as a mode of using

language conventionally and in a manner appropriate to given communicative occasions and to the goals of the participants in them. In translation theories which use the text model, the units ‘text’ and ‘genre’ have been seen to perform an ‘enabling’ function, that is, to facilitate the expression of attitudinal meanings within discursive practices (e.g. a racist or sexist attitude). Discourse is defined as institutionalized modes of speaking and writing which give expression to particular attitudes towards areas of socio-cultural activity. In other words, discourse involves the way a text’s formal organization becomes contextually motivated. What the ‘discourse analyst’ is interested in would thus be processing activities such as negotiating and interpreting sequences and structures, and examining the social relationships which emanate from interaction.

To translate texts properly we should work within equivalence frameworks. *Translation equivalence* may be achieved at any or all of the following levels:

1. SL and TL words having similar orthographic or phonological features (formal equivalence);
2. SL and TL words referring to the same thing in the real world (referential or denotative equivalence)
3. SL and TL words triggering the same or similar associations in the minds of speakers of the two languages (connotative equivalence),
4. SL and TL words being used in the same or similar contexts in their respective languages (text-normative equivalence),
5. SL and TL words having the same effect on their respective readers (pragmatic or dynamic equivalence).

Formal vs textual equivalence

In his linguistic theory of translation, the British linguist and translation theorist J.C. Catford (1965) argues that one of the central tasks of translation theory must be ‘defining the nature and conditions of translation **equivalence**’. Equivalence is here taken to be the basis on which source language (SL) textual material is ‘replaced’ by target language (TL) textual material. Translation is considered ‘an operation performed on languages: a process of *substituting* a text in one language for a text in another’. The reference to ‘substitution’ in this definition is important. According to Catford, we do not ‘transfer’ meaning between languages; we merely ‘replace’ a source language meaning by a target language meaning that can **function** in the same way in the situation at hand. This is achieved either through ‘formal correspondence’ or through what Catford calls ‘textual equivalence’.

In Catford’s theory of translation, *formal* correspondence involves adhering as closely as possible to the linguistic form of the source text. It

covers **formal** relationships which exist when 'a TL category can be found which occupies the "same" place in the "economy" of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL' - for example, translating an adjective by an adjective. Where this is not the case, *textual* equivalence will be aimed for. This obtains when any TL text or portion of text is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text.

Four 'levels' or 'planes' of language are recognised: the phonological, graphological, grammatical and lexical. In addition, four of the fundamental categories of linguistic theory are recognised: class (e.g. adjective, adverb), structure (e.g. subject-verb-complement), system (e.g. singular, plural) and unit or rank (e.g. morpheme, sentence).

Translation shifts

When translation cannot be carried out by adhering closely to the linguistic form of the source text, textual equivalence is achieved through 'translation shifts'. The concept of 'shift' is defined in terms of departures 'from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL'. Two major types of shift are identified: 'level shift' and 'category shift'.

Level shift occurs when an SL item has a TL translation equivalent at a different linguistic level from its own (grammatical, lexical, etc.). For example, source text word play achieved at the phonological level may be translated by exploiting the possibilities of the lexical level in the target language.

Category shift is a generic term referring to shifts involving any of the four categories of class, structure, system and unit (e.g. ST adjectival phrase becomes an adverbial phrase in the TT).

Category shifts involve:

1. a 'class shift', when an SL item is translated by means of a TL item belonging to a different grammatical class - for example, the adjective in medical student becomes an adverbial phrase in the French or Arabic equivalent 'student in medicine';
2. a 'structure shift' involving a change in grammatical structure between ST and target text TT - for example, John loves Mary becomes 'Is love at John on Mary' in Gaelic;
3. a 'unit shift' where a strict rank-for-rank correspondence between SL and TL sentences, clauses, groups, words and morphemes is not observed - for example, the English definite article translated by a change in word order in Ukrainian;
4. an 'intra-system shift' which occurs when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system - this is regardless of whether the SL and TL possess systems which approximately correspond

formally - for example, an SL 'singular' becomes a TL 'plural', although both number systems are available in both languages.

The two kinds of shift are not mutually exclusive all the time. A translation through level shift could, on a different occasion or by a different translator, be achieved through category shift.

Pragmatic equivalence.

This type of equivalence is taken to be a relative concept in that it is subject, on the one hand, to the historical-cultural conditions under which texts and their translations are produced and received, and, on the other hand, to a variety of potentially conflicting linguistic-textual and extratextual factors and circumstances.

TASKS

I. Study the other type of equivalence topology and exemplify differences between this Vinay and Darbelnet's and Catford's.

Vinay and Darbelnet and their definition of equivalence.

Vinay and Darbelnet view equivalence-oriented translation as a procedure which 'replicates the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording'. They also suggest that, if this procedure is applied during the translation process, it can maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text. According to them, equivalence is therefore the ideal method when the translator has to deal with proverbs, idioms, clichés, nominal or adjectival phrases and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds. With regard to equivalent expressions between language pairs, Vinay and Darbelnet claim that they are acceptable as long as they are listed in a bilingual dictionary as 'full equivalents'. However, later they note that glossaries and collections of idiomatic expressions 'can never be exhaustive'. They conclude by saying that 'the need for creating equivalences arises from the situation, and it is in the situation of the SL text that translators have to look for a solution'. Indeed, they argue that even if the semantic equivalent of an expression in the SL text is quoted in a dictionary or a glossary, it is not enough, and it does not guarantee a successful translation. They provide a number of examples to prove their theory, and the following expression appears in their list: *Take one* is a fixed expression which would have as an equivalent translation *Візьміть один (одну) або Дубль перший*. However, if the expression appeared as a notice next to a basket of free samples in a large store, the translator would have to look for an equivalent term in a similar situation and use the expression *Безкоштовно*.

II. Study the following Vinay and Darbelnet's "The translation touch-stone" logical modulations and give your examples per each item.

Abstract for concrete.

He was a love of all my life.

Він був єдиним коханим чоловіком всього мого життя. (Єдиним коханням – поетичний, а не розмовний реєстр)

Part – whole.

He saw her in her *short sleeves*.

Він побачив її в *сорочці з короткими рукавами*.

Lisa prepared *dish stew, stuffed peppers, rolls*.

Лізі приготувала *смачні страви*.

Quality for object.

If look in *sewing* direction

Якщо дивитись у напрямку руху *тканини*.

Ms Duncan is a very *pretty*.

Пані Дунган – надзвичайна *красуня*.

He *lived very long* and was very *wise*.

Він прожив *довге життя* і був *справжнім мудрецем*.

Quality for action.

She was very *kind* and *attentive* to me.

Тільки вона могла мене *вислухати*.

Her grief was *bound less*.

Її горе *не виміряти нічим*.

Peter was very *whining* child.

Пітер в дитинстві весь час *хникав і скиглив*.

Part – another part.

Bobby lives for principle “*eye for eye*”.

Бобі (а не око за око – стиль Біблії) живе за принципом “зуб за зуб”.

When the see all this evil, he is *losing head*.

Коли він бачить все це зло, у нього *опускаються руки*.

Ronald locked *the door*.

Рональд закрив *машину*.

Reversal of terms.

He was 2 yards height.

Він був під 2 метри ростом.

It gonna take you *fifteen minutes* to come.

Це десь за *нів кілометри* звідси.

It's a *vacuum* tube amplifier.

Цей підсилювач на *електронних* лампах.

Negation of opposite.

He hates to tell a lie.

Він любить говорити правду.

“Tell me something, Olga” asked Irena.

“Не мовчи, Ольга” – просила Ірина.

“Don’t cry, dear” Edward said.

“Витри сльози, кохана” – сказав Едвард.

Active to passive.

After being jobless *he sold* his house.

Будинок був проданий після того, як він втратив роботу.

My favorite cup *was broken* by the cat.

Кішка розбила мою улюблену чашку.

Space (weight etc.) for time.

They passed to the house two bus stops later than hers.

Вони прийшли до будинку на дві зупинки далі від її власного.

An ounce of practice is worth a pound of theory.

День практики вартий року теорії.

But it was different here.

Цього разу все було інакше.

Space (an object, quality) for action.

Phillis is said to be long talker.

Кажуть, Філі торочить і торочить.

Ronald spent half a day in a train to get to the mansion.

Рональд півдня добирався до маєтку залізницею.

Rethinking of intervals and limits (in space and time).

Dark, wet, cold, rainy autumn was already knocking at the door.

Холодна, дощова (темна, мокра) осінь вже була на порозі.

Night came slowly from east and west, south and north.

Ніч наступала повільно з усіх сторін.

Cause – effect.

Mr Brown lost a very rare library’s book.

Містера Брауна розшукували з бібліотеки.

Yana has dropped a key.

Яна підняла ключ. (не може зайти в квартиру...)

Change of symbol (including fixed and new metaphors).

Where you are, the ducky of my life?

Де ти є, голубонько моя?

When he allowed himself to be flown back to Palermo, he was consciously putting his head in the Bear’s mouth.

Коли він вирішив повернутися до Палермо, він свідомо засунув свою голову “до пащеки лева”.

He is such a pain!

З ним одна морока!

Perform a test:

1 Equivalence is:

A. linguistic concept connected only with semantic, lexical and syntactical characteristics of source text and target text

B. multilevel concept connected with semantic, structural, functional, communicative, pragmatic, genre and stylistic characteristics of source text and target text

C. multilevel concept connected with semantic, syntactical and structural characteristics of source text and target text

D. literary concept connected with genre, stylistic and pragmatic characteristics of source text and target text

2 Level of equivalence is:

A. degree of semantic similarity between source text and target text

B. degree of functional and stylistic similarity between source text and target text

C. degree of semantic similarity between source text and target text, defined by the translator

D. degree of functional and stylistic similarity between source text and target text, defined by the author of original text

3 Modern translatology distinguishes:

A. two types of equivalence

B. three types of equivalence

C. four types of equivalence

D. five types of equivalence

4 In modern translatology the concept of equivalency is:

A. central concept which discovers main peculiarities of translation

B. additional concept which discovers one of the peculiarities of translation

C. necessary concept which discovers methods of translation

D. sufficient concept which discovers main peculiarities of linguistic translation

5 Communicative equivalence of source text and target text has:

A. Semantic, grammatical and structural aspects

B. functional and semantic aspects

C. lexical and grammatical aspects

D. functional, semantic and structural aspects

Заняття IV.

IV. TRANSLATION STUDIES AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

The relationship between linguistics and translation

The relationship of linguistics to translation can be twofold: one can apply the findings of linguistics to the practice of translation, and one can have a linguistic theory of translation, as opposed, say, to a literary, economic or somatic theory of translation.

In the first instance, a subdivision of linguistics such as sociolinguistics may have something to say about the relation of language to social situation, and what it has to say can consequently be applied in the act of translating. For example, in a novel a northern English dialect is used in the dialogue, and this should in theory be translated differently from the non-dialectal language of the narrative. This poses a problem, however, since many cultures either do not have a dialect which has comparable cultural functions or connotations or they quite simply do not permit the use of dialect in the written language. In the French translation the regional dialect is replaced by a sociolect, that is a dialect which is characteristic of a social rather than a regional group. In other translations, the dialectal feature may simply disappear, unless the translator is willing to assume the risky role of trail-blazer. Linguistics can provide some, but not all, of the information on which to base the decision of how to handle dialects and similar features in translation.

In the second instance, rather than applying linguistic theory to elements within the text to be translated, one can apply it to the entire concept of translation itself. Thus, it can be said that Eugene Nida's theory of dynamic equivalence is, in fact, nothing less than a sociolinguistics of translation. By focusing the translation process on the target-text receiver, who differs from the source-text receiver in language, culture, world knowledge and text expectations in the same way that a northern blue collar worker differs from a southern stockbroker compatriot, we are invited to see the translation process as one of adapting the source-language text to a different social group with what one might, for the sake of terminological comparability, call its own 'natiolect'.

The most famous example of the second approach is Catford's linguistic theory of translation. This is on the whole quite disappointing, its main weakness being that Catford's model never goes beyond the sentence to incorporate the text as a unit of meaning. It does, however, remain one of the very few truly original attempts to give a systematic description of translation from a linguistic point of view. Catford sees language as a set of systems operating at different levels. This view allows him to define the conditions of textual equivalence as opposed to formal correspondence and to describe broad translation types using three sets of criteria:

- 1) in terms of the extent of translation, Catford distinguishes between full translation, where the entire text is submitted to the translation

process and ‘every part of the SL text is replaced by TL text material’, and partial translation, where ‘some part or parts of the SL text are left untranslated’. This is not a technical distinction but one which Catford adopts in order to avoid confusion between the nontechnical sense of partial and the technical way in which he uses the term restricted translation.

2) in terms of the levels of language involved in translation, a distinction is drawn between total translation and restricted translation. In total translation, which is what is generally meant by translation, all the linguistic levels of the source text are replaced by target-language material. EQUIVALENCE in this type of translation is normally only achieved at the level of grammar and lexis, and Catford therefore defines total translation as the ‘replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology/ graphology by TL phonology/graphology’. In restricted translation, on the other hand, there is ‘replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL textual material at only one level’. There are two main types of restricted translation: phonological translation and graphological translation. Restricted translation at the grammatical level or lexical level only is ‘difficult if not impossible’ because of the interdependence of grammar and lexis. Catford also stresses that there can be no restricted translation at the interlevel of context because ‘there is no way in which we can replace SL “contextual units” by equivalent TL “contextual units” without simultaneously replacing SL grammatical/ lexical units by equivalent TL grammatical/ lexical units’.

3) in terms of the grammatical or phonological rank at which translation equivalence is established, Catford distinguishes between rank-bound translation, which involves a deliberate attempt to consistently select TL equivalents at the same rank in the hierarchy of grammatical units, for example at the rank of morpheme, word, group, clause or sentence , and unbounded translation, where equivalences ‘shunt up and down the rank scale, but tend to be at the higher ranks – sometimes between larger units than the sentence’.

Applied linguistics and the translation analyst

In applied linguistics, it is now generally accepted that what is applied in teaching or research is not so much knowledge about language as it is a way of investigating language. The identity of what exactly is being applied tends to be of secondary importance, compared with how the application might best be effected and for what purpose.

From an applied linguistic perspective, it is thus the how and, perhaps more important, the why of an application that should underpin any serious attempt to deal with translation. In this applied sense, a range of characteristics generally associated with sound scientific practice would be

adhered to: objectivity, comprehensiveness, explicitness, precision. Theoretical statements would also be valued, taking into account not only the 'facts' which one's methodology uncovers, but also how the facts may best be systematised and explained.

But no sooner is the issue of 'responsibility' resolved than another arises, this time relating to constituency. Language or translation analysts constantly come up against the question of whether groupings such as 'practitioners' or 'learners' are sufficiently homogeneous to yield meaningful generalisations about what the problem is. The issue at stake is complex and has a great deal to do with the varying degrees of awareness that members of a professional group bring to a task.

This 'awareness' factor influences the process of problem solving considerably. In terms of level of awareness regarding the nature of the problems encountered, two types of practitioners are generally recognised. Among trainees or in the workplace, for instance, there are those whose training has focused on such issues as the relevance of theoretical statements and the need for abstract models of description. However, there will also be those whose apprenticeship has all but excluded the benefits of a training that is theoretically oriented. The two groups will have different notions of what constitutes a 'problem', and this will make generalizations difficult to sustain.

Discourse-based findings relating to the specific context of medical gate-keeping encounters, and identified three interactionally grounded modes of talk: professional, institutional and personal experience. These theoretical, discourse analytic categories were then discussed with the practitioners concerned, and subsequently used as parameters with which to ascertain whether such distinctions were actually picked up and ultimately used as a investigative for dealing with practical issues.

Reflective practice

Donald Schon was among the first to call into question such time-honored distinctions as theory vs practice, and technical rationality vs craft knowledge. In developing professional excellence, practitioners need to reconsider the role of traditionally highly valued 'technical knowledge' (the mainstay of 'technical rationality'), and to reinstate largely undervalued 'artistry' (knowledge as 'artful doing'). It is only then, Schon stressed, that the dilemma 'rigor' vs 'relevance' may be resolved, with the practitioner beginning to exhibit not only 'expertise' but also 'criticalness', as crucial elements of his or her professional portfolio. Reflective practice, then, is a process of reflecting on action as part of continuous, lifelong learning. In this way, reflective practice would entail 'paying critical attention to the practical values and theories which inform everyday actions, by examining practice reflectively and reflexively. This leads to developmental insight'.

Another crucial set of concepts promoted by Schon relates to 'reflection-in-action' and 'reflection-on-action'. Reflection-in-action is a form of intuitive knowledge which enables practitioners, when faced with a professional challenge, essentially to connect with their feelings, emotions and prior experiences, including attending to 'theories in use'. Reflection-on-action, on the other hand, is by definition post-experience, involving practitioners stepping back from the situation at hand and to analyse their reaction, explore the reasons for the way they reacted the way they did, and assess the consequences of their actions. This is usually carried out though a documented reflection of the situation.

Action research: The theory-practice cycle

It is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, and the situations in which the practices are carried out.

This is a standard definition of action research: an initial idea, followed by fact-finding, action plan, implementation, monitoring and revision, amended plan and so on. The cycle ensures that research is participant-driven, reflective, collaborative and of the type which leads to change. The change will impinge not only on how knowledge is acquired, but also on the context that motivates the enquiry in the first place. The basic premise underlying this new research focus on 'reflective practice' is that the practitioner may now be seen as someone with a portfolio of skills which includes, most notably, an enquiring mind.

Translation studies has been rather slow to interact with these developments, a situation that has been exacerbated by the polarization of theory and practice cast in terms of two quite distinct and incompatible universes of discourse. Recently, however, such stark distinctions have been fast disappearing and the 'action' vs 'reflection' dichotomy is being increasingly called into question. Translation studies is genuinely seeking to promote the stance that research is not only something done to or on practitioners, but is also something done by practitioners.

Tasks

1. *Compile a bibliography of 4-5 sources for each concept. Study given sources. Name the chapters that correspond the topic.*
2. *Write 2-3 quotes from the works for each of the concepts given.*
3. *Render each paragraph of the lecture just in one or two sentences the way you understand it. Rephrase some terms or give synonyms when possible. Example:*

Applied linguistics studies language itself and methods to investigate it. It leaves beyond the study what concrete language units were

used in translation (or just in a text) and what was the pragmatic goal of it, and what was the result of such usage; in other words it skips practical tasks.

Question number two: how applied linguistics can influence translation. It can do it helping to gain objective material (linguistic facts) to render texts' denotative sense, to make them unambiguous, explicit and faithful. It also can help to systematize theoretical postulates of translation.

Applied linguistics should take more attention towards social problems i.e. - relationship between translation and a person, certain cultural groups and certain historical epochs.

Linguistic theories dealing with discourse proved that for translation studies questions of professional skills, institutional points (or personal goals, or abilities to organize the work...) as well as personal experience are of the greatest importance.

Then reflective practice goes (Donald Schon was among the first to call into...)

4. *Write an analytical abstract of 2-3 pages about the topic.*
5. *Compare the views found in the with your own understanding of the concept and argue its objectivity or controversy.*
6. *How applied linguistics can contribute to the study of translating and translations*
7. *List the stereotyped character traits of your country, your region, your group (gender, class, race, education level, etc.). Next list user-oriented ideals for the translator — the personal characteristics that would make a translator "good" or "reliable" in the eyes of a non-translating employer or client. Now compare the lists, paying special attention to the mismatches — the character traits that would make people like you "unqualified" for the translation field — and discuss the transformations that would be required in either the people who want to be translators or in society's thinking about translation to make you a good translator.*
8. *Work in small groups to list as many different types of translation user (including the same user in different use situations) as you can. Then identify the type of text reliability that each would be likely to favor — what each would want a "good" translation to do, or be like.*
9. *Break up into groups of three, in each group a source-language user, a target-language user, and a translator. Take a translation use-situation from this chapter and try to negotiate (a) who is going to commission and pay for the translation, the source or target user or both (who stands to benefit most from it? which user has economic power over the other?) and (b) how much money is available to pay the translator (will the translator, who is a professional, do it for that money?).*

Discussion: State your own opinion per each item.

1. The ethics of translation has often been thought to consist of the translator assuming an entirely external perspective on his or her work, thinking about it purely from the user's point of view: thinking, for example, that accuracy is the only possible goal of translation; that the translator has no right to a personal opinion or interpretation; that the finished product, the translated text, is the only thing that matters. What other ethical considerations are important? Is it possible to allow translators their full humanity — their opinions, interpretations, likes and dislikes, enthusiasms and boredoms — while still insisting on ethical professional behavior that meets users' expectations? Or just linguistics is important?

2. Translators are usually, and understandably, hostile toward machine translation systems, which promise clients enormous increases in speed at a fraction of the cost of human translation. Translators typically point to the low quality or reliability of machine-translated texts, but in some technical fields, where style is not a high priority, the use of constrained source languages (specially written so as to be unambiguous for machine parsing) makes reliability possible along with speed and low cost. How should translators meet this challenge? Translate faster and charge less? Retrain to become pre- and post-editors of machine translation texts? Learn to translate literature?

Заняття V.

V. TEXT-CENTRIC CONCEPT OF TRANSLATION. SKOPOS THEORY BY KATHARINA REISS.

Text-centric concept of translation treats the translator as a creator of texts with certain pragmatic purposes. This concept, which is called "skopos-theory" (skopos - purpose), proceeds from the fact that the success of translation, like any practical activity, depends on the degree to which the purpose is achieved. In some cases, the purpose of the translation can be achieved while as close as possible to the original, in other cases, the translation text is created in order to inform the recipient of certain information, convince him of something, achieve a deal, mislead him, etc.

At the same time, the translator acts not as a simple intermediary, but as a language consultant, a specialist who knows the language, culture, economy etc. of the certain country well and is able to create the text that is needed for successful contacts with representatives of this country.

Given the paramount role of the text in translation, researchers are trying to develop a translation typology of texts to reflect differences in the overall strategy of the translator, different degrees of reproduction of

individual elements or functions of the original, and the role of the translator as the creator of the translated text.

An example of an attempt to link the classification of original texts with the translator's strategy is the concept of the German researcher Katharina Reiss. She considers written texts and texts put in writing (material for translating purposes) as "one-way communication". This means, on the one hand, that non-linguistic elements contributing to oral communication (gestures, facial expressions, speed of speech, intonation, etc.) are partly verbalized. On the other hand, the text analysis is made more difficult by the limitation of the possibilities of explicit verbalization of such elements as well as by the spatio-temporal separation between addresser and addressee and the lack of feedback during the act of communication; these factors lead, among other reasons, to a variable understanding of a given text.

Any text bears "intention" - speech purpose, speech aim, motive leading to language communication. Through the intention, verbalized by the author in his text, this text receives a communicative function. In order to be able to establish the intention the translator should determine to which text-type and text-variety (relevant for translating) the given text belongs. Written texts may have single or plural intentions. Plural intentions may be of the same rank and order. (Intention 1—to convey a rule; Intention 2—to facilitate remembering by giving the text an artistic form; Intention 3—to "sweeten" the learning process by giving the text a pleasing form). Mostly, however, one intention (and, with it, the text function) is dominant.

Katharina Reiss proposes to distinguish three types of texts:

- in the first type, the function of description dominates – informative type,
- in the second - expressions – expressive type,
- in the third - appeal – operative type.

After having established text type, translating process starts with the phase of analysis. In order to place a functionally equivalent TL text beside an SL text the translator should clarify the functions of the SL text. This may be done in a three-stage-process, which may, in principle, be carried out either by starting from the smallest textual unit and ending with the text as a whole, or by beginning with the text as a whole and ending with the analysis of the smallest textual unit.

Text function proceeding from the largest to the smallest unit:

- a. The particular frequency of words and phrases of evaluation (positive for the addresser or for the cause to which he has committed himself; negative for any obstacle to his commitment), the particular frequency of certain rhetorical figures may, among other factors, lead to the conclusion that the text is operative.

b. “The feature that speech elements are capable of pointing beyond themselves to a significance of the whole”, “the principle of linkage” (rhymes, leit-motifs, parallelisms, rhythm, etc.) and the “transformation of the material of reality” may lead to the conclusion that the text belongs to the expressive type.

c. Should the elements quoted under a. and b. be absent, the conclusion may be that the text is informative.

The second stage of the analysis aims at the establishment of the text variety, i.e., the classification of a given text according to specifically structured sociocultural patterns of communication belonging to specific language communities.

Third stage of the analysis: the analysis of style (the analysis of a particular textual surface). Let style in this connection be understood to mean the ad hoc selection of linguistic signs and of their possibilities of combination supplied by the language system. The use of language in a given SL text is investigated in order to clarify in detail, firstly, what linguistic means are used to realize specific communicative functions, and, secondly, how the text is constructed.

From now on the type and the function of the text determines translation strategies and the phase of verbalization (translation) goes. If the SL text is written to convey contents (commercial, scientific, business, etc.) mode of translating should be as follows: translation according to the sense and meaning in order to maintain the invariability of the content. To this end it may be necessary that what is conveyed implicitly in the SL text should be explicated in the TL and vice versa. This necessity arises, on the one hand, from structural differences in the two languages involved, and, on the other hand, from differences in the collective pragmatics of the two language communities involved.

If the SL text is written in order to convey artistic contents, then the contents in the TL should be conveyed in an analogously artistic organization. The translator identifies with the artistic and creative intention of the SL author in order to maintain the artistic quality of the text.

If the SL text is written to convey persuasively structured contents in order to trigger off impulses of behavior, then the contents conveyed in the TL must be capable of triggering off analogous impulses of behavior in the TL reader.

(Black is beautiful! This slogan appearing in English in a German sales promotion could not be retained in the translation into English of a whole sales promoting text, if that text is intended for South African buyers). Mode of translating here is adaptive translating. The psychological

mechanisms of the use of persuasive language should be adapted to the needs of the new language community.

In later works the researcher adds to the criteria necessary for text analysis and translation “extra linguistic determinants” that is: situation, subject of communication, time and space, individual features of the author’s style, idiosyncrasies of the addressee, implications etc. She doesn’t consider textual and functional correspondence of the target text to the original text as demand for translation. Still less attention is paid to the linguistic features of the original text. The main and practically unique criterion for translation turns the purpose of translation. Here Skopos theory appear. Any human activity has a purpose to be reached and if the purpose is reached in translation the translation is treated like adequate though it may not be linguistically equivalent. In some cases, the purpose of translation maybe those to reach linguistic equivalence but in other cases it could be different one, for example to inform addressee or to persuade addressee, mislead someone etc.

Katharina Reiss’s impact to translation studies theory is that it holds broader than just linguistic set of functions performed by translator and describes diverse purposes of translation activity.

TASK

1. Compile a bibliography of 4-5 sources for skopos theory concept. Name the chapters from books that correspond the topic.

2. Write 4-5 quotes from the works you find the most useful for practice of translation.

3. Write an analytical abstract of 2-3 pages about the topic. What are the main drawbacks of Skopos approach?

4. Compare the views found in the sources with your own understanding of the concept and argue its objectivity or controversy.

5. Study the main divergences that exist between English and Ukrainian texts. Give your own examples per each item:

Basic allomorphic linguistic features, one may find in Ukrainian and English texts.

1. Ukrainian belongs to a group of syntactical languages, where complicated ideas, grammatical relations and shades of meanings are often ‘pressed into’ one word. English is an analytical language, where complicated senses are ‘puzzled’ by two or more words.

Let consider the word «зівонитися» that implies a set of different senses: two or more persons settled to call each other, this intended action will happen later on, no one offered to take the initiative to call first. In particular context, this word may as well denote time, number (singular or plural), gender (only in Past Tense) and some other features In English all these categories may be rendered just with a help of two or more words.

Moira moved rapidly away. Bobby sprang up to catch her, but Frankie pushed him firmly back... *Мойра відсахнулася, Боббі скочив за нею, та Франкі відштовхнув його...*

2. Ukrainian possesses many impersonal sentences, indefinite-personal constructions, passive and reflexive constructions (*прорвало трубу, потрібно, знесло гараж, забули попередити тощо*) while English mostly uses personal sentences or constructions with the active subject (*the pressure (an excavator) broke the pipe, I [Helen, you, teacher...] need(s), the wind blew off the garage, students forgot to warn...*). Thus, tendency characterizes not only the colloquial style of speech but also the bookish one (*спостерігається, мова йде про, відомо-*). In such a case, a translator should find or even create the proper subject and predicate to make the translated sentence sound English. (*Увійшли в практику наради експертів. Student's regular activities included meetings of experts*)

3. In Ukrainian (particularly in official style) nouns and verbal nouns predominate and often, as a consequence of this, genitive is used. In English verbal system is more developed and verbs are of very frequent use. A translator into English may either omit verbal nouns with no concrete meaning either substitute some of nouns with verbs or both. A nominative cluster with the left definition may be used as well to avoid genitive.

Завершено забезпечення виконання плану заготівель зерна. The ministry fulfilled the plan of grain production. Минулі десять років відзначені проведенням низки досліджень фізико-хімічних характеристик таких речовин. The past decade has brought about a number of investigations into the physical and chemical characteristics of these substances.

4. Ukrainian often ‘prohibits’ something that may be observed from the frequent use of negative participle «не» and different negative constructions. English being a language of positive thinking mostly ‘allows’ something, negative constructions being of rare use. *Ви не знаєте...? - could you tell me; не зникай - keep in touch, не менш важливою- equally important, вхід заборонено -stuff only.*

5. Ukrainian text is always longer (up to 30-50%) than the corresponding English one. Comparing to Ukrainian speakers who tend to extend their simple sentences or extend them to compound or complex sentences, English speaking persons construct communication with the help of rather short and informative sentences. That is why a translator into English should sometimes apply the method of outer partition to make texts sound more energetic and analytical

6. In Ukrainian the simple modality prevails, when ideas, personal opinions, requests etc. are said directly, or even ‘strait between the eyes’.

Such communicative approach may seem not polite enough in English speaking countries. In English such the modality prevails that expresses probability, possibility, doubt, permission and other ethical concepts (I would think, apparently, seems to, presumably etc.) While rendering into Ukrainian a translator should simplify or sometimes omit complicated modal constructions to avoid the possible impression of extra politeness. While rendering into English a translator must apply different modal constructions to avoid the possible effect of coarseness.

7. In Ukrainian word order influences the whole meaning of a sentence or at least its logical stress. Fixed word order in English is unable to express mentioned communicative features; a translator can only vary the communicative structure (theme - rheme) of English sentence. Other sense nuances are given lexically or using the focusing intonation.

8. Among smaller differences the first one to be mention is that in English time being qualities are usually expressed by the construction to be + adjective (*she is late; your words are inspiring; he is ill*). In Ukrainian we represent such qualities mostly by verbs (*вона запізнюється; ваші слова надихають; він хворіє* (не “хворий” - це постійна якість)).

Заняття VI.

VI. BRIDGING CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC DIFFERENCES NIDA AND TABER: FORMAL CORRESPONDENCE AND DYNAMIC EQUIVALENCE

Based largely on a sociolinguistic theory of translation, the work of the American scholar and Bible translator Eugene Nida represents another landmark in translation studies. The emphasis here is on the relationships between language, culture and society and on how some of the more practical insights yielded by linguistic analysis may be functionally applied to the study of translation. This has meant that the narrow focus on linguistic meaning and structure widens considerably to take in a variety of contextual factors.

Nida argued that there are two different types of equivalence, namely *formal equivalence*—which in the second edition by Nida and Taber (1982) is referred to as *formal correspondence*—and *dynamic equivalence*. Formal correspondence 'focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content', unlike dynamic equivalence which is based upon 'the principle of equivalent effect'.

Formal correspondence consists of a target language item which represents the closest equivalent of a source language word or phrase. Nida

and Taber make it clear that there are not always formal equivalents between language pairs. They therefore suggest that these formal equivalents should be used wherever possible if the translation aims at achieving formal rather than dynamic equivalence. Nida and Taber themselves assert that 'Typically, formal correspondence distorts the grammatical and stylistic patterns of the receptor language, and hence distorts the message, so as to cause the receptor to misunderstand or to labor unduly hard'.

Dynamic equivalence is defined as a translation principle according to which a translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original in such a way that the target language wording will trigger the same impact on the target audience as the original wording did upon the source audience. They argue that 'Frequently, the form of the original text is changed; but as long as the change follows the rules of back transformation in the source language, of contextual consistency in the transfer, and of transformation in the receptor language, the message is preserved and the translation is faithful'.

One can easily see that Nida is in favour of the application of dynamic equivalence, as a more effective translation procedure.

Dynamic equivalence procedures thus include:

- Substituting more **appropriate** target-language cultural material for less accessible source-language items.
- Making references which are implicit in the source text linguistically explicit in the target language.
- Exploiting the possibilities of **redundancy** in order to facilitate comprehension.

The translator should be more interested in trying to 'relate the receptor to modes of behaviour relevant within the **context** of his own culture'. That is, these translators will be much less concerned with matching the receptor language message with the source-language message than with preserving the intended effect.

In Nida's scheme, the distinction 'formal' vs 'dynamic' equivalence is seen in a slightly different light from that of traditional dichotomies such as '**free**' vs '**literal**'. The equivalence relations involved are described in terms of a number of procedures, including 'adjustment'.

Adjustment includes a set of modification techniques aimed at upholding translation equivalence and, in the process, ensuring that the target language version is accessible. Adjustment may involve ironing out structural differences, establishing semantic harmony, achieving stylistic appropriateness and taking care of problems associated with what communication theorists call the 'information load'.

The process of translation

Alongside the sociolinguistic focus explained above, the seeds of what is now more commonly known as the ‘psycholinguistics of translation’ can also be seen clearly in Nida’s simple, yet insightful three-stage model of the translation process and of the constraints at work. It is within the ambit of this approach, generally believed to be directly influenced by **transformational-generative linguistics** (e.g. Chomsky, 1965), that Nida’s central thesis concerning equivalence and text-receiver response may best be appreciated and appraised.

Analysis

Analysis begins with a set of procedures which are employed in ‘discovering the **kernels** underlying the source text and the clearest understanding of the meaning, in preparation for the transfer’

Kernels are the basic structural elements to which syntactically more elaborate surface structures of a language can be reduced. Underlying the procedure of kernel analysis is a theory of **semantics**: kernels are realised by sequences of items belonging to four basic categories:

- Object words (nouns referring to physical objects including human beings).
- Event words (including actions represented by verbs).
- Abstracts (words relaying features of objects, events, other abstracts).
- Relationals (linguistic items functioning as linking devices).

Kernel sentences are derived from **actual** sentences by means of a variety of techniques, including **back-transformation** and **componential analysis**. In explicating grammatical relationships, source text surface structures are ‘paraphrased’ into formulae capturing how elements from the various categories are combined. Referential meaning, on the other hand, is handled by means of an analysis which isolates shared and contrastive features exhibited by the semantic range of given items in the original message. This kind of analysis, what is traditionally designated as a ‘thing-word’ (a noun), for example, may turn out to **function** as an ‘event’.

Transfer

Transfer is the stage ‘in which the analysed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from language A to language B’. The translator has the kernels to work with and, in the light of his or her knowledge of target-language structure, these are modified until a form is settled on which ‘will be optimal for transfer into the receptor language’. But, kernel elements (e.g. ‘event’ words and the way they combine with other elements) do not occur in a conceptual vacuum. They will somehow be marked temporally, spatially and logically.

Restructuring

In addition to analysis and transfer, the third and final stage in the process of translation is 'restructuring' the transferred material, which until now exists only in the form of **kernel** sentences. What is needed is a mechanism by which the input that has accrued so far may be transformed into a 'stylistic form **appropriate** to the receptor language and to the intended receptors'. Another important aim of the restructuring process is to ensure that the impact which the translation is to have on its intended receptors is in line with what the source-text producer has intended: 'any message which does not communicate is useless'. Thus it is only when a translation produces in the receiver a response which is essentially the same as that of the original audience that the translation can be considered dynamically equivalent to its source text.

TASKS

I. Read the following extract from Eugene Nida and Charles Taber, *The*

Theory and Practice of Translation (1969):

The best translation does not sound like a translation. Quite naturally one cannot and should not make the Bible sound as if it happened in the next town ten years ago, for the historical context of the Scriptures is important, and one cannot remake the Pharisees and Sadducees into present-day religious parties, nor does one want to, for one respects too much the historical setting of the incarnation. In other words, a good translation of the Bible must not be a "cultural translation." Rather, it is a "linguistic translation." Nevertheless, this does not mean that it should exhibit in its grammatical and stylistic forms any trace of awkwardness or strangeness. That is to say, it should studiously avoid "translationese" — formal fidelity, with resulting unfaithfulness to the content and the impact of the message.

II. Work in groups to describe the "one" in this passage who "cannot and should not make the Bible sound as if it happened in the next town ten years ago," and who "respects too much the historical setting of the incarnation" to want to attempt such a thing. How old is this person? Male or female? Race, social class? What level of education? Just how devout a Christian (and what kind of Christian) does s/he have to be? Or could s/he be an atheist?

III. Discuss the difference between a "cultural translation" and a "linguistic translation" and their relationship to "sounding like a translation." Does "cultural" mean "loose" or "free" or "adaptive" and "linguistic" mean "strict" or "faithful"? Or are there "free" and "strict" cultural translations and "free" and "strict" linguistic translations? And do

"free" translations always sound less (or more?) like translations than "strict" ones?

IV. Read these points of Nida's *Formal and Dynamic Equivalence* criticism. How can you comment on them? Give examples per each point from the field of English Ukrainian translation.

1. The equivalence framework proposed by Nida has had a considerable influence on research in translation studies, but has in equal measure attracted a great deal of criticism. In a series of papers published in 1992 and 1993 in *Meta*, Qian Hu, for example, demonstrates the doubtfulness of what Nida calls 'equivalence response'. In addition to the difficulty of achieving equivalent effect when meaning is bound up in **form** (e.g. the effect of word order in Chinese and English), Qian Hu raises the issue of 'natural equivalents' often standing in a contradictory relation with 'dynamic equivalents' (e.g. Chinese 'overtranslations' of English words such as *animal*, *vegetable* and *mineral*).

2. Nida states in no uncertain terms that 'there can be no absolute correspondence between languages' and he himself observes, formal equivalence is also useful in situations where the translator or interpreter may for some reason be unwilling to accept responsibility for changing the wording of the target text (e.g. diplomatic correspondence).

3. Nida also harbours no illusions regarding the nature of response and the unattainability of absolute communication: 'for no two people ever . . . understand words in exactly the same manner'.

V. Compile a bibliography of 4-5 sources for the concept from Ukrainian and foreign sources. Name the chapters that correspond the topic.

VI. Write 2-3 quotes from the works for each of the concepts given.

V. Write an analytical abstract of 2-3 pages about the topic.

Заняття VII.

VII. PRAGMATIC ASPECTS OF TRANSLATION.

Discussion of translation strategy from the perspective of such aspects of translation as purpose, the receiver, text type, **register** membership, has necessarily highlighted the *pragmatic* dimension of context (**intentionality** and language use as **action**). Pragmatics is concerned with how the transmission of meaning depends not only on linguistic knowledge (e.g. grammar, lexicon), but also on the context of the utterance, including most significantly the inferred intent of the text producer.

The German translation scholar A. Neubert approached the creation of a translation typology classifying translated texts on the basis of their pragmatic orientation. A. Neubert proceeded from the fact that the most important task of translation is to convey the real impact of the original text on its reader, so that the readers of the translation would have the same pragmatic attitudes towards the transmitted message. According to A. Neubert, the achievement of such pragmatic equivalence depends on how much the content of the original can influence the reader of the translation, touch him directly, affect his interests. Based on these considerations, it is proposed to distinguish between four types of texts that differ in the degree of translatability in pragmatic terms.

In the first type, the source and target texts have common goals based on common needs. The commonality of purpose means that the audience of the target language can also have the same pragmatic attitudes towards what is being reported, and, consequently, such texts have the highest degree of translatability from a pragmatic point of view.

The second type of relationship is typical for texts exclusively intended for the audience of the foreign language (official orders, local information, entertainment materials, etc.). According to A. Neubert, the texts of laws, socio-political literature, the local press are so pragmatically specific that such texts in this sense are fundamentally untranslatable.

Texts of the third type - fiction - although they are created for the audience of original language, they can also express universal needs. Therefore, their pragmatic relations with certain restrictions can also arise in translation. Here the degree of translatability depends on the genre: fiction and drama have a higher degree of translatability than lyric poetry.

And finally, the fourth type of texts is created in a foreign language, but is intended for translation into another language and is initially focused on the audience of a target language (publications for foreign countries). This type of text has a high degree of pragmatic translatability.

A. Chesterman, an English scholar based in Finland, has developed the main points of A. Neubert's concept. He states that pragmatic translation strategies involve selecting information in the TT, which is governed by the translator's knowledge of the prospective readership of the translation. These strategies are often the result of a translator's global decisions concerning the appropriate way to translate the text as a whole. Therefore, pragmatic strategies are message oriented. As a rule, they incorporate syntactic and semantic strategies.

In Chesterman's approach, the following strategies are labeled as pragmatic.

(1) **Cultural Filtering.** The terms 'domestication' and 'foreignization' may also be used to denote the process of adapting *realia*, or terms that are specific to the culture of the source language to the norms and expectations of the target language

(2) **Change of Explicitness.** Depending on the readers' knowledge, certain details need to be made either more explicit or more implicit. The terms 'explicitation' and 'implication' are sometimes recognized as separate translation strategies.

(3) **Change of Information.** Depending on the situation, some new, non-inferable information may have to be added to the target text. At the same time, the translator may have to omit superfluous, irrelevant information. 'Addition' and 'omission' are often recognized as separate translation strategies.

(4) **Interpersonal Change.** This strategy deals with levels of formality. Sometimes the translator has to change a form of address in the target language or substitute a technical term with a more appropriate word.

(5) **Illocutionary Change.** The logic of translation may make it necessary to replace a speech act in the source language with a different speech act.

A speech act may include three separate acts.

The locutionary act is the act of saying something, it is the utterance itself.

The illocutionary act is the specific purpose the speaker has in mind.

The perlocutionary act is the effect the speaker has on the addressee through his speech.

(6) **Change of Coherence.** The logical arrangement of information of the target text may differ from that in the source text. The translator may have to resort to the strategies of 'relocation', or 'dislocation' that deal with rearranging information at different levels.

(7) **Partial Translation.** There are situations when the target text is only a summary of the information conveyed by the source text. The translator focuses on the gist rather than the details of the story.

(8) **Change of Visibility.** The author of a story often makes himself visible to the readers through the use of footnotes or comments in brackets. However, the cultural norms of a target language may require a change in the ways the author's (translator's) presence is revealed in the text.

(9) **Other Pragmatic Changes.** The layout of the text may have to be modified due to a variety of reasons.

Generally speaking, pragmatic theories approach translation through the prism of the original author's communicative intention. Pragmatic studies may help scholars to understand how a translated text interprets the original in relation to the contextual conditions and the effect it has on the reader. If we return to the question of whether there is something in an original text that is carried over in its translation, a pragmatist might suggest that something does indeed survive the process. At the very least, what is potentially done by the original text is retained in the target text, since the translation has the same capability. We say 'at the very least' because if an original text informs, entertains, demands payment or apologizes for some mistake, the translation is expected not only to perform the same actions, but to do it in a manner similar to the original.

TASK

The main pragmatics trend in **linguistic** studies covers the following issues:

1. Speech Acts and Illocutionary Function in Translation Methodology; modifications of the illocutionary force; cross-cultural differences of Speech Acts.

2. Political correctness: politically correct terminology; politeness and translation, non-sexist language.

3. Relevance Theory and Translation: The inferential nature of communication; the notion of the context; text typologies as guides to relevance.

*I. What issues have the closest connection to **translation studies** and how they help to get the adequate translation?*

II. Read and analyze the following examples when the pragmatic functions of utterances in the source and target texts do not coincide. When it happens, certain pragmatic can either increase or reduce (lessen) the illocutionary force of the utterance. Give your own examples for each of the four types of illocutionary force increasing.

With a quick movement Blore was beside him. He said: "If you 'll just let me have a look..." - "Дозвольте мені поглянути!" - Блор кинувся до цуddi. (A.Christie)

The English indirect directive is rendered explicitly by a direct directive in the Ukrainian language. It means that the pragmatic force of the source utterance is intensified in the target one.

The **increase of the illocutionary force** can be achieved by different devices:

The use of lexical units with specific, intensifying meanings: interjections, particles, emotional and evaluative words, modal words, performative verbs, etc;

The judge said acidly: At my time of life, I have no desire for "Thrills», as you call them. - Овва! - скривився суддя. - Такі турботи в моєму віці. (A.Christie)

General Macarthur broke out suddenly. He exclaimed: "The whole thing is preposterous - preposterous! Singing accusations about like this! Something must be done about it. This fellow Owen, whoever he is." (A. Christie)

Генерала Макартура раптом прорвало: "Це все якесь безглузда, абсурдна вигадка! - заволав він. - Хіба ж можна ось так чіпляти ганебні звинувачення... Необхідно вжити якихось заходів. І хто б не був той туп Оуен...

- repetition or tautology;

Who was that speaking? - Хто, хто це там говорив? (A.Christie)

- reiteration of the illocutionary force of the utterance by different devices:

She said to herself angrily: "You must keep cool. This isn't like you. You've always had excellent nerves". - "Зберігай спокій, невпинно повторювала собі. - Не панікуй, тримайся. Не втрачай рівноваги. Адже ти завжди відзначалася міцними нервами." (A.Christie)

- transformation of indirect speech acts into direct speech acts;

He said: "There, there, my dear, of course, it's not true". - "Заспокойтеся, люба, заспокойтеся, втішав дівчину, - ми вам віримо." (A.Christie)

The comparative study of speech acts in English and Ukrainian reveals an interesting tendency. When an utterance is translated from English into Ukrainian, the illocutionary force of the source utterance is usually intensified.

III. Give examples (portions of texts, parts of dialogues, sets of sentences) where the illocutionary force of the source utterance should be intensified.

IV. What is the reason for modifying illocutionary forces in Ukrainian?

V. Do you agree with the concept that modifications of the illocutionary force in translation can be caused by conversational etiquette, traditions of language use and some other social and cultural norms of speech behaviour.

ЗАЯТТЯ VIII.

VIII. NEW TRENDS IN TRANSLATION STUDIES

New trends in translation studies are characterized by a myriad of competing and complementary theoretical approaches and methodologies that have grown out of the cross-fertilization with new fields of studies as varied as pragmatics, critical linguistics, corpus linguistics, post-colonialism, gender studies and globalization. At the same time, consolidated conceptual paradigms such as polysystem theory, skopos theory, and poststructuralist and feminist approaches to translation theory continue to inspire translation research.

Enormous progress in translation research has been linked to technological developments and new technologies. Advances in technology have changed the practice of translation, which in many cases involves Translation Memory systems and other computer-aided translation tools and instruments, and which is characterized by a scattering of translators throughout the global market. Translation becomes one of the elements in the system "globalization - internalization - localization - translation" (globalization - internationalization - localization - translation (GILT)).

Improvements in technology have also had a significant impact on translation research, with significant results obtained for automated and machine translation of various types and, in process-oriented and cognitive research as well as corpus translation. The development of voice recording technology (aloud protocols), eye-tracking technology and other aids to monitor the decision-making process of the translator help make translations more and more equivalent. In addition, the new media have given rise to their own branches of activity and research, the most notable of which is audiovisual translation (or multimedia or screen translation), which has become part of more than just traditional dubbing and subtitling practices (subtitling), but also the localization of video games, the spread of unofficial fansub (short for "fan subtitles"): video with subtitles in the target language, released independently of the official distributors and the like.

Translation studies were widely seen as "an international network of scholarly" the general intention of it was to open and focus the scholarly debate on three important areas. The first, comparing and contrasting the variety of research models elaborated by the different approaches and theories of translation. The second, examining their relationship with existing paradigms and the third, assessing the extent to which they can be applied across the wide range of phenomena considered legitimate data for the discipline.

During the first decade of the 21st century, translation studies committed to engaging with non-Western perspectives and theoretical frameworks. In line with this orientation, which shares many of the concerns of postcolonial translation studies, leading scholars began to question the suitability of Eurocentric models for the study of translation across the world. They argue that the increasing multiculturalism of contemporary society, driven by migration and globalization, challenges the traditional view of translation as a phenomenon occurring among discrete languages and cultures belonging to separate nations and ethnic groups.

Another trend that emerged in those years is transdisciplinarity. Disciplines as varied as literature, social anthropology, history, critical discourse analysis, ethics, multilingualism, sociology and film studies begin to consider translation and interpreting a *τόπος* for addressing concerns relevant to their fields.

Researches discuss the problem of translation in the light of their own disciplinary fields and special interests. The **object of study** is composite and consists of translation processes across different natural languages, translation processes between different specialised languages forming one single natural language, translation processes between verbal and nonverbal sign systems as well as translation processes between nonverbal sign systems without the implications of verbal signs.

The discipline “has expanded to the point of ‘splintering’ into what some might call subdisciplines” such as corpus-based translation studies, descriptive translation studies, interpreting, audiovisual translation, feminist translation studies, cognitive translation studies or critical translation studies.

This claim echoes Andrew Chesterman’s view of translation studies as an “increasingly fragmented interdiscipline”. Moreover, interdisciplinarity, which is inherent in the very nature of translating and interpreting, is more evident than ever, since scholars are becoming acutely aware of the multitude of practices that are subsumed under the umbrella term ‘translation’.

Indeed, as Susan Bassnett points out, “there is growing interest in seeing translation as a plurivocal activity, since many other voices than those of the translator and ‘original’ author combine in the actual translation process”. Transdisciplinarity, which Edwin Gentzler names ‘post-translation studies’, is a growing trend that is enriching our understanding of the multifaceted phenomenon of translation and is expanding the boundaries of the discipline.

New discipline communicative pragmatic appears as a combination of translation studies, cultural studies and rhetoric. This discipline focuses on mechanisms of direct and indirect impact upon the audience. Such shift (away

from linguistic model) in the scientific apparatus is the result of the rapid increase of information processed and sent to various recipients. The information itself, in artistic, journalistic and, especially, the style of IT, acquires a «postmodern» structure. The texts turn self-quoted, contain rich allusions, various stylistic devices; their narrative changes from static to dynamic, contains both direct and implicit motivations, and so on. Such "mosaic" texts require new means of rendering and translation here elaborates new sets of devices mostly dealing with pragmatic aspects.

One of the models was proposed in the works of Oxford scholars D. Sperber and D. Wilson. Based on the concept of implicatures of P. Grice, they develop a theory of communicative relevance. It puts at the center of the message the subjective degree of conformity of the message as to a certain phenomenon of reality at a certain time. The degree of relevance is determined by the parameters of adequacy, correspondence, necessity and possibility to use it in target culture. Translation, therefore, is to some extent stepping into the psycholinguistics, as well as ethics, increasingly moving away from its generic linguistic features.

Another objective factor influencing this process is the so-called "information explosion". Due to the redundancy of information today, the authors seek to stand out under any circumstances, so that the reader notices them. Denotative information and even artistic imagery of some texts take on the character of advertising, even aggressive obtrusiveness. Texts more and more comprise non-verbal means of expression. Therefore, the modern translator must use combinations of techniques to reproduce the mentioned "obsession" of modern discourse. Currently we often talk about scientific translation norms not as communicative or linguistic processes, but as interaction between people.

Australian Professor of Translation and Intercultural Studies Anthony Pym for example, distinguishes between professional norms and norms of expectation. The translators of each country develop their own national strategies, and the readers have their own perspectives on the translated texts, determined primarily by cultural standards of the nation. The result of translation activities should be assessed in terms of both norms. The norm today is as objective and subjective concept, because it has conditional and variable social arrangements.

Even the notion of the equivalent which we traditionally view as central, today loses its relevance in favor of norms of expectation. According to A. Pym it would be more rational to talk about "directed equivalence", in which one text may have several different equivalents in another language, depending on the intentions of the translator. Equivalence is a purely theoretical concept that helps to evaluate specific translation decisions, but it

cannot be a central concept of translation theory. In reality, by claiming that the translation is equivalent to the original, we state that the translation satisfies us, not that it is done in accordance with the strict norms of translation theory. This is due primarily to two circumstances - texts in the era of electronic media are losing the stability they had in the printing era, and the people today are much more inclined to ambiguous theories.

Still the greater shifts may be found in the translation of the official style. The concept of "localization" is playing a bigger and bigger role. The company that produces the software with the documentation for it creates the text as the main product not in a specific language (although in reality, of course, these original texts are written in English), but a global version, which is further localized for each national audience. The translation of the text acts as only a part of such localization together, for example, with the conversion of centimeters into inches, changing the format of currency dates, and so on. And the original texts will not always be identical, because different countries have different warranty and service conditions. Modern information technologies play a special role in localization processes. Indeed, every year more and more new models of electronic equipment are released, the documentation for which must be translated into many languages, but only some details change in the documentation from model to model, and it is irrational to make a complete translation every time.

Faithful reproduction of primary communication in another culture is impossible, but the translator seeks to give the target reader the most complete and accurate idea of the primary communication or just approximation to it. Complex meaning of the text is reproduced by the reader every time the text is read, so there is no unique reproduced meaning in translation. Rather, we can talk about the conformity of the reader's understanding to the original intentions of the author, or at least the compatibility of this understanding. Plus, the text over time begins to acquire new meanings in new cultural and historical contexts. Such compatibility becomes a mandatory component of the concept of equivalence and is considered a basic ethical requirement for the translator. Thus, the dynamics of the translation process is aimed at a certain departure from the strategies of traditional linguistic translation and the increasing involvement of methods in the field of culturology and pragmatics.

TASKS

1. *Write 2-3 quotes from the works for each of the concepts given.*
2. *How the concept of communicative relevance impact translation studies?*

3. *What is post translation studies? Who is the author of the concept? Write some quotes of the works of the author to represent basics of the concept.*

4. *Why does translation get more and more involved into another linguistic, psychological, social, etc disciplines and turns an interdisciplinary?*

5. *Compare the views found in the lecture (as to directed equivalence and localization) with your own understanding of the concept and argue its objectivity or controversy.*

6. *Study one on the newest concept in translation studies. Translate an article from BBC, CNN or other sites and make statistical analysis of linguistic and stylistic devices found in that text and translation transformations applied by you. How corpus linguistics can contribute to the study of translating and translations in future?*

Самостійна робота студентів

Тема 1

- *How does the author see the tasks and the functions of translation studies?*
- *Do you agree or disagree with arguments she submits?*
- *How would you specify the interrelation between practice of translation and translation studies?*

1. What is theory and how does it affect practice?

One way in which theory can be useful for translators is that it encourages a certain amount of freedom from too narrow a view of the source text and this can be an aid to creativity. I (Antoinette Fawcett) discussed this possibility in an earlier article, and explored how translation theory can enable us to go beyond a naïve, unquestioning view of translation as involving an unspecified but obvious equivalence to the source text.

Things that are unspecified do not always give freedom: we have a tendency to go for the safe and obvious. Theory, on the other hand, can give us the confidence to try out other methods, explore other types of equivalence, or question degrees of closeness. In this chapter I want to take up again the issue of how theory interacts with practice, how we use it, and whether we need it.

The short answer to the last question, and the question in the title of this article, is that everyone needs theory, because any act which is not a reflex or purely the result of intuition (and perhaps even then) must be based on a theory, which is simply a way of looking at the world.

When I walk carefully over an icy patch on the pavement, carrying on my back a heavy rucksack filled with marked students' essays, I walk in a way which seems, to my mind, in my view of the world, to take into account the new centre of gravity lent me by the rucksack, the degree of slipperiness of the pavement, the readiness of my muscles to counteract a sudden slide of my soles, and so on. It is, of course, only a partial theory. It is unlikely to take account of the degree of friction between the soles and ice, and the adjustments I make for the weight of the essays or the slope of the pavement will only be approximations. But if I had no theory at all, because I had never met an icy pavement or never carried a rucksack before, then it would be much more difficult to act and I might hesitate, uncertain how to proceed. So the theory helps, but I need to remember that it is partial, built up out of experience and the way each new experience makes me adjust my mental picture of the world. If I apply the same theory when the road is not icy as when it is, or when carrying a child in my arms as when carrying a bag on my back, I will fall.

A theory is a partial description (mental or perhaps written down) of a segment of perceived reality, and so the attempt to apply it to any new situation has to be approached with extreme caution. This is especially true in the humanities, according to Iser, who maintains that theories here do not embody laws that make predictions, but rather search for metaphors adequate to the description of the phenomena in question in order to understand them. Furthermore, he makes a distinction between those theories that can be applied and those that cannot. Similarly, Andrew Chesterman argues in his interview with Emma Wagner, that it is a mistake to assume that theories can be directly applied because in fact their job is to describe, not to prescribe. If we take this view, we might say that the only reason to apply a theory in the humanities is to test the theory itself against the phenomena it describes. Thus the critical readings in a book like Castle's *The Blackwell Guide to Literary Theory*, for example, could be seen to tell us a great deal about the usefulness of each theory as a description of how we read a literary text, but they might not be expected to tell us anything new about the texts themselves, or about how to read them.

Within the discipline of Translation Studies, an understanding of theory as essentially descriptive, and the descriptive practices that go with this understanding, form the basis for the type of approach known as Descriptive Translation Studies. This type of approach is especially concerned with observing what people do and documenting it. But theory that is descriptive generally aims to explain as well as to describe; for this reason Toury refers to work done within Descriptive Translation Studies as 'descriptive- explanatory'. And it is because of this explanatory function of theories, even in the humanities, that they affect the way we approach tasks in the particular area that has been explained. They become part of our cognitive context, of what we know and think about a particular area, so that they act as what Mary Midgley calls 'pairs of spectacles through which to see the world differently'. Thus structuralist theories of the text allowed us to see literary texts as sets of relationships within the text and with 'large abstract issues' in the world outside the text; poststructuralist theories (though 'not theories', according to Iser) have taken the notion of relationship and difference further, and have helped us see to what extent the text might be free from the real world's context and the author's intention; theories of the reader helped us to focus on the reader as part of the context of a literary work; and cognitive poetic theories have allowed us to see the reader's mind as part of the context and the context as itself in the mind. Because theories teach us that there are different ways of seeing, knowledge of theory makes us more able to question conventional views. Thus, for example, Toury's distinction between adequacy and acceptability made it clear that we can view

a translated text in relation to its source text or in relation to the receiving culture, and that those two relationships will be different.

Because, then, theories are partial, descriptive, and represent different ways of seeing, they should enable us to free ourselves from naïve conceptions of what translation is. And because they are explanatory they become part of the way we approach the world in a very practical sense. They may not dictate practice, but they will certainly influence it.

So how do we assess whether their influence on translation practice is good or bad, whether it narrows or broadens? I would argue that the danger of naïve application, which treats theoretical description as though it had the status of a law, is less acute with theories from outside the area in question. A theory of translation is potentially more dangerous to translation practice than a theory of meaning, of literature, of the text, or of the reader. This is especially true when that theory is based on a metaphor: translation is like performing on a stage, like melting and re-freezing an ice cube, translations are windows, not veils; these are metaphors used by Willard Trask, Margaret Sayers Peden and Eavan Boland respectively. The purpose of such a metaphor, according to Iser is that it ‘triggers associations’. It is therefore a starting point for further theories, a partial view which tells us something, but not everything, about the process it refers to. But unfortunately it is extremely tempting to try and actually carry out a translation that conforms to whatever partial view of the act such metaphors suggest. This temptation, and the nature of translation metaphors like those given above, which suggest its effects are not radical or interesting, are some of the reasons for much of the disquiet felt by translation critics such as Venuti or Berman, who feel that the invisibility of the act and its agent has become written into the performance.

If, however, the theories we use are theories of the text, such as Halliday and Hasan’s theory of coherence discussed by Malmkjaer, or of communication, such as the relevance theory of Sperber and Wilson, discussed by Gutt, or of reading, such as the reader-response theory integrated into Diaz-Diocaretz’ approach to translation, then the danger of an encompassing, simplistic application is automatically reduced.

Tema 2

- *What model is the best choice for translating a particular genre – fiction, publicistic, advertising etc?*
- *Why does communicative model turn more and more popular nowadays?*
- *What are models and norms in decision making process of translation?*

Models of translation

Although model theory is a field of study in itself, a comprehensive definition of the concept of model remains problematical. This is partly because models can be of very different kinds, ranging from iconic or diagrammatic representations (known as analogue models) to conceptual and theoretical models, and partly also because there is little agreement among theorists about the classification of models into types. Nevertheless, some common properties of models can be distinguished.

First, a model is always a model of something, called the object, or the original, or the prototype. In this sense, a model, when perceived in terms of its modelling function, is a vicarious object, i.e. a substitute. It represents, reproduces, refers to something else, which is necessarily anterior to it. Model and prototype therefore have a different ontological status which arises from the fact that one represents while the other is represented. Neither model nor prototype need to be physical realities: they can be abstract, mental or hypothetical entities.

Second, a modelling relation is not an objectively given fact or a state of affairs existing naturally between two entities. A model requires a human subject, who may be a collective, to recognize it as a model of something. That is, a model can only be a model of something if there is someone who perceives it as such, and who recognizes the appropriate relation between model and prototype. The modelling operation therefore involves three components: a prototype, a model, and a human subject.

Third, the model represents its prototype through approximation. It is not a reproduction of the prototype in its entirety and in all its aspects. The model reduces the complexity of the prototype by retaining only certain features of it, and in so doing establishes a certain similarity or correspondence between itself and the object to which it refers. The similarity is of a certain kind (for example isomorphic), deemed by the human subject to be functionally relevant; and the model exhibits this particular kind of similarity in a certain manner and to a certain degree.

Fourth, while from the point of view of the modelling relation only the representational aspects of a model are normally regarded as pertinent, every model of necessity also contains other, non-functional or 'contingent' features.

It is possible to consider the relevance of models in the context of translation from four different angles:

- (a) the use of theoretical models as heuristic tools in translation studies
- (b) the use of diagrammatic or analogue models to represent certain aspects of translation
- (c) the view of translating as a modelling activity

(d) the relation between models and NORMS.

Theoretical models

Theoretical, or conceptual, models are hypothetical constructs which are derived from an established field of knowledge and then tentatively projected onto a new, wholly or partly unknown domain. Because the model is first mapped on one field and then applied to another, it employs language appropriate to the first field to speak about the second. This is what enables a conceptual model to function heuristically: the researcher may derive cognitive gain from deploying the model as an actively probing instrument, a prism or search-light which allows him or her to see new things, or to see things in a new light. At the same time, theoretical models inevitably construct the object in their own image: they apply their own terms, categories and distinctions to the new domain, illuminating certain aspects while obscuring others.

In translation studies, a number of theoretical models derived from other domains and disciplines have been applied to the object of study. They range from linguistic and semiotic to literary and sociocultural models. Several of these in turn make use of terms and concepts imported from other disciplines such as philosophy, history or sociology. In each case, particular currents of thought within the fields concerned have served as more refined research tools. For example, the linguistic model has generally tended to see translation primarily as a linguistic operation. Within this broad conceptual frame, structuralist linguistic models of translation focus on relations between linguistic systems, while text-linguistic models concentrate on the pragmatics of given communicative situations, and psycholinguistic models look at linguistic aspects of the mental operations involved in the translation process. Semiotic models see the field of enquiry as extending to forms of transfer between signifying systems other than natural languages. Sociocultural models and social action theories tend to emphasize contextual features of translation and the interactive social web of which the various participants in the translational communication are a part. Literary models have approached translation in terms of the categories of (particular kinds of) literary criticism, literary history and literary theory, especially structuralism and post-structuralism. In recent years gender studies, cultural studies, systems theory and Deconstruction have served as new conceptual models in the study of translation.

It would be futile to attempt a clearly defined listing of theoretical models of translation. The models are complementary and often overlap and conflict. In mapping the domain of translation in their own terms they also delimit it in different ways, or highlight precisely the problematical nature of such delimitation. Within their own parameters they are likely to prioritize

certain kinds or aspects or areas of translation, and concentrate their efforts accordingly.

Analogue models

Analogue models are used to represent those characteristics of a prototype which are considered relevant in a given context. They serve an intellectual and pedagogic purpose in visually foregrounding pertinent features while ignoring others. In the study of translation, flow charts and other diagrammatic representations are most commonly used to represent certain processes and relations.

The communicative process involving translation is often represented as an extension of the scheme 'sender-message-receiver', with the translator first acting as a receiver and then as the sender of a new (translated) message to a new receiver; hence: 'sender1-message1-receiver1 - translator=sender2-message2-receiver2'. Elaborations of this basic scheme typically bring into view a number of contextual features and relations, as well as the actual transition from one signifying system to another brought about by the translator. This latter activity, the translation process itself, is a mental operation not open to direct observation. It has nevertheless been hypothetically reconstructed, especially by psycholinguists, and represented by means of diverse diagrammatic forms, most commonly flow charts. While the input (the source utterance and its reception) and the output (the generation of the target utterance) tend to remain stable in these representations, considerable differences exist elsewhere among the diagrams and reflect different assumptions about the way in which the human mind processes the source text, brings about a conversion of one kind or another and constructs a new utterance in the other medium.

Diagrams are also frequently used to map a variety of textual filiations, textual and contextual relations between source and target utterances and the communicative relations within and between the two systems involved. While flow charts purporting to represent the translation process serve a cognitive purpose, diagrams of (con)textual and communicative relations are mostly pedagogical, as they highlight relations regarded as legitimate objects of research.

Translating as modelling

Translating can be seen as a modelling activity in that the result of the operation, i.e. the translated text, commonly claims, explicitly or implicitly, to represent an anterior discourse in a way comparable to the representational function of models. This makes a translation, under its aspect as representation, a vicarious object, a substitute or at least a metatext. Also, like a model, a translation is a derived, second-order product, so that the relation between the translation and its prototype is neither symmetrical nor

reversible. Moreover, a translation can stand as a representative or substitute of a source text only if a (collective) subject will recognize it as such. In other words, a translation that goes unrecognized as a translation is, functionally speaking, not a translation at all because its modelling aspect remains inoperative. Inversely, a translation which does purport to represent a source text and is accepted as such is, functionally speaking, a translation, even if no prototype can be identified; this is the case with so-called PSEUDOTRANSLATIONS.

In contrast to models, translations may replace and even displace their prototypes, but this is mainly because translation typically involves one or more semiotic transformations, as a result of which the source text is left at the other side of at least one of these semiotic barriers (e.g. a natural language) and may thus become inaccessible to those on this side of the barrier. The modelling relation itself however is not affected by this. Another objection might be that translations, as opposed to models, constitute objects of the same order as their prototypes. However, many cultures maintain the ontological distinction by assigning different places in value and classification systems to translated in contrast to non-translated texts. The two kinds of text are likely to be ranged in the same class only in cultural situations where all texts are perceived essentially as transformations of other texts. In those cases, the notions of translation and of related forms of textual processing and modelling tend to encompass virtually all text production.

While under their representational and representative aspects translations can be seen as approximations of their prototypes, all translations also exhibit contingent features: a material surplus not reducible to the modelling function.

Models and norms

To the extent that translating involves a process of DECISION MAKING which takes place in a communicative context, the activity is governed by NORMS. Norms may be regarded as social regulation mechanisms which make certain choices and decisions by the translator more likely than others. They consist of two parts: a directive aspect which exerts pressure on members of a community to behave in certain ways, and a 'content', which is an intersubjective notion of correctness, i.e. a notion of what is proper or correct in particular situations. Because notions of correctness are abstract values, more concrete models of correct behaviour are derived either directly from the values and attitudes which make up the correctness notions or from individual instances and occurrences which have come to be regarded as exemplifying such notions. These models, which represent correctness notions, can in turn serve as prototypes to be imitated as examples of good practice. They play a strategic role in the dynamics of

culture in that they are implicated in the hierarchical structure of communities and in the power struggles between individuals and groups that may ensue.

In translating, compliance with a set of translational norms regarded as pertinent in a given cultural system means that the product, i.e. the translation, is likely to conform to the relevant textual or discursive model(s), and therefore accord with the relevant correctness notions. However, establishing conformity with relevant models occurs not only at the level of the translation as representation, i.e. the modelling aspect of the translation, but also at the level of its contingent features, i.e. those textual elements which are not directly relevant from the point of view of the modelling function of the translation (as happens, for example, in selecting stopgaps in a rhyming version of a poem). Both modelling features and contingent features require the selection of certain means of expression in preference to others, with a view to attaining certain goals such as fulfilling contractual obligations, promotion, commercial success, critical acclaim; this selection process is governed by norms and, behind them, by models representing correctness notions.

Since cultural systems and subsystems are highly complex entities, they may be expected to contain a range of competing, conflicting and overlapping norms and models embedded in different spheres of activity, which themselves form part of changing historical configurations. The motivational and directive force of norms and models, therefore, depends on their nature and scope, their relative weight, their centrality or marginality, their relation to other canonical and non-canonical norms and models, and so on. It is one of the tasks of historical translation studies to identify particular clusters of translational norms and models and to explain their nature and functioning.

Tema 3

Translate the sentences from Kathryn Stockett novel The Help. Find the appropriate translation unit to preserve the very colloquial manner of speech. Your translation should bear communicative faults the original text shows. Some lexical units, not all of them are underlined, are challenging to.

“Miss Hilly sending Miss Walters to the old lady home. I got to find myself a new job. And you know when she going? Next week.”

“Oh no, Minny.”

“I been looking, call ten ladies today. Not even a speck a interest.”

Builders finally came to work. Banging’s already started but Mister Leefolt ain’t stomping around today.

Baby Girl's got red sticky all over her face, hanging on to her mama's knees trying to get her look at her.

But Baby Girl wriggling hard. I'm trying to get the soap on her fingers but she twisting and turning and she snake right out my arms.

Miss Leefolt point at the door, yell, "Aibileen, you both just get out."

"You okay, Baby Girl?" I whisper. My ear smarting from her little fist. I'm so glad she hit me instead a her mama, cause I don't know what that woman would a done to her. I look down and see red fingermarks on the back a her legs.

Mae Mobley's in my lap helping me string the beans. She still kind a fussy from this morning.

"Hidee, ma'am. Trouble you for some water?" he ask. I don't recognize him. Must live somewhere south a town.

"Sho nuff," I say.

When the lesson's over, she rushes back to laying down. In fact, the only time Miss Celia walks ten feet is to come in the kitchen for her lesson or to sneak upstairs every two or three days, up in the creepy rooms.

With other people, Hilly hands out lies like the Presbyterians hand out guilt, but it's our own silent agreement, this strict honesty, perhaps the one thing that has kept us friends.

- "So . . . um, have either of y'all actually read Miss Myrna?" I ask.

"Well no," Hilly says. "But I bet the poor white trash girls in South Jackson read it like the King James."

Elizabeth nods. "All those poor girls without help, I bet they do."

2. The following text includes words that require semantic translation, so the text should be translated in a communicative-pragmatic way. Apply both methods when translating (word for word transliteration and explanatory comment). Find and give explanations to linguistic units you don't know.

Example: P's and Q's ("mind your manners", "mind your language", "order", "watch what you're doing" (for P goes before Q)) were the letters she despised. And yet, to have to mind them before him gave her a sort of pleasure, made her feel good. (J.G.)

1. Once in his rooms, he dropped into a **Morris chair** and sat staring straight before him. (R.A.)

2. Joan, who had just put down her big umbrella, was wearing a smart green suit trimmed with narrow bands of grey fur, a black **fedora**, and high black boots. (I.M.)

3. "Is he still teaching?" "Yes, he's still teaching, but he's got some **sabbatical leave** from his college." (I.M.)

4. It was evening. They had had supper which took place at eight, and on this occasion had consisted of (provided by May Waters) tomato salad with mozzarella cheese and basil, lentil stew with curried cabbage, and apples (not **Cox's Orange Pippins**, which had not yet appeared in the shops). (I.M.)

5. "No real sportsman cares for money," he would say borrowing a "**pony**" if it was no use trying for a "**monkey**". (J.G.)

6. The little maid came back. Would he please to go down into the garden? Old Jolyon marched out through the **French window**... In descending the steps, he noticed that they wanted painting.

7. I have translated it here, not in verse... but at least in the **King's English**. (R.L.S.)

8. But I am not so timid, and can speak the **Queen's English** plainly. (R.L.S.)

9. He went out with his head up and his hat cocked joyously, sniffing the air of **Piccadilly** like a young hound loosed into covert... He found his "tutor", not indeed at the Oxford and Cambridge, but at the **Goat's Club**. (J.G.)

10. And pot-bellied little coloured children fought hunger and sleepiness while Lanny tried to teach them the **three R's**. (P.A.)

11. You possess, sir, if you will permit me an observation, the art of composition **to a T**. (R.L.S.)

12. Harris said, however, that the river would suit him **to a T**. (J.K.J.)

13. Winifred had heard from Val that there had been a "rag" and a bonfire on **Guy Fawkes Day at Oxford** and that he had escaped detection by blacking his face. (J.G.)

14. However, instead of doing so, he became a teacher at a **comprehensive school** teaching modern history. (I.M.)

15. His destination was Newmarket, and he had not been there since the autumn of 1899, when he stole over from Oxford for **the Cambridgeshire**." (J.G.)

16. She would soon show them all that she was only just beginning. And she smiled to herself on the top of the bus which carried her back to **Mayfair**. (J.G.)

3. Translate the text. Perform needed cultural and precise information changes.

Devonshire Splits

1/2 oz. fresh yeast
1 teaspoon caster sugar
1/2-pint milk - warmed to blood heat
1 lb. strong white flour
1 oz. caster sugar
1 teaspoon salt
2 oz. butter

Mix together the yeast, the 1 teaspoon of sugar and the warm milk and leave in a warm place for 20-30 minutes until frothy. Rub the butter into the flour and stir in the 1 oz. of sugar and the salt. Add the yeast liquid to the flour and mix to a soft dough. Knead on a floured surface until smooth and elastic. Leave covered in a warm place for about 1 hour until doubled in size. Knock back, knead again and divide into 16 pieces. Mould into neat bun shapes and place on floured baking sheets. Leave once again in a warm place until well risen. Bake in a pre-heated oven at 425° F or Mark 7 for approximately 15 minutes until pale golden in colour. Cool on a wire rack. These sweet dough buns are often served with a traditional Clotted Cream tea. They are split and filled with the cream and home-made jam.

Tema 4.

1. State your assumptions per each item with the theoretical background you know.

1. The ethics of translation has often been thought to consist of the translator assuming an entirely external perspective on his or her work, thinking about it purely from the user's point of view: thinking, for example, that accuracy is the only possible goal of translation; that the translator has no right to a personal opinion or interpretation; that the finished product, the translated text, is the only thing that matters. What other ethical considerations are important? Is it possible to allow translators their full humanity — their opinions, interpretations, likes and dislikes, enthusiasms and boredoms — while still insisting on ethical professional behavior that meets users' expectations? Or just linguistics is important?

2. Translators are usually, and understandably, hostile toward machine translation systems, which promise clients enormous increases in speed at a fraction of the cost of human translation. Translators typically point to the low quality or reliability of machine-translated texts, but in some technical fields, where style is not a high priority, the use of constrained source languages (specially written so as to be unambiguous for machine parsing) makes reliability possible along with speed and low cost. How should translators meet this challenge? Translate faster and charge less?

Retrain to become pre- and post-editors of machine translation texts? Learn to translate literature?

2. Study, analyze and sum up the main postulates of John Catford's transformation theory.

3. What are the best strategies to overcome these two types of untranslatability?

Catford distinguishes two types of untranslatability, which he terms linguistic and cultural. On the linguistic level, untranslatability occurs when there is no lexical or syntactical substitute in the TL for an SL item, is due to differences in the SL and the TL. Cultural untranslatability is due to the absence in the target language culture of a relevant situational feature for the source text.

Тема 5.

1. Compare the original text with the translated one and determine the pragmatic potential and focus of the original and the translation. Suggest your translation options.

The part that got me was a lady sitting next to me that cried all through the goddam picture. The phonier it got, the more she cried. You'd have thought she did it because she was kind-hearted as hell, but I was sitting right next to her, and she wasn't. She had this little kid with her that was bored as hell and had to go to the bathroom, but she wouldn't take him. She kept telling him to sit still and behave himself. She was about as kind-hearted as a goddam wolf. You take somebody that cries their goddam eyes out over phoney stuff in the movies, and nine times out of ten they're mean bastards at heart. I'm not kidding.

Переклад 1:

Але кого я ніяк не міг зрозуміти, так це даму, яка сиділа поруч зі мною і всю картину проплакала. І чим більше там було липи, тим гірше вона плакала. Можна було подумати, що вона така жаліслива, добра, але я сидів з нею поруч і бачив, яка є в дійсності добра. З нею був маленький синочок, йому було нудно до нестями, і він все скигив, що хоче в туалет, але вона його не вела. Весь час говорила - сиди смирно, веди себе пристойно. Вовчиця і та, напевно, є добрішою. Взагалі, якщо взяти десять чоловік з тих, хто дивиться липову картину і реве в три струмка, так присягнутися можна, що дев'ять з них виявляться пройдисвітами. Запевняю вас.

Переклад 2:

Тітонька, яка сиділа поруч зі мною і без перестанку лила сльози всю цю гівняну картину, мене просто дістала. Чим більше липи було на

екрані, тим вона гірше ридала. Вже така добренька, далі нікуди, але я ж то сидів поруч і бачив - дідька лисого. З нею був пацан, і він просто здурів від всього того лайна ще й хотів в сортир, але куди там. Вона тільки смикала його, щоб він сидів смирно і чемно поведився. Добра, як гадюка. Взагалі з десяти чоловік, які розпускають соплі на будь-якій вошивий кінущі, дев'ять десь підлі виродки. Ну, зуб даю.

Translate the other portion of the text. Render the communicative difference between the teenager and an educated adult.

"Have a seat there, boy," old Spencer said. He meant the bed.

I sat down on it. "How's your grippe, sir?"

"M'boy, if I felt any better I'd have to send for the doctor," old Spencer said. That knocked him out. He started chuckling like a madman. Then he finally straightened himself out and said, "Why aren't you down at the game? I thought this was the day of the big game."

"It is. I was. Only, I just got back from New York with the fencing team," I said. Boy, his bed was like a rock.

He started getting serious as hell. I knew he would. "So you're leaving us, eh?" he said.

"Yes, sir. I guess I am."

He started going into this nodding routine. You never saw anybody nod as much in your life as old Spencer did. You never knew if he was nodding a lot because he was thinking and all, or just because he was a nice old guy that didn't know his ass from his elbow.

"What did Dr. Thurmer say to you, boy? I understand you had quite a little chat." "Yes, we did. We really did. I was in his office for around two hours, I guess." "What'd he say to you?"

"Oh. . . well, about Life being a game and all. And how you should play it according to the rules. He was pretty nice about it. I mean he didn't hit the ceiling or anything. He just kept talking about Life being a game and all. You know."

"Life is a game, boy. Life is a game that one plays according to the rules."

"Yes, sir. I know it is. I know it."

Game, my ass. Some game. If you get on the side where all the hot-shots are, then it's a game, all right--I'll admit that. But if you get on the other side, where there aren't any hot-shots, then what's a game about it? Nothing. No game. "Has Dr. Thurmer written to your parents yet?" old Spencer asked me.

"He said he was going to write them Monday."

"Have you yourself communicated with them?"

"No, sir, I haven't communicated with them, because I'll probably see them Wednesday night when I get home."

"And how do you think they'll take the news?"

"Well. . . they'll be pretty irritated about it," I said. "They really will. This is about the fourth school I've gone to." I shook my head. I shake my head quite a lot. "Boy!" I said. I also say "Boy!" quite a lot.

3. Translate the passage from *A history of the world in 10.2 chapters* by Julian Barnes. This is a letter a hard drinking husband right to his wife. Your translation should evoke the same feelings of sadness and irony that the original text does.

Pippa love -

Look I know we said we wouldn't talk about it and maybe it's not fair cos I don't know what state you'll be in when you get this, but why don't we just move to the country and have babies? No I haven't fallen in the river or anything. You've no idea how good it's been for me out here. I've cut out coffee after lunch and almost don't smoke at all. Well the Indians don't, do they, I say to myself. The Indians don't need to support the mighty firm of Philip Morris Inc. of Richmond Va. When things get tough they sometimes chew on a little green leaf, which I reckon is their equivalent of the occasional ciggy one takes when the director is behaving like a prize muffin. So why not cut it down like they do? And that Linda thing. I know you probably don't want to hear her name ever again and if that's what you want that's my promise, but it's all to do with London isn't it? Not really to do with *us* at all. Just bloody London with its grime and filthy streets and the booze. Well that's not really living, the way we do in cities, is it? Also I think cities make people lie to one another. Do you think that's possible? These Indians never lie, same as they don't know how to act. No pretence. Now I don't think that's primitive at all, I think it's bloody mature. And I'm sure it's because they live in the Jungle not in cities. They spend all their time surrounded by nature and the one thing nature doesn't do is lie. It just goes ahead and does its thing, as Matt would say. Walks tall and shoots straight. It may not be very nice some of the time but it doesn't tell lies. Which is why I think the country and babies is the answer. And when I say the country I don't mean one of those villages just off the motorway full of people just like us buying Australian Chardonnay from the local wine merchant and the only time you hear an oo-aarr accent is when you're listening to the Archers in the bath. I mean the real country, somewhere hidden away – Wales maybe or Yorkshire.

2. Translate sentences using functional analogs. Preserve the original pragmatic effect.

1. І тоді райвиконкомівській чиновник відкрив «зелене світло» спекулятивним кооперативам - більш надійним і поступливим.

And then a low range official pushes open the gates before commercial structures that just eager for incomes and are much more obedient.

2. Як тільки притиснули махінаторів, корумповані елементи, тіньову політику, з'явилися соціальні провокації.

3. Те, що явище навколоторчої групівщини існує, - це є факт.

4. У тодішніх дітлахів був ще один привілей - кататися на ковбасі трамвая, чи вхопившись за роги тролейбуса.

5. Інтернет, звичайно, не може цілком вирішити проблему «ножиць» між центром і периферією, але пом'якшити її може.

6. Шоу-бізнес на пострадянському просторі розвивається за своїми законами, але на першому місці для него стоять касові збори.

7. Ще перспективнішим є прилучення жителів глибинки за допомогою телебачення до культурних явищ центру.

8. Часом стає гірко за метушню в літературі за принципом: «Не вкусиш - не заснеш», "не дзявкнеш - не помітять».

Тема 6.

1. Translate the texts by the method of formal correspondence of the original.

Text A.

Inflation is generally defined as a persistent rise in the general price level with no corresponding rise in output, which leads to a corresponding fall in the purchasing power of money.

In this section we shall look briefly at the problems that inflation causes for business and consider whether there are any potential benefits for an enterprise from an inflationary period.

Inflation varies considerably in its extent and severity. Hence, the consequences for the business community differ according to circumstances. Mild inflation of a few per cent each year may pose few difficulties for business. However, hyperinflation, which entails enormously high rates of inflation, can create almost insurmountable problems for the government, business, consumers and workers. In post-war Hungary, the cost of living was published each day and workers were paid daily so as to avoid the value of their earnings falling. Businesses would have experienced great difficulty in costing and pricing their production while the incentive for people to save would have been removed.

Economists argue at length about the causes of, and "cures" for, inflation. They would, however, recognize that two general types of inflation exist:

- demand-pull inflation (інфляція попиту);
- cost-push inflation (інфляція витрат).

Demand-pull inflation occurs when demand for a nation's goods and services outstrips that nation's ability to supply these goods and services. This causes prices to rise generally as a means of limiting demand to the available supply.

An alternative way that we can look at this type of inflation is to say that it occurs when injections exceed withdrawals and the economy is already stretched (i.e. little available labour or factory space) and there is little scope to increase further its level of activity.

Cost-push inflation. Alternatively, inflation can be of the cost-push variety. It takes place when firms face increasing costs. This could be caused by an increase in wages owing to trade union militancy, the rising costs of imported raw materials and components or companies pushing up prices in order to improve their profit margins.

Text B.

Поняття інтертекстуальності:

1. Інтертекстуальність, тобто вкраплення в текст інших текстів у вигляді цитат, алюзій, ремінісценцій, є найвиразнішою ознакою постмодернізму, невідтворення якої в перекладі порушує постмодерністську поетику.

2. На переклад інтертекстуальних одиниць впливає багатозначність постмодерністського тексту, яка породжує множинність інтерпретацій. Це надає перекладачеві широкі повноваження відтворювати інтертекстуальні одиниці відповідно до власної інтерпретаційної позиції.

3. Домінантою відтворення інтертекстуальних одиниць у перекладі є передача смислової напруги між „своїм” і „чужим” словом, сплетіння яких створює ігрове поле постмодерністського тексту, забезпечення впізнаваності „чужого” слова як „чужого” на цільовому інтертекстуальному полі, що призводить до виникнення у читача перекладу асоціативних вібрацій і складає основу для „генерування” смислів.

4. Спосіб перекладу інтертекстуальних одиниць залежить від їх належності до універсальної, національної та індивідуальної енциклопедії.

5. Інтертекстуальні одиниці, що належать до універсальної енциклопедії, входять до спільного інтертекстуального простору як

читача оригіналу, так і читача перекладу. Їх доцільно перекладати шляхом цитування канонічного перекладу, що функціонує в рамках культури-реципієнта, або, якщо цитата належить до текстів національної літератури культури-реципієнта, – шляхом відтворення відповідника безпосередньо з цитованого джерела.

6. Інтертекстуальні одиниці, що належать до національної та індивідуальної енциклопедій, доцільно перекладати так:

- шляхом точного відтворення лексичного матеріалу з коментарем (детерміновані культурною пам'яттю окремої особистості цитатні імена, цитати з творів маловідомих авторів, автоцитати, а також імена національних реально-історичних осіб та літературні імена національної літератури);

- шляхом підбору функціонального аналога у культурі-реципієнті (цитати з національної літератури та фольклорні цитати);

- шляхом експлікації змісту усічених інтертекстуальних одиниць (цитати із тоталітарної мови радянського періоду).

Способи перекладу інтертекстуальних одиниць та обґрунтування оптимальних перекладацьких рішень при відтворенні інтертекстуальних одиниць залежать від жанрово-стилістичного характеру тексту-джерела, а також від лінгвістичного типу такої одиниці. Зокрема, основою прийому одомашнення щодо інтертекстуальних одиниць є заміна інтертекстуальної одиниці функціональним аналогом культури-реципієнта. Прийом очуження щодо інтертекстуальних одиниць полягає у дослівному перекладі інтертекстуальної одиниці та супроводженні її коментарем.

2. Choose one of your favorite portions of text from postmodern fiction and translate it into Ukrainian using the principle of dynamic equivalence.

Тема 7

1. Study the text that follows and give your examples per each item.

Ukrainian speech behaviour is more explicit and direct than English conversational norms

1. Ukrainian imperative forms correspond to English indirect directives:

Запишіть, будь ласка, це визначення.

Розкажіть про себе, будь ласка.

Дозвольте запитати Вас.

Не панікуй, тримайся.

Could I ask you to write this definition?

Would you tell us something about yourself?

Will you answer my question?

You must keep cool.

For example, in English the questions of the type ‘Can I do .?’ are more polite than the questions of ‘Can you do .?’ type. In Ukrainian these differences are not relevant because the intention remains the same. Compare: *Ти не міг би дати мені свою сумку? Можу я взяти твою сумку?*

2. In Ukrainian, direct instructions are quite common; while an English speaker would prefer imbedded hints:

Спочатку закінчуйте твір, потім Why don't you finish your essay
переходьте до наступного тексту. first and then you can turn to the
next text?

3. English speakers are known for the extensive use of hedges to soften both statements and questions. Let us look at some of them:

- opinion phrases: in my opinion, if I'm not mistaken, as far as I know, I'd like to mention; personally, I don't feel...; Forgive me, if I'm wrong, but..., I believe, I suppose, e.g.: I don't feel you're making the best choice.= It is not the best choice for you.

- generalizing and probability phrases: it is well known, they say, it is widely accepted, it appears, you are not supposed to., one can't know for sure, etc.: e.g.: One can't know for sure, it depends on many things. = I don't know for sure.

4. In English, modal verbs and conditionals are often used to express indirectness: I wonder if you might be interested in.?, If I were you I'd be interested in.... It would be better if you were interested in .., I wish you wouldn't be..., etc.: I wish you wouldn't disclose those facts. You mustn't / shouldn't disclose the facts.

5. English speakers often use the so-called distancing tense forms. Past or Future tenses would replace the Simple Present tense.

For example: *That will be 10 dollars (that is 10 dollars).* - *That'll be O'K (that is O 'K).* (in a shop); *How much did you intend to spend?* - *How much do you want to spend?*

2. Pick up and examine a publicistic article and answer the following questions, producing linguistic evidence (actual words, grammar, etc.) to support your view:

- *What in your estimation is the writer's ultimate aim (purpose)?*

- *How does the text affect you as a reader?*

- *What adaptations a translator is to perform to make the rendered text sound pragmatically faithful to the original.*

Tema 8

1. Read the text. Write an analytical abstract of 2-3 pages about one of the topics: directed equivalence, concepts of expectance, localization, etc. you find would have the greatest impact on translation studies.

Corpora in translation studies

Stig Johanson, Scandinavian linguist, founder of this theory treats **Corpus linguistics** as the branch of linguistics that studies language on the basis of corpora, i.e., ‘bodies of texts assembled in a principled way’. A **text**, in turn, can be defined as ‘an instance of language in use, either spoken or written: a piece of language behaviour which has occurred naturally, without the intervention of the linguist’. Corpus linguists thus take an empirical approach to the description of language: they insist upon the primacy of authentic, attested instances of use, an approach which has been mirrored in recent years by developments in descriptive translation studies.

Raw corpora, i.e., untagged, unparsed corpora, can be treated as sequences of characters in running text that are delimited by spaces, in other words, sequences of orthographic words. Such running words or tokens can be counted and the number of times a single form or type appears can be calculated. The frequency of occurrence of single types can thus be worked out for the whole corpus. The number of different types compared to the total number of tokens in the corpus yields the **type-token** ratio for that corpus. Type-token ratios tell us something about the variety of the vocabulary used in a corpus. Another measure, that of **lexical density**, indicates what percentage of running words is made up of lexical (vocabulary) words, and hence what percentage is occupied by grammatical words. In simplistic terms, a low lexical density would mean high redundancy and hence predictability in a text.

Corpora in translation studies

Baker (1995) describes various types of electronic corpora that are of specific interest to translation scholars. In Baker’s terminology, a **parallel corpus** consists of texts originally written in a language A alongside their translations into a language B. Parallel corpus have already been compiled for several language pairs, including English-French. Alignment techniques may be used to provide explicit links between source sentences and target sentences, or source words and target words. Johansson and Hofland (1994) provide a useful summary of alignment procedures based on comparisons of source and target-sentence length and the use of predefined lexical correspondences between source and target languages. Parallel corpora can be used to provide information on language-pair specific translational

behaviour, to posit certain equivalence relationships between lexical items or structures in source and target languages, or to study the phenomenon of translationese. Typical applications of parallel corpora include translator training, bilingual lexicography and machine translation.

Baker uses the term **multilingual corpus** to refer to ‘sets of two or more monolingual corpora in different languages, built up in either the same or different institutions on the basis of similar design criteria’. A multilingual corpus therefore consists of texts that have not been translated; rather they are all originals in their respective languages. Baker, however, has expressed reservations about the usefulness of multilingual corpora in theoretical translation studies, claiming that work using multilingual corpora is based on the erroneous assumption that ‘there is a natural way of saying anything in any language, and that all we need to do is to find out how to say something naturally in language A and language B’. Even in contrastive linguistics, multilingual corpora can present practical problems if the texts in the different languages are not well matched in terms of genre and situational factors.

Baker’s **comparable corpus** consists of a collection of texts originally written in a language, say English, alongside a collection of texts translated (from one or more languages) into English. Of the three types of corpus she identifies, it is the comparable corpus that Baker suggests will reveal most about the specific features of translated text, i.e., those features that occur exclusively, or with unusually low or high frequency, in translated text as opposed to other types of text production, and that cannot be traced back to the influence of any one particular source text or language.

Baker outlines the following hypotheses whose universal status could be investigated using comparable corpora: translated texts tend to be more explicit, unambiguous, and grammatically conventional than their source texts or other texts produced in the target language; they also tend to avoid repetitions that occur in the source text and to exaggerate features of the target language. Baker also suggests that translation may involve some kind of ‘levelling out’ by gravitating towards the centre of continua, such as that between orality and literacy.

Corpus linguistic techniques allow much more powerful generalizations to be made about translation, however. If, for example, translations were to display a high type-token ratio, low lexical density and low sentence length *vis-a-vis* other texts in the same language, then this would support the ‘simplification hypothesis’, for example.

Likewise, increased text length and a disproportionate number of explanatory vocabulary words and conjunctions could support the ‘EXPLICITATION hypothesis’ (Baker).

Corpora and the software for processing them undoubtedly provide translation scholars with powerful tools for studying the very nature of translation. Some translation theorists have, however, sounded a note of caution they warn that the bulk of statistical evidence provided by corpora may lead scholars to ‘treat as marginal, if not exactly ignore, problematic cases’. Also the selection of translated texts for inclusion in a parallel corpus can affect what the observer notices to an undesirable degree, and that ‘a parallel corpus still only provides, for each instance, the result of one individual’s introspection, albeit contextually and cotextually informed’, thus making a case for corpora that contain several translations of a single source text.

Finally, they stress that ‘in order to be able to provide any kinds of explanation of the data provided by the corpus, rather than mere statistics, analysts really need substantially more context than computers tend to search and display’. Comparable corpora too have their problems: it is in the very nature of translation that new genres are introduced from one literature to another, and there may be nothing ‘comparable’ in the host literature to a text introduced to it through translation from another textual tradition. This difficulty is similar to one faced by scholars working with lesser-used languages: the only exemplars of many (non-literary) text types in Irish Gaelic, for instance, are translations, mainly from English; there are no ‘native’ texts with which to compare translations. The effects of the economy of translation have also been felt by Johansson and Hofland, whose choice of texts for selection in their English-Norwegian bidirectional, parallel corpus has been limited by the fact that ‘a large number and a wide range of texts have been translated into Norwegian, but far less in the other direction’.

Perhaps the greatest challenge that faces corpus-based research into translation stems from the fact that corpus linguistics has always been data driven: it has proceeded from the bottom up, using concrete facts to make generalizations about particular languages (Baker 1997:185). Much current translation scholarship, however, proceeds top down: theorists are interested in finding evidence to support abstract hypotheses. Translation studies thus makes very particular demands on corpora, and ongoing research in translation studies may lead to new ways of looking at corpora just as corpora are already leading to new ways of looking at translation.

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