

**Міністерство освіти і науки України
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**Факультет філології та соціальних комунікацій
Кафедра іноземних мов і методики викладання**

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**Теорія та практика перекладу
для майбутнього вчителя**

Навчальний посібник

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Пропонований інтерактивний посібник містить англomовний лекційний матеріал, методичні рекомендації щодо проведення практичних занять, вправи та список літератури. Зміст лекцій англійською мовою містить відомості щодо загальнотеоретичних основ перекладу, класифікації видів перекладу, засобів адекватного перекладу різних мовних одиниць, понять і явищ англійської мови українською; принципів та плану аналізу лексико-граматичних трансформацій у спеціальних текстах професійної тематики; лексико-граматичних питань перекладу.

Запропоновані матеріали мають посилання на актуальні ресурси мережі Інтернет, що надає студентам можливість для самоосвіти. Посібник має інформативну теоретичну складову та завдання, вправи, орієнтовані на формування та удосконалення навичок перекладу. Залежно від рівня підготовки завдання можуть виконуватися під керівництвом викладача або пропонуватися ним для самостійної роботи студентів.

Передбачено активізацію діяльності студентів, орієнтовану на удосконалення знань та вмінь; завдання відповідно до змісту та проблематики супроводжуються добром вправ і завдань, активних посилань на джерела мережі Інтернет, Qrcodes, які розвивають комунікативні уміння, необхідні в умовах інформатизованого суспільства.

Рекомендований для студентів спеціальності 013 Початкова освіта.

УДК 811,111' 253 (075,8)

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

У контексті оновлення освітньої парадигми відбулися зміни у Державних галузевих стандартах і відповідно розширився діапазон навчальних дисциплін, орієнтованих на формування іншомовної компетенції вчителя-мовника. У свою чергу процес інтеграції до європейської системи навчання, прогресивні зміни в освітньому просторі зумовили зростання вимог до загального рівня підготовки майбутнього вчителя, обізнаного щодо іноземної мови, літератури та культури. Закономірно збільшився діапазон навчальних дисциплін, які пропонуються студентам до опанування, адже навчальні плани сучасної школи передбачають оволодіння учнями іноземною мовою та літературою. З огляду на це викладання навчальної дисципліни «Теорія та практика перекладу» у процесі фахової підготовки майбутніх вчителів початкової школи є необхідним та обґрунтованим. У посібнику розкрито завдання означеної дисципліни, представлено історичну ретроспективу закономірностей розвитку теорії та практики перекладу, виявлено специфіку предмета, підкреслено граматичні та лексичні проблеми, що можуть виникнути під час перекладу.

Зібрано багатий і різноманітний теоретичний матеріал, який певною мірою відтворює генезу розвитку історії теорії та практики перекладу від її витоків до сучасності. Надано програму, тематику лекцій, плани проведення практичних занять, список базової та допоміжної літератури. Зміст лекцій англійською мовою містить відомості щодо загальнотеоретичних основ перекладу, класифікації видів перекладу, засобів адекватного перекладу різних мовних одиниць, понять і явищ англійської мови українською; принципів та плану аналізу лексико-граматичних трансформацій у спеціальних текстах професійної тематики, лексико-граматичних питань перекладу.

Передбачено активізацію діяльності студентів, орієнтовану на удосконалення знань та вмінь; завдання відповідно до змісту та проблематики супроводжуються добром вправ і завдань, активних посилань на джерела мережі Інтернет, Qrcodes, які розвивають комунікативні уміння, необхідні в умовах інформатизованого суспільства.

НАВЧАЛЬНА ПРОГРАМА

Метою курсу дисципліни є розвиток навичок практичної професійної діяльності на базі теоретичних знань, формування у студентів навичок перекладу, розширення та систематизація теоретичних знань студентів у окресленій галузі.

Програма враховує актуальні зміни, що відбуваються в системі вищої освіти України, які було започатковано процесом інтеграції країни в європейський простір вищої освіти.

Мета, завдання, зміст навчання і методика підготовки фахівців відповідають сучасним досягненням лінгвістики, перекладознавства, методики викладання іноземних мов, педагогіки та психології.

Програма курсу “Теорія та практика перекладу” реалізується шляхом досягнення таких цілей:

практична: формувати у студентів загальні та професійно орієнтовані навички мовної та мовленнєвої компетенцій для реалізації ефективної комунікації;

освітня: надати студентам необхідні теоретичні та практичні знання з теорії та практики перекладу та сформувати навички коректного перекладу текстів художнього, публіцистичного та наукового стилів на рівні B2+ для їхньої роботи;

пізнавальна: залучати студентів до видів перекладацької діяльності, які активізують та розвивають спектр пізнавальних здібностей;

соціальна: сприяти розвитку критичного усвідомлення інформації та формуванню вмінь здійснювати кроскультурну комунікацію за допомогою перекладацької діяльності.

Основні завдання курсу:

- 1) сформувати навички лексико-граматичного та стилістичного аналізу тексту;
- 2) сформувати навички використання лексичних, граматичних та синтаксичних конструкцій під час перекладу текстів;
- 3) сформувати перекладацьку компетентність студентів на рівні B2;
- 4) розвивати вміння стилістично коректного перекладу.

Інтегровані вимоги до знань і вмінь із навчальної дисципліни:

В результаті вивчення курсу “Теорії та практики перекладу” студент повинен знати:

- загальнотеоретичні основи перекладу, зокрема роль і значення перекладу для здійснення багатосторонніх зв'язків на різних рівнях комунікації;
- класифікацію видів перекладу;
- засоби адекватного перекладу різних мовних одиниць, понять і явищ англійської мови українською;
- принципи та план аналізу лексико-граматичних трансформацій у спеціальних текстах професійної тематики;
- лексико-граматичні питання перекладу, семантичні та стильові аспекти перекладу.

Студент повинен вміти:

- 1) вільно володіти теоретичним матеріалом з дисципліни та методологічними основами перекладу;
- 2) адекватно будувати та перекладати речення, розуміти подану інформацію з певної тематики, розуміти сучасну лексику;
- 3) перекладати назви, зокрема географічні, інтернаціоналізми, реалії суспільно-політичного життя, усталені та ідіоматичні вирази англійської та української мов;
- 4) користуватися спеціалізованими друкованими словниками;
- 5) використовувати у процесі перекладу веб-контент.

Міждисциплінарні зв'язки навчальної дисципліни: дисципліна «Теорія та практика перекладу» тематично пов'язана з дисциплінами, що вивчаються згідно з навчальним планом освітньої кваліфікації «бакалавр»: практичний курс іноземної мови; теоретичний курс іноземної мови (морфологія, лексикологія, стилістика); країнознавство (реалії, власні назви тощо).

Опис навчальної дисципліни

Найменування показників	Галузь знань, напрям підготовки, освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень	Характеристика навчальної дисципліни	
		денна форма навчання	заочна форма навчання
Кількість кредитів – 3,5	Галузь знань “0101 Педагогічна освіта”	Нормативна	
	Напрямок підготовки: <u>013 “Початкова освіта.”</u>		
Модулів – 7		Рік підготовки:	
Змістових модулів – 7		4-й	4-й
		Семестр	
Загальна кількість годин - 126		8-й	8-й
Тижневих годин для денної форми навчання: аудиторних – 56 самостійної роботи студента - 70	Освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень: “бакалавр”	Лекції	
		28 год.	год.
		Практичні, семінарські	
		28 год.	8 год.
		Лабораторні	
		год.	год.
		Самостійна робота	
		70 год.	118 год.
	Вид контролю: залік		

ЗМІСТ НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ПРОГРАМИ

Змістовий модуль 1.

Translation as a Notion and Subject. Significance of Translating. Translation and Interpretation During the Middle Ages. Translation of the Renaissance Period. Translation During the Period of the Classicism and Enlightenment. Translation in Ukraine in the Last Decade of the 20th.

Змістовий модуль 2.

Ways of Translation. Machine Translation. Kinds of Translating. Suggested Topics of Self – Control and Class Discussion. Levels of Linguistic Structure. Text and Discourse. Interpretation. Cohesion and Text Organization. Artefact and Mentafact Texts. The Levels of the Language Structure. The Definition of the Text. Different Approaches to Defining the Linguistic Nature of Text.

Змістовий модуль 3.

The Notion of the Functional Styles. Official Style. Scientific Prose Style. Newspaper and Publicistic Styles. Rendering of Form in Translating Emotive Prose. National Character of Stylistic

Змістовий модуль 4.

Types of Equivalence. The First Type of Equivalence. Second Type of Equivalence. Stylistic Aspect of Equivalence. Pragmatic Aspect of Equivalence. Repetition as Lexical and Semantic Means of Cohesion in the Text. Lexical Problem. Three Types of Lexical meaning. Referential Meaning and its Rendering in Translation. Divergences in the Semantic Structure of Words. False friends of the translator.

Змістовий модуль 5.

Translation of Polysemantic Words. Contextual Meaning of Polysemantic Words. Words of Wide Meaning. Translation of Pseudo-International Words. Non-equivalents. Translation of Words of Emotive meaning. Rendering of Stylistic Meaning in Translation. Types of Grammatical Transformations. Transpositions. Replacements. Additions. Omissions. Three Types of Lexical meaning. Referential meaning and its Rendering in Translation. Divergences in the Semantic Structure of words. Different Valency. Different Usage. Translation of Monosemantic Words. Geographical Names. Names of Months, Seasons and Days of the Week. Numerals. Names of Street. Names of Hotels. Names of Sports and Games. Names of Periodicals. Names of Institutions and Organizations. Rendering of the Contextual Meanings of the Definite and Indefinite Articles. Transcription, Transliteration and Translation. The Notion of the Transliteration. The Notion of the Transcription as the Phonetical Way of the Rendering of Proper Names.

Змістовий модуль 6.

Translation of Phraseological Units. Non-equivalents. Concretization. Generalization. Antonymic Translation. Metonymic Translation. Paraphrasing. Violation of Phraseological Units and its Rendering. Foregrounding and Translation. Foregrounding of Articles. Degrees of Comparison. Original Metaphors and Their Translation. Transferred Epithet and its Translation.

Змістовий модуль 7.

Partial Equivalents. The Infinitive. The Participle as Part of an Absolute Construction. Free and Bound Use of Grammatical Forms. Word Building. Suffixes. Conversation and Foregrounding. Emphatic Constructions. Inversion as a Means of Emphasis. Emphatic Use of the “As...as” Model. Emphatic Negative Constructions. Semantic Foregrounding. Translating of English Verbals and Verbal Constructions. Ways of Translating the Participles and Participial Constructions. Ways of Translating the Objective with the Participle Constructions.

Структура навчальної дисципліни

Назви змістових модулів і тем	Кількість годин											
	денна форма						Заочна форма					
	усього	у тому числі					усього	у тому числі				
		л	п	лаб	ін д	с.р .		л	п	лаб	ін д	с. р.
Модуль 1												
Змістовий модуль 1. Translation as a Notion and Subject.												
Тема 1. Theory and the Practice of the Translation	9	2	2			5	9		2			7
Тема 2. A short Historical Outline of European and Ukrainian Translation	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 1	18	4	4			10	18		2			16
Змістовий модуль 2. Basis Notions of Text Analysis.												
Тема 3. Main Types of Translation	9	2	2			5	9		2			7
Тема 4. Text and Discourse	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 2	18	4	4			10	18		2			16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Змістовий модуль 3. Some Fundamentals of Equivalence.												
Тема 5. The functional Styles	9	2	2			5	9		2			7
Тема 6. Translation of Drama, Poetry and Prose	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 3	18	4	4			10	18		2			17
Змістовий модуль 4. Grammatical and Lexical Peculiarities of Translation.												
Тема 7. Types of Equivalence	9	2	2			5	9		2			7
Тема 8. Three Types of Lexical meaning.	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 4	18	4	4			10	18		2			17
Змістовий модуль 5. Ways of Translation of Proper Names.												
Тема 9. Translation of the International words	9	2	2			5	9					9
Тема 10. Translation of Proper Names	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 5	18	4	4			10	18					18
Змістовий модуль 6. Ways of Translation of Participial Constructions.												
Тема 11. Rendering of Phraseological Units	9	2	2			5	9					9
Тема 12. Translation of the Idioms	9	2	2			5	9					9

Теорія та практика перекладу

Разом за змістовим модулем 6	18	4	4			10	18					18
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Змістовий модуль 7. Rendering of Phraseological Units.												
Тема 13. Emphatic Constructions	9	2	2			5	9					9
14. Grammar transformations Ways of Translating the Participles and Participial Constructions	9	2	2			5	9					9
Разом за змістовим модулем 7	18	4	4			10	18					18
Усього годин	126	28	28			70	126		8			118

Самостійна робота

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин
1	2	3
1	Повідомлення з теми: «Translation as a Notion and Subject».	8
2	Повідомлення з теми: «Different Valency».	9
3	Повідомлення з теми «Three Types of Lexical meaning».	8
4	Повідомлення з теми: «Referential meaning and its Rendering in Translation».	9
5	Повідомлення з теми «Divergences in the Semantic Structure of words».	8
6	Повідомлення з теми: «Different Translation of Monosemantic Words».	9
7	Повідомлення з теми: «Significance of Translating. Ways of Translation»	8
8	Повідомлення з теми: «Machine Translation. Kinds of Translating».	9
9	Повідомлення з теми: «Translation and Interpretation During the Middle Ages».	8
10	Повідомлення з теми «Translation During the Period of the Classicism and Enlightenment.»	9

11	Повідомлення з теми «Translation During the Renaissance Period».	8
1	2	3
12	Повідомлення з теми: «Translation in Ukraine During the Last Decade of the 20 th ».	8
13	Повідомлення з теми «False friends of the translator. Translation of Polysemantic Words».	8
14	Повідомлення з теми «Translation During the Ancient Ages».	
	Разом	70

Індивідуальні завдання

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин
1	2	3
1	Повідомлення з теми: «Translation as a Notion and Subject».	5
2	Повідомлення з теми: «Different Valency».	5
3	Повідомлення з теми: «Three Types of Lexical meaning».	5
4	Повідомлення з теми: «Referential meaning and its Rendering in Translation».	5
5	Повідомлення з теми: «Divergences in the Semantic Structure of words».	5
6	Повідомлення з теми: «Different Translation of Monosemantic Words».	5
	Разом	30

Методи навчання та контролю

Методи організації та здійснення навчально-пізнавальної діяльності: пояснювально-ілюстративний, продуктивний методи, розповідь-пояснення, бесіда, бінарна лекція, лекція-дискусія.

Методи стимулювання з мотивації навчально-пізнавальної діяльності: інтегрований, частково-пошуковий, дослідницький.

Важливим компонентом процесу оволодіння студентом майбутньою спеціальністю є перевірка набутих знань і вмінь. Перевірка знань, вмінь і навичок, зазвичай буває чотирьох видів: *попередня, поточна, періодична, підсумкова*. Будь-який контроль знань має свою форму, яка поділяється за способом подання інформації і за способом організації перевірки засвоєного навчального матеріалу. За способом подання інформації контроль знань здійснюють в усній та письмовій формі. Також виділяють програмований машинний і безмашинний контроль.

За способом організації контрольну перевірку знань і вмінь слід поділяти на фронтальну, групову, диференційовану та індивідуальну. У практиці частіше зустрічаються змішані види перевірки знань, які можуть здійснюватись, наприклад, за таких форм: у письмовій (за способом подання інформації) і груповій (за способом організації), або усній і фронтальній.

Поточне оцінювання здійснюється протягом курсу і дає можливість отримати негайну інформацію про результати навчання студента під час конкретного модуля.

Модульне оцінювання здійснюється по закінченню вивчення навчального матеріалу кожного модуля. Ця форма дозволяє з'ясувати, чи досягли студенти мети.

Модульне оцінювання охоплює контроль лексико-граматичних навичок, читання та розуміння прочитаного.

МЕТОДИЧНІ РЕКОМЕНДАЦІЇ ЩОДО САМОСТІЙНОЇ РОБОТИ

У нових навчальних технологіях студент є співучасником процесу конструювання нових знань за допомогою розуміння-застосування знань. Це наближає навчання до життя і майбутньої професійної діяльності. Головним у навчальному процесі стає забезпечення режиму найбільшого сприяння розвитку здібностей студентів, задоволення індивідуальних інтересів, пов'язаних з обраною професією.

Особливого значення набуває організація самостійної роботи при вивченні іноземної мови, яка має специфічні особливості: опрацювання першоджерел, читання автентичної літератури за фахом, робота із довідниками та галузевими словниками. Тому від правильної організації самостійної роботи значною мірою залежить ефективність процесу навчання.

Самостійна робота як компонент навчального процесу є пізнавальною діяльністю, яка проектується викладачем, але без його безпосередньої участі. За місцем виконання самостійну роботу можна поділити на домашню, аудиторну та лабораторну. Викладач як організатор навчального процесу повинен планувати самостійну роботу, керувати нею та контролювати її.

Самостійна робота студентів – це одна з організаційних форм навчання, яка регламентується робочим навчальним планом. Зміст самостійної роботи визначається в навчальній програмі кожної дисципліни з орієнтацією на вимоги освітньо-кваліфікаційної характеристики фахівця.

Навчальний матеріал, передбачений для самостійного опрацювання студентом, підлягає підсумковому контролю нарівні з матеріалом, якій опрацьовується під час навчальних занять.

Етапи самостійної роботи:

1 етап – нормування, планування, організація.

2 етап – ознайомлення студентів із навчально-методичним забезпеченням самостійної роботи.

3 етап – аудиторна робота; позааудиторна робота.

4 етап – самоконтроль; самоперевірка; контроль викладача.

5 етап – самокорекція; корекція викладачем. Реферат – короткий виклад у письмовій формі чи виголошений усно основний зміст опрацьованої студентом літератури з певної проблеми. Як правило, реферат готується з певної теми і у ньому узагальнюється декілька публікацій, присвячених цій темі (підручників, посібників, монографій, статей). У рефераті необхідно висловити своє ставлення до аналізованої проблеми, інакше він перетвориться у звичайний конспект.

Питання для самоперевірки

1. What is the subject matter of the translation?
2. Why is it so difficult to give an invulnerable translation of the word?
Give your own operational definition of the word.
3. What is a translation?
4. What types of texts do you know?
5. Give an operational definition of the adequate translation.
6. What periods of the development of the translation do you know?
7. What do we call technical translation?
8. What are the main criteria for classifications of the translation?
9. Enumerate the notional and functional styles.
10. What part of speech is present in Modern English but doesn't exist in Modern Ukrainian and Modern Russian?
11. What are the main indications of the noun as a part of speech?
12. What grammatical categories of the noun have to be counted?
13. What do we call the equivalent translation? Give a definition.
14. Comment on the category of case in Modern English.
15. Comment on the peculiarities of the category of number in Modern English.
16. Comment on the so-called Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum nouns. Give a comparative characteristics of the Singularia Tantum and Pluralia Tantum semantic groups of nouns in Modern English and Modern Ukrainian and Russian.
17. Is -'s a monosemantic or polysemantic morpheme? Give your reasons.
18. Why is the -'s so shiftable?
19. Comment on the polysemy of (compare with the polysemy of the Genitive case in Modern Ukrainian and Russian).
20. Give examples of the so-called «double Genitive* in Modern English.
21. Compare the syntactical functions of the Ukrainian syntactical particle "6h" with the functions of the -'s. Was Prof. G. N. Vorontsova right asserting that -'s should be treated as a syntactical particle in Modern English (like "to" or "6h")?
22. Can nouns be used in the function of an attribute in Modern English? And in Modern Ukrainian and Russian? Why?
23. What is the implicit lexico-grammatical meaning of the adjective as a part of speech?
24. What accounts for the fact that not all adjectives can be used in the comparative and the superlative degree?
25. What implicit lexico-grammatical category underlies the inner classification of adjectives in Modern English?
26. Challenge or support the view that there are only two degrees of comparison in English, Ukrainian and Russian.
27. Do you admit the existence of analytical degrees-of comparison in Modern English, Ukrainian and Russian? Why?
28. What is time and tense?

29. On what kind of opposition is the category of tense based in Modern English and Ukrainian?
30. What do they call «functional transposition of grammatical forms»?
31. How many tense forms are there in Modern English and Ukrainian?
32. Give comment on the problem of the future tense forms. Questions for self-correction:
33. Give a definition of the category of aspect.
34. What type of opposition is the category of aspect based on in Modern English and Ukrainian?
35. What is the difference and correlation between English and Ukrainian tense-aspect forms?
36. What other means (besides the grammatical) of expressing the lexico-grammatical category of aspectuality do you know?
37. What do we call the category of voice?
38. What verbs can be used in passive forms in English?
39. Comment on the use of the Passive voice in Modern English.
40. Comment on the problem of number of voices in Modern English.
41. What means of expressing modality do you know?
42. What is the category of mood? Give a definition.
43. How many moods are there in Modern English, Ukrainian and Russian?
44. What is the reason for the existing controversy of views on the essence and number of moods in Modern English?
45. Do any implicit lexico-grammatical categories restrict the realization of the category of mood in Modern English, Ukrainian and Russian?
46. What is Prof. B. O. Ilyish's view of such verb forms as «*If I knew her address (now) I would write a letter to her*» and: «*If he had known ...he would have written ...*», etc.? Do you challenge or support him? Why?
47. How did the Perfect forms originate historically? (Consult a manual on history of English).
48. What are the various interpretations of the grammatical status and the semantic content of the Perfect forms? What are the pro- and contra- arguments as to their status?
49. What is A.I.Smirnitsky's interpretation of the essence of the Perfect forms of the verb?
50. What name did A.I. Smirnitsky give to his newly-identified morphological category of the verb? Why?
51. What does syntax deal with and what are the two basic units of syntax? What is the fundamental difference between them?
52. What are the different concepts of the phrase (word combination)? Give a definition of the phrase.
53. Are such forms as "has come" or "will go" phrases?
54. What types and kinds of phrases do you know?
55. What are the most interesting syntactical patterns of subordinate phrases? Compare the syntactical patterns of Modern English, Ukrainian and Russian.

56. What are the four means of expressing syntactic connections between the constituents of a subordinate phrase? Which of them is the most wide spread in English and Ukrainian?

57. What is a preposition-like phrase?

58. What are the main constituting features of the sentence? Give an operational definition of the sentence.

59. What are predication and modality? What means of expressing modality do you know?

60. How are sentences classified in Modern English? What is the difference between elliptical and one-member sentences? What two main types of one-member sentences do you know? What problem concerning the only part of one-member sentences do you know?

61. What is a simple complicated sentence?

Розподіл балів, які отримують студенти

Приклад для заліку

Поточне тестування та самостійна робота																Сума
ЗМ 1		ЗМ 2		ЗМ 3		ЗМ 4		ЗМ 5		ЗМ 6		ЗМ 7		ЗМ 8		
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	
10		15		10		15		10		15		10		15		100

Шкала оцінювання: національна та ECTS

Сума балів за всі види навчальної діяльності	Оцінка ECTS	Оцінка за національною шкалою	
		для екзамену, курсового проекту (роботи), практики	для заліку
90 – 100	A	відмінно	зараховано
80-89	B	добре	
65-79	C		
55-64	D	задовільно	
50-54	E		
35-49	FX	незадовільно	не зараховано
1-34	F	незадовільно	не зараховано

Рекомендована література

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CREDIT 1

Module 1.

A short Historical Outline Translation.

Lecture 1. Theory and the Practice of the Translation

Plan

1. Translation as the process of the interlingual communication.
2. The importance of the translation and its main goals.
3. Translation in teaching of foreign languages.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
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1. Translation as the process of the interlingual communication.

The meaning of the translation cannot be overvalued. It has the significant role in the process of the interlingual connection and communication. The translator makes possible the exchange of certain informational material which is given by the communicants from different countries by producing in the target language (TL or the translating language) a text which has an equal value with the source (or original) text (ST). This target text (TT, that is the translation) is not exactly the same with the ST as to its form or content due to the limits, caused by the formal and semantic differences of languages (SL) and TL. The communicants identify it, to all intents and purposes, with ST - functionally, structurally and semantically.

Translation as a term and notion is of polysemantic nature, its common and most general meaning being mostly associated with the action or process of

rendering/expressing the meaning/content of a source language word, word-group, sentence or passage (larger text) in the target language or with the result of the process/action of rendering. The term «Translation» is also used to denote the subject of research, the examination in the subject (We have translation in the time-table today; I have to pass translation this month). «Translation» may refer to the title of the manual/theoretical work on the subject (I study **Translation** by Korunetc).

The term «**interpretation**» is the synonym to the term «**translation**» and helps to denote the way or manner of interpreting of the meaning of the material too. The interpretation can be characterized thanks to its analysis, its genre, its stylistic peculiarities which were made by the translator. The main difference is in the certain freedom which «interpretation», unlike «translation», gives to the translator in his work. This explains the existence of free versifications and free adaptation which are rightly treated as new creations (when they are of high artistic value). Consequently, «interpretation» may denote apart from the oral method of translation also a peculiar, pertained to a master of the pen and characteristic of him, as well as the only way of presenting a prose or poetic work in translation. («Interpretation» may also denote the style of a peculiar translator and his way of presenting a particular literary work).

Apart from the two mentioned above, there are some other terms in the theory of translation which have to be clarified to the inexperienced student. These usually common terms are: accurate or exact translation точний переклад; faithful (or realistic) translation, адекватний/вірний переклад; faithfulness of translation/interpretation, адекватність/вірність перекладу/ тлумачення; fidelity (or faithfulness) of translation/interpretation вірність, адекватність перекладу; equivalent translation/interpretation еквівалентний переклад; free interpretation **вільний переклад**, перелицювання; free adaptation **вільний переклад**, переробка; free interpretation **вільний переспів**, перелицювання; free/loose translation **вільний переклад**, переказ; consecutive interpretation послідовний переклад, усне тлумачення; off-hand translation/ interpretation переклад/тлумачення без попередньої підготовки (з голосу чи з аркуша); rehash вільна переробка (вдала чи невдала) твору; sight translation/interpretation (translation at sight) переклад/ усне тлумачення з аркуша/тексту; simultaneous translation/ interpretation синхронний переклад; rough translation робочий варіант перекладу, чорновий переклад and some others.



2. The importance of the translation and its main goals.

The importance of translating and interpreting in modern society has been recognized long time ago. Nearly every contact of businesspartners which are not specialists in foreign languages, is assisted by the translators and interpreters.

The great importance of the translation is in the functioning of the different international official bodies. including conferences, symposia, congresses, etc. to say nothing about the bodies like the E.E.C.(European Economic Council), the IMF. (International Monetary Fund) or the United Nations Organization with its numerous councils, assemblies, commissions, committees and sub-committees. These can function smoothly only thanks to an army of translators and interpreters representing different states and working in many different national languages.

Numerous branches of national economies too can keep up with the up-to-date development and progress in the modern world thanks to the everyday translating/interpreting of scientific and technical matter covering various fields of human knowledge and activities. The latter comprise nuclear science, exploration of outer space, ecological environment, plastics, mining, chemistry, biology, medicine, machine building, electronics, linguistics, etc. In the present days translation of scientific and technical matter has become a most significant and reliable source of obtaining all-round and up-to-date information on the progress in various fields of science and technology in all countries of the world.

The social and political role of translation/interpretation has probably been most strongly felt in the 20th century when it provided the dissemination of political (doctrinal) ideas, of social and political knowledge in various fields of sciences.

Translating is also a perfect means of sharing achievements and enriching national languages, literatures and cultures (operas, artistic films). The many translations of the prose, poetry and drama works of the world's famous authors into different national languages provide a vivid illustration of this permanent process. Due to masterly translations of the works by W.Shakespeare, W.Scott, G.G.Byron, P.B.Shelley, C.Dickens, W.Thackeray, O.Wilde, W.S.Maugham, A.Christie, H.W.Longfellow, Mark Twain, J.London, T.Dreiser, R.Frost, E.Hemingway, F.C.Fitzgerald and many other authors their works have become part and parcel of many national literatures. The works by Ukrainian authors have also been translated into English and some other languages, the process being increasingly intensified after Ukraine's gaining independence in 1991. Hitherto only the works of Ukrainian classics had mainly been published in some foreign languages. Among them are first of all T.Shevchenko, I. Franko, Lesya Ukrainka, M.Kotsyubynskyi, V.Stephanyk, V.Vynnychenko, I. Bahryanyi, O.Honchar, O.Dovzhenko. Now the works of V.Symonenko, L.Kostenko, I. Drach, Hryhir Tyutyunnyk, V.Stus and others are also translated into various foreign languages and have become available for many readers abroad.

Whatever the type of matter is translated (belles-lettres, scientific or didactic, social or political, etc.) and irrespective of the form in which it is performed (written or oral) the linguistic and social or cultural significance of translation/interpretation remains always unchanged. It promotes the enrichment of lexicon and of the means of expression in the target language. Due to the unceasing everyday political, economic, cultural and other contacts between different nations the lexicon of all languages constantly increases. Thousands of words and phrases, which were unknown in national languages before, become

an integral part of their lexicon. Among them are units like *steppe*, *Cossack/Kozak*, *Verkhovna Rada*, *hryvnia*, various scientific technical and other terms (кібернетика, комп'ютер, дискета, аудит, бартер, менеджмент, спонсор, моніторинг, екологія, etc.). Consequently, translation/interpretation is a very effective means of enriching the national and international lexicon of all languages. But, as has been said, it is not only the word-stock (or rather the vocabulary) of languages that is constantly enriched.

These few out of many more sentence idioms are a testimony to the versatile influence of translators' activities upon the enrichment of languages through translation. The idiomatic word-groups and sentences of the source language almost always partly influence the placement of their component parts in the Ukrainian target language and thus facilitate their memorizing as well.

The goal of the translation deals with the equivalence of structure which would make it possible to correlate each segment of the translation to the respective part of the original. The functional status of a translation is guaranteed by its structural and semantic similarity with the source language. The communicant has to avoid any remarks or intrusions in the text. He has to efface himself as fully as it is possible, to avoid interference with the process of communication between S and TR.

The structure of the translation should be similar to the source material: it has to be no change in the sequence of narration or in the arrangement of the segments of the text.

It is presumed that any breach of parallelism is not arbitrary but dictated by the need for precision in conveying the meaning of the original. The translator is allowed to resort to a description or interpretation, only in case "direct translation" is impossible. Similarity in structure is preserved in respect to the smallest segments of the text.

Of major importance is the semantic identification of the translation with ST. It is presumed that the translation has the same meaning as the original text. No exchange of information is possible. The presumption of semantic identity between ST and TT is based on the various degrees of equivalence of their meanings. The translator usually tries to produce in TL the closest possible equivalent to ST.

As a kind of practical activities translation (or the practice of translation) is a set of actions performed by the translator while rendering ST into another language. At its best translation is an art, a creation of a talented, high-skilled professional.

Translation can be the object of scientific study aimed at understanding its nature, its components and their interaction as well as various factors influencing it or linked with it in a meaningful way. The science of translation or *translatology* is concerned both with theoretical and applied aspects of translation studies. A theoretical description of the translation phenomenon is the task of the theory of translation.

The linguistic theory of translation is concerned with translation as a form of speech communication establishing contact between communicants who speak

different languages. The basis of this theory is linguistics in the broadest sense of the word, that is, macrolinguistics with all its new branches, such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, text linguistics, communicative linguistics, etc.

The core of the translation theory is the general theory of translation which is concerned with the fundamental aspects of translation inherent in the nature of bilingual communication and therefore common to all translation events, irrespective of what languages are involved or what kind of text and under what circumstances was translated.

An important part of the general theory of translation is the theory of equivalence aimed at studying semantic relationships between ST and TT. It has been noted that there is a presumption of semantic identity between the translation and its source text. Let us take an elementary example. Suppose we have an English sentence 'The student is reading a book'. Its Russian translation will be «Студент читает книгу». This translation is a good equivalent of the English sentence, but it is not identical in meaning. It can be pointed out, for example, that the Russian sentence leaves out the meaning of the articles as well as the specific meaning of the Continuous Tense. In Russian we do not get explicit information that it is some definite student but not some particular book or that the reading is in progress at the moment of speech. On the other hand, the Russian sentence conveys some additional information which is absent in the source text. We learn from it that the student is a male, while in ST it may just as well be a female. Then the translation implies that the student in the case is a college undergraduate, while in ST he may be a high school student or even a scholar, to say nothing of the additional grammatical meaning conveyed by the grammatical aspect of «читает», the gender of «книга» and so on. Part of this information, lost or added in the translating process, may be irrelevant for communication, another part is supplemented or neutralized by the contextual situation, but it is obvious that translation equivalence does not imply an absolute semantic identity of the two texts. The theory of equivalence is concerned with factors which prevent such an identity, it strives to discover how close ST and TT can be and how close they are in each particular case.

The general theory of translation describes the basic principles which hold good for each and every translation event. In each particular case, however, the translating process is influenced both by the common basic factors and by a number of specific variables which stem from the actual conditions and modes of the translator's work: the type of original texts, in which ST is presented to him and the form in which he is supposed to submit his translation, the specific requirements he may be called upon to meet in his work, etc.

The translator has to deal with works of the great authors of the past and of the leading authors of today, with intricacies of science fiction and the accepted stereotypes of detective stories, must be able to cope with the elegance of expression of the best masters of literary style and with the tricks and formalistic experiments of modern avant-gardists.

His duty is to translate diplomatic representations and policy statements, scientific dissertations and brilliant satires, maintenance instructions and after-dinner speeches, etc.

Translating a play the translator must bear in mind the requirements of theatrical presentation, and dubbing a film he must see to it that his translation fits the movement of the speakers' lips.

In simultaneous interpretation the translator is expected to keep pace with the fastest speakers, to understand all kinds of foreign accents and defective pronunciation, to guess what the speaker meant to say but failed to express due to his inadequate proficiency in the language he speaks.

In consecutive interpretation he is expected to listen to long speeches, taking the necessary notes, and then to produce his translation in full or compressed form, giving all the details or only the main ideas.

In some cases the users will be satisfied even with the most general idea of the meaning of the original, in other cases the translator may be taken to task for the slightest omission or minor error.

Each type of translation has its own combination of factors influencing the translating process. The general theory of translation should be supplemented by a number of special translation theories identifying major types of translation activities and describing the predominant features of each type.

Another important branch of the theory of translation is concerned with the study of ST and TT units which can replace each other in the translating process. A bilingual theory of translation should study two separate sets of equivalents, with either language considered, in turn, as SL and the other as TL.

Of particular interest is that branch of the theory of translation which is concerned with the translating process itself, that is, with the operations required for passing over from ST to TT. It is a great challenge to the translation theory to discover how the translator does the trick, what are his mental processes which ensure production in TL of a text of identical communicative value with the given ST.

The study of the translating process reveals both the translator's general strategy and specific techniques used to solve typical translation problems.

In conclusion, mention should be made of one more branch of the theory of translation which deals with the pragmatic aspects of the translating process. The communicants involved in interlingual communication speak different languages but they also belong to different cultures, have different general knowledge, different social and historical background.

The translator has to assess the possible communicative effect of TT and take pains to ensure an adequate understanding of its message by TR. This may necessitate expanding or modifying the original message to make it more meaningful to the members of a different language community.

In some cases the pragmatic value of translation is the major factor in assessing the quality of the translator's performance. All branches of the theory of translation are concerned with important aspects of the translator's work and constitute a body of theoretical thought of indisputable practical value.

TRANSLATION IN TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Translating as a means of teaching foreign languages has no independent value of its own for it is impossible to teach all aspects of a language in their complexity by means of translation only. Nevertheless translation in foreign language teaching (and learning) can not and should not be ignored altogether since in many a case it remains not only the most effective but also the only possible teaching means in achieving the necessary aim. That is why translation is often resorted to in the process of teaching and presenting some *Important* aspects of a foreign language.



Translation in teaching is employed by the teacher both at the initial, at the intermediary and at the advanced stage of learning/ teaching foreign languages. But irrespective of the level at which the foreign language is studied or taught, translation is both helpful and indispensable in the following cases:

1. When introducing even simple abstract lexemes or notions, which can not easily be explained in a descriptive way or by actions (gestures): *think, hate, love, actual, invincible, generally, peace, turn, friendship, image, dream, consider, feeling, firstly, immensely, at last, gray, immense, strongly, beautifully, haggis, lordship, ladyship*, etc.

2. In order to save time and avoid diverting the attention of students by lengthy explications of the meaning of words, various, word-combinations or sentences in the process of reading or listening to an unfamiliar passage.

3. When checking up the comprehension of the lexical material (new words, expressions) and in order to avoid the unnecessary ambiguity which may arise in the process of teaching through «pictures», since a picture of a tree, for example, may be understood as «a tree» or as a kind of tree (oak-tree, birch-tree, pine-tree, etc.).

4. While introducing at the lesson (usually at the initial stage of teaching/learning) the new grammar/phonetical material, especially the phenomena which do not exist in **the** native tongue (e.g. the continuous or the perfect forms of the verb, different passive constructions, infinitival, gerundial, and participial constructions (secondary predication complexes).

5. When revising the lexical or grammar material studied at the lesson/at previous lessons or answering questions like: 'What is the Ukrainian for the «gerund», sequence of tenses, the «progressive/ perfect form» of the verb?' etc.

6. While discriminating the meaning of synonyms or antonyms of the foreign language, for example: explain the difference between *great* and *large, small and tiny, fall and high, clever and unwise*, etc.

7. When checking up the knowledge of students in written and oral tests on lexical or grammar material.

8. When introducing idiomatic expressions which is mostly impossible to teach and learn otherwise than on the basis of translating (cf. *Hobson's choice, to*

play hooky, look before you leap; when at Rome, do as the Romans do; the game is worth the candle, etc.).

9. Before learning any text by heart (poems, excerpts of prose or the roles of characters in plays).

10. When dealing with characteristic national figures of speech (metaphors, epithets, similes, hyperboles, etc.) in the process of reading or translating the belles-lettres passages even at the advanced stage of studying a foreign language.

11. When comparing the expressive means in the system of the source language to those in the target language, etc.

Translation helps the student to master the expressive means in the source and in the target language. In the process of translating the student establishes sets of equivalent substitutes in the target language for the correspondent lexical, grammatical or stylistic phenomena of the source language. No wonder that the student at any stage of learning a foreign language, when not understanding some word, word-combination or sentence always resorts to intuitive translating it into his native language.

We could define translation in our course as "pedagogic" translation, considering that its purpose is to teach a language. Teaching English is closely tied to teaching translation methods. Translation is a useful tool to learn grammar, syntax, and lexis in both SL and TL. The final text of a written translation is a new one, as Lefevere has underlined; translating is a sort of re-writing. In this sense, the translated work must "stand on its own." Since the text has its own identity, it must respect the rules which govern its language. When students translate, they unconsciously follow three steps: analysis, transfer, and restructuring.

Students must continuously compare English to Ukrainian. Students understand not only lexis, but also some specific linguistic constructions in Ukrainian and then re-create them in English. Although English is a Germanic language, it belongs to the Indo-European family. The teaching method is based on personal experience as a translator..

Intercultural discourse

Texts for translations have to include literary (prose, poetry, theatre), journalistic (economics, politics, current news), technical texts (urbanism, advertising, tourist guides, international organizations such as UN, FAO etc.), so students are able to manage different kinds of special languages. By "special" we do not mean exclusively technical but specific to any field. Translation is a two-way device because a comparison between the two languages--Ukrainian (L1)/English (L2)--also allows one to introduce and deal with many subjects. Every text has its own terminology; even slang and everyday idioms characterize a text. Comparing texts of different sources but belonging to the same genre, for example an article from an Ukrainian political magazine and an English one about the same topic, students discover not only a different vocabulary, but also a different style.

Students must keep a glossary, which they continuously update. Writing down words in a notebook allows the student to exercise his/her memory. Students

are also taught how to read a dictionary, including the phonetic alphabet in order to learn the exact pronunciation. They usually undervalue the resources provided by a dictionary and often glance at it superficially. I suggest the use of both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Bilingual ones (even the best) are often inadequate: sometimes there are imperfections or they might lead to the wrong meaning. For the same reason we advise them to check online dictionaries and investigate on the Internet, where they can verify the actual and current use of a word, because English is continuously changing. Students learn that Ukrainian has a larger vocabulary, and some words that do not exist in English must be explained in order to convey their particular nuances. Moreover, paying attention to etymology is another strategy that helps them to memorize and understand the real meaning of that word in its context and co-text. Each word in a text belongs to what is around it on a micro- and macro-level, and the analysis of each lexical unit allows the so-called "disambiguation," thus clarifying the effective meaning of a term within a passage.

Practical tools

By preparing a CV or a cover letter in English, students realize that translating is not only a job, but something that involves their lives, their everyday experience and is not a mechanical action. When translating a CV they must keep cultural differences, as well as differences in educational systems and job titles in mind. There is the direction for them to websites where they can find the equivalent degrees (e.g. ISCE http://www.uis.unesco.org/TEMPLATE/pdf/iscd/ISCED_A.pdf, which is an international document by UNESCO (http://www.miur.it/guida/Italian_Higher_Education.pdf) and for European qualifications (<http://europass.cedefop.europa.eu/>). They realize that a degree or a job position cannot be simply translated. In this case, apart from stating the name in their language, we suggest that they should "explain" it in detail. Students are directed and encouraged at the same time to search on the Internet: this represents not only an exercise in localization but also in the use of the web in English, thus learning terminology and practicing the English language. And if they make the decision of working as translators in the future they will be more familiar with computers and more skillful when using CAT.

The role of grammar

By starting from grammar, students can reach higher level of translation and, vice-versa, by translating they acquire more competence in the knowledge of grammatical structures. Translation is cultural mediation; therefore, also reading English texts about Ukrainian education and culture makes them familiar with the image of Ukraine such as it is perceived in the Anglo-American world. A comparison between two cultures allows the students to familiarize themselves with the linguistic elements that are unavoidably connected to their culture. Grammatical rules are the backbone of a language and cannot be ignored. During translation, but also working on parallel texts, it is possible to discover the role played by a grammatical rule and how it is actually applied. Some students have special difficulty in identifying the right tenses and translating them correctly. The

discussion of an entire translated passage or even of one word in classroom teaches the students that a word usually does not have just one possible translation. Students learn that every word assumes a different meaning according to the context.

Translating cannot be separated from interpreting, even when we speak about a written text. The purpose of both is to transfer information from the ST to the TT. Interpreting can serve as a mental exercise to improve the students' speaking skills, although they will still need to practice conversation.

Although our students do not intend to enter the translation profession, for them translating helps relate L1 to L2: a mental process takes place in their minds on an unconscious level, every time they speak the other language.

Classroom translation exercise

As a first approach, it is useful to translate short sentences in order to be able to build a longer paragraph and deepen the structure of the single phrase later on. As pointed out above, grammar is the basis of learning a language. A word-for-word back-translation enables the student to highlight the relationship between the two languages. L1 and L2 have different structures. In Ukrainian the word order is free: the subject does not have to be at the beginning of the sentence like in English, where word order is fixed.

Back-translation involves mainly the syntactical structure, rather than only the lexical level; it is a comparison between the patterns of the two languages where individual lexical units may or may not match. It is possible to understand the sentence on a logical level and consequently convey the meaning in the L2. This exercise entails interpreting a text and the awareness that losses, gains, compensations, omissions and shifts often occur in translation. A short example from common signs in the two languages allows one to understand the concept more easily: "Reduce speed now" is "Пригальмуйте" (Slow down) in Ukrainian. When comparing the words, we see that in English we have three words while in Ukrainian only one. This method shows how an "oblique" translation does not compromise the internal meaning. Besides translation structure, students are forced to pay attention to other elements that exclusively belong to the L2.

Parallel translation is not always possible, not only for reasons of grammar, but also for socio-cultural reasons. A free translation becomes a useful tool to point out aspects of a culture, and consequently to master a language.

Teaching translation on a non-vocational level is different from teaching for training professional translators. However, translation can be a useful tool and an effective method to learn a language.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-CONTROL AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. The main terms and notions of the theory of translation/interpretation.
2. Ambiguity of some terms concerning translation (free translation vs. free adaptation/free interpretation, etc.).
3. Social and political significance of translating/interpreting.
4. Translating as a successful means of enriching national languages, literatures, and cultures.
5. Translating/interpreting in establishing, maintaining, and strengthening diplomatic, political, economic, scientific, cultural and other relations between different nations in the world.
6. The role of translating/interpreting in providing the successful proceedings of international conferences, congresses, symposia, meetings, etc.
7. Translating/interpreting and the progress of world science, technology and dissemination of new ideas/doctrines.
8. Translating/interpreting while teaching and learning foreign languages.
9. Literal, verbal, word-for-word translation and restrictions in their use out of a contextual environment (cf. **revolution** оберт but not революція).
10. The main difference between the interlinear and literary/ literary artistic kinds of translating.
11. The requirements to faithful prose and poetic translation/versification.
12. The machine translation, its progress, present-day potentialities and spheres of employment.
13. Kinds of translating/interpreting: a) the written from a written matter translating; b) the oral from an oral matter interpreting; c) the oral from a written matter interpreting; d) the written translating from an orally presented matter.
14. Ways and devices of translating (descriptive and antonymic translating).

Seminar 1. The Notion of the Translation.

Plan

1. Translation as the process of the interlingua communication.
2. The main goals of the translation.
3. The importance of the translation.

Recommended Literature

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SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. The main terms and notions of the theory of translation/interpretation.
2. Ambiguity of some terms concerning translation (free translation vs. free adaptation/free interpretation, etc.).
3. Social and political significance of translating/interpreting.
4. Translating as a successful means of enriching national languages, literatures, and cultures.
5. Translating/interpreting in establishing, maintaining, and strengthening diplomatic, political, economic, scientific, cultural and other relations between different nations in the world.
6. The role of translating/interpreting in providing the successful proceedings of international conferences, congresses, symposia, meetings, etc.

7. Translating/interpreting and the progress of world science, technology and dissemination of new ideas/doctrines.
8. Translating/interpreting while teaching and learning foreign languages.
9. Literal, verbal, word-for-word translation and restrictions in their use out of a contextual environment (cf. **revolution** оберт but not революція).
10. The main difference between the interlinear and literary/ literary artistic kinds of translating.
- 11 .The requirements to faithful prose and poetic translation/versification.
12. The machine translation, its progress, present-day potentialities and spheres of employment.
13. Kinds of translating/interpreting: a) the written from a written matter translating; b) the oral from an oral matter interpreting; c) the oral from a written matter interpreting; d) the written translating from an orally presented matter.
14. Ways and devices of translating (descriptive and antonymic translating).

1. Read the text and translate it.

Contents of education in elementary schools of Ukraine



Rather successful work of elementary schools of Ukraine is due to the qualified and skilled personnel, and also to the high-quality curricula and perfect methods of teaching.

Curricula for elementary schools are usually being determined and distributed by the Ministry of Education of Ukraine. Annual

changes of curricula are insignificant and concern mostly some school subjects from the constant component of the curriculum and also new experimental subjects.

For example, in 1998/99 school year at schools with the Ukrainian language of teaching the curriculum, recommended by the Ministry of Education, had the structure, which we gave in Tab.2. This Table gives a good opportunity to see differences between three-year elementary school with more intensive training for children, and four-year courses of training in elementary school. As it was mentioned above, the new Law on General Secondary Education provides only four-year elementary school (school of the first level). As earlier, in Ukraine the time and syllabuses of only compulsory subjects are determined centrally. The contents of options are selected by the educational institutions (elementary schools). Compulsory subjects, specified in Tab.2, can also be selected for additional lessons, and as for options, those subject can be languages of minorities, some foreign languages (English, German, French or others), arts and so on. Analysis of the elementary schools' curricula of the advanced countries and their comparison with Ukrainian ones testifies to their similarity. As well as in other countries, in elementary schools of Ukraine among subjects there dominate native language, Mathematics, Physical Culture with elements of health care, various kinds of arts, fundamentals of manual work. In many countries an important element of the elementary school curricula is religious education. More often, than earlier, the first foreign language is being included into curriculum of elementary school (from the third or fourth grade). In Ukraine the church is separated from the state, that is why the school, controlled by state bodies, is a secular institution. From the time of declaration of independence of Ukraine atheism is not considered any more as a state priority in education of pupils. In private schools subject " religious education " is taught quite often, and in public schools this subject can be taught at parents' request, but only in after-lesson time. For the time being neither state nor local budget are not used for financing of religious education, but the tendency of increased attention to

religion is rather appreciable and in the future the subject "Religious Education" might be of wider use in elementary schools of Ukraine.

The creation in 1991-1999 of a new generation of textbooks and other didactic materials for elementary schools have been a significant achievement of Ukrainian policymakers, educators and scientists. It is very important that for each subject there exist a number of different textbooks by various authors. (In the Soviet Union only one textbook for each subject was used). Publication and distribution of the main educational literature for schools are financed from the state and local budgets. Textbooks are sent to school libraries, each pupil receives them before the beginning of academic year, and after its termination he returns them back. Parents pay only for additional and auxiliary didactic literature.

Significant success and changes took place in elementary school in Ukraine during 1991-1999 in the sphere of language changes, de-ideologizing and so on, but it does not mean, that this educational level has no any shortcomings and prospects for the further development. For example, they concern teaching of foreign languages in elementary school.

Some other shortcomings, which attract attention in other countries, are not urgent for schools of Ukraine, for example, the problems of repeaters and inequality in access to education of boys and girls. As mentioned above, repeaters' rate is less than 1 per cent of all pupils of elementary school. Similarly, monitoring and assessment of achievement of pupils are not sharp problems for primary and basic schools as well. Though quality of assessment of pupils, certainly, is not perfect, but lack of selection in the Ukrainian elementary school in accordance with pupils' abilities or other characteristics simplifies assessment of pupils. It helps to avoid different stresses for pupils. At the same time most teachers of Ukraine consider rational and tolerant assessment as useful way of certain intensification of pupils' work on their own, formation of skills of difficulties overcoming and so on. That is why in Ukraine the idea of complete refusal from assessment and marks is not popular both in elementary and in basic schools.

2. Read the text and translate it.

European and Ukrainian standards of primary education

Up-to-date increased public requirements to the quality and duration of education for all raise new problems of elementary schools worldwide. Each country solves them in its own way that causes significant differences between basic characteristics of primary education in different countries. An example of such characteristic can be duration of schooling in elementary school. Ukraine like other ex-socialist countries of Europe and six countries from other regions has the smallest in the world duration of primary education - 3 or 4 years. Among other 184 countries of the world 20 countries teach pupils in elementary school for 5 years, 83 - 6; 23 - 7; 19 - 8, 15 - 9 and two of them - for 10 years. If to compare weekly amount of school hours, it will appear, that the

average world level of schooling is 24,8 hours a week, and in Ukraine and other ex-socialist countries it is only 20,8 hours. Researches in many countries testify, that under the conditions of good teaching total quantity of didactic material, mastered by a pupil, is practically directly proportional to time of his being in a class. Work of a teacher is valuable for each pupil, but it is important particularly for children from families with poor field of information. An average world intensity of training in an elementary school is close to 880 hours annually, that is equivalent to 180 school days. This rather high parameter may be explained by the fact that governments of many countries consider an elementary school as a level of high priority in the system of continuous education. Duration of schooling in elementary schools in Ukraine, taking into account official and other holidays, is 32,4 weeks, that is about 160- 165 working days a year. The amount of lessons (academic hours) varies from 760 (the first grade) up to 810 lessons. Taking into account 45-minute duration of lessons, we come to a conclusion, that astronomical duration of academic year in the Ukrainian elementary school is about 600 hours. Three-year course has about 1900 astronomical hours, four-year one - about 2300 - 2400 hours.

In Ukraine these generalized parameters are a little bit lower than those in elementary schools of European and some other countries. The average astronomical duration of children schooling in elementary schools of developed countries is about 700-800 hours a year, and in many cases it can be about 1000 hours. Hence, the average duration of academic year in the Ukrainian elementary school is lower in comparison with the world standards. Policymakers of the educational system of Ukraine have paid much more attention to this problem after declaration of independence of the state, when the state politics of gradual rapprochement with the European countries and cooperation with European Union have been developed. The task of entry into the European educational space became one of the education development priorities. The Ministry of education of Ukraine has taken active part in creation of the Draft Law on general secondary education. This Law is passed, and will come into force from 2001. According to the Article 15 of the "Law on General Secondary Education", schooling in elementary school will last for four-years, and the amount of school hours in the first and second grades will be 700, in the third and fourth - 790 a year. According to the Article 16 duration of academic year in elementary school will be 175 school days or more, and a lesson in the first grade will last 35 minutes, and in the second, third and fourth grades - 40 minutes. New Ukrainian elementary school will be closer to the up-to-date European samples. The "Law on General Secondary Education" provides increasing of academic year by 2-3 weeks owing to schooling in June and appropriate increasing of astronomical duration of schooling.

3. Read the text and translate it.

Towers can be used for information transfer. There is the fire of Amon Din, and flame on Eilenach; and they go to the west: Nardol, Erelas, Min-Rimmon, Calenhad, and the Halfirien on the borders of Rohan, tells Gendalf Peregrinu Tuku

during travel to Gondor. The towers which are not used as beacons (Ortank, Barad-silly women, Minas-Tirit, a tower on Emin-Berajd to the West from Shira) also possess message of transfer possibility: there are magic stones - palantirs, whose name is translated as «far seeing». Palantirs, being a product of elves are brought because of the doubled image of the sea in the «Lord of the Rings»: "the Sea became a word of fear among them, and a token of death». But «for the seas of separations» elves, being immortal, return to the life «natural» for them. Connection of a window, a tower and the sea opens in the dream: «Eventually he fell into a vague dream, in which he seemed to be looking out of a high window over a dark sea of tangled trees. ... Looking up he saw before him a tall white tower, standing alone on a high ridge.

4. Read the text and translate it.

Emma Woodhouse, handsome, clever, and rich, with a comfortable home and happy disposition, seemed to unite some of the best blessings of existence; and had lived nearly twenty-one years in the world with very little to distress or vex her.

She was the youngest of the two daughters of a most affectionate, indulgent father; and had, in consequence of her sister's marriage, been mistress of his house from a very early period. Her mother had died too long ago for her to have more than an indistinct remembrance of her caresses; and her place had been supplied by an excellent woman as governess, who had fallen little short of a mother in affection.

Sixteen years had Miss Taylor been in Mr. Woodhouse's family, less as a governess than a friend, very fond of both daughters, but particularly of Emma. Between them it was more the intimacy of sisters. Even before Miss Taylor had ceased to hold the nominal office of governess, the mildness of her temper had hardly allowed her to impose any restraint; and the shadow of authority being now long passed away, they had been living together as friend and friend very mutually attached, and Emma doing just what she liked; highly esteeming Miss Taylor's judgment, but directed chiefly by her own.

The real evils, indeed, of Emma's situation were the power of having rather too much her own way, and a disposition to think a little too well of herself; these were the disadvantages which threatened alloy to her many enjoyments. The danger, however, was at present so unperceived, that they did not by any means rank as misfortunes with her.

Sorrow came--a gentle sorrow--but not at all in the shape of any disagreeable consciousness.--Miss Taylor married. It was Miss Taylor's loss which first brought grief. It was on the wedding-day of this beloved friend that Emma first sat in mournful thought of any continuance. The wedding over, and the bride-people gone, her father and herself were left to dine together, with no prospect of a third to cheer a long evening. Her father composed himself to sleep after dinner, as usual, and she had then only to sit and think of what she had lost.

5. Read the text, write down the summary in English.

Підготовка вчителя початкової школи до професійної діяльності

Майбутній вчитель є реалізатором державної політики щодо розвитку і формування майбутнього покоління, тому йому увага повинна бути якнайбільшою. Від його підготовки залежить його професіоналізм і якість професійної діяльності, а це не що інше як кінцевий результат формування і розвитку особистості молодого покоління, тому на сучасному стані розвитку національної системи педагогічної освіти зростають вимоги до підготовки вчителя. Важливого значення у особистісному становленні майбутнього педагога набуває власне загальнопедагогічна підготовка як складова усієї системи професійної підготовки. Боритко Н. М., як і більшість дослідників, процес професійної підготовки визначає як ступінчастий. Він вважає, що ступінчастість педагогічної освіти обумовлюється його відносно дискретними етапами, які представляють собою послідовність якісних перебудов у професійній свідомості і діяльності, в образі професійного "Я", в рефлексії, функціях та технології їх використання і виділяє три основні ступені безперервної освіти педагога. Хомич Л. О., у зв'язку з цим, виділяє наступні фактори нових підходів до підготовки вчителя: соціально-економічні, пов'язані із змінами в суспільній свідомості і появою нових цінностей в освіті, тобто переваги саморозвитку самовиховання, самоосвіти над передачею знань, умінь і навичок; інтереси особистості мають пріоритетне значення порівняно з навчальними планами і програмами; створюються умови для постійного звеличення людини, гармонізації її відносин з природою і суспільством, державою й іншими людьми; практичні, що виникли внаслідок соціально-економічних перетворень у нашій країні, появи нових типів навчально-виховних закладів, окрім загальноосвітньої школи; для них потрібний новий учитель з цілісним уявленням про професійну діяльність; майбутній учитель повинен діяти самостійно, оволодіти в процесі психолого-педагогічної підготовки спеціальними вміннями і навичками взаємодії й спілкування; щоб підготовка вчителя відповідала сучасним вимогам, треба активізувати розробку методологічної та теоретичної основи педагогічної освіти; теоретичні, зумовлені як соціально-економічними, так і практичними змінами в розвитку народної освіти; педагогічна освіта розвивається по шляху формування в майбутніх педагогів цілісного уявлення про свою професійну діяльність, через те більшість педагогічних закладів України у навчальні плани включає інтегровані курси психолого-педагогічних дисциплін і на цій основі цілеспрямовано організовує формування професійно важливих якостей майбутнього вчителя, його професійної свідомості і поведінки, а також сприяє розвитку індивідуальності.

6. Read the text, write down the summary in Ukrainian

How To Teach Young Learners: One Step At A Time

Young learners, those attending preschool and kindergarten, will not have any personal reason for studying English.

It is simply another subject that they have to study at school or that their parents have told them they need to learn. At this point in their lives, they may not know or comprehend how important these classes can be. They might view your classes as simply another fun daily activity and that is just fine. Even at this early age, you can **encourage them to develop an interest in learning English** which will stay with them long after they have finished your classes.



7. Read the text, write down the summary in English.

How To Understand And Teach Young Learners Better

1. What Young Learners Want

Students at this level are just starting their academic careers. School may be intimidating for some of the students in your class so, in order to encourage everyone to participate, it is important to **make your lessons relaxed and fun**. YL Students will be learning very basic material but you can design creative lessons that get students moving around and speaking with one another. Young learners are generally very enthusiastic about songs, especially if they can sing along, and active games. Be sure to provide lots of encouragement and positive feedback. You want to create a safe, stress-free environment that everyone can enjoy learning in.

2. How Young Learners Behave

Keep exercises fun and short because these students have **short attention spans** and are **easily distracted**. Overacting and projection will help keep the focus on you. Teach students how to behave in a classroom by asking them to be quiet while you are talking and raise their hands if they have questions or want to answer a question. This may not be directly related to ESL but it is important that students learn good behavior early on; it will make their transition to primary school easier. Teach them to respond to **basic classroom English phrases** such as “*Please sit down.*” because these are expressions that they will hear repeatedly throughout their study of English. For students at this age, you are responsible not only for starting to teach them English, but also for preparing them for their next level of education. Students will perform better in their classes if they behave well and have a good understanding of basic principles.

3. What To Focus On

The primary focus of these lessons will be on communication and laying a solid foundation for further English coursework. Students should practice the different sounds of the English language and learn material such as the alphabet, numbers, colors and shapes. You will introduce vocabulary words gradually and may choose to study some simple structures that relate to everyday life too. It could be that reading and writing never enter into your classes but a focus on speaking and listening will help students become more comfortable and confident with English.

4. More YL Tips

There are many other things you can do to ensure that students succeed in class. There is no need to assign homework at this stage but be sure to **track individual and class progress** so that students can visually see what they have learned and how they are doing. Encourage students to try their best and create a **constructive learning environment** where students do not need to worry about making mistakes. Create activities and exercises that are entertaining. Help students learn how to interact with one another as well as how to speak English. Students will also feel more comfortable if you stick to a regular schedule so if you decide to make changes, implement them over a period of time rather than all at once. Constantly review and avoid introducing too much new vocabulary at a time. Students may not remember material from one day to the next so repetition is important. The more students are exposed to certain material, the faster they will learn it. This is how native speakers learn English, by listening to people around them and expanding their range of vocabulary gradually.

These learners can be a real pleasure to teach because they do not feel stressed by their studies and approach everything with youthful innocence.

You play an important role in helping them develop into lifelong learners. Foster a love of learning by creating lesson plans that appeal to them, suit their maturity level, and focus on what will help them excel in future English courses.

(Tara Race)

Tara Race has worked with English Language Learners of all ages for many years and has taught in Japan, Cambodia, and China as well as online. When she is not teaching, she enjoys cooking, traveling around the world, and scuba diving. She is a member of the Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi and is currently pursuing an M.A. in Teaching-TESOL at the University of Southern California.



Lecture 2. A short Historical Outline of the Translation.

Plan

1. A short Historical Outline of Translation (Western and Arab Traditions).
2. Translation during the Middle Ages
3. Translation during the Renaissance Period
4. Translation During the Period of Classicism and Enlightenment

5. The Epoch of the Romanticism and Establishing of the Principles of Faithful translation in Europe

Recommended Literature

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1. A short Historical Outline of Translation (Western and Arab Traditions).

When we talk about the history of translation, we should think of the theories and names that emerged at its different periods. In fact, each era is characterized by specific changes in translation history, but these changes differ from one place to another. For example, the developments of translation in the western world are not the same as those in the Arab world, as each nation knew particular incidents that led to the birth of particular theories. So, what are the main changes that marked translation history in both the West and the Arab world?

Translation in the Western World

For centuries, people believed in the relation between translation and the story of the tower of Babel in the Book of Genesis. According to the Bible, the descendants of Noah decided, after the great flood, to settle down in a plain in the land of Shinar. There, they committed a great sin. Instead of setting up a society that fits God's will, they decided to challenge His authority and build a tower that could reach Heaven. However, this plan was not completed, as God, recognizing their wish, regained control over them through a linguistic stratagem. He caused them to speak different languages so as not to understand each other. Then, he scattered them all over the earth. After that incident, the number of languages increased through diversion, and people started to look for ways to communicate, hence the birth of translation (Abdessalam Benabdelali, 2006).

Actually, with the birth of translation studies and the increase of research in the domain, people started to get away from this story of Babel, and they began to look for specific dates and figures that mark the periods of translation history. Researchers mention that writings on translation go back to the Romans. Eric Jacobson claims that translating is a Roman invention (see McGuire: 1980). Cicero and Horace (first century BC) were the first theorists who distinguished between word-for-word translation and sense-for-sense translation. Their comments on translation practice influenced the following generations of translation up to the twentieth century.

Another period that knew a changing step in translation development was marked by St Jerome (fourth century CE). **"His approach to translating the Greek Septuagint Bible into Latin would affect later translations of the scriptures."** (Munday, 2001).

Later on, the translation of the Bible remained subject to many conflicts between western theories and ideologies of translation for more than a thousand years.

Moreover, these conflicts on Bible translation were intensified with the coming of the Reformation in the sixteenth century, when **"translation came to be used as a weapon in both dogmatic and political conflicts as nation states began to emerge and the centralization of the Church started to weaken evidence in linguistic terms by the decline of Latin as a universal language."** (McGuire, 1980)

Needless to say that the invention of printing techniques in the fifteenth century developed the field of translation and helped in the appearance of early theorists. For instance, Etienne Dolet (1515-46), whose heretic mistranslation of one of Plato's dialogues, the phrase "rien du tout" (nothing at all) that showed his disbelief in immortality, led to his execution.

The seventeenth century knew the birth of many influential theorists such as Sir John Denham (1615-69), Abraham Cowley (1618-67), John Dryden (1631-1700), who was famous for his distinction between three types of translation; paraphrase, paraphrase and imitation, and Alexander Pope (1688-1744).

In the eighteenth century, the translator was compared to an artist with a moral duty both to the work of the original author and to the receiver. Moreover,

with the enhancement of new theories and volumes on translation process, the study of translation started to be systematic; Alexander Frayer Tayler's volume *Principles of Translation* (1791) is a case in point.

The nineteenth century was characterized by two conflicting tendencies; the first considered translation as a category of thought and saw the translator as a creative genius, who enriches the literature and language into which he is translating, while the second saw him through the mechanical function of making a text or an author known (McGuire).

This period of the nineteenth century knew also the enhancement of Romanticism, the fact that led to the birth of many theories and translations in the domain of literature, especially poetic translation. An example of these translations is the one used by Edward Fitzgerald (1809-1863) for Rubaiyat Omar Al-Khayyam (1858).

In the second half of the twentieth century, studies on translation became an important course in language teaching and learning at schools. What adds to its value is the creation of a variety of methods and models of translation. For instance, the grammar-translation method studies the grammatical rules and structures of foreign languages. The cultural model is also a witness for the development of translation studies in the period. It required in translation not only a word-for-word substitution, but also a cultural understanding of the way people in different societies think (Mehrach, 1977). With this model, we can distinguish between the ethnographical-semantic method and the dynamic equivalent method.

Another model that appears in the period is text-based translation model, which focuses on texts rather than words or sentences in translation process. This model includes a variety of sub-models: the interpretative model, the text linguistic model and models of translation quality assessments that in turn provide us with many models such as those of Riess, Wilss, Koller, House, North and Hulst.

The period is also characterized by pragmatic and systematic approach to the study of translation. The most famous writings and figures that characterize the twenties are those of Jean-Paul Vinay and Darbelnet, who worked on a stylistic comparative study of French and English (1958), Alfred Malblanc (1963), George Mounin (1963), John C. Catford. (1965), Eugene Nida (1964), who is affected by the Chomskyan generative grammar in his theories of translation, De Beaugrand who writes a lot about translation, and many others who worked and still work for the development of the domain.

Nowadays, translation research started to take another path, which is more automatic. The invention of the internet, together with the new technological developments in communication and digital materials, has increased cultural exchanges between nations. This leads translators to look for ways to cope with these changes and to look for more practical techniques that enable them to translate more and waste less. They also felt the need to enter the world of cinematographic translation, hence the birth of audiovisual translation. The latter technique, also called screen translation, is concerned with the translation of all

kinds of TV programs, including films, series, and documentaries. This field is based on computers and translation software programs, and it is composed of two methods: dubbing and subtitling. In fact, audiovisual translation marks a changing era in the domain of translation.

In short, translation has a very wide and rich history in the West. Since its birth, translation was the subject of a variety of research and conflicts between theorists. Each theorist approaches it according to his viewpoint and field of research, the fact that gives its history a changing quality.

Translation in the Arab world

The early translations used in Arabic are dated back to the time of Syrians (the first half of the second century AD), who translated into Arabic a large heritage that belongs to the era of paganism (Bloomshark 1921: 10-12, qtd by Addidaoui, 2000). Syrians were influenced in their translations by the Greek ways of translation. Syrian's translations were more literal and faithful to the original (Ayad 1993: 168, qtd by Addidaoui, 2000). According to Addidaoui, Jarjas was one of the best Syrian translators; his famous Syrian translation of Aristotle's book *In The World* was very faithful and close to the original.

Additionally, the time of the prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him) is of paramount importance for translation history. The spread of Islam and the communication with non-Arabic speaking communities as Jews, Romans and others pushed the prophet to look for translators and to encourage the learning of foreign languages. One of the most famous translators of the time is Zaid Ibnu Thabet, who played a crucial role in translating letters sent by the prophet to foreign kings of Persia, Syria, Rome and Jews, and also letters sent by those kings to the prophet.

Another era that knew significant changes in Arabic translation was related to the translation of the Holy Koran. According to Ben Chakroun (2002), the early translators of the Koran focused on its meaning. Salman El Farisi, for instance, translated the meaning of *Surat Al Fatiha* for Persian Muslims, who didn't speak Arabic. Ben Chakroun (2002) states that Western libraries still preserve many translations of the Koran, and that some of them such as the Greek translation of the philosopher Naktis belong to the third century (BC). Besides, the Holy Koran received a special interest from the translators. It was translated into Persian by Sheikh Mohamed Al-Hafid Al-Boukhari and into Turkish language by Sheikh Al-Fadl Mohamed Ben Idriss Al-Badlissi.

Despite the proliferation of the Koran translations, this matter was and is still the point of many debates and conflicts in the Arab world. An example of these conflicts occurs after the translation of the Koran into Turkish language by the Turkish government in the time of Mustapha Kamal Ataturk. The latter aimed to use the translation instead of the original book as a way to spread secularism in the Islamic country. This led to a wave of criticism from Arab intellectuals, journalists and muftis.

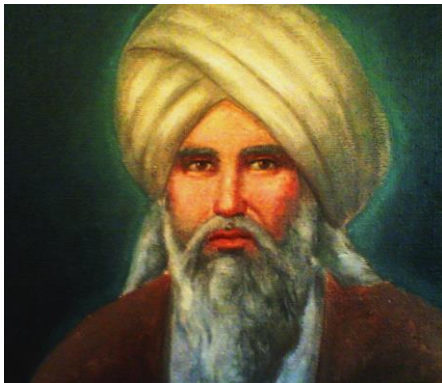
Besides, the core of the conflicts that existed and still exist in the translation of Koran is related to the reason behind translation itself, i.e., whether to use the

translation as a way to teach the principles of Islam or to use it in praying and legislation was the difficult choice that faced translators. In general, translation of Koran knows various changes, the fact that led to the creation of special committees that took the responsibility of translating it in a way that preserves it from falsification.

Another era that knows important developments in the Arab translation is that of 'the first Abbasid period' (750-1250). Translation knew an enhancement with the Caliph Al-Mansour, who built the city of Baghdad, and was also developed in the time of the Caliph Al-Ma'moun, who built 'Bait Al Hikma', which was the greatest institute of translation at the time. During the period translators focused on Greek philosophy, Indian science and Persian literature (Al-Kasimi, 2006).

The Arab history of translation is also characterized by the name of Al-Jahid (868-577), one of the greatest theorists in translation. His theories and writings in the domain of translation are still used today by many professional Arab translators. According to Al-Jahid (1969), **"the translator should know the structure of the speech, habits of the people and their ways of understanding each other."**

In addition to his insistence on the knowledge of the structure of the language and the culture of its people, Al-Jahid talked too much about the importance of revision after translation. In brief, Al-Jahid puts a wide range of theories in his two books *Al-Hayawān* (1969) and *Al-Bayān Wa Attabayyun* (1968).



Further, the Egyptian scholar Mona Baker (1997) distinguished between two famous methods in Arab translation; the first belongs to Yohana Ibn Al- Batriq and Ibn Naima Al-Himsi, and is based on literal translation, that is, each Greek word was translated by its equivalent Arabic word, while the second refers to Hunayn Ibn Ishaq Al-Jawahiri and is based on sense-for-sense translation as a way to create fluent target texts that preserve the meaning of the original.

Nowadays, Arab translations know many changes. The proliferation of studies in the domain helps in the development of translation and the birth of new theorists. Translation in the Arab world also benefits from the use of computers, digital materials and the spread of databases of terminologies that offer translators a considerable number of dictionaries. This has led to the creation of many associations of translation like 'the committee of Arab translators' in Saudi-Arabia and many others. However, in comparing the number of translated books by Arab translators with those of westerners, we feel that the gap between them is still wide, as the translations used by Arabs since the time of Al-Ma'moun up to now do not exceed ten thousand books, which is less than what Spain translates in one year (Ali Al-Kasimi, 2006) (14).

In short, the history of translation in the Arab world is marked by many changes and events. Since its early beginnings with Syrians, translation knew the birth of many theorists who sited up the basis of Arabic translation and theories. In fact, it is in religious discourse where Arabic translation reaches its peak. For the translation of Koran received much interest from Arab translators. Today, translation in the Arab world knows a sort of progression, especially with its openness to Western theories and theorists, but it is still suffering from many problems and difficulties.

To sum up, translation history is rich in inventions and theories. Each era is characterized by the appearance of new theorists and fields of research in translation. It is true that the western history of translation is larger and rich in proportion to that of the Arabs, but we should not deny that the translation history of the latter started to develop year by year, especially with the great efforts of Arabic academia in the domain.

World translation in general and European translation in particular has a long and praiseworthy tradition. Even the scarcity of documents available at the disposal of historians points to its incessant millenniums-long employment in international relations both in ancient China, India, in the Middle East (Assyria, Babylon) and Egypt. The earliest mention of translation used in *viva voce* goes back to approximately the year 3000 BC in ancient Egypt where the interpreters and later also regular translators were employed to help in carrying on trade with the neighbouring country of Nubia. The **dragomans** had been employed to accompany the trade caravans and help in negotiating, selling and buying the necessary goods for Egypt. Also in those ancient times (2400 BC), the Assyrian emperor Sargon of the city of Akkada (Mesopotamia), is known to have circulated his order of the day translated into some languages of the subject countries. The emperor boasted of his victories in an effort to intimidate his neighbours. In 2100 BC, Babylon translations are known to have been performed into some neighboring languages including, first of all, Egyptian. The city of Babylon in those times was a regular centre of polyglots where translations were accomplished in several languages. As far back as 1900 BC, in Babylon, there existed the first known bilingual (Sumerian-Akkadian) and multilingual (Sumerian-Akkadian-Hurritian-Ugaritian) dictionaries. In 1800 BC, in Assyria there was already something of a board of translators headed by the chief translator/interpreter, a certain *Giki*. The first trade agreement is known to have been signed in two languages between Egypt and its southern neighbour Nubia in 1200 BC.

Interpreters and translators of the Persian and Indian languages are known to have been employed in Europe in the fourth century BC by Alexander the Great (356-323), the emperor of Macedonia, during his military campaign against Persia and India. Romans in their numerous wars also employed interpreters/translators



(especially during the Punic Wars with Carthage in the second and third centuries BC). Unfortunately, little or nothing is practically known about the employment of translation in state affairs in other European countries of those times, though translators/interpreters must certainly have been employed on the same occasions and with the same purposes as in the Middle East. The inevitable employment of translation/interpretation was predetermined by the need to maintain intercommunal and international relations which always exist between different ethnic groups as well as between separate nations and their individual representatives.

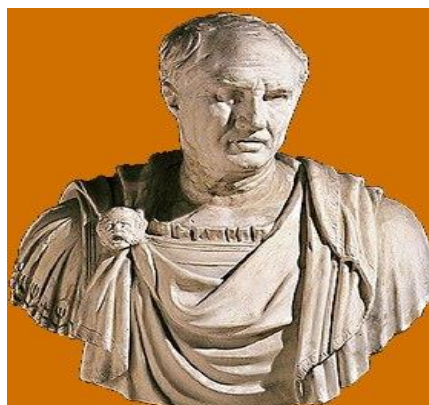
The history of European translation, however, is known to have started as far back as 280 BC with the translation of some excerpts of The Holy Scriptures. The real history of translation into European languages, however, is supposed to have begun in 250 BC in the Egyptian city of Alexandria which belonged to the great Greek empire. The local leaders of the Jewish community there decided to translate the Old Testament from Hebrew, which had once been their native tongue, but which was no longer understood, into ancient Greek, which became their spoken language. Tradition states that 72 learned Jews, each working separately, prepared during their translation in 70 days the Greek variant of the Hebrew original. When the translators met, according to that same tradition, their translations were found to be identical to each other in every word. In reality, however, the Septuagint (Latin for «seventy»), as this translation has been called since then, took in fact several hundreds of years to complete. According to reliable historical sources, various translators worked on the Septuagint after that, each having made his individual contribution to this fundamental document of Christianity in his national language. The bulk of the Septuagint is known today to have been a slavishly literal (word-for-word) translation of the original Jewish Scripture. Much later around 130 AD another Jewish translator, Aguilá of Sinope, made one more slavishly literal translation of the Old Testament to replace the Septuagint.

There were also other Greek translations of the Old Testament, which are unfortunately lost to us today. Consequently, only the Septuagint can be subjected to a thorough analysis from the point of view of the principles, the method and the level of its literary translation.

English translators of the Bible have already for some centuries resorted to faithful sense-to-sense conveying of this and many other expressions. So they have managed to avoid these and several other literalisms of many Ukrainian (and Russian) Bible translators. Cf. Cush was the father (був батьком) of Nimrod... Mizraim was the father of the Ludities, Anamites Lehabites, Naphtuhites, Pathrusites, Casluhites ... Canaan was the father of Sidon his firstborn and of the Hittites... Similarly in Matthew's Gospel: Abraham was the father of Isaac, Isaac the father of Jacob, Jacob the father of Judah and his brothers. (Matthew, 1).

Much was translated in ancient times also from Greek into Egyptian and vice versa, and partly from Hebrew into Greek. The next best known translation of the Old Testament into Greek, but performed this time meaning-to-meaning/sense-to-sense, was accomplished by Simmachus in the second century

BC. Later on, with the political, economic and military strengthening of the Roman Empire, more and more translations were performed from Greek into Latin. Moreover, much of the rich literature of all genres from ancient Rome has developed exclusively on the basis of translations from old Greek. This was started by the Roman-Greek scholar Livius Andronicus who made a very successful translation of Homer's poems, the Iliad and the Odyssey in 240 BC, and thus laid the beginning and the foundation for a rich Latin belles-lettres tradition. That first successful translation was followed by no less successful translations of Greek dramas made by two Roman men of letters who were also translators, namely, Naevius (270 - 201 BC) and Annius (239 -169 BC).



A significant contribution to Roman literature in general and to the theory of translation in particular was made by the outstanding statesman, orator and philosopher Marcus Tullius Cicero (106-43 BC), who brought into Latin the speeches of the most eloquent Greek orators Demosthenes (385? - 322 BC) and Aeschines (389-314 BC). Cicero became famous in the history of translation not only for his literary translations but also for his principles of the so-called «sense-to-sense» translation, which he theoretically grounded for translations of secular works. These principles appeared to have been in opposition to the principle of strict word-for-word translation employed by the translators of the Septuagint. Cicero held the view, and not without grounds, that the main aim of translators was to convey first of all the sense and the style of the source language work and not the meaning of separate words and their placement in the source language work/ passage. Cicero's principles of «sense-for-sense translation» were first accepted and employed by the outstanding Roman poet Horace (65-8 BC), who translated works from Greek into Latin. Horace, however, had understood and used Cicero's principles in his own, often unpredictable way: he would change the composition and content of the source language works that he translated.

Moreover, he would introduce some ideas of his own, thus making the translated works unlike the originals. This way of free interpretation from the source language works in translation was accepted and further «developed» in the second century AD by Horace's adherent Apuleius (124 - ?), who would still more deliberately rearrange the ancient Greek originals altering them sometimes beyond recognition. This, perhaps, was the result of an attitude of benign neglect by the Romans towards the culture of the Greeks, which began to be absorbed by the stronger empire. The Roman translators following the practice of Horace, and

still more of Apuleius, began systematically to omit all «insignificant» (in their judgement) passages, and incorporate some ideas and even whole stories of their own. The translators began introducing references to some noted figures. Such a kind of translation made the reader doubt whether the translated works belonged to a foreign author or were in fact an original work. This practice of Roman translators, that found its expression in a free treatment of secular source language works on the part of the most prominent Roman men of letters, little by little fostered an unrestricted freedom in translation, which began to dominate in all European literatures throughout the forthcoming centuries and during the Middle Ages. There were only a few examples of really faithful sense-to-sense translations after the afore-mentioned Greek translation of the Old Testament by Simmachus (second century BC) and its Latin translation by Hieronymus (340-420) in the fourth century AD. The latter demanded that translation should be performed not «word-for-word» but «sense-for-sense» (*non verbum e verbo, sed sensum exprimere de sensu*). Unlike Cicero, who wanted to see in a translation the expressive means of the source language work well, Hieronymus saw the main objective of the translator first of all the faithful conveying of the content, the component parts, and the composition of the work under translation.

Often practised alongside written translation before Christian era and during the first centuries, was also the *viva voce* translation. Some theoretical principles of interpretation were already worked out by the then most famous men of letters. Among them was the mentioned above poet Horace who in his *Ars Poetica* (Poetic Art) pointed out the difference between the written translation and typical oral interpretation. He emphasized that the interpreter rendered the content of the source matter «as a speaker», i.e., without holding too closely to the style and artistic means of expression of the orator. Interpreters were, for a considerable time, employed before the Christian era and afterwards in Palestinian synagogues where they spontaneously (*on sight*) interpreted the Torah from Hebrew into Aramaic, which the Palestinians now freely understood.

2. TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

The Middle Ages (ca. 500 AD - 1450 AD) are characterized by a general lack of progress and a constant stagnation in many spheres of mental activity including translation and interpretation, which continued to be practised, however,



in the domains of ecclesiastic science and the church. Thus, interpreting from Greek into Latin is known to have been regularly employed in the 6th century AD by the Roman church. One of the best interpreters then was the Scythian monk Dionisius Exiguus. The last historically confirmed official interpretation under the auspices of the church, this time from Latin into Greek, took place during the pontificate of Pope Martin I during the Lateran Council in 649. Interpreting

outside the church premises was and is widely carried on up to the present day by Christian and other religious missionaries who continue to work in various languages and in different countries of the world. Written translation as well as oral interpretation naturally continued to be extensively employed during the Middle Ages in interstate relations, in foreign trade and in military affairs (especially in war times). The primary motivation (рушійною силою) for linguistic endeavours in those times remained, quite naturally, the translation of ecclesiastic literature from the «holy languages» (Hebrew, Greek and Latin). Due to the continual work of an army of qualified researching translators, practically all essential Christian literature was translated during the Middle Ages in most European countries. Moreover, in some countries translations greatly helped to initiate their national literary languages and literatures. A graphic example of this, apart from the already mentioned name of Livius Andronicus, may be found in English history when King Alfred the Great (849-901) took an active part in translating manuals, chronicles and other works from ancient languages and thus helped in the spiritual and cultural elevation of his people. His noble work was continued by the abbot and author Aelfric (955? -1020?) who would paraphrase some parts of the work while translating and often adding *bona fide* stories of his own. Yet, Aelfric would consider this technique of rendering as a sense-to-sense translation. Abbot Aelfric himself admitted, that in his translation of the Latin work *Cura Pastoralis* under the English title *The Shepherd's (i.e. Pastors) Book*, he performed it «sometimes word-by-word» and «sometimes according to the sense», i.e. in free translation.

These same two approaches to translation were also characteristic of other European countries of the Middle Ages. Thus, word-for-word translation was widely practised in the famous Toledo school in Central Spain (the twelfth and thirteenth centuries) where the outstanding translator of that country Gerhard of Cremona worked. The adherence to word-for-word translation was predetermined by the subject-matter which was turned there from Arabic into Spanish. Among the works translated there were scientific or considered to be scientific (as alchemy), mathematical works (on arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physics, astronomy), philosophy, dialectics, medicine, etc. However, in Northern Spain, another school of translation functioned where the «sense-to-sense» approach was predominant and translations there were mostly performed from Greek into Hebrew (usually through Arabic). These same two principles, according to Solomon Ibn Ajjub, one of the greatest authorities on translation in the middle of the thirteenth century, were practised in the southern Italian school (Rome), which had fallen under a strong Arabic cultural influence as well. Secular works were translated in this school with many deliberate omissions/eliminations, additions, and paraphrases of their texts, which consequently changed the original works beyond recognition. This was the logical consequence of the method initiated by Horace and his *adherent* Apuleius, who applied their practice *to free treatment* of secular works under translation. That approach, meeting little if any resistance, dominated in European translation of secular works all through the Middle Ages and up to the 18th century. The only voice against the deliberate and

unrestricted «freedom» in translation was raised by the English scientist and philosopher Roger Bacon (1214? -1294), who strongly protested against this kind of rendering of Aristotle's works into English. In his work *Opus Majus* he demanded a thorough preliminary study of the source language works and a full and faithful conveyance of their content into the target language.

No less intensively practised alongside of the free sense-to-sense rendering in Europe during the Middle Ages was the strict word-for-word translation. Its domain of employment was naturally restricted to ecclesiastic and philosophic works. By this method the first ever translation of the Bible from Latin into English was accomplished in 1377-1380 by the noted religious scientist and reformer John Wycliffel Wycklif (1320? - 1384) who worked at the translation together with his helpers N.Hereford and J.Purvey.

Strict word-for-word translation continued to be constantly employed during the Middle Ages, and even much later in most European countries to perform translation of scientific, philosophic and juridical matter. An illustrative example of this is found in Germany of the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Thus, the prominent translator and literary critic Nicolas von Wyle (1410-1478) openly and officially demanded that translators of Latin juridical documents alter the German target language syntactically and stylistically as much as possible to mirror some particular peculiarities of classical Latin source language, which enjoyed the position of a world language in those times.

3. TRANSLATION DURING THE RENAISSANCE PERIOD



The Renaissance period which began in the 14th century in Italy was marked by great discoveries and inventions, the most significant of which for cultural development was the invention of the moving printing press by the German J.Gutenberg in the middle of the 15th century (1435). Its consequence was the appearance of cheaper printed books and a quick growth of the number of readers in West European countries. This demand of books for reading in its turn called forth an increase in translation activity due to which there was soon noticed an ever increasing number

of fiction translations. Alongside of this, the birth and strengthening of national European states raised the status of national languages and reduced the role of Latin. Hence, translations began to be performed not only from classic languages but also from and into new European languages. These real changes resulted in a wider use of faithful as well as free translations which started almost at one and the same time in France, Germany and England. During this period Albrecht von Eyb (translator of T.Plautus' works), Heinrich Steinhöwel (translator of Aesop's and Boccaccio's works), were active in Germany. The new free/unrestricted freedom of translation in France was also practised by the noted poet and translator of Ovid's poems Joachim du Bellay, who in his book *Defence et Illustration de la Langue Frangaise* (1549) also included some theoretical

chapters on translation. Another outstanding translator, publisher and scientist in France was Etienne Dolet. He was put to the stake, however, in 1546 for his free sense-to-sense (and not word-for-word) translation of Socrates' utterances in one of the dialogues with the philosopher Plato. E. Dolet was also the author of the treatise «*De la maniere de bien traduire d'une langue en l'autre*», 1540 (On How to Translate Well from One Language into the Other). Among other French translators who would widely practise the unrestricted freedom of translation were also Etienne de Laigle, Claude Fontaine, Amyot, and others.

Certainly the greatest achievement of the Renaissance period in the realistic approach to conveying the source language works was the translation of the Bible into several West European national languages. The first to appear was the German Bible in Martin Luther's translation (1522-1534). This translation of the Book of Books was performed by Martin Luther contrary to the general tradition of the Middle Ages, i.e. not strictly word-for-word, but faithfully sense-to-sense. What was still more extraordinary for those times, was that Martin Luther resorted to an extensive employment in his translation of the Bible of spoken German. Moreover, the principles of translating the Bible in this way were officially defended by Luther himself in his published work (1540) *On the Art of Translation (Von der Kunst des Dolmetschen)*. That faithful German translation of the Bible was followed in 1534 by the English highly realistic translation of the Holy Book performed by the theologian William Tyndale (1492? -1536). A year later (in 1535) the French Calvinist Bible came off the press. William Tyndale's version of the Bible was the first ever scientifically grounded and faithful English translation of the Holy Book. That translation served as a basis for the new *Authorized Version* of the Bible published in 1611. Unfortunately, Tyndale's really faithful sense-to-sense English translation of the Bible met with stiff opposition and a hostile reception on the part of the country's high clergy. William Tyndale's true supporters tried to justify the use of the common English speech by the translator (this constituted one of the main points of «deadly» accusations) by referring to Aristotle's counsel which was «to speak and use words as the common people useth». W. Tyndale himself tried to defend his accurate and really faithful translation, but all in vain. In 1536 he was tied to the stake, strangled and burnt in Flanders as a heretic for the same «sin» as his French colleague Etienne Dolet would be ten years later. Hence, the faithful approach to translating (this time of ecclesiastic and philosophic works) introduced by W. Tyndale and E. Dolet and supported by their adherents in England and France was officially condemned and persecuted in late Renaissance period.

4. TRANSLATION DURING THE PERIOD OF CLASSICISM AND ENLIGHTENMENT

Despite the official condemnations and even executions of some outstanding adherents of the idea of sense-to-sense translation of any written matter (including the ecclesiastic and philosophic works), the controversy between the supporters of now three different approaches to translating continued

unabated all through the periods of Classicism (17th - 18th centuries) and Enlightenment (the 18th century). These three trends which appeared long before and were employed during the Middle Ages, have been mentioned already on the preceding pages and are as follows:

1. The ancient «strict and truthful» word-for-word translation of ecclesiastic (the Septuagint) and philosophic works. The basic principles of the trend were considerably undermined by Luther's and Tyndale's translations of the Bible;

2. The unrestricted free translation introduced by Horace and Apuleius, which had established an especially strong position in France and gained many supporters there;

3. The old trend adhering to the Cicero's principle of regular sense-to-sense translation without the unrestricted reductions or additions to the texts/works in their final translated versions.

The supporters of the latter approach, whose voices began to be heard more and more loudly in the 17th and 18th centuries in various West European countries, strongly condemned any deliberate lowering of the artistic level or changing of the structure of the original belles-lettres works. They demanded in J.W.Draper's words that «Celtic literature be as Celtic as possible and Hottentot literature as Hottentot in order that the thrill of novelty might be maintained»¹. The English critic meant by these words that the translator should faithfully convey not only the content but also the artistic merits of the source language works. John Dryden (1630-1700), another outstanding English author and literary critic, tried to reconcile these two historically opposite trends and sought a middle course between the «very free», as he called the second trend, and the «very close» (i.e. word-for-word) approach. He demanded from translators «faithfulness to the spirit of the original» which became a regular motto in the period of Classicism and Enlightenment, though far from all translators unanimously supported this idea. Thus, the German translator and literary critic G.Ventzky put forward the idea (and vigorously supported it) that the translated belles-lettres works «should seem to readers to be born, not made citizens». This was not so much a demand for a highly artistic rendition, in the true sense of present-day understanding of faithful artistic translation, than a slightly camouflaged principle of adjustment of the source language works to current readers by way of free, unrestricted sense-to-sense rendering. And he realized this postulate in his translation practice.

Alongside of these trends regular free adaptation was widely practised during the 17th -18th centuries. The latter was considered to be a separate means or principle of translation as well. The most outspoken defender of this kind of «translation» in Germany was Frau Gottsched and her adherents Kruger, Laub and J.E.Schlegel. She openly recommended «to modernize and nationalize» the foreign authors' works, «to change their scenes of events, customs and traditions for the corresponding German customs and traditions.» Moreover, Frau Gottsched recommended the use of dialectal material in translation and practised unrestricted free interpretation of original belles-lettres works.² These views of Frau Gottsched, G.Ventzky and their adherents on translation radically differed

from those expressed by their sturdy opponent, the noted critic and translator J.Breitinger, who considered the source language works to be individual creations whose distinguishing features should be fully rendered into the target language.³

5. THE EPOCH OF ROMANTICISM AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PRINCIPLES OF FAITHFUL TRANSLATION IN EUROPE

In the second half of the eighteenth century, especially during the last decades, the controversy between the opponents of the strict word-for-word translation, and those who supported the free sense-to-sense translation (or simply the unrestricted free interpretation) continued unabated. In fact, new vigorous opponents appeared within both trends, the most outspoken among them were J.Campbell and A.F.Tytler in England, and the noted German philosopher and author J.G.Herder (1744-1803). Each of them came forward with sharp criticism of both extreme trends in belles-lettres translation and each demanded, though not always consistently enough, a true and complete rendition of content, and the structural, stylistic and artistic peculiarities of the belles-lettres originals under translation. These proclaimed views regarding the requirements of truly faithful artistic translation were also shared by several authors, poets and translators in other countries, including France, where free/unrestricted translation was most widely practised. Campbell's and Tytler's requirements, as can be ascertained below, are generally alike, if not almost identical. Thus, Campbell demanded from translators of belles-lettres the following: 1) «to give a just representation of the sense of the original (the most essential); 2) to convey into his version as much as possible (in consistency with the genius of his language) the author's spirit and manner, the very character of his style; 3) so that the text of the version have a natural and easy flow»¹ (*Chief Things to be Attended to in Translating*, 1789).

A.F.Tytler's requirements, as has been mentioned, were no less radical and much similar, they included the following: 1) «the translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work; 2) the style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original; 3) the translation should have the ease of an original composition.» (*The Principles of Translation*, 1792). These theoretical requirements to belles-lettres translation marked a considerable step forward in comparison to the principles which existed before the period of Enlightenment and Romanticism. At the same time both the authors lacked consistency. Campbell, for example, would admit in his Essay that translators may sometimes render only «the most essential of the original» and only «as much as possible the author's spirit and manner, the character of his style». This inconsistency of Campbell could be explained by the strong dominating influence during that period of unrestricted freedom of translation. Perhaps this explains why Campbell and Tytler quite unexpectedly favoured approval of the indisputably free versification by A.Pope of Homer's *Odyssey* into English.

Much more consistent in his views, and still more persistent in his intention to discard the harmful practice of strict word-for-word translation as well as of the unrestricted freedom of translating belles-lettres works was J.G.Herder (1744-1803). He visited several European countries including Ukraine and studied their national folksongs, the most characteristic of which he translated into German and published in 1778-79. Herder was captivated by the beauty of the national songs of the Ukrainian people, for whom he prophesied a brilliant cultural future. Herder himself, a successful versifier of songs, understood the inner power of these kinds of literary works and consequently demanded that all translators of prose and poetic works render strictly, fully and faithfully not only the richness of content, but also the stylistic peculiarities, the artistic beauty and the spirit of the source language works. His resolute criticism of the unrestricted freedom of translation and verbalism found strong support among the most outstanding German poets such as Goethe and Schiller among other prominent authors. He also found support among the literary critics in Germany and other countries. This new approach, or rather a new principle of truly faithful literary translation, was born during the period of Enlightenment and developed during early Romanticism (the last decades of the eighteenth century).

It began slowly but persistently to gain ground in the first decades of the nineteenth century. This faithful/realistic principle, naturally, was not employed in all European countries at once. After centuries long employment the word-for-word and unrestricted free translation could not be discarded overnight. As a result, the free sense-to-sense translation/unrestricted free translation as well as free adaptation (or regular rehash) continued to be widely employed in Europe throughout the first half of the nineteenth century and even much later. In Russia and in Ukraine, free sense-to-sense translation/free adaptation was steadily practised almost uninterruptedly both during the first and second halves of the nineteenth century. Among the eighteenth century Russian poets who constantly resorted to free sense-to-sense translation and free adaptation were Lomonosov, Sumarokov, Trediakovskii and others. In Ukraine, free sense-to-sense translation in the second half of the eighteenth century was occasionally employed by H.Skovoroda (in his translations from the Latin). During the nineteenth century the number of free interpretations increased considerably, among the authors in Russia being Zhukovskii, Pushkin, Katenin and Vvedenskii¹, and in Ukrainian P.Hulak-Artemovs'kyi, P.Bielets'kyi-Nossenکو and others. Every translator mostly employed free sense-to-sense translation or even free adaptation of foreign poetic and prose works. Only Zhukovskii would sometimes change his former practice and try to versify some poetic works as, for instance, Byron's *Prisoner of Chilton* (1819) faithfully, i.e., conveying full sense, the poetic meter and the artistic merits of the original work.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-TESTING AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Translation and interpretation in ancient countries of the Near East.
2. The first European translations and appearance of two different ways/principles of translation.
3. Deliberate violations of the second (sense-to-sense) way/principle of translation by Horace and Apuleius and their consequences in the Middle Ages and later periods.
4. Translation of ecclesiastic and secular works in the Middle Ages England and Spain.
5. Factors favouring the revival of translation during the period of European Renaissance.
6. Ways and methods of translation of ecclesiastic and secular works in France and Germany in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
7. Translation in the periods of Classicism and Enlightenment (seventeenth - eighteenth centuries).
8. The epoch of Romanticism and protests against the unrestricted freedom of translation in England, Germany and France. J. Herder and the birth of the principles of faithful translation.

Seminar 2. A Short Historical Outline of the Translation Theory

Plan

1. A short Historical Outline of Translation.
2. A short Historical Outline of Translation Theory.
3. History of interpreting and establishing of the theory of translation.
4. Translation and interpreting.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
5. Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.

6. Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

1. Карабан В. І. Посібник-довідник з перекладу англійської наукової і технічної літератури на українську мову / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Київ-Кременчук, 1999. – 120 с.
2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.
5. Миньяр-Белоручев Р. К. Как стать переводчиком? : [текст] / [отв. ред. Блох М. Я.]. – Москва : «Готика», 1999. – 176 с.
6. Слепович В. С. Курс перевода. Translation Course / Виктор Самойлович Слепович. – Мн. : «Тетра-системс». – 2002. – 272с.
7. Чернов Г. В. Основы синхронного перевода / Гелий Васильевич Чернов. – М. : Наука, 2007. – 342 с.

1. Translate the text.

Make the summary in Ukrainian. Primary Education in Ukraine

Elementary school in Ukraine, as well as in other countries of the world, is doubtless the foundation of all school. Text of the Law on Education also testifies to it , in particular, the fourth item of Article 36, that emphasizes necessity of creation of an elementary school "regardless of the amount of students in the settlement".

Basic secondary education provides all-round development of a child as a personality, his gifts, abilities, talents, working education, vocational self-determination, formation of universal morals, acquiring of determined by public and national-cultural needs of knowledge about nature, human being, society and industry, ecological education, physical improvement.

The state guarantees to young people the right to receive complete basic secondary education and pays for it. The complete basic secondary education in Ukraine is compulsory and it can be received in different types of educational institutions.

Due to financial resources of enterprises, institutions and organizations, parents and other voluntary payments some additional educational courses beyond determined in state standards for the appropriate educational level can be introduced.

The main type of secondary educational institutions is the secondary comprehensive school of three levels: **the first (I)**- elementary school,

which provides primary general education, **the second (II)**- basic school, which provides general basic secondary education, the **third (III)**- upper school, which provides complete general secondary education. Schools of each of three levels can function together or independently. (*For example: school of I level, school of I-II levels, school of I-III levels*) Schooling at a secondary comprehensive school begins from six - seven age. Schools of the first level in a rural area are formed regardless of available enrolments of pupils. Opening of such schools, and also of independent classes in them is carried out according to the decision of local bodies of the state executive authority and bodies of local self-management. " Traditionally the main task of an elementary school is providing of the most important compounds of children development and training them for the future schooling - skills of confident reading and writing, mastering principles of Arithmetic, formation of initial skills to use books and other sources of information, mastering basic ideas about an environment, initial mastering norms of universal morals, deepening of love to a native Land, mastering principles of hygiene and initial working skills. Though an elementary school can be included into the structure of schools with several levels, in Ukraine there exist about three thousand autonomous small schools, which provide stable existence of those villages, where they are located. During years of independence the total number of autonomous elementary schools, which were not included into the structure of complex institutions, has dropped from 3 164 up to 2 684. It was caused by a number of demographic and economic factors. At the same time the total number of schools of different types increased, that is why the number of pupils, which studied in the second change essentially decreased. Later on it is planned to carry out schooling of all pupils only in the first (morning) change. Schooling in elementary schools, as well as in other general educational institutions of Ukraine, lasts from September 1 to May 25, and in the first grade - one week less. There are several breaks for vacations during academic year (data for 1998/99 academic years):

- autumn - from November 1 to November 8;
- winter - from December 25 to January 10;
- spring - from March 21 to March 28 .

For pupils of the first grade each school establishes an additional fortnight vacation.

The legislation gives an opportunity to local educational governments to vary the structure of academic year according to concrete conditions of the educational institution or to the regional features, but the complete duration of academic year should last not less than 34 school weeks.

Training of children for the beginning of schooling is a general task of families (parents), local authorities, principals and all the community. Pre-school educational courses enable children to receive preliminary knowledge about future schooling in elementary school.

2. Translate the Text

The classroom context

There's a lot to look out for in the classroom setting in terms of managing pupil behaviour.

Creative teachers display many skills.

Teachers managing the classroom situation are:

- managing the physical setting: layout, seating, resources, etc
- managing the social structure: groupings, working patterns, etc
- managing the psychological setting of the classroom
- handling the timing and pacing, developing effective routines



- giving a personal yet public performance, with a focus on group participation

- being aware of the multiple dimensions of classroom life and showing it
- managing more than one event at the same time, ignoring as appropriate
- recognising and tolerating the unpredictable nature of classroom life.

To identify some useful pointers for your own action:

1. Identify an occasion when a classroom you were managing created a positive, purposeful atmosphere. Apply the headings on the previous page to that example. What aspects of your classroom management went well?

2. Now think of a less positive example where the behaviour concerns you. Apply these headings to that example. What aspects of your classroom management are highlighted? Identify two areas which it could be useful to develop.

Is there a particular classroom which is causing you concern?

Analyse the following features of your classroom.

- **Physical setting:** layout of furniture, positioning of seats, resources, lighting, display, etc. Do any of these seem linked to the difficulty? If so, can you experiment with some aspect? Remember that managing the physical setting is one of the teacher's key skills, but they often de-skill themselves by saying that someone else 'wouldn't like a change on this front'.

- **Social structure:** the groupings of pupils, the patterns of working together, rationales given, etc. Is there any link to the difficulty? If so, can you imagine some modification to try out? Re-grouping using some random process can be useful now and again, to break patterns which may have become unproductive. Re-teaching the skills of working together can be important. Reviewing the rationales for groupwork can be needed.

- **Psychological setting:** this is mainly managed through the type of activities in the classroom and the way they are conducted. The busyness is managed through timing and pacing of activities. Too few activities can lead

pupils to seek diversion: too many can get them confused. The transitions between classroom activities can be unstable periods which need effective orchestration. They are well handled when preceded by some advance warnings: 'There are three minutes before we return to the whole group', 'We've been working on this experiment for ten minutes now so you should be about half way through'.

- The public aspect of classrooms can create difficulties if it becomes exaggerated. It is constructive to have private interchanges in the classroom, including with those pupils whose behaviour concerns you. The sense of being on stage declines as the relationship with a group develops.

- The multi-dimensional nature of classroom life needs recognition. Those teachers who try to keep the rest of life outside the door operate less effective classrooms. The rest of life can be acknowledged and sometimes linked to the learning.

- The simultaneity of classroom events demands skills of selective ignoring. Effective teachers are effective at deciding what to overlook. They give a 'smooth' performance, which maintains a sense of momentum, and conveys the sense that they are steering the events. By contrast, the teacher who does not use such skills well gives a 'lumpy' performance, responding to something here then something there so that momentum is lost and the events seem to be in control. Sometimes our own approaches to managing the classroom constitute interruptions, and disturb the flow in a non-productive way!

- The unpredictability of classroom life has to be recognised and accepted as well as managed. Here routines and rituals are useful and need to be established and reviewed with each class.

(Dick Norrison, Time2teach.com)

3. Read the article from “The Guardian”.

Translate it orally. Write down the translation in Ukrainian.

How to teach ... birdwatching in the primary school

With the RSPB's Big Garden Birdwatch this weekend, the Guardian Teacher Network has resources to help pupils do a spot of birdwatching and contribute to the annual survey

Treecreeper perched on the side of a tree trunk: will you spot one of these during the Big Garden Birdwatch? Photograph: Elliott Neep

The RSPB's annual Big Garden Birdwatch provides a vital snapshot of bird populations in winter and has helped to highlight some dramatic declines in UK garden birds over the last 30 years. Schools can also get involved via the Big Schools Birdwatch. Last year, 90,000 students and their teachers across the UK



took part, counting more than 70 different species in their school grounds, ranging from starlings and house sparrows to kestrels.

Schools simply need to commit to counting birds in their playground for one hour over the next two weeks until 1 February and report back their findings to the RPSB.

The Guardian Teacher Network has some fantastic resources to help your school join in the Big Schools Birdwatch, and also to help you study birds at any time of the year.

The first thing teachers need to do is get their hands on the RSPB teachers' resource packs. See The Really Big Schools Birdwatching teachers' pack for secondary schools and find teachers' notes for primary and early years. Full resource packs can be ordered on www.rspb.org.uk/schoolswatch in English and Welsh.

The RSPB has created an inspiring assembly for primary schools, complete with wonderful photographs and bird-sound files.

For all the resources, go to www.guardian.co.uk/teacher-network

Here is the RSPB's useful guide to birds that might be spotted in your school grounds.

There are some brilliant ideas for attracting birds to your school grounds. Learn how to make pine cone lardy seed feathers and enjoy watching the birds eat your edible pictures with these bird friend recipes. Younger pupils can make some bird-tempting pastry maggots or suet and nut log.

Play the RSPB's top trumps game featuring your favourite garden birds.

And here's an outline for making a nest box, which could be used to improve your school grounds and as part of the Big Schools Birdwatch.

A nice idea is to make taking part in the Big Garden Birdwatch part of homework for this weekend (Saturday 26 and Sunday 27 January). Students just need to spend one hour counting birds in their gardens or local park, noting the highest number of each bird species seen at any one time, keeping record on this counting sheet. Last year, 600,000 people took part, counting 9m birds, making this the world's biggest wildlife survey. Students can report back their findings by 17 February at www.rspb.org.uk/birdwatch.

The Woodland Trust's Nature Detectives team has also produced some brilliant bird-spotting teaching resources. Pupils can print out and make this cool Bird idial to identify common birds including blue tit, blackbird, chaffinch, starling, treecreeper, wood pigeon, robin, magpie, great tit and collared dove. Also see this useful garden birds ticklist.

Young twitchers will appreciate this birdwatching certificate to reward their hard work.

How many bird actions can your students spot in nature? Print this game card and head outside for a game of bird bingo. For rainy day birdwatching, try a bird-search.

Thanks also to Nature Detectives for this clever idea of recycling an old juice carton into a bird feeder, and if it is plagued by squirrels check out these fantastic squirrel-proofing tips, including putting chilli powder in the mix, which

squirrels hate, but birds don't seem bothered about. This makes a great predicting and testing activity.

The Wildfowl and Wetlands Trust (WWT) has some interesting bird-related teaching resources. Check out this trail sheet from the London Wetland Centre looking at the many different birds that can be found there. Also find this resource on exploring colours of birds.

How do we classify organisms including birds? This PowerPoint from ARKive aimed at key stage 3 students explains how and why, with accompanying teachers' notes. Also find student instructions and species cards ready for a game of the Guess Zoo.

For beautiful displays see these downloadable bird photos and little dickie birds editable page borders.

Barn owls will be something of a rarity in Big Birdwatch results, but the Barn Owl Trust is working hard to protect their habitats and has produced some helpful cross-curricular teaching ideas. Also find a barn owl fact file and the Wings of Change story, which charts the changes in the British countryside and how barn owls have been affected.

(Emily Drabble, The Guardian, Monday 21 January 2013 18.45 GMT)

4. Translate the text.

Make the summary in Ukrainian.

There have been a number of books written recently about the history of translation. What certainly is true is that as we move from the age of the tower of Babel (where the Bible tells us different languages were first introduced) to the age of Babel Fish (and other instant translation services) there is a growing need for translation. As the internet spreads, and globalisation moves on - the need for translation increases. Language schools and courses, like St Georges language courses in London, may help you to learn Spanish in London but theorists throughout the ages have insisted that a good translator must not only know the language but understand the culture they are translating.

Early history

The word translation itself derives from a Latin term meaning "to bring or carry across". The Ancient Greek term is 'metaphrasis' ("to speak across") and this gives us the term 'metaphrase' (a "literal or word-for-word translation") - as contrasted with 'paraphrase' ("a saying in other words"). This distinction has laid at the heart of the theory of translation throughout its history: Cicero and Horace employed it in Rome, Dryden continued to use it in the seventeenth century and it still exists today in the debates around "fidelity versus transparency" or "formal equivalence versus dynamic equivalence". The first known translations are those of the Sumerian epic Gilgamesh into Asian languages from the second millennium BC. Later Buddhist monks translated Indian sutras into Chinese and Roman poets adapted Greek texts.

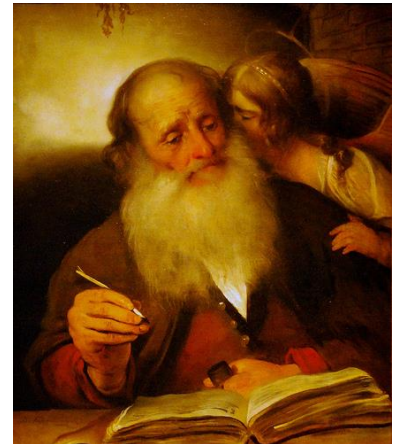
Arabic scholars

Translation undertaken by Arabs could be said to have kept Greek wisdom and learning alive. Having conquered the Greek world, they made Arabic versions of its philosophical and scientific works. During the Middle Ages, translations of these Arabic versions were made into Latin - mainly at the school in Cordoba, Spain. These Latin translations of Greek and original Arab works of learning helped underpin Renaissance scholarship.

Religious texts

Religious texts have played a great role in the history of translation. One of the first recorded instances of translation in the West was the rendering of the Old Testament into Greek in the 3rd century BC. A task carried out by 70 scholars this translation itself became the basis for translations into other languages.

Saint Jerome, the patron saint of translation, produced a Latin Bible in the 4th century AD that was the preferred text for the Roman Catholic Church for many years to come. Translations of the Bible, though, were to controversially re-emerge when the Protestant Reformation saw the translation of the Bible into local European languages - eventually this led to Christianity's split into Roman Catholicism and Protestantism due to disparities between versions of crucial words and passages. Martin Luther himself is credited with being the first European to propose that one translates satisfactorily only toward his own language: a statement that is just as true in modern translation theory.



Modern Theory and Practice

Whilst industrialisation has led to the formalization of translation for business purposes since the eighteenth century it is, perhaps, the internet and mechanical translation that has really revolutionised the field. In terms of theory Lawrence Venuti's call for "foreignizing" strategies marks a call for fidelity over transparency in translation. The two poles of metaphrase and paraphrase, however, still set the terms of debate from the age of Babel to that of Babel Fish.

(Delisle, Jean & Woodsworth, Judith. Translators through History. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1995. (Co-published by UNESCO).

Tasks for the individual work

1. **Compose the essay "Translation as a Notion and Subject"**
2. **Read the material. Translate it.**
3. **Make the summary.**
4. **Try to find the proposed resources and make the summary on one of them.**

By my count, nine useful books about translation history, specialized works aside, have been published over the last thirty years. It must say something about where this field is going that six of them have come out during the last seven years (and four since 1992). The latest such work, *Translators through History*, edited and directed by Jean Delisle and Judith Woodsworth, appears under the very highest auspices, being co-published by John Benjamins and Unesco. The combined effort of fifty scholars from twenty different nations, this volume has been five years in the making and is now published simultaneously in French and English with assistance from several Canadian sponsors and the F.I.T.

The editors have set out to create "a selective and thematic overview" rather than "an exhaustive study of the history of translation,...without compromising ...standards of scholarship...they have sought to make the book readable and accessible to as wide an audience as possible." The volume is divided into nine chapters, each covering one of the roles played by translators over the ages: inventors of alphabets, developers of national languages, creators of national literatures, disseminators of knowledge, accessories to power, religious proselytizers, transmitters of cultural values, authors of dictionaries, and interpreters as the middlemen of history.

To their outstanding credit, the editors and their collaborators make a truly impressive showing in each of these fields, no small achievement within the limitations of a few hundred pages. The work is supplemented by 24 illustrations, two appendices, a bibliography, and an index. Perhaps most important, this is the first general work on translation history to abandon a purely Eurocentric perspective (though a pending ATA exhibit proposal also favors this approach).

This work is almost overwhelming in the sheer number and richness of strands, episodes, and anecdotes it embraces, moving with seeming effortlessness from the Seventh Century Chinese monk Xuanzang to modern Cameroon to the creation of the Cree syllabary in the early Nineteenth Century. As we visit Baghdad, we learn that the master translator Hunayn ibn Ishaq was paid in gold for his work according to its weight (and hence tended to use thick paper!), that Gerard of Cremona wandered from Italy to Toledo in 1157 simply because he wanted to find a copy of Ptolemy's *Almagest* for himself, that Doña Marina's ghost still lurks along the edge of Mexico City's zócalo, that French Canadian translators protested in vain against politicians, who insisted "Dominion of Canada" must be translated "*Puissance de Canada*."

This book is certainly an indispensable tool for anyone interested in translation history. But it should perhaps also be admitted at the same time that no single book in this field can be considered a model of clarity or accessibility. Of these works (*see bibliography at end*), perhaps Renier's and Kelly's should receive the lowest grades for their overall meaning-to-verbiage ratio, though both

certainly have useful insights to offer. Even for someone familiar with the material, the current work also leaves something to be desired. Parts of it read even more drably than most history texts, and sentences like the following are all too common:

"In the twentieth century, as in the nineteenth, the United States was divided by conflicting ideological tendencies, some of them conservative and others more liberal."

"In fact, religion was only one of several motives for the many expeditions from the Old World to the New; missions were also carried out for the purposes of commerce, power and territorial expansion."

Wooden language abounds, and the chapter on dictionaries reads remarkably like a laundry list of such works through the ages, though such a list will surely be valuable to specialists. And many other passages, both in the chapter on evolving world literatures and elsewhere, resemble what Jiri Levy called mere "literary chitchat" and/or the all too predictable harumphings of Gregory Rabassa's "Professor Horrendo."

Perhaps most unfortunately, given the book's theme, parts of it actually read "like a translation." From internal evidence it would appear that at some point during the bilingual publishing process, the entire text of the book was converted into French for a "final" proofreading and then reconverted into English with little further checking, leaving behind such French spellings as Marchak (Marshak), Guatemoc (Cuauhtémoc), and La Coruna (La Coruña). Equally distracting are countless text-embedded footnotes stuffed with sources, dates, or titles, greatly reducing the work's readability—these could have been assigned lettered footnotes (to distinguish them from endnotes) and placed at the bottom of the page.

Despite the number of scholars involved, there are still some glaring errors, among them the Western invention of printing in the fourteenth century (p.102), the assertion that Greek and Roman medicine were "of Indian origin" (p. 108—over time their cross-fertilization was far more complex), the strange use in English of the French term "Americanist" (p. 149), and a misleading explanation of the differences between Mahayana and Hinayana Buddhism (p. 125). Two major oversights: the book almost totally ignores Japan and Korea and also fails to mention that the great Baghdad renaissance actually began in the Persian town of Jundishapur.

Given its UNESCO auspices, *Translators through History* certainly does its best to avoid any statement that could ruffle international feathers—in the Nuremberg trial section it even contains an endnote for the young detailing the nationalities of the "Allies" and the "war criminals." And yet the editors' well-meant attempt at even-handedness finally ends in failure. In the material they have chosen, they have been unable to resist the persistent quirk of extreme francophilia, a failing that finally leads almost to comedy. Not only do they insist that the entire twelfth century "Toledo School" of translation was under "French" direction, via monks from the Cluny monastery at in central France (and this at a time when Cathar, Bogomil, and diehard Arabist influences ran rampant

throughout the South, when neither France nor the French language was in an advanced state of formation), not only is an attempt made to exonerate French church fathers for burning translator-martyr Étienne Dolet at the stake (*see next selection on Translation Menu*), but an even more amazing claim is made for French Calvinist missionaries in the jungles of Brazil.

While both the English and Spanish had a very poor record of training interpreters during their early explorations, according to our co-editors the French were far more fortunate:

"It is believed that Norman navigators anchored at the mouth of the Amazon even before Columbus reached the shores of the New World. Some Frenchmen, referred to in the French accounts as *truchements de Normandie* or 'Norman interpreters'...had moved into the villages, learned the language, cohabited with the women, had children by them and allegedly adopted all their practices, even cannibalism. While these *truchements* were an embarrassment to the French missionaries, they were immensely valuable to them as liaison agents."

This episode allegedly took place in 1555, which means that these *truchements*-or their grandchildren-would have needed to retain their French for at least 65 years, assuming they had arrived no earlier than two years before Columbus. But this story, which adds up to nothing less than the claim that the French discovered America, was inspired by a typical Sixteenth Century "traveler's tale" and deserves no logical analysis at all. Even histories of translation must still obey historiographical rules, and today's historians are united in dismissing most claims of successful new world colonization prior to Columbus-whether by Normans, Welsh, Irish, Vikings, Phoenicians, Egyptians, or Israelites-as poppycock, and this tale does not belong in a serious history. Another recognizably French feature-as Mary McCarthy pointed out long ago-is an inadequate index, containing a mere fraction of the text's many names of persons and places. So French does the book become that it even quotes from that great Frenchman and former ATA President Henri Fischbach. [he is of course better known to ATA members as "Henry"] Greater clarity would also have been served by listing the authors of each chapter at its beginning rather than grouping them in italics at the end.

Despite these objections, books like *Translators through History* are still of enormous value: they offer a rich harvest for those prepared to cut their way through their burgeoning undergrowth. But some of the greatest figures and movements throughout this history upheld a different vision for translation, even for communication itself, than the one presented by our scholars. Martin Luther demanded language for "the common man in the marketplace," King Alfred the Great insisted on "language that we all can understand," Alfonso X of Castile called out for texts that were *llanos de entender* ("easy to understand"), while Hunayn ibn Ishaq wanted his medical texts to be understood by someone "who was not a medical specialist, or who was unacquainted with philosophy." During both the French Revolution and nineteenth-century political unrest in India, voices cried out insistently for precisely these goals. All of these examples can be found in the current volume. Against this background, it seems supremely ironic-

and may well explain many of the problems facing our profession-that we have still not evolved a style for explaining the history and principles of translation to our fellow citizens in a clear and simple way. As advanced as this book undoubtedly is, the field of translation history may still be in its infancy.

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Module 2 2

Lecture 3. Main Types of the Translation.

Plan

1. Main types of the translation.
2. Mashine translation
3. Decriptive and Antonumic Translation

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
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1. Main types of the translation

Translating is unseparable from understanding and it goes along with conveying content and sometimes even the form of language units. As a result, the process of translation, provided it is not performed at the level of separate simple words, involves simultaneously some aspects of the source language and those of the target language. These are

morphology (word-building and word forms), the lexicon (words, phraseologisms, mots), syntax (the means of connection and **the** structure of syntaxemes), stylistics (peculiarities of speech styles, tropes, etc.).

The level or the degree of faithfulness of translation is mostly predetermined by some factors, which may be both of objective and of subjective nature. The main of them are the purpose of the translation to be performed, the skill of the translator/interpreter, the type of the matter selected for translation, etc. Depending on these and some **other** factors, the following methods of translating are traditionally recognized in the theory and practice of translation:

1. Literal translating, which is to be employed when dealing with separate words whose surface form and structure, as well as their lexical meaning in the source language and in the target language, fully coincide. These are predominantly international by original morphemes, lexemes/words, rarer word-groups having in English and Ukrainian (and often in some other languages too) a literally identical or very similar presentation and identical lexical meaning: *administrator* адміністратор, *director* директор, *region* регіон, *hotel/motel* готель/мотель, *hydrometer* гідрометр, *Tom* Том, etc.

It is easy to notice that in some words thus translated not only the morphemic but also the syllabic structure can sometimes be fully conveyed (*escort* ескорт, *director* директор, *ex-president* екс-президент).

In many a case, however, the lingual form of the source language words is only partly conveyed in the target language. This happens when the common word is borrowed by each of the two languages in question from different source languages or when its lingual form is predetermined by the orthographic peculiarities of the target language: *anti-alcoholic* протиалкогольний, *music* музика, *constitution* конституція, *zoology* зоологія, *atomic weight* атомна вага, *chemical process* хімічний процес, *national opera theatre* національний оперний театр.

The literal translation in all the examples above provides an equivalent rendering of the lexical meaning of each language unit despite the augmentation in the number of morphemes/syllables in the target language (cf. *atomic* атом-на, *alcoholic* алкоголь-ний).

Close to the literal method of translating or rather reproduction is the so-called way of translator's transcription by means of which partly the orthographic and partly the sounding form of the source language lexemes/words is conveyed: *archbishop* архієпископ, *card* картка/карта, *European* європейський, *Muscovite* москвич/москвичка, *organized* організований, *stylized* стилізований, *therapeutic* терапевтичний.

Literal translating, however, can pervert the sense of the source language lexemes or sentences when their lingual form accidentally coincides with some other target language lexemes having quite different meanings: *artist* митець, художник (rarer артист); *decoration* відзнака, нагорода (and not декорація); *matrass* колба (and not матрац); *replica* точна копія (and not репліка), etc. Hence, literal translating has some restrictions in its employment and does not always help to render the lexical meaning of words or even morphemes having

often even an identical lingual form (spelling) in the source language and in the target language.

2. Verbal translating is also employed at lexeme/word level. But unlike literal translating it never conveys the orthographic or the sounding form of the source language units, but their denotative meaning only: *fearful* страшний, *fearless* безстрашний, *helpless* безпорадний, *incorrect* неправильний, *mistrust* недовір'я (недовіра), *superprofit* надприбуток, *non-interference* невтручання, *weightlessness* невагомість etc.

All the words above are practically translated at the lexico-mor-phological level, as their lexical meanings and morphological stems are identical to those of the English words (cf. *help-less* без-порадний, *mis-trust* не-довір'я, *super-profit* над-прибуток, etc.).

The overwhelming majority of other words, when translated verbally do not preserve their structure in the target language. That is explained by the differences in the morphological systems of the English and Ukrainian languages: *abundantly* рясно, *bank* берег (береговий), *cliff* бескид (скеля, круча), *myself* я, я сам/сама; *автомат* automatic machine/rifle, *заввишки* high/tall, *письменник* writer (author), *червоніти* to get/grow red, etc..

Verbal translating of polysemantic words permits a choice among some variants which is practically impossible in literal translating, which aims only at maintaining the literal form.

Thus, the Ukrainian word *автомат* can have the following equivalent variants in English: 1. automatic machine; 2. slot-machine; 3. automatic telephone; 4. submachine gun (tommy gun). Similarly, the English word *bank* when out of a definite context may have the following equivalent variants in Ukrainian: 1. берег (*річки*); 2. банк; 3. вал/насіп; 4. мілина; 5. замет; 6. крен, віраж (*авіац.*); 7. поклади (*корисних копалин*). The literal variant/equivalent of the noun *bank* Ukrainian can be, naturally, «банк» only.

Verbal translating, however, does not and can not provide a faithful conveying of sense/content at other than word level. When employed at the level of word-combinations or sentences verbal translation may often make the language units ungrammatical and pervert or completely ruin their sense, cf: *I am reading* now is not я є читаючий зараз but я читаю зараз; *never say die* is not ніколи не кажи помираю but не падай духом; *to grow strong* is not рости міцним but ставати дужим; *to take measures* is not брати міри but вживати заходів; *first night* is not перша ніч but прем'єра, etc.

Despite this, verbal translation is widely employed first of all at language level, i.e., when the lexical meaning of separate words is to be identified. A graphic example of verbal translation is presented in dictionaries which list the lexical meanings of thousands of separate words. Verbal translation is also employed for the sake of discriminating the meanings of some words at the lessons, with the aim of identifying the meaning of the unknown words (when translating sentences or passages). The student like any other person eager to know the name of an object or action/quality of the object, etc., employs verbal translation too when asking: What is the English for сніп/ відлига? What is the

English for нікчемна людина/нікчема, хвалити Бога? What is the Ukrainian for cranberry/mistletoe? etc.

3. Word-for-word translation is another method of rendering sense. It presents a consecutive verbal translation though at the level of word-groups and sentences. This way of translation is often employed both consciously and subconsciously by students in the process of translating alien grammatical constructions/word forms. Sometimes students at the initial stage of learning a foreign language may employ this way of translation even when dealing with seemingly common phrases or sentences, which are structurally different from their equivalents in the native tongue. Usually the students employ word-for-word translation to convey the sense of word-groups or sentences which have a structural form, the order of words, and the means of connection quite different from those in the target language. To achieve faithfulness various grammatical transformations are to be performed in the process of translation and in the translation itself word-for-word variants are to be corrected to avoid various grammatical violations made by the inexperienced students. Cf. *You are right to begin with** ви маєте рацію, щоб почати з instead of Почнемо з того/припустимо, що ви маєте рацію/що ви праві.

3. The interlinear way/method of translating is a conventional term for a strictly faithful rendering of sense expressed by word-groups and sentences at the level of some text. The latter may be a passage, a stanza, an excerpt of a work or the work itself. The method of interlinear translation may be practically applied to all speech units (sentences, supersyntactic units, passages). Interlinear translation always provides a completely faithful conveying only of content, which is often achieved through various transformations of structure of many sense units. For example, the sentence *Who took my book?* admits only one word-for-word variant, namely: *Хто взяв мою книжку?*

In interlinear translation, however, the full content of this sentence can be faithfully rendered with the help of two and sometimes even three equivalent variants: *У кого моя книжка? Хто брав/узяв мою книжку?* The choice of any of the transformed variants is predetermined by the aim of the translation, by the circumstances under which the translating/interpreting is performed or by the requirements of style (for example, in order to avoid the unnecessary repetition of the same form of expression/structure close to each other).

Interlinear translating is neither bound to nor in any way restricted by the particularities of word forms, by the word order or by the structural form of the source language units, which are usually word-combinations or sentences in the passage/work under translation.

As can be seen, the Ukrainian variants of the English sentence above (*Who took my book?*) bear no traces of interference on the part of the English language with its rigid word order in each paradigmatic kind of sentences. Neither is there any peculiar English word-combination transplanted to the Ukrainian sentences, as it often occurs in word-for-word translations. Hence, various transformations in interlinear translations, like in literary translations, are inevitable and they are called forth by grammatical/structural, stylistic and other divergences in the

source language and in the target language. This can be seen from the following examples: *The student is being asked now* студента зараз запитують. *She said she would come* вона казала, що прийде. // *will have been done by then* на той час / до того часу це буде зроблено. *His having been decorated is unknown to me* мені невідомо про його нагородження (що його нагородили).

Transformations are also inevitable when there exists no identity in the form of expressing the same notion in the source language and in the target language: *a trip* коротка подорож; їздити на лижах *to ski*; to participate брати участь; овдовіти *to become a widow/ widower*, знесилитися *to become/grow weak (feeble)*.

Very often transformations become also necessary in order to overcome divergences in the structural form of English syntaxemes which are predominantly analytical by their structural form, whereas their Ukrainian word-groups of the same meaning are mostly synthetic and analytico-synthetic by structure: *books of my father*/книжки мого батька; *Kyivstreet traffic regulations* правила дорожнього руху міста Києва; but: *a task for next week* завдання на наступний тиждень.¹

Interlinear translating is widely practised at the intermediary and advanced stages of studying a foreign language. It is helpful when checking up the students' understanding of certain structurally peculiar English sense units in the passage under translation. Interlinear translations of literary works, when perfected by regular masters of the pen, may become good literary variants of the original. But interlinear translations do not convey the literary merits/artistic features and beauty of the original. While performing the interlinear translation the student tries to convey completely the content of a source language sentence, stanza or passage. He quite subconsciously analyses the passage, selects in the target language the necessary means of expression for the allomorphic and isomorphic phenomena/sense units unknown to him and only after this he performs the translation. The interlinear method of translating helps the student to obtain the necessary training in rendering the main aspects of the foreign language. Thus, he masters the means of expression pertained to the source/ target language. In the example below, taken from P.B.Shelley's poem *The Masque of Anarchy*, the interlinear translation conveys only the main content of the poetic stanza:

From this interlinear translation the reader can obtain a fairly correct notion of what the poet wanted to say in the stanza as a whole. But this translation does not in any way reflect the artistic beauty of Shelley's poem, i.e., the variety of its tropes, the rhythm and the rhyme, the musical sounding of the original work. Despite all that it still ranks much higher than any word-for-word translation might ever be, as it faithfully conveys not only the meaning of all notional words but also the content of different sense units, which have no structural equivalents in Ukrainian. Due to this the method of interlinear translation is practically employed when rendering some passages or works for internal office use in scientific/research centres and laboratories, in trade and other organizations and by students in their translation practice; it acquires some features of literary translation.

4. Literary Translating represents the highest level of a translator's activity. Any type of matter skilfully turned into the target language, especially by a regular master of the pen may acquire the faithfulness and the literary (or artistic) standard equal to that of the source language.

Depending on the type of the matter under translation, this method of performance may be either *literary proper* or *literary artistic*.

Literary artistic translation presents a faithful conveying of content and of the artistic merits only of a fiction/belles-lettres passage or work. The latter may be either of a prose or a poetic genre (verse).

Literary proper translation is performed on any other than fiction/belles-lettres passages/works. These may include scientific or technical matter, didactic matter (different text-books), business correspondence, the language of documents, epistolary texts, etc. In short, any printed or recorded matter devoid of artistic merits (epithets, metaphors, etc.). But whether literary proper or literary artistic, this translation provides an equivalent rendering not only of complete content but also of the stylistic peculiarities of the passage/work and its artistic merits/beauty, as in belles-lettres style texts.

Literary translations are always performed in literary all-nation languages and with many transformations which help achieve the ease and beauty of the original composition. The number of phrases and sentences in a literary translation is never the same as in the source language passage/work, neither are the same means of expression or the number and quality of stylistic devices per paragraph/syntactic superstructure. All these transformations are made in order to achieve faithfulness in rendering content and expressiveness of the passage/ work under translation. Transformations are also used to convey the features of style and in still greater measure the genre peculiarities of the works/passages under translation.

Literary proper/literary artistic translation of a larger passage/ work often requires linguistic, historical and other inquiries in order to clarify the obscure places (historic events, notions of specific national lexicon, neologisms, archaisms, etc.). Sometimes even the title of a work may require a philologic or historic inquiry. So, «Слово о полку Ігоревім» in a verbal or word-for-word translation would be **A Word about Ihor's Regiment* which does not in any way correspond to the real meaning of this title, since the author meant under «Слово» story, tale, saga, song. The word *полк* did not mean the military unit of today's armies (regiment) but *troop, host, army*. Therefore, the meaning of *полк* would be in Ukrainian *дружина* and the whole title would sound in contemporary translation as *The Tale of the Host of Ihor*, which corresponds to the real meaning of the title (*оповідь, повість, пісня про Ігореве військо*, i.e. *дружину*). That is why there exist today different translations of the title of this brilliant work. Among them are the following: 1) *The Tale of the Armament of Igor*. Edited and translated by Leonard Magnus. Oxford University Press, 1915. 2) *The Tale of Igor*. Adapted by Helen de Verde. London, 1918. 3) *Prince Igor's Raid Against the Polovtsi*. Translated by Paul Crath. Versified by Watson Kirkconnell. Saskatoon. Canada, 1947. 4) *The Song of Igor's Campaign*. Translated by

Vladimir Nabokov. New York 1960. As can be seen, none of these titles conveys the meaning of the title fully, completely equivalents and faithfully, though some are close to it, especially that one suggested by Paul Crath (Prince Igor's Raid against the Polovtsi) and the V.Nabokov's variant The Song of Igor's Campaign.

In Soviet times this old Ukrainian literature masterpiece had an unchanged title The Lay of Igor's Host (suggested by a Georgian linguist). This translation does not differ greatly from the two mentioned above for «lay» is the Middle English poetic word for «song».

A similar approach aimed at a possibly fullest expression of the poetic content, i.e., flavour of the title can be seen in S.Garry's translation of M.Sholokhov's novel «Тихий Дон» sounding in English as rhythmic lines of a song - *And Quiet Flows the Don* or *The Don Flows home to the Sea*. The former title was used in the New York publication of the novel (1944) and the latter in its London publication that same year. It goes without saying that a verbal or word-for-word translation of the title as **The Quiet Don* or **The Still Don* would not convey the poetic flavour of the original title, which is strongly felt in its source language variant.

This poetic subtext of the Russian title is really expressed only in each of the two S.Garry's variants which could have been suggested by the translator only after a deep inquiry into the novel's content, into its main idea, and into the whole system of literary images of Sholokhov's work (as with the work mentioned before). It is no less difficult to convey the meaning and functions of colloquial, conversational, dialectal and other kinds of lexical units often used by many authors in their belles-lettres works. To translate them faithfully, one must consult reference books, dictionaries and often even the native speakers of the language, e.g.: *dabster*-dialectal for знавець/ фахівець; *daisy*- slang for something or somebody nice, beautiful, first-rate (першосортне); *put up* (adj.) is colloquial for задуманий заделегідь; спланований; *ab ovo*- Latin for від самого початку (Горацій), букв, «від яйця». Constant inquiries of all kinds are also necessary to convey the expression side of the source language matter. It becomes especially imperative in versification which is explained by the condensed nature of poetic works in which thoughts and ideas are often expressed through literary means. To achieve the necessary level of faithfulness the translator has to render fully the picturesqueness, the literary images, the rhythm and the rhyme (vocalic or consonantal), the beauty of sounding of the original poem, etc.

The Ukrainian variant of the stanza reveals its almost complete identity with the original in the rhythmic and rhyme organization and in the number of syllables in each line. Though in the original their number alternates in reverse order (from 10 to 11) and in the translation - from 11 to 10. But this is in no way a rude violation, since the interchange takes place within the same stanza, though the translator could not fully reproduce the alternate (acbd) rhyme, which is feminine in the first (a) and third (c) lines and masculine in the second (b), and in the fourth (d) lines.

Most striking, however, are the syntactic alternations, there being no single line structurally similar to that of the original verse. All that becomes necessary

because of the predominantly polysyllabic structure of Ukrainian words the number of which in the translation is only 19 as compared with 35 words in the source language. Besides, the Ukrainian stanza consists of notional words only, whereas in the original work there are also functionals (have, do, that, most, not, etc.). The notionals form the artistic images and ideas the number of which is somewhat larger in English. Since it was next to impossible to overcome the «resistance» of the source language verse, some losses in translation became inevitable. They are the result of the existing divergences in the grammatical structure or in the means of expression in the two languages, first of all in the greater number of syllables in the same words in Ukrainian, which is a tangible obstacle for the translators of poetry. That is why in order to maintain the poetic metre of the lines in the original stanza above the translator had to transform them. As a result, the number of inevitable losses in versifications is always larger than in prose translations. Nevertheless, D.Palamarchuk's versification is considered to be highly faithful and artistic, because it conveys, in the main, the following aspects of this Shakespearian sonet: its content, partly its types of rhythm and rhyme, its artistic images and tropes, as well as its picturesqueness and the pragmatic orientation/toning of the original sonet, nothing to say about its main content.

2. MACHINE TRANSLATION

Rendering of information from a foreign language with the help of electronic devices represents the latest development in modern translation practice. Due to the fundamental research in the systems of algorithms and in the establishment of lexical equivalence in different layers of lexicon, machine translating has made considerable progress in recent years. Nevertheless, its employment remains restricted in the main to scientific and technological information and to the sphere of lexicographic work. That is because machine translation can be performed only on the basis of programmes elaborated by linguistically trained operators. Besides, preparing programmes for any matter is connected with great difficulties and takes much time, whereas the quality of translation is far from being always satisfactory even at the lexical level, i.e., at the level of words, which have direct equivalent lexemes in the target language. Considerably greater difficulties, which are insurmountable for machine translators, present morphological elements (endings, suffixes, prefixes, etc.). No smaller obstacles for machine translation are also syntactic units (word-combinations and sentences) with various means of connection between their components/parts. Besides, no present-day electronic devices performing translation possess the necessary lexical, grammatical and stylistic memory to provide the required standard of correct literary translation. Hence, the frequent violations of syntactic agreement and government between the parts of the sentence in machine translated texts. Neither can the machine translator select in its memory the correct order of words in word-combinations and sentences in the target language. As a result, any machine translation of present days needs a thorough proof reading and editing. Very often it takes no less time and effort and

may be as tiresome as the usual hand-made translation of the same passage/work.' A vivid illustration to the above-said may be the machine translated passage below. It was accomplished most recently in an electronic translation centre and reflects the latest achievement in this sphere of «mental» activity. The attentive student will not fail to notice in the italicized components of Ukrainian sentences several lexical, morphological and syntactic/ structural irregularities, which have naturally to be corrected in the process of the final elaboration of the passage by the editing translator.

The **history of machine translation** generally starts in the 1950s, although work can be found from earlier periods. In the 1954 there was involved fully automatic translation of more than sixty Russian sentences into English. The experiment was a great success and ushered in an era of significant funding for machine translation research. The authors claimed that within three or five years, machine translation would be a solved problem.ref[nutshell1

However, the real progress was much slower, and in 1966, the funding was dramatically reduced. Starting in the late 1980s, as computational power increased and became less expensive, more interest began to be shown. Today there is still no system that provides the holy-grail of "fully automatic high quality translation" (FAHQT). However, there are many programs now available that are capable of providing useful output within strict constraints; several of them are available online, such as Google Translate and the SYSTRAN system which powers AltaVista's BabelFish.

The beginning

The history of machine translation dates back to the seventeenth century, when philosophers such as Leibniz and Descartes put forward proposals for codes which would relate words between languages. All of these proposals remained theoretical, and none resulted in the development of an actual machine.

The first patents for "translating machines" were applied for in the mid 1930s. One proposal, by Georges Artsrouni was simply an automatic bilingual dictionary using paper tape. The other proposal, by Peter Troyanskii, was more detailed. It included both the bilingual dictionary, and a method for dealing with grammatical roles between languages, based on Esperanto. The system was split up into three stages: the first was for a native-speaking editor in the sources language to organise the words into their logical forms and syntactic functions; the second was for the machine to "translate" these forms into the target language; and the third was for a native-speaking editor in the target language to normalise this output. His scheme remained unknown until the late 1950s, by which time computers were well-known.

The early years

The first proposals for machine translation using computers were put forward by Warren Weaver, a researcher at the Rockefeller Foundation, in his March, 1949 memorandum.ref[weaver1949 These proposals were based on information theory.

A few years after these proposals, research began in earnest at many universities in the United States. On 7 January 1954, the Georgetown-IBM experiment, the first public demonstration of a MT system, was held in New York at the head office of IBM. The demonstration was widely reported in the newspapers and received much public interest. The system itself, however, was no more than what today would be called a "toy" system, having just 250 words and translating just 49 carefully selected Russian sentences into English — mainly in the field of chemistry. Nevertheless it encouraged the view that machine translation was imminent — and in particular stimulated the financing of the research, not just in the US but worldwide.ref[nutshell2

Early systems used large bilingual dictionaries and hand-coded rules for fixing the word order in the final output. This was eventually found to be too restrictive, and developments in linguistics at the time, for example generative linguistics and transformational grammar were proposed to improve the quality of translations.

During this time, operational systems were installed. The United States Air Force used a system produced by IBM and Washington University. While the quality of the output was poor, it nevertheless met many of the customers' needs, chiefly in terms of speed.

At the end of the 1950s, an argument was put forward by Yehoshua Bar-Hillel, a researcher asked by the US government to look into machine translation against the possibility of "Fully Automatic High Quality Translation" by machines. The argument is one of semantic ambiguity or double-meaning. Consider the following sentence:

:Little John was looking for his toy box. Finally he found it. The box was in the pen.

The word "pen" may have two meanings, the first meaning something you use to write with, the second meaning a container of some kind. To a human, the meaning is obvious, but he claimed that without a "universal encyclopedia" a machine would never be able to deal with this problem. Today, this type of semantic ambiguity can be solved by writing source texts for machine translation.

The 1960s, the ALPAC report and the seventies

Research in the 1960s in both the Soviet Union and the United States concentrated mainly on the Russian- English language pair. Chiefly the objects of translation were scientific and technical documents, such as articles from scientific journals. The rough translations produced were sufficient to get a basic understanding of the articles. If an article discussed a subject deemed to be of security interest, it was sent to a human translator for a complete translation; if not, it was discarded.

A great blow came to machine translation research in 1966 with the publication of the ALPAC report. The report was commissioned by the US government and performed by ALPAC, the Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee, a group of seven scientists convened by the US government in 1964. The US government was concerned that there was a lack of progress being made despite significant expenditure. It concluded that machine translation

was more expensive, less accurate and slower than human translation, and that despite the expenses, machine translation was not likely to reach the quality of a human translator in the near future.

The report, however, recommended that tools be developed to aid translators — automatic dictionaries, for example — and that some research in computational linguistics should continue to be supported.

The publication of the report had a profound impact on research into machine translation in the United States, and to a lesser extent the Soviet Union and United Kingdom. Research, at least in the US, was almost completely abandoned for over a decade. In Canada, France and Germany, however, research continued; in 1970, the Systran system was installed for the United States Air Force and subsequently in 1976 by the Commission of the European Communities. The METEO System, developed at the Université de Montréal, was installed in Canada in 1977 to translate weather forecasts from English to French, and was translating close to 80,000 words a day or 30 million words a year until it was replaced by a competitor's system on the 30th September, 2001.ref[citt

While research in the 1960s concentrated on limited language pairs and input, demand in the 1970s was for low-cost systems that could translate a range of technical and commercial documents. This demand was spurred by the increase of globalisation and the demand for translation in Canada, Europe, and Japan.

The 1980s and early 1990s

By the 1980s, both the diversity and the number of installed systems for machine translation had increased..

As a result of the improved availability of microcomputers, there was a market for lower-end machine translation systems. Many companies took advantage of this in Europe, Japan, and the USA. Systems were also brought onto the market in China, Eastern Europe, Korea, and the Soviet Union.

During the 1980s there was a lot of activity in MT in Japan especially. With the Fifth generation computer Japan intended to leap over its competition in computer hardware and software, and one project that many large Japanese electronics firms found themselves involved in was creating software for translating to and from English (Fujitsu, Toshiba, NTT, Brother, Catena, Matsushita, Mitsubishi, Sharp, Sanyo, Hitachi, NEC, Panasonic, Kodensha, Nova, Oki).

Research during the 1980s typically relied on translation through some variety of intermediary linguistic representation involving morphological along with syntactic and semantic analysis.

At the end of the 1980s there was a large surge in a number of novel methods for machine translation. One system was developed at IBM that was based on statistical methods. Other groups used methods based on large numbers of example translations, a technique which is now termed example-based machine translation. A defining feature of both of these approaches was the lack of syntactic and semantic rules and reliance instead on the manipulation of large text corpora.

During the 1990s, encouraged by successes in speech recognition and speech synthesis, research began into speech translation.

There was significant growth in the use of machine translation as a result of the advent of low-cost and more powerful computers. It was in the early 1990s that machine translation began to make the transition away from large mainframe computers toward personal computers and workstations. Two companies that led the PC market for a time were Globalink and MicroTac, following which a merger of the two companies (in December 1994) was found to be in the corporate interest of both. Intergraph and Systran also began to offer PC versions around this time. Sites also became available on the internet, such as AltaVista's (using Systran technology) and Google Language Tools (also initially using Systran technology exclusively).

Recent research

The field of machine translation has in the last few years seen major changes. Currently a large amount of research is being done into statistical machine translation and example-based machine translation. Today, only a few companies use statistical machine translation commercially, e.g. Language Weaver (sells translation products and services), Google (uses their proprietary statistical MT system for some language combination in Google's language tools) and Microsoft (uses their proprietary statistical MT system to translate knowledge base articles). There has been a renewed interest in hybridisation, with researchers combining syntactic and morphological (i.e., linguistic) knowledge into statistical systems, as well as combining statistics with existing rule based systems.

KINDS OF TRANSLATING/INTERPRETING

As has been noted, the sense of a language unit (the content of a whole matter) can be conveyed in the target language either in writing or in viva voce (orally). Depending on the form of conveying the sense/ content, the following kinds or types of translating/interpreting are to be distinguished:

1. The written from a written matter translating, which represents a literary/literary artistic or any other faithful sense-to-sense translating from or into a foreign language. It may also be a free interpreting performed in writing. The matter under translation may be a belles-lettres passage (prose or poetry work), a scientific or technical/ newspaper passage / article, etc.

2. The oral from an oral matter interpreting, which is a regular oral sense-to-sense rendering of a speech/radio or TV interview, or recording which can proceed either in succession (after the whole matter or part of it is heard) or simultaneously with its sounding. This consecutive interpreting is a piecemeal performance and the interpreter can make use of the time, while the speech/recording is proceeding, for grasping its content and selecting the necessary means of expression for some language units of the original matter. There is also a possibility to interrupt (stop) the speaker/recording in order to

clarify some obscure place. As a result, consecutive interpreting can take more or a little less time than the source language speech/ recording lasts. When it takes quite the same amount of time as the source language matter flows and the interpreter faithfully conveys its content, it is referred to as *simultaneous interpreting/ translating*. Otherwise it remains only a consecutive interpreting. That can be well observed when interpreting a film, each still of which in the process of the simultaneous interpretation takes the time, allotted to it in the source language. In Ukrainian this kind of interpreting is called синхронний переклад. Therefore, simultaneous interpreting is performed within the same time limit, i.e., takes the same amount of time or a little more/less, than the source matter lasts.

3. The oral from a written matter interpreting is nothing else than interpreting at sight. It can also proceed either simultaneously with the process of getting acquainted with the content of the written matter, or in succession (after each part of it is first read through and comprehended). The former way of interpreting, if carried out faithfully and exactly on time with the consecutive conveying of the matter, may be considered simultaneous too. Usually, however, it is a regular prepared beforehand kind of interpreting.

4. The written translating from an orally presented matter is, as LS.Barkhudarov points out¹, a rare occurrence. This is because a natural speech flow is too fast for putting it down in the target language (except for a shorthand presentation, which would be then a regular translation, i.e. interpretation from a written matter). Translating from an oral speech/recording is now and then resorted to for training practices. When the matter to be rendered is produced at a slower speed than the written translation, this matter/speech can naturally be performed (and put down) in the target language.

3. DESCRIPTIVE AND ANTONYMIC TRANSLATING

Descriptive translating. One must bear in mind that it is the notional meaning of the source language unit and not always its morphological nature or structural form that is to be rendered in the target language. As a result, the target language unit, which equivalently/faithfully conveys the denotative/connotative meaning of the corresponding source language unit may not necessarily belong to the same language stratification level. Depending on the notion expressed by the source language word/lexeme, it may be conveyed in the target language sometimes through a word-combination or even through a sentence, i.e., descriptively: *indulge* робити собі приємність у чомусь, віддаватися втіхам; *infamous* (та, те), що має ганебну славу; *inessentials* предмети не першої необхідності, предмети розкошів; *вщертъ* up to the brim, full to the brim; *в'язи* the nape of one's head, the back of the head; *окраєць* crust of a loaf, hunk of a bread; *окривіти* (осліпнути) to become lame (grow blind). Therefore, the descriptive way of conveying the sense of language units implies their structural

transformation which is necessary to explicate their meaning with the help of hierarchically different target language units.

Descriptive translating/interpreting is very often employed to render the sense/meaning of idioms/phraseologisms, which have no equivalents in the target language. **Cf. in English:** *(as) mad as a hatter* цілком/геть божевільний; *all my eye and Betty Martin!* нісенітниця! (дурниця!); *like one (twelve) o'clock* миттю, вмить, прожогом. **In Ukrainian:** *зуб на зуб не попадає* to feel very cold (to feel freezing); *навчить біда коржі з маком їсти* hard times make one inventive; *наговорити сім кін/мішків гречаної вовни* to say much nonsense.

No less often is descriptive translation employed when dealing with the notions of specific national lexicon: *haggis* геггіс (зварений у жирі овечий кендюх, начинений вівсяними крупами і спеціями впереміш із січеним овечим потрухом); *porridge* порідж (густа вівсяна каша зварена на воді чи молоці); *Senate* сенат (рада університету в Англії, складається переважно з професорів); *sweetmeat* солодка страва, приготовлена на цукрі чи медові.

Alongside the literal translating some explications of the meaning of specific national notions becomes sometimes necessary: *вареники* varenyky, middle-sized dumplings filled with curd, cherries, etc.; *дума* дума, Ukrainian historic epic song; *kobzar* kobzar, a performer of dumas to the accompaniment of the kobza (a mandolinlike four string musical instrument), the bandore (a flat multistringed Ukrainian musical instrument).

Descriptive translation is also employed in foot-notes to explain obscure places in narration. Cf. *midland* мідленд, діалект центральної Англії, a *spiritual* релігійна пісня америк. негрів.

Antonymic translation is employed for the sake of achieving faithfulness in conveying content or the necessary expressiveness of sense units. It represents a way of rendering when an affirmative in structure language unit (word, word-combination or sentence) is conveyed via a negative in sense or structure but identical in content language unit, or vice versa: a negative in sense or structure sense unit is translated via an affirmative sense unit. Cf.: *to have quite a few friends* мати багато (немало) друзів; *mind your own business* не втручайся не в свої справи; *take it easy* не хвилюйся, не переживай; *not infrequently* часто, *no time like the present* момент (використовуй нагоду); *я не нездужаю, нівроку* (Т.ІІІ.) I feel/am perfectly well; *не спитавши броду, не лізть у воду* look before you leap; *немає лиха без добра*, every dark cloud has a silver lining, etc.

The antonymic device is employed in the following cases:

1) when in the target language there is no direct equivalent for the sense unit of the source language. For example, the noun «inferiority» and the adjective «inferior» (like the verb phrase «to be inferior») have no single-word equivalents in Ukrainian. So their lexical meaning can be conveyed either in a descriptive way or with the help of their antonyms «superiority», «superior»: *The defeat of the Notts in last season's cup semi-finals was certainly the result of their physical and tactical inferiority...* (The Kyiv Post) Поразка клубу «Ноттінгем Форест» у торішньому півфінальному матчі на кубок країни була наслідком переваги їхніх супротивників у фізичній і тактичній підготовці (...була наслідком

того, що гравці поступалися супротивникові у фізичній і тактичній підготовці).

The meaning of some English word-groups can also be conveyed in Ukrainian antonymically only: *Baines was reading a newspaper in his shirt-sleeves.* (Gr. Greene) Бейнз сидів без піджака і читав газету. *Do you mind this?* (M. Wilson) Ви **не заперечуєте?**

2) When the sense unit of the source language has two negations of its own which create an affirmation: *In those clothes she was by no means non-elegant.* (S. Maugham) У цьому вбранні вона була досить елегантна.

3). In order to achieve the necessary expressiveness in narration: *I don't think it will hurt you, baby.* (E. Hemingway) Думаю, вам воно не зашкодить, люба. *A shell fell close.* (Ibid.) Неподалік вибухнув снаряд. *He lurched away like a frightened horse barely missing the piano stool.* (J. London) Він сахнувся вбік, мов сполоханий кінь, мало не перекинувши стільця коло піаніно (ледь обминаючи стільця біля піаніно).

4.) in order to avoid the use of the same or identical structures close to each other in a text (stylistic aim and means):

Mrs. Strickland was a woman of character. (S. Maugham) Місіс Стрікланд була жінкою не без характеру (тобто, була жінка з характером). *Most of the staff is not away.* (M. Wilson) Більшість співробітників ще на роботі (ше не розійшлися). *Savina said nothing.* (Ibid.) Савіна промовчала (тобто нічого не відповіла).

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-TESTING AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What is the translation?
2. What types of translation do you know?

Lecture 4. Text and Discourse Plan

1. The Notion Of Discourse.
2. The Notion of Text and Hypertext
3. Techniques of the Translation

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.

- 5.Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.
- 6.Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

1. Карабан В. І. Посібник-довідник з перекладу англійської наукової і технічної літератури на українську мову / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Київ-Кременчук, 1999. – 120 с.
2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

1. The notions of text and discourse

Linguistic research has recently become focused on human cognition (познавание). Studying human cognition means problems of receiving, storing, transforming and using information. **Discourse** – is related to text. Is a process and a result of cognitive and speech activities of the communities. As a result of these activities, D. may exist in a fixed form. It may have any other form. In modern linguistics, the text forms of D. are called texts. In them, we can trace all the circumstances and factors which register the pragmatics of communication. If a text receives the status of D., it is usually described as a meaningful whole, a result of a speech act performed with a certain communicative aim, in a certain communicative situation. Text structure is governed by the general and particular principles of information organization. Texts are numerous events and text corresponds to different types of discourse activity.

1. DEFINITION OF DISCOURSE

Since its introduction to modern science the term 'discourse' has taken various, sometimes very broad, meanings. In order to specify which of the numerous senses is analyzed in the following dissertation it has to be defined. Originally the word 'discourse' comes from Latin '*discursus*' which denoted 'conversation, speech'. Thus understood, however, discourse refers to too wide an area of human life, therefore only discourse from the vantage point of linguistics, and especially applied linguistics, is explained here.

There is no agreement among linguists as to the use of the term discourse in that some use it in reference to texts, while others claim it denotes speech which

is for instance illustrated by the following definition: "Discourse: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative" (Crystal 1992:25). On the other hand Dakowska, being aware of differences between kinds of discourses indicates the unity of communicative intentions as a vital element of each of them. Consequently she suggests using terms 'text' and 'discourse' almost interchangeably betokening the former refers to the linguistic product, while the latter implies the entire dynamics of the processes (Dakowska 2001:81). According to Cook (1990:7) novels, as well as short conversations or groans might be equally rightfully named discourses.

Seven criteria which have to be fulfilled to qualify either a written or a spoken text as a discourse have been suggested by Beaugrande (1981). These include:

- **Cohesion** - grammatical relationship between parts of a sentence essential for its interpretation;
- **Coherence** - the order of statements relates one another by sense.
- **Intentionality** - the message has to be conveyed deliberately and consciously;
- **Acceptability** - indicates that the communicative product needs to be satisfactory in that the audience approves it;
- **Informativeness** - some new information has to be included in the discourse;
- **Situationality** - circumstances in which the remark is made are important;
- **Intertextuality** - reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters' schemata;

Nowadays, however, not all of the above mentioned criteria are perceived as equally important in discourse studies, therefore some of them are valid only in certain methods of the research (Beaugrande 1981, cited in Renkema 2004:49).

Features of discourse

Since it is not easy to unambiguously clarify what a discourse is it seems reasonable to describe features which are mutual to all its kinds. To do it thoroughly Saussurean concepts of *langue* and *parole* are of use. Ferdinand de Saussure divided the broad meaning of language into *langue*, which is understood as a system that enables people to speak as they do, and *parole* - a particular set of produced statements. Following this division discourse relates more to *parole*, for it always occurs in time and is internally characterized by successively developing expressions in which the meaning of the latter is influenced by the former, while *langue* is abstract. To list some additional traits: discourse is always produced by somebody whose identity, as well as the identity of the interpreter, is significant for the proper understanding of the message. On the other hand *langue* is impersonal that is to say more universal, due to society. Furthermore, discourse always happens in either physical, or linguistic context and within a meaningful fixed time, whereas *langue* does not refer to anything. Consequently, only discourse may convey messages thanks to *langue* which is its framework (1).

Types of discourse

Not only is discourse difficult to define, but it is also not easy to make a clear cut division of discourse as such. Therefore, depending on the form linguists distinguish various kinds of communicative products. A type of discourse might be characterized as a class of either written or spoken text, which is frequently casually specified, recognition of which aids its perception, and consequently production of potential response (Cook 1990:156). One of such divisions, known as the Organon model, distinguishes three types of discourse depending of the aspect of language emphasized in the text. If the relation to the context is prevailing, it conveys some knowledge

thus it is an informative type of discourse. When the stress is on a symptom aspect the fulfilled function is expression, as a result the discourse type is narrative. Last but not least in this division is argumentative discourse which is characterized by the accent on the signal aspect.

This distinction due to its suitability for written communicative products more than for spoken ones, faced constructive criticism whose accurate observation portrayed that there are more functions performed. Consequently there ought to be more types of discourse, not to mention the fact that these often mix and overlap. Thorough examination of the matter was conducted, thus leading to the emergence of a new, more detailed classification of kinds of spoken texts.

The analysis of oral communicative products was the domain of Steger, who examined features of various situations and in his categorization divided discourse into six types: presentation, message, report, public debate, conversation and interview. The criteria of this division include such factors as presence, or absence of interaction, number of speakers and their relation to each other (their rights, or as Steger names it 'rank'), flexibility of topic along with selection and attitude of interlocutors towards the subject matter.

However, it is worth mentioning that oral discourse might alter its character, for instance in the case of presenting a lecture when students start asking questions the type changes to interview, or even a conversation. Using this classification it is possible to anticipate the role of partakers as well as goals of particular acts of communication.

The above mentioned typologies do not exhaust the possible division of discourse types, yet, nowadays endeavor to create a classification that would embrace all potential kinds is being made. Also, a shift of interest in this field might be noticed, presently resulting in focus on similarities and differences between written and spoken communication (Renkema 2004:64).

Written and spoken discourse

Apart from obvious differences between speech and writing like the fact that writing includes some medium which keeps record of the conveyed message while speech involves only air, there are certain dissimilarities that are less apparent. Speech develops in time in that the speaker says with speed that is suitable for him, even if it may not be appropriate for the listener and though a request for repetition is possible, it is difficult to imagine a conversation in which

every sentence is to be rephrased. Moreover, talking might be spontaneous which results in mistakes, repetition, sometimes less coherent sentences where even grunts, stutters or pauses might be meaningful. The speaker usually knows the listener, or listeners, or he is at least aware of the fact that he is being listened to, which enables him to adjust the register. As interlocutors are most often in face-to-face encounters (unless using a phone) they take advantage of extralinguistic signals as grimaces, gesticulation, expressions such as 'here', 'now', or 'this' are used. Employment of nonsense vocabulary, slang and contracted forms (we're, you've) is another feature of oral discourse. Among other significant features of speech there are rhythm, intonation, speed of uttering and, what is more important, inability to conceal mistakes made while speaking (Crystal 1995:291, Dakowska 2001:07).

In contrast, writing develops in space in that it needs a means to carry the information. The author of the text does not often know who is going to read the text, as a result he cannot adjust to readers' specific expectations. The writer is frequently able to consider the content of his work for almost unlimited period of time which makes it more coherent, having complex syntax. What is more, the reader might not instantly respond to the text, ask for clarification, hence neat message organization, division to paragraphs, layout are of vital importance to make comprehension easier. Additionally, owing to the lack of context expressions such as 'now' or 'here' are omitted, since they would be ambiguous as texts might be read at different times and places. One other feature typical of writing, but never of oral discourse, is the organization of tables, formulas, or charts which can be portrayed only in written form (Crystal 1995:291).

Naturally, this division into two ways of producing discourse is quite straightforward, yet, it is possible to combine the two like, for example, in the case of a lesson, when a teacher explains something writing on the blackboard, or when a speaker prepares detailed notes to be read out during his speech. Moreover, some of the foregoing features are not so explicit in the event of sophisticated, formal speech or a friendly letter.

- Discourse expressed formally and informally.

The difference in construction and reception of language was the basis of its conventional distinction into speaking and writing. Nevertheless, when the structure of discourse is taken into consideration more essential division into formal and informal communicative products gains importance. Formal discourse is more strict in that it requires the use of passive voice, lack of contracted forms together with impersonality, complex sentence structure and, in the case of the English language, vocabulary derived from Latin. That is why formal spoken language has many features very similar to written texts, particularly absence of vernacular vocabulary and slang, as well as the employment of rhetorical devices to make literary-like impact on the listener.

Informal discourse, on the other hand, makes use of active voice mainly, with personal pronouns and verbs which show feelings such as 'I think', 'we believe'. In addition, contractions are frequent in informal discourse, no matter if

it is written or spoken. Consequently it may be said that informal communicative products are casual and loose, while formal ones are more solemn and governed by strict rules as they are meant to be used in official and serious circumstances.

The relation of the producer of the message and its receiver, the amount of addressees and factors such as public or private occasion are the most important features influencing selecting either formal or informal language. Therefore, it is not unreasonable to assume that the contemporary learner, who may easily travel and use his linguistic skills outside class, will encounter mainly informal discourse, which due to its flexibility and unpredictability might be the most difficult to comprehend. Accordingly, it seems rational to teach all varieties of language relying on authentic oral and written texts (Cook 1990:50).

If we apply our terms rather broadly, we can define a **language** as a *theory of human knowledge and experience* (what speakers or writers can say or talk about), and **discourse** as its *practice* (what they do say or talk about). A **text** would be defined as a communicative event that contributes to a **discourse**, defined in turn as configuration of mutually relevant texts. The **participants** include at least the **text producer** and the **text receiver**. The practices are heavily **theory-driven** in the sense that discourse compels its participants to ‘theorise’ about what words mean, what people intend, what makes sense, and so on. Language is a ‘theory’ — or indeed a whole network of ‘theories’ — for ‘representing’ our ‘world’ and ourselves and each other in the world, and for constructing alternative states of the world or even whole alternative worlds. We understand each other insofar as our theories of the language have a parallel construction and become more finely tuned during discourse (§ 16). And due to this tuning, a language is a practice-driven theory that always remains in the process of being constituted. For these reasons, discourse is the *most theoretical practice* humans can perform, and also the most efficient and effective in using the least effort for the most goals. In return, language is the *most practical theory* humans can devise, offering the resources to shape and guide almost any of our practical activities. Yet language as theory in some ways runs ahead of discourse as practice insofar as it implies some ultimate certainty and precision beyond what we can attain in any one communication. A close analysis of a text or discourse can usually uncover some uncertainty and imprecision, but these factors are the natural price for the openness of language to express an unlimited range and variety of ideas.

Even the single text is always an approximation, like ‘work in progress’ in the special sense (proposed here) of moving toward linking the inclusive theory of the language with more inclusive practices of discourse. The challenge, as a sensitive writer or translator should realise, is to sustain some sense of progress throughout the work of production well enough to decide when the text has ‘progressed’ far enough to be a suitable approximation. Yet language is also our prime example of a ‘theory’ whose ‘theoreticalness’ is extremely well-hidden from most speakers and writers who practice it. They would regard discourse as a strictly ‘practical matter’; they would be surprised if we told them they possess a ‘theory of their language’ that makes them its ‘theoreticians’. No doubt this view

arises because the theory can be practised so efficiently: many operations are automatic, below the level of conscious awareness, and require little attention to control. The native speaker need not attend to the ‘phonetic articulation’ and the ‘acoustic audition’ of language sounds; nor to the ‘grammatical formation’ of Nouns and Verbs; and so on. Such operations can run in parallel while the speaker consciously attends to strategic matters, e.g., choosing your expressions to ‘sound idiomatic’. So discourse might appear to be a scenario of *practice running ahead of theory* (§ 2). Certainly, its practical aspects are more accessible and operational than its theoretical aspects. And the academic field of linguistics has for decades deployed theoretical oppositions such as ‘langue’ versus ‘parole’ or ‘competence’ versus ‘performance’ as pretexts for not addressing the practices of discourse as a subject worthy of academic or scientific inquiry. But the appearance changes radically once we have defined ‘language’ itself as an implicit theory (§ 10). What we need to supply now is a whole generation of explicit theories to account for the theoreticalness of discourse practices, including translation.

2. The Notion of Text and Hypertext

If a **text** is a communicative event that contributes to a discourse, then an **intertext** would be a communicative event involving multiple discourses. This **intertextuality** has not been adequately explored in conventional linguistics because it implies a disturbing openness of the text— a potentially endless field of connections and associations with other texts in the experience of discourse participants, as has recently become a fashionable conception in ‘post-modernism’ and ‘post-structuralism’. Worse yet, since every participant possesses a unique store of experiences with texts, a practical implication of intertextuality might be that any current text is experienced differently by each participant. This implication for practice is partly justified but without being disruptive, because the participants share very similar versions of the theory of the language. And participation in discourse is a practical process of tuning those theories to be at least temporarily more similar. Next, the **interlingual text** can be defined as a communicative event involving multiple languages. A commonplace example is **code-switching**, which is plainly a practice for which linguistics, which views each language as a free-standing system, has been slow to formulate a theory. Indeed, code-switching is so widespread precisely because it is so marvellously practical; you slip into whichever language you happen to have use for at the moment as in. The translation produces an **interlingual intertext**, that is, a **target text** representing a specific **source text** in a different language. The term ‘target text’ is extremely apt here – something you aim at and hope to hit near the centre, but may not.

The terms of **colligations**, i.e., typical combinations of *grammatical* selections; and of **collocations**, i.e., typical combinations of *lexical* selections. These two phenomena provide delicate links between ‘language’ and ‘text’ – or between *langue* and *parole*, *competence* and *performance*, and so on. They consist principally of regularities which are *more specific than the language* but *more*

general than the text; and which are vital for making texts, including translations, sound ‘fluent’ or ‘idiomatic’. Searching large databases with concordance programs soon leads us to conclude that virtually no two words in a language colligate and collocate in exactly the same ways. The role of technology in the theory and practice of translation is about to enter a new phase – the age of the **multilingual corpus** or **multiconcordance**.

The term **hypertext** was apparently coined in the 1960s, in an obscure paper by Ted Nelson, for ‘an ongoing system of interconnecting documents’. Using terms I have proposed, it is an *intertext whose intertextuality has been made explicit* by producing a network of access links. More recently, the term **hypermedia** has been proposed to ‘expand the concept of hypertext to include other forms of digital information, e.g., graphic images, audio, video, and animation’, and to ‘present the material interactively’ ‘in response to the user’s choices’ (Sam Ebersole). Actually, this expansive concept was already present in the broad definition of ‘text’ established in semiotics or semiology, as opposed to the narrow notion of a written sample of language.

Obviously, all texts have a certain feature in common, namely they are indented to convey some meaning. This function, however, might be fulfilled in a number of different ways: a road sign ‘stop’, and a six hundred pages long novel are both texts which might serve that purpose, yet, there are certain characteristics that distinguish them. The above example presents the idea somewhat in the extreme, although, enumerating several other common types of texts might affirm that the notion of text is a very broad one and is not limited to such varieties as those that can be found in language course books (Cook 1990, Crystal 1995).

Differences between texts might be striking, while menu is usually easy to read, legal documents or wills are not. All of them, however, have certain features that others lack, which if explained by a qualified teacher might serve as a signpost to interpretation. Additionally, the kind of a given text might also provide information about its author, as for example in the case of recipes, warrants or manuals, and indirectly about possible vocabulary items and grammar structures that can appear in it, which should facilitate perception of the text. Having realized what kind of passage learners are to read, on the basis of its title they should be able to predict the text’s content, or even make a list of vocabulary that might appear in the communicative product. With teacher’s tutelage such abilities are quickly acquired which improves learners’ skills of interpretation and test results (Cook 1990, McCarthy 1991, Crystal 1995).

Having accounted for various kinds of associations between words, as well as clauses and sentences in discourse, the time has come to examine patterns that are visible throughout written communicative products. Patterning in texts contributes to their coherence, as it is thanks to patterns that writing is structured

in a way that enables readers to easily confront the received message with prior knowledge. Salkie (1995) indicates that the majority of readers unconsciously makes use of tendencies of arranging texts to approach information.

Among most frequently occurring patterns in written discourses there are inter alia claim-counterclaim, problem-solution, question-answer or general-specific statement arrangements. Detailed examination of such patterning revealed that problem-solution sequence is frequently accompanied by two additional parts, namely background (in other words introduction) and evaluation (conclusion). While in some elaborate texts the background and the problem might be presented in the same sentence, in other instances - when reader is expected to be familiar with the background, it might not be stated in the text itself. Although both cohesive devices and problem-solution patterns often occur in written communicative products only the former are designated as linguistic means, since patterning, when encountered, has to be faced with assumptions, knowledge and opinion of the reader (McCarthy 1991, Salkie 1995).

One other frequently occurring arrangement of texts is based on general-specific pattern which is thought to have two variations. In the first one a general statement is followed by a series of more specific sentences referring to the same broad idea, ultimately summarized by one more general remark. Alternatively, a general statement at the beginning of a paragraph might be followed by a specific statement after which several more sentences ensue, each of which is more precise than its predecessor, finally going back to the general idea (McCarthy 1991:158).

As McCarthy (1991) points out, the structure of patterns is fixed, yet the number of sentences or paragraphs in a particular part of a given arrangement might vary. Furthermore, one written text might contain several commonplace patterns occurring consecutively, or one included in another. Therefore, problem-solution pattern present in a text might be filled with general-specific model within one paragraph and claim-counterclaim in another. As discourse analysts suggest making readers aware of patterning might sanitize them to clues which enable proper understanding of written communicative products (McCarthy 1991:161).

3. TECHNIQUES OF TRANSLATION

When confronted with the text to be translated, the translator's first concern is to understand it by assessing the meaning of language units in the text against the contextual situation and the pertaining extralinguistic facts. At the same time the translator must take care to avoid "thinking into" the text, i.e. adding the information which is not, in fact, present in ST.

Let us illustrate this procedure by a few examples. Suppose we have the following sentence: 'The Union executive committee passed a resolution advising the workers to "sit-out" elections where neither party offers a candidate whom labor could support.' Translating this sentence the translator has to solve a number of problems, trying to get to the meaning of some words or word combinations. He has two main pillars to sustain his judgements: the basic meaning of the unit and the contextual situation. Consider the phrase "to sit out the elections". The

basic meaning of “to sit out” is clearly the opposite of “to sit in”. One can obviously “sit in the house, the car, the shade”, etc. or to “sit out of them”, i.e. to be or stay outside some place or space. On the other hand, “to sit out a dance” means not to dance, that is, not to take part in this kind of activities. True, it often implies that you do it unwillingly, that you are just not invited to dance. In our case the workers are recommended to sit out elections by their own will, to show their disapproval of the candidates offered by the two parties. We may conclude that the workers are advised not to go to the polls or to boycott the elections.

Now what is the “Union executive committee” that made the recommendation? Theoretically speaking, any kind of union may have done it. But for practical purposes the translator will take into account the following considerations. First, it is clear that it is some kind of labor organization. Second, it is a union whose activities are directed by an executive committee. Third, the word “union” is often used as a short form for “trade-union” (cf. “a union card”, “a union member”, etc.). All these facts fit well together, while other possible meanings of “union” (cf. “Union Jack”, “union suit” and the like) are obviously out of place. Thus it can be safely concluded that the translation should be «ИСПОЛНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ КОМИТЕТ ПРОФСОЮЗА».

Such conclusions are often made by the translator. What are “out-of-this-world meat prices”? “Meat prices” are prices you buy your meat at, but what is “out of this world”? Evidently, such prices are not “in this world”, i.e. they are not found in it or not common to it. Thus the phrase implies “uncommon prices”. But the major and perhaps the only characteristics of any prices is that they are either high or low. “*Uncommon prices*” can be either uncommonly high or uncommonly low. Now if the original runs: *‘The people are worried on account of the out-of-this-world meat prices’*, the choice is clear. Coming back to the linguistic form, the translator may observe that “out of this world” is a stronger way of putting it than is “uncommon”. It is closer to “extraordinary”, “fantastic”, “unheard of, etc. Accordingly, the translation will be «непомерные (баснословные, неслыханные и пр.) цены на мясо».

Of great importance is the translator’s ability to draw a line of demarcation between the exact information that can be really deduced from the text and the presence of several alternatives between which he cannot choose with sufficient certitude. Suppose a man is referred to in the original as “Price Stabilizer E. Arnall”. The words “Price Stabilizer” are obviously used here as a sort of title. This can lead to a number of important conclusions. “Stabilizer” is obviously not an electrical appliance but “a man who stabilizes”. Since it is not an honorary title it should refer to the man’s position or occupation. The conclusion is that the man is concerned with the problem of price stabilization by virtue of his official duties. As these duties are mentioned as his personal title (observe the capital letters and the absence of the article), he cannot be an insignificant employee but is a man of high standing. He may be even the head of an office dealing with price-stabilization problems. But this is as far as our guesswork can go. We do not know the name of the office (a board, a committee, an agency, etc.) or whether its head (if E. Arnall is one) was referred to as director, manager or superintendent. Therefore we cannot use in the translation the

words: «директор, управляющий, руководитель», etc. Nor can we give the name of his office. Unless we can find a way of getting the required information from some outside source, we shall have to stick to some noncommittal variant, e.g. «Э. Арнал, ведающий вопросами стабилизации цен».

In our previous discussions we have noted that the semantic analysis of the text must take into account both the immediate surroundings, i.e. the meaning of other words and structures in the same sentence, and the broad context which comprises the contents of the whole original text, whether it is a small extract, an article or a large book.

The information that can be gleaned from the original text should be supplemented by the translator's knowledge of the actual facts of life. The words "out of this world" were translated above as «непомерно высокие» as we know that people are not ordinarily worried by prices being reduced.

Analyzing the contents of the original the translator makes the assessment of the relative communicative value of different meaningful elements. In most cases his professed aim is to achieve the closest approximation to the original, i.e. to reproduce its contents in all the details. As long as the linguistic or pragmatic reasons make it impossible and the translation involves a certain loss of information, the translator has not infrequently to choose between several evils. As often as not, one meaningful element of the original can be retained in translation only at the expense of omitting some other part of the contents. The translator has to decide what bits of information he is prepared to sacrifice and what elements of the original meaning are of greater communicative value and should be rendered at any cost.

The choice of the dominant aspect of meaning usually depends on the type of the text and the prevailing pragmatic considerations. While translating, for instance, figurative set expressions the translator may try to preserve their basic metaphorical meaning at the expense of other parts of the contents including the figure of speech that makes up the metaphorical structure of the collocation. In most cases the purport of communication is, first and foremost, to express a certain idea while the figurative way of expressing it is a kind of embellishment, a nice and pleasant luxury which can be dispensed with, if necessary. When "a skeleton in the family cupboard" becomes "a shameful family secret" in translation, there is certainly a loss in expressiveness, but the basic sense is well preserved. The metaphorical meaning will be chosen as the dominant part of the contents in most translations.

In a literary text the poetic or stylistic effect is no less important than the ideas conveyed. The same is true whenever the translator has to deal with a play on words or a sustained metaphor. In such cases the loss of the figurative element may make at least part of the text quite meaningless and it is often considered as the dominant component to be preserved in translation.

By way of example let us discuss the problems involved in the translation of a play upon words. Consider the following sentences:

"He ... said he had come for me, and informed me that he was a page."
"Go 'long," I said, "you ain't more than a paragraph." (M. Twain)

It is clear that the second sentence would be meaningless but for the play upon the words “page” and “paragraph”. The same is true about its translation which will be unintelligible unless the play on words is duly reproduced in TL. This is the dominant goal which should be achieved at all costs even though it might involve some inaccuracies in the translation of other elements.

This is not an easy task but it is not impossible, either. Here is how it was done by N. Chukovsky:

Он сказал, что послан за мною и что он глава пажей, — Какая ты глава, ты одна строчка! — сказал я ему.

It is worthwhile to observe the method that is used to overcome the difficulty. The Russian equivalent for a page boy has no other meaning (or homonym) which is associated with any part of a book or other printed matter. So the translator introduces another word «глава» and on its basis recreates the original play upon words. It does not matter that in doing it he makes the boy the head of the pages which he was probably not. The accurate information about the boy's official standing has obviously received a lower rating in the translator's assessment than the preservation of the stylistic effect. This inaccuracy seems to be a lesser evil, since the dominant aspect of the original contents is duly rendered in translation.

Assessing the relative communicative value of various elements in the original, it should be borne in mind that translations are made at different levels of equivalence reproducing different parts of the original contents. The identification of the situation and especially the purport of communication are indispensable and are preserved in practically all translations. Naturally, it is these components that usually make up the dominant sense to be reproduced, if necessary, at the expense of the rest of the contents.

The purport of communication and the identification of the situation are not, as a rule, expressed by some particular words or structures but by the whole unit of speech. Therefore it is often the case that the general sense of the unit as a whole is of greater communicative value than the meaning of its individual elements. The translator is thus prepared to sacrifice the part to the whole, the meaning of an element to the meaning of the whole.

This predominance of the whole makes an imprint upon some of the techniques used by translators both for understanding the original text and for establishing a kind of semantic bridge to the translation. It can be observed that the translator first tries to get the most general idea of what is said in the original, to find out, so to speak, “who does what and to whom”, to understand the general semantic pattern or framework of the sentence and then fill in the particular details.

The translator may first resort to the word-for-word translation imitating the syntactic structure of the original and using the most common substitutes of all words. The same method can be used to facilitate understanding if the general meaning of the original text eludes the translator.

Thus the translating may begin with an imitation of the original structure in TL to see whether a word-for-word translation is possible or should be replaced

by a different structure. In this way the translator decides upon the syntactic framework of his future translation. This technique is not infrequently used as the choice of lexical units may depend, to a large extent, on the syntactic pattern they fit into.

A word of caution may be in order here. In the practical course of translation great pains are usually taken to teach the future translator to replace the original syntactical structures by using appropriate transformations which produce acceptable TL structures without any great loss of information. As a result, some translators get into the habit of turning every original structure inside out syntactically, irrespective of whether it serves any useful purpose.

It should be borne in mind that parallel TL structures are as good as any and they should by no means be avoided or considered inferior. On the contrary, the practical rule that the translator will do well to follow is that he should use the parallel structure whenever possible, and resort to syntactic or semantic transformations only if it is unavoidable.

Thus in all cases the translator makes a choice between a parallel structure and a transformed one in TL. Selecting the transformation to be used in a particular case he draws upon his knowledge of syntactic equivalents and the theory of equivalence.

The choice of the syntactical structure of the translated sentence often depends on the TL co-occurrence rules. The problem of co-occurrence is one with which the translator has not infrequently to come to grips in translating different word combinations, as the rules of combinability in SL and TL do not dovetail. This lack of correspondence limits the freedom of the translator's choice and compels him to employ special techniques to overcome this barrier.

Translations from English into Russian give ample proof of the significance of this difference in co-occurrence. Just try to render into Russian such combinations as "a hopeful voice", "a successful leader", "a cooperative assistance", etc. and you will see that they are easy to understand but cannot be translated "as they are" since the corresponding Russian words do not come together.

Dealing with such problems translators use one of the following methods: they either replace one or both members of the original combination to make possible the same type of structure in translation, or they transfer the dependent member to another structure, or they introduce some additional elements (words) through which the members of the combination can be joined syntactically.

The change in the parts of speech is a common procedure in translation. It often enables the translator to modify his variant to improve its stylistic or emotional effect. So, for "The wind was becoming stronger" the translator has the choice of «Ветер дул все сильнее» and «Ветер крепчал», for "I didn't mean to be rude" he may choose between «Я не хотел быть грубым» and «Я не собирался вам грубить».

Sometimes, the use of a different part of speech is unavoidable: "*He was furious*" — «Он был в бешенстве»

The elements of the translator's techniques described above give only a general idea of his professional strategy. Translation is a creative process of search and discovery and it takes much ingenuity and effort to apply the general principles of the translation theory to the practical problems.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-CONTROL AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. The main terms and notions of the theory of translation/interpretation.
2. Ambiguity of some terms concerning translation (free translation vs. free adaptation/free interpretation, etc.).
3. Social and political significance of translating/interpreting.
4. Translating as a successful means of enriching national languages, literatures, and cultures.
5. Translating/interpreting in establishing, maintaining, and strengthening diplomatic, political, economic, scientific, cultural and other relations between different nations in the world.
6. The role of translating/interpreting in providing the successful proceedings of international conferences, congresses, symposia, meetings, etc.
7. Translating/interpreting and the progress of world science, technology and dissemination of new ideas/doctrines.
8. Translating/interpreting while teaching and learning foreign languages.
9. The machine translation, its progress, present-day potentialities and spheres of employment.
13. Kinds of translating/interpreting: a) the written from a written matter translating; b) the oral from an oral matter interpreting; c) the oral from a written matter interpreting; d) the written translating from an orally presented matter.
14. Ways and devices of translating (descriptive and antonymic translating).

Seminar 3-4 Basis notions of Text Analysis. Types of the Translation. Plan

- 1.Types of Translation.
2. Techniques of Translation.
- 3.Text and Discourse.
4. Levels of Linguistic Structure.
5. Text and Discourse.
6. Simultaneous and machine translation

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.

2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
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Additional References

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2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

- 1. Read the text.**
- 2. Translate the text orally.**
- 3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.**
- 4. Write down the essay “The work of the primary school teacher”.**

Reception teacher: Caroline

Caroline graduated with a BA Early Childhood Studies from Sheffield Hallam University before going on to complete a PGCE (Early Years) at the University of Birmingham. She currently works as a reception teacher in an independent school.

I began searching and applying for jobs during my PGCE and always tried to visit the schools I was applying to. Before the visit, I would look on their website to find key points I felt were important to discuss. I made sure the school knew I was interested in finding out about their ethos and the principles behind it, and feel this was key in securing my current job. This not only showed the school

I was interested, but also ensured I was applying to schools that matched my own views and values.

When I applied for my current role, I matched my personal statement to the school, picking out the skills and qualities I felt they would be most interested in. On securing an interview, I ensured I was fully prepared and had lesson plans ready to give those who would be observing me. I found out from the school what level the children were at and made sure the lesson was fun and challenging, something that gained me praise during my interview.

My degree and PGCE were very relevant, as the school was keen to employ someone with a secure knowledge of the early years.

I get to work at 7.45am and begin by setting out the classroom, ensuring everything is ready for the day and all my resources are to hand. I greet the children and parents as they arrive at 8.30am and I am available if any parent wants to talk to me. Lessons begin at 9am and tend to be literacy based. The morning break is 25 minutes long and I am on duty for this twice a week. After break, we have numeracy lessons until lunchtime. During lunch I spend some time either helping serve in the hall or on duty outside. Afternoons include geography, science or history lessons, followed by phonics and a story. After the children leave at 3.30pm, I tidy the classroom and prepare for the next day. I tend to leave school at 5.30pm, sometimes later, and quite often spend time at home researching ideas or making resources.

The most significant development of my role will be my appointment to Early Years SENCO (special educational needs coordinator) in September. I am currently happy in my role but would one day like to become a head teacher.

What I enjoy most about my job is that every day is different; you never know how the children are going to react to something or what their response will be. It is also extremely rewarding to see the children grasp a new concept and progress over the year.

The most challenging part of the job is the deadlines, whether it is reports, profiles or meetings.

Teaching can be tough but it is also a very rewarding career. If you are considering teaching as a career or are looking for your first teaching job, get some experience volunteering in schools. If you create a good impression and a job comes up, they may remember you. Offer to help the teacher after school. It shows you are willing to go the extra mile and that you are dedicated to the job. All of this will help you build a good reputation, meaning you may have several schools you can call on as references.

(AGCAS 

Sourced by Laura Stanley, University of Wolverhampton)

- 1. Read the text.**
- 2. Translate the text orally.**
- 3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.**

Case studies : Teaching English as a foreign language: Jess Watson

Jess Watson gained her degree from Franklin Pierce University in the US. She was then bitten by the travel bug, but wanted to travel and work whilst being in a professional setting. She was introduced to Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), found a job in Thailand and she hasn't looked back since.

I started my TEFL course about six months after I graduated. I did it because I was itching to travel, but also to work in a professional setting, gain skills and make a decent salary. I came across TEFL and i-to-i while browsing the internet one day and the rest was history! I signed up, completed the certificate in a month and jetted off to start my first job a month later.



I headed out for my first teaching job in Bangkok, Thailand, before heading out to teach in Cambodia and then Burma.

My experience was everything I could have hoped for and more! I worked for a great language company that provided ample training and during my first year there I was really able to build my teaching foundation and philosophy. Living abroad was enriching, challenging and life-changing and the opportunities I have gotten to travel have been the best experiences of my life.

If I had to rate my experience, I would give it a ten, hands down, without a doubt. If I could go back in time and change one thing, it would have been signing up to do my TEFL course sooner.

TEFL is becoming increasingly popular for graduates like me, as the struggle to find work in the UK after university continues. What's good is that no experience is necessary and you don't need to speak another language to become a TEFL teacher. All it takes is a TEFL course, which gives you all the skills and training you need to find paid jobs all over the world.

My advice for other people considering TEFL would be to think of a place that you have always wanted to go and commit. It can be something as frivolous as the weather, but you have to make sure there is something that is drawing you to the country you want to teach in (other than money). It's also a great idea to find someone who has been to your chosen destination and just ask them tons of questions. I did and if it wasn't for that person's guidance and support, I probably wouldn't have accepted my first job. I guarantee the person you are contacting has been in the same shoes before and would love a bit of good karma, so don't be shy and drop them an email!

(Sourced by i-to-i date: September 2012)

- 1. Translate the theoretical material.**
- 2. Make the summary of the material.**
- 3. Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.**

Though the basic characteristics of translation can be observed in all translation events, different types of translation can be singled out depending on

the predominant communicative function of the source text or the form of speech involved in the translation process. Thus we can distinguish between literary and informative translation, on the one hand, and between written and oral translation (or interpretation), on the other hand.

Literary translation deals with literary texts, i.e. works of fiction or poetry whose main function is to make an emotional or aesthetic impression upon the reader. Their communicative value depends, first and foremost, on their artistic quality and the translator's primary task is to reproduce this quality in translation.

Informative translation is rendering into the target language non-literary texts, the main purpose of which is to convey a certain amount of ideas, to inform the reader. However, if the source text is of some length, its translation can be listed as literary or informative only as an approximation. A literary text may, in fact, include some parts of purely informative character. Contrariwise, informative translation may comprise some elements aimed at achieving an aesthetic effect. Within each group further gradations can be made to bring out more specific problems in literary or informative translation.

Literary works are known to fall into a number of genres. Literary translations may be subdivided in the same way, as each genre calls for a specific arrangement and makes use of specific artistic means to impress the reader. Translators of prose, poetry or plays have their own problems. Each of these forms of literary activities comprises a number of subgenres and the translator may specialize in one or some of them in accordance with his talents and experience. The particular tasks inherent in the translation of literary works of each genre are more literary than linguistic. The great challenge to the translator is to combine the maximum equivalence and the high literary merit.

The translator of a belles-lettres text is expected to make a careful study of the literary trend the text belongs to, the other works of the same author, the peculiarities of his individual style and manner and so on. This involves both linguistic considerations and skill in literary criticism. A good literary translator must be a versatile scholar and a talented writer or poet.

A number of subdivisions can be also suggested for informative translations, though the principles of classification here are somewhat different. Here we may single out translations of scientific and technical texts, of newspaper materials, of official papers and some other types of texts such as public speeches, political and propaganda materials, advertisements, etc., which are, so to speak, intermediate, in that there is a certain balance between the expressive and referential functions, between reasoning and emotional appeal.

Translation of scientific and technical materials has a most important role to play in our age of the revolutionary technical progress. There is hardly a translator or an interpreter today who has not to deal with technical matters. Even the "purely" literary translator often comes across highly technical stuff in works of fiction or even in poetry. An in-depth theoretical study of the specific features

of technical translation is an urgent task of translation linguistics while training of technical translators is a major practical problem.

In technical translation the main goal is to identify the situation described in the original. The predominance of the referential function is a great challenge to the translator who must have a good command of the technical terms and a sufficient understanding of the subject matter to be able to give an adequate description of the situation even if this is not fully achieved in the original. The technical translator is also expected to observe the stylistic requirements of scientific and technical materials to make text acceptable to the specialist.

Some types of texts can be identified not so much by their positive distinctive features as by the difference in their functional characteristics in the two languages. English newspaper reports differ greatly from their Russian counterparts due to the frequent use of colloquial, slang and vulgar elements, various paraphrases, eye-catching headlines, etc.

When the translator finds in a **newspaper text** the headline “Minister bares his teeth on fluoridation” which just means that this minister has taken a resolute stand on the matter, he will think twice before referring to the minister’s teeth in the Russian translation. He would rather use a less expressive way of putting it to avoid infringement upon the accepted norms of the Russian newspaper style.

Apart from technical and newspaper materials it may be expedient to single out translation of **official diplomatic papers** as a separate type of informative translation. These texts make a category of their own because of the specific requirements to the quality of their translations. Such translations are often accepted as authentic official texts on a par with the originals. They are important documents every word of which must be carefully chosen as a matter of principle. That makes the translator very particular about every little meaningful element of the original which he scrupulously reproduces in his translation. This scrupulous imitation of the original results sometimes in the translator more readily erring in literality than risking to leave out even an insignificant element of the original contents.

Journalistic (or publicistic) texts dealing with social or political matters are sometimes singled out among other informative materials because they may feature elements more commonly used in literary text (metaphors, similes and other stylistic devices) which cannot but influence the translator’s strategy. More often, however, they are regarded as a kind of newspaper materials (periodicals).

There are also some minor groups of texts that can be considered separately because of the specific problems their translation poses to the translator. They are **film scripts, comic strips, commercial advertisements** and the like. In dubbing a film the translator is limited in his choice of variants by the necessity to fit the pronunciation of the translated words to the movement of the actor’s lips. Translating the captions in a comic strip, the translator will have to consider the numerous allusions to the facts well-known to the regular readers of comics but less familiar to the Russian readers. And in dealing with commercial advertisements he must bear in mind that their sole purpose is to win over the

prospective customers. Since the text of translation will deal with quite a different kind of people than the original advertisement was meant for, there is the problem of achieving the same pragmatic effect by introducing the necessary changes in the message.

Though the present manual is concerned with the problems of written translation from English into Russian, some remarks should be made about the obvious classification of translations as written or oral. As the names suggest, in written translation the source text is in written form, as is the target text. In oral translation or interpretation the interpreter listens to the oral presentation of the original and translates it as an oral message in TL. As a result, in the first case the Receptor of the translation can read it while in the second case he hears it.

There are also some intermediate types. The interpreter rendering his translation by word of mouth may have the text of the original in front of him and translate it “at sight”. A written translation can be made of the original recorded on the magnetic tape that can be replayed as many times as is necessary for the translator to grasp the original meaning. The translator can dictate his “at sight” translation of a written text to the typist or a short-hand writer with TR getting the translation in written form.

These are all, however, modifications of the two main types of translation. The line of demarcation between written and oral translation is drawn not only because of their forms but also because of the sets of conditions in which the process takes place. The first is continuous, the other momentary. In written translation the original can be read and re-read as many times as the translator may need or like. The same goes for the final product. The translator can re-read his translation, compare it to the original, make the necessary corrections or start his work all over again. He can come back to the preceding part of the original or get the information he needs from the subsequent messages. These are most favourable conditions and here we can expect the best performance and the highest level of equivalence. That is why in theoretical discussions we have usually examples from written translations where the translating process can be observed in all its aspects.

The conditions of oral translation impose a number of important restrictions on the translator’s performance. Here the interpreter receives a fragment of the original only once and for a short period of time. His translation is also a one-time act with no possibility of any return to the original or any subsequent corrections. This creates additional problems and the users have sometimes; to be content with a lower level of equivalence.

1.Translate the theoretical material.

2. Make the summary of the material.

3.Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.

There are **two main kinds of oral translation** – consecutive and simultaneous. In consecutive translation the translating starts after the original speech or some part of it has been completed. Here the interpreter’s strategy and the final results depend, to a great extent, on the length of the segment to be translated. If the

segment is just a sentence or two the interpreter closely follows the original speech. As often as not, however, the interpreter is expected to translate a long speech which has lasted for scores of minutes or even longer. In this case he has to remember a great number of messages and keep them in mind until he begins his translation. To make this possible the interpreter has to take notes of the original messages, various systems of notation having been suggested for the purpose. The study of, and practice in, such notation is the integral part of the interpreter's training as are special exercises to develop his memory.

Sometimes the interpreter is set a time limit to give his rendering, which means that he will have to reduce his translation considerably, selecting and reproducing the most important parts of the original and dispensing with the rest. This implies the ability to make a judgement on the relative value of various messages and to generalize or compress the received information. The interpreter must obviously be a good and quickwitted thinker.

In **simultaneous interpretation** the interpreter is supposed to be able to give his translation while the speaker is uttering the original message. This can be achieved with a special radio or telephone-type equipment. The interpreter receives the original speech through his earphones and simultaneously talks into the microphone which transmits his translation to the listeners. This type of translation involves a number of psycholinguistic problems, both of theoretical and practical nature. In conclusion, we may say, that there are three types of translation that can be distinguished: equivalent translation, literal translation and free translation. **Equivalent translation.** Equivalent translation has been considered in the preceding pages. Achieving equivalence is the goal aimed at in translation. **Literal translation.** In spite of the fact that there are cases of semantic and structural coincidences they are rather an exception. A literal or word translation is obviously unacceptable because it results in a violation of form, or a distortion of sense, or both. No desire on the part of the translator to preserve in his translation the lexical, grammatical or stylistic peculiarities of the original text can justify any departure from the norms of the TL. Literal translation imposes upon the TL text alien lexical and grammatical structures, alien collocability, alien connotations and alien stylistic norms. In literal translation form prevails over content and the meaning of the text is distorted. Literalism may be lexical, grammatical or stylistic, e.g.

Translation Loans. Literal translation should not be confused with **translation loans**. A translation loan is a peculiar form of word-borrowing by means of literal translation. Translation loans are built on the pattern of foreign words or phrases with the elements of the borrowing language, e.g. *collective farm* is a translation loan of the Russian *колхоз* but in a full and not in an abbreviated form: *oil dollars* - *нефтедоллары*; *goodneighbourly relations* – *добрососедские отношения* (a full loan); *war effect* (a partial loan as number does not coincide).

1.Translate the material.

2. Make the summary of the material.

3.Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.

Bert Smallways was a vulgar little creature, the sort of pert, limited soul that the old civilisation of the early twentieth century produced by the million in every country of the world. He had lived all his life in narrow streets, and between mean

houses he could not look over, and in a narrow circle of ideas from which there was no escape. He thought the whole duty of man was to be smarter than his fellows, get his hands, as he put it, "on the dibs," and have a good time. He was, in fact, the sort of man who had made England and America what they were. The luck had been against him so far, but that was by the way. He was a mere aggressive and acquisitive individual with no sense of the State, no habitual loyalty, no devotion, no code of honour, no code even of courage. Now by a curious accident he found himself lifted out of his marvellous modern world for a time, out of all the rush and confused appeals of it, and floating like a thing dead and disembodied between sea and sky. It was as if Heaven was experimenting with him, had picked him out as a sample from the English millions, to look at him more nearly, and to see what was happening to the soul of man. But what Heaven made of him in that case I cannot profess to imagine, for I have long since abandoned all theories about the ideals and satisfactions of Heaven.

Tasks for the individual work.

- 1. Read the text.**
- 2. Translate it orally.**
- 3. Write down the summary in English.**
- 4. Write the essay "Training of the primary school teacher."**

Початкова школа – корінь шкільної освіти

Глибинний смисл самої назви "початкова школа", "школа першого ступеня" зумовлює особливу роль цієї ланки і особливу відповідальність педагогів за якість її результатів. Це зумовлене кількома причинами.

По-перше, у цьому віці поступово із надр ігрової діяльності визріває і формується навчальна діяльність, як спеціальний вид, як інструмент, яким дитина обов'язково повинна оволодіти. Підкреслимо, що тільки у програмах початкової школи є окремий розділ "Формування загальнонавчальних умінь і навичок", які на міжпредметному рівні має сформулювати вчитель.

По-друге, цей вік як ніякий інший етап шкільної освіти багатий своїми ресурсами, які треба вчасно виявити і розвинути. Цьому сприяють сильна пластичність психіки молодших школярів, їхня готовність сприймати і наслідувати, випробовувати себе, довіра до батьків, учителя, надзвичайна природна допитливість, емоційність – все це створює унікальні можливості для повноцінного виховання, навчання і розвитку дітей цього віку.

По-третє, неприпустимість педагогічного браку у початковій ланці. Якщо вчитель початкової школи не володіє методикою, це позначиться на успіхах дітей відразу. Ніякі інноваційні зміни підручників, методик, системи оцінювання не виправдані, якщо у 5 клас прийде випускник

початкової школи із технікою читання 50 слів на хвилину, невмінням писати, висловлюватись, працювати самостійно та ін.

Що є ґрунтом якісної освіти? Безумовно, **зміст**. Тому оновлення його теоретичних засад на ідеях гуманної, особистісно орієнтованої, національно визначеної педагогіки і створення нових програм і підручників було найважливішим пріоритетом як науковців АПН України, так і відповідних спеціалістів МОН України. Над змістом Державних стандартів, програм, підручників протягом 2000-2005 років відбувалась вдумлива, копітка робота у співпраці авторів, учителів, видавців.

Зміст початкової освіти вперше в історії вітчизняної освіти є багатокомпонентним і дитиноцентричним. Він суттєво збагачений творчим, діяльнісним компонентом. Через певну систему завдань у підручники з різних предметів введено особистісно-ціннісний компонент, що передбачає самопізнання, формування в учнів позитивного ставлення до себе і навколишньої дійсності, розвиток творчих здібностей, уяви.

Відбулася суттєва зміна структурного співвідношення різних видів інформації в підручниках. А саме: значно зменшено питому вагу готових знань на користь засвоєння дітьми способів учіння, набуття особистого досвіду творчої діяльності, посилення світоглядного, морально-етичного компоненту змісту. З нашого погляду, швидке і в цілому якісне підручникотворення є “проривною зоною” до нової якості початкової освіти.

Необхідність змін у підготовці вчителя початкових класів обговорювалась неодноразово. Ця проблема розв’язується зараз в контексті вимог двох процесів: переходу до 12-річної школи і виконання рекомендацій Болонської декларації.

Тривожить велика диспропорція між теоретичною і практичною підготовкою майбутнього вчителя. Поширеним є такий підхід: на другому курсі студенти мають один тиждень спостереження (перший тиждень дитини в школі); на третьому – є безвідривна методична практика, під час якої кожен студент готує і може дати в присутності методиста кілька залікових уроків; на четвертому курсі є виробнича практика на 6 тижнів, протягом якої майбутні учителі готують з методистом дуже мало уроків. Оплата вчителя, у якого практикується студент, мізерна. Для вчителя початкової школи, який буде викладати, як правило, 5-6 предметів, ослаблення педпрактики зумовлює надзвичайну складність його професійного становлення, що може змусити його залишити школу.

Вимагає розв’язання **фундаментальність підготовки вчителя** саме як спеціаліста з початкової освіти. Важливою проблемою підготовки майбутніх учителів є посилення професійної зорієнтованості викладання як загальнокультурного блоку, так і базових теоретичних дисциплін: педагогіки, психології і наукових основ методик. Дослідження з професійного становлення молодих учителів показують: якщо виникає складна педагогічна ситуація, молоді учителі, як правило, вирішують проблемні питання, або пригадуючи особистий досвід, або консультуючись

з колегами. Вузівські напрацювання у такому разі залишаються незапитаними.

Щоб піднести якість теоретичної і практичної підготовки вчителів, за нашим переконанням, необхідно поєднувати ціннісний і компетентнісний підходи у їх професійній підготовці, формувати інтегровані професійні уміння, які мають універсальний характер, вчити студентів саморефлексії. В зв'язку з цим важливо визначати професійні потреби молодих учителів і закладати їх у зміст і структуру професійної підготовки. За своєю природою вчитель початкових класів не може бути професіоналом високого гатунку без інтеграції психології, дидактики і методики, тому принципи інтеграції, системності, синергетики мають бути методологічним підґрунтям інноваційних змін у педагогічній освіті.

Таким чином, на новому витку розвитку початкової освіти необхідне **системне удосконалення основних чинників впливу** на якість навчально-виховного процесу. Тільки через поліпшення змісту освіти, нові підручники і навіть видання вкрай потрібної для вчителів і студентів літератури не буде високої якості, яку від нас чекає держава, суспільство, кожна родина. Необхідно одночасно створювати нові методики, сучасну матеріальну базу, сприятливе для дітей навчальне середовище, забезпечити якісний медичний і психологічний супровід переходу школи до нової початкової освіти.

(О.Я. Савченко, віце-президент АПН України)

1. Translate the material.
2. Make the summary of the material.
3. Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.

Ukraine's National Higher Education System

In Ukraine, as in other developed countries, higher education is considered to be one of the main human values. Ukraine has inherited from the past a well-developed and multifunctional system of higher education. The dynamics, which is a characteristic trait of the current civilization, increasing social role of an individual, humanization and democratization of society, intellectualization of labour, fast change in technologies and equipment worldwide. All these requires the creation of such which will allow Ukraine to become the ever-educated nation. The establishment of the national higher education system is based on the new legislative and methodological grounds. It provides for the entirely new qualitative level of expert's training, increase in academic and professional mobility of graduates, greater openness, democratic principles of teaching and raising the youth, accession of Ukraine's higher education system into the world community. The higher education consist of higher educational establishments, scientific and methodological facilities under federal and municipal governments and self-governing bodies in charge of education. The higher education structure includes also the post-graduate and Ph. D. Programs and self-education. The higher education includes two major educational levels, namely basic higher education and full higher education. The educational level is trait of higher

education by the level of gained quality which provides comprehensive development of an individual and which will do to get an appropriate qualification. The legislation sets the following educational and qualification levels - junior specialist, bachelor, specialist, master, as well as scientific degrees of candidate of sciences (assistant professor) and doctor of sciences (Ph. D.). Educational and qualification level is trait of higher education by the level of gained qualities which will enable this individual to perform the appropriate occupational tasks or responsibilities at a certain qualification level. Senior scientific researcher, assistant professor and professor are the applied degrees. The Ukraine's State Higher Education System includes 940 higher educational institutions (HEI), out of which 806 are public and 134 are of other forms of property ownership. Non-public HEIs are mandatory and legally acknowledged and controlled by the state through the educational activity's licensing mechanism and accreditation. HEIs in Ukraine are comprised of vocational schools, colleges, institutes, conservatories, academies, universities .

According to the HEIs status the following 4 levels of accreditation are set:

- Level I - vocational schools and other HEIs equaled to them which teach junior specialists by using educational and professional programs (EPPs);
- Level II - colleges, other HEIs equaled to them which teach bachelors, and if need be junior specialists, by using EPPs;
- Level III - institutes, conservatories, academies, universities which teach bachelors and specialists, as well as junior specialists if need be , by using EPPs;
- Level IV - instituties, conservatories, academies, universities which teach bachelors, masters and specialists if need be, by using EPPs.

Normative periods of training under different educational and qualification levels are set listed bellow:

- 3 years for junior specialist (on the basis of full comprehensive secondary education);
- 4 years for bachelor (on the basis of full comprehensive secondary education);
- 1 year for specialist (on the basis of first degree);
- 1 year for master (on the basis of first degree).

New Ukrainian educational laws and democratic state policy give certain autonomy to the higher educational institutions in their activities and classical academic liberties in self-government.

Ukraine's higher educational system fulfills important social functions creating intellectual potential of Ukraine as a new independent state entering the world community.

Higher education supplies all spheres of national economy with qualified professionals and looks for the better ways of development and perfection.

(from the “Report of Ministry of education, science, youth ans sport of Ukraine 2010”)

Module 3.
Stylistic Problems.

Lecture 5. The functional Styles.

Plan

1. Functional styles and problems of their classification.
2. Scientific Prose Style.
3. Official Documents.
4. Newspaper and Publicistic Styles.
5. Belles-Lettres Style.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
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1. FUNCTIONAL STYLES AND THE PROBLEM OF THEIR CLASSIFICATION

Functional styles (FS) are the subsystems of language, each subsystem having its own peculiar features in what concern vocabulary means, syntactical constructions, and even phonetics. The appearance and existence of FS is connected with the specific conditions of communication in different spheres of human life. FS differ not only by the possibility or impossibility of using some elements but also due to the frequency of their usage. For example, some terms can appear in the colloquial style but the possibility of its appearance is quite different from the possibility to meet it in an example of scientific style.

The classification of FS is a very complicated problem, that is why we will consider ideas of I.V. Arnold and I.R. Galperin, bearing in mind that Galperin treats functional styles as patterns of the written variety of language thus excluding colloquial FS. Both scholars agree that each FS can be recognized by one or more leading features. But Galperin pays more attention to the coordination of language means and stylistic devices whereas Arnold connects the specific features of each FS with its peculiarities in the sphere of communication.

According to I.R. Galperin, **a functional style of language is a system of interrelated language means which serves a definite aim in communication.** A functional style should be regarded as the product of a certain concrete task set by the sender of the message. Functional styles appear mainly in the literary standard of the language. These represent varieties of the abstract invariant and can deviate from the invariant, even breaking away with it.

Each FS is a relatively stable system at the given stage in the development of the literary language, but it changes, and sometimes considerably, from one period to another. Therefore FS is a historical category. Thus, for example in the 17th century it was considered that not all words can be used in poetry, and that a separate poetic style exists. Later, in the 19th century romanticism rejected the norms of poetic style and introduced new vocabulary to poetry. The development of each style is predetermined by the changes in the norms of standard English. It is also greatly influenced by changing social conditions, the progress of science and the development of cultural life.

Every functional style of language is marked by a specific use of language means, thus establishing its own norms which, however, are subordinated to the norm-invariant and which do not violate the general notion of the literary norm. The writers of the given period in the development of the literary language contribute greatly to establishing the system of norms of their period. It is worth noting that the investigations of language norms at a given period are to great extent maintained on works of men of letters. Selection, or deliberate choice of language, and the ways the chosen elements are treated are the **main distinctive features of individual style.**

Individual style is a unique combination of language units, expressive means and stylistic devices peculiar to a given writer, which makes that writer's works or even utterances easily recognizable. (Galperin, p.17) Naturally, the individual style of a writer will never be entirely independent of the literary norms and canons of the given period. But the adaptations of these canons will always be peculiar and therefore distinguishable. Individual style is based on a thorough knowledge of the contemporary language and allows certain justifiable deviations from the rigorous norms. Individual style requires to be studied in a course of stylistics in so far as it makes use of the potentialities of language means, whatever the characters of these potentialities may be.

All men of letters have a peculiar individual manner of using language means to achieve the effect they desire. Writers choose language means deliberately. This process should be distinguished from language peculiarities which appear in everyday speech of this or that particular individual (**idiolect**).

Each style of the literary language makes use of a group of language means the interrelation of which is peculiar to the given style. It is the coordination of the language means and stylistic devices that shapes the distinctive features of each style, and not the language means or stylistic devices themselves. Each style can be recognized by one or more leading features, which are especially conspicuous. For instance, the use of special terminology is a lexical characteristic of the style of scientific prose, and one by which it can easily be recognized.

The definition of a functional style resembles very much the one given in the first chapter of the present manual.

A functional style can be defined as a system of coordinated, interrelated and interconditioned language means intended to fulfill a specific function of communication and aiming at a definite effect.

The English language has evolved a number of functional styles easily distinguishable one from another. They are not homogeneous and fall into several variants all having some central point of resemblance.

Galperin denies the existence of this functional style. He thinks that functional style can be singled out in the written variety of language. He defines the style as the result of a deliberate careful selection of language means which in their correlation constitute this style.

Maltzev thinks that style is a choice but this choice is very often done unconsciously, spontaneously. He thinks that the main aim of functional style is to facilitate a communication in a certain sphere of discourse. But the rigid lay outs of business and official letters practically exclude the possibility of deliberate, careful selection. One more example the compression in the newspapers headlines where there is a tendency to abbreviate language.

There's a discrepancy in Galperin's theory. One of the substyles of the publicistic style is oratory which is its oral subdivision. Kuznetz and Skrebnev give the definitions of bookish and colloquial styles. The bookish style is a style of a highly polished nature that reflects the norm of the national literary language.

The bookish style may be used not only in the written speech but in oral, official talk.

Colloquial style is the type of speech which is used in situation that allows certain deviations from the rigid pattern of literary speech used not only in a private conversation, but also in private correspondence. So the style is applicable both to the written and oral varieties of the terms "colloquial" and "bookish" don't exactly correspond to the oral and written forms of speech. Maltzev suggests terms "formal" and "informal" and states that colloquial style is the part of informal variety of English which is used orally in conversation.

Thus, I.R.Galperin distinguishes five classes:

1.The Belles-Lettres Style

- 1)Poetry;
- 2)Emotive Prose;
- 3)The Drama.

2.Publicistic Style

- 1)Oratory and Speeches;
- 2)The Essay;
- 3)Articles.

3.Newspapers

- 1)Brief News Items;
- 2)Headlines;
- 3)Advertisements and Announcements;
- 4)The Editorial.

4.Scientific Prose

5.Official Documents.

2. Scientific Prose

The main aim of the functional style of scientific prose is to prove a hypothesis, to create new concepts and to disclose the internal laws of existence, development, relations between different phenomena, etc. The language means, therefore, tend to be objective, precise, and unemotional, devoid of any individuality; there is a striving for the most generalized form of expression.

The most noticeable features of this style are

1. The logical sequence of utterances with clear indications of their interrelations and interdependence.

2. A developed and varied system of connectives.

3. The use of terms specific to each given branch of science. But due to the rapid dissemination of scientific and technical ideas, we *may* observe the process of "determinization", that is, some scientific and technical terms begin to circulate outside the narrow field they belong to and eventually begin to develop new meanings. But the overwhelming majority of terms do not undergo this process of determinization and remain the property of scientific prose. The necessity to

penetrate deeper into the essence of things and phenomena gives rise to new concepts, which require new words to name them. Hence the rapid creation of new terms in any developing science. A new term in scientific prose is generally followed (or preceded) by an explanation.

4. Peculiar sentence patterns which *may be* of three types: Postulator, Argumentative, and Formulate.

5. The use of quotations and references, which also have a definite compositional pattern, namely, the name of the writer referred to, the title of the work quoted, the publishing house, the place and year it was published, and the page of the excerpt quoted or referred to.

6. The use of foot-notes digressive in character. This is in full accord with the main requirement of the style, which is logical coherence of ideas expressed.

7. The impersonality of scientific writings.

There is a noticeable difference in the syntactical design of utterances in the exact sciences (mathematics, chemistry, physics, etc.) and in the humanities. The passive constructions frequently used in the scientific prose of the exact sciences are not indispensable in the humanities. This, perhaps, is due to the fact that the data and methods of investigation applied in the humanities are less objective.

The style of scientific prose has 3 subdivisions:

- 1) the style of humanitarian sciences;
- 2) the style of "exact" sciences;
- 3) the style of popular scientific prose.

Its function is to work out and ground theoretically objective knowledge about reality

The aim of communication is to create new concepts, disclose the international laws of existence.

The peculiarities are: objectiveness; logical coherence, impersonality, unemotional character, exactness.

Vocabulary. The use of terms and words used to express a specialized concept in a given branch of science. Terms are not necessarily. They may be borrowed from ordinary language but are given a new meaning.

The scientific prose style consists mostly of ordinary words which tend to be used in their primary logical meaning. Emotiveness depends on the subject of investigation but mostly scientific prose style is unemotional.

Grammar: The logical presentation and cohesion of thought manifests itself in a developed feature of scientific syntax is the use of established patterns.

- postulatory;
- formulative;
- argumentative;

The impersonal and objective character of scientific prose style is revealed in the frequent use of passive constructions, impersonal sentences. Personal sentences are more frequently used in exact sciences. In humanities we may come across constructions but few.

Scientific popular style has the following peculiarities: emotive words, elements of colloquial style

The language of science is governed by the aim of the functional style of scientific prose, which is to prove a hypothesis, to create new concepts, to disclose the internal laws of existence, development, relations between phenomena, etc. The language means used, therefore, tend to be objective, precise, unemotional, devoid of any individuality; there is a striving for the most generalized form of expression.

The impersonality of scientific writings can also be considered a typical feature of this style.

3. Official Documents

The style of official documents

In standard literary English this is the style of official documents. It is not homogeneous and is represented by the following substyles or variants: 1. the language of business documents; 2. the language of legal documents; 3. that of diplomacy; 4. that of military documents.

The main aim of this type of communication is to state the conditions binding two parties in an undertaking. The most general function of the style of official documents predetermines the peculiarities of the style. The most noticeable of all syntactical features are the compositional patterns of the variants of this style.

The over-all code of the official style falls into a system of subcodes, each characterized by its own terminological nomenclature, its own compositional form, its own variety of syntactical arrangements. But the integrating features of all these subcodes emanating from the general aim of agreement between parties, remain the following: 1. conventionality of expression; 2. absence of any emotiveness; 3. the encoded character of language; symbols and 4. a general syntactical mode of combining several pronouncements into one sentence. This FS is not homogeneous and is represented by the following substyles or variants:

- 1) the language of business documents;
- 2) the language of legal documents;
- 3) the language of diplomacy;
- 4) the language of military documents.

Like other styles of language, this style has a definite communicative aim and its own system of interrelated language and stylistic means. The main aim of this type of communication is to state the conditions binding two parties and to reach agreement between two contracting parties. The most general function of the style of official documents predetermines the peculiarities of the style. The most striking feature is a special system of clichés, terms and set expressions by which each substyle can be easily recognized. Thus in finance we find terms like *extra revenue*, *liability*. In diplomacy such phrases as *high contracting parties*, *memorandum*, *to ratify an agreement* are found. In legal language, examples are *to deal with a case*, *a body of judges*.

All these varieties use abbreviations, conventional symbols and contractions, for example, M.P. (Member of Parliament), Ltd (Limited), \$. Abbreviations are especially abundant in military documents. They are used not

only as conventional symbols, but also as signs of military code. Another feature of the style is the use of words in their logical dictionary meaning. There is no room here for the realization of any other meaning here.

The aim:

1. to reach agreement between two contracting parties;
2. to state the conditions binding two parties in an understanding. Each of substyles of official documents makes use of special terms. Legal documents: military documents, diplomatic documents. The documents use set expressions inherited from early Victorian period. This vocabulary is conservative. Legal documents contain a large proportion of formal and archaic words used in their dictionary meaning. In diplomatic and legal documents many words have Latin and French origin. There are a lot of abbreviations and conventional symbols.

The most noticable feature of grammar is the compositional pattern. Every document has its own stereotyped form. The form itself is informative and tells you with what kind of letter we deal with.

Business letters contain: heading, addressing, salutation, the opening, the body, the closing, complimentary clause, the signature. Syntactical features of business letters are - the predominance of extended simple and complex sentences, wide use of participial constructions, homogeneous members.

Morphological peculiarities are passive constructions, they make the letters impersonal. There is a tendency to avoid pronoun reference. Its typical feature is to frame equally important factors and to divide them by members in order to avoid ambiguity of the wrong interpretation.

This style has a definite communicative aim and accordingly has its own system of interrelated language and stylistic means. The main aim of this type of communication is to state the condition binding two parties in an undertaking.

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

As in the case with the above varieties this style also has some peculiarities:

1. The use of abbreviations, conventional symbols, contractions;
2. The use of words in their logical dictionary meaning;
3. Compositional patterns of the variants of this style.
4. Absence of any emotiveness.

The vocabulary is characterized not only by the use of special terminology but the choice of lofty (bookish) words and phrases: plausible (=possible); to inform (=to tell); to assist (=to help); to cooperate (=to work together); to promote (=to help something develop); to secure (=to make certain) social progress; with the following objectives/ends (=for these purposes); to be determined/resolved (=to wish); to endeavour (=to try); to proceed (=to go); inquire (to ask). There are so many abbreviations and acronyms in official documents that there are special addenda in dictionaries to decode them. These abbreviations are particularly abundant in military documents. Here they are used not only as conventional symbols but as signs of

the military code, which is supposed to be known only to the initiated. Examples are: DAO (Divisional Ammunition Officer); adv. (advance); atk. (attack); obj. (object); A/T (anti-tank); ATAS (Air Transport Auxiliary Service). Another feature of the style is the use of words in their logical dictionary meaning. There is no room for words with contextual meaning or for any kind of simultaneous realization of two meanings, as in the other matter-of-fact styles. In military documents sometimes metaphorical names are given to mountains, rivers, hills, or villages, but these metaphors are perceived as code signs and have no aesthetic value, as in: "2.102 d. Inf. Div. continues atk. 26 Feb. 45 to captive objs Spruce Peach and Cherry and prepares to take over objs Plum and Apple after capture by CCB, 5th armd Div." Words with emotive meaning are also not to be found in official documents. An official document usually consists of a preamble, main text body and a finalizing (concluding) part. The syntax of official or business documents is characterized by the frequent use of non-finite forms – Gerund, Participle, Infinitive (Considering that...; in order to achieve cooperation in solving the problems...), and complex structures with them, such as the Complex Object (We expect this to take place), Complex Subject (This is expected to take place), the Absolute Participial Construction (The conditions being violated, it appears necessary to state that...)

1. Publicistic Style

The publicistic style of language became a separate style in the middle of the 18th century. Unlike other styles, it has two spoken varieties, namely the oratorical substyle and the radio and TV commentary. The other two substyles are the essay (moral, philosophical, literary) and journalistic articles (political, social, economic). The general aim of publicistic style is to influence the public opinion, to convince the reader or the listener that the interpretation given by the writer or the speaker is the only correct one and to cause him to accept the expressed point of view.

Publicistic style is characterized by coherent and logical syntactical structure, with an expanded system of connectives and careful paragraphing. Its emotional appeal is achieved by the use of words with the emotive meaning but the stylistic devices are not fresh or genuine. The individual element is not very evident. Publicistic style is also characterized by the brevity of expression, sometimes it becomes a leading feature.

The oratorical style is the oral subdivision of the publicistic style. Direct contact with the listeners permits a combination of the syntactical, lexical and phonetic peculiarities of both the written and spoken varieties of language. The typical features of this style are: direct address to the audience; sometimes contractions; the use of colloquial words. The SDs employed in the oratorical style are determined by the conditions of communication. As the audience rely only on memory, the speaker often resorts to repetitions to enable his listeners to follow him and to retain the main points of his speech. The speaker often use simile and metaphor, but these are generally traditional, because genuine SDs may be difficult to grasp.

The essay is rather a series of personal and witty comments than a finished argument or a conclusive examination of the matter. The most characteristic language features of the essay are: brevity of expression; the use of the first person singular; a rather expanded use of connectives; the abundant use of emotive words; the use of similes and sustained metaphors.

The language of journalistic articles is defined by the character of newspaper, magazine, as well as subjects chosen. Literary reviews stand closer to essays

The most characteristic language features of the essay are:

1. The use of the first person singular.
2. The use of connectives, which facilitate the process of grasping the correlation of ideas.
3. The use of emotive words. 4. The use of similes and metaphors.

Articles

The character of the magazine as well as the subject chosen affects the choice and use of stylistic devices. Words of emotive meaning, for example, are few, if any, in popular scientific articles. Their exposition is more consistent and the system of connectives more expanded than, say, in a satirical style.

The language of political magazines articles differs little from that of newspaper articles. But such elements of the publicistic style as rare and bookish words, neologisms (which sometimes require explanation in the text), traditional words combinations and parenthesis are more frequent here than in newspaper articles.

Publicistic style has spoken varieties, in particular, the oratorical substyle. The new spoken varieties are the radio commentary, the essay and articles.

The general aim of publicistic style is to exert a constant and deep influence on public opinion, to convince the reader or the listener that the interpretation given by the writer or the speaker is the only correct one and to cause him to accept the point of view expressed in the speech, essays or article. Due to its characteristic combination of logical argumentation and emotional appeal, publicistic style has features in common with the style of scientific prose, on the one hand, and that of emotive prose, on the other. Its emotional appeal is generally achieved by the use of words with emotive meaning; but the stylistic devices are not fresh or genuine.

Publicistic style is also characterized by brevity of expression.

1. Oratory and speeches

Oratorical style is the oral subdivision of the publicistic style.

Direct contact with the listeners permits the combination of the syntactical, lexical and phonetic peculiarities of both the written and spoken varieties of language. Certain typical features of the spoken variety of speech present in this style are: direct address to the audience (ladies and gentlemen, honorable member(s), the use of the 2nd person pronoun *you*, etc.), sometimes contractions (I'll, won't, haven't, isn't and others) and the use of colloquial words.

The stylistic devices employed in oratorical style are determined by the conditions of communication. Repetition can be regarded as the most typical stylistic device of English oratorical style. Almost any piece of oratory will have parallel constructions, antithesis, suspense, climax, rhetorical questions and questions-in-the-narrative.

2. The essay

The essay is a literary composition of moderate length on philosophical, social, aesthetic or literary subjects. It never goes deep into the subject, but merely touches upon the surface. Personality in the treatment of theme and naturalness of expression are 2 of the most obvious characteristics of the essay. An essay is rather a series of personal and witty comments than a finished argument or a conclusive examination of any matter. This literary genre has definite linguistic traits which shape the essay as a variety of publicistic style.

In the 19th century the essay as a literary term gradually changed into what we now call the journalistic article or feature article which covers all kinds of subjects from politics, philosophy or aesthetics to travel, sport and fashions. Feature articles are generally published in newspapers, especially weeklies and Sunday editions.

In comparison with oratorical style, the essay aims at a more lasting, hence at a slower effect.

3. Articles

Irrespective of the character of the magazine and the divergence of subject matter – whether it is political, literary, popular-scientific or satirical, all the features of publicistic style are to be found in any article. The character of the magazine as well as the subject chosen affects the choice and use of stylistic devices. There are popular scientific articles, satirical articles, political magazine articles, newspaper articles, etc.

Literary reviews stand closer to essay both by their content and by their linguistic form. More abstract words of logical meaning are used in them, they more often resort to emotional language and less frequently to traditional set expressions.

English newspaper writing dates from the 17th century. The first of any regular English newspapers was the Weekly News which first appeared in May, 1622. The early English newspaper was principally a vehicle of information. Commentary found its way into the newspapers later. But as far back as the middle of the 18th century the British newspaper was very much like what it is today, carrying foreign and domestic news, advertisements, announcements and articles containing comments.

Not all the printed materials found in newspapers comes under newspaper style. Only materials which perform the function of informing the reader and providing him with an evaluation of information published can be regarded as belonging to newspaper style. English newspaper style can be defined as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community as a separate linguistic unity that serves the purpose of

informing and instructing the reader. Information in the English newspaper is conveyed through the medium of:

- 1) brief news items;
- 2) press reports;
- 3) articles purely informational in character;
- 4) advertisements and announcements.

The newspaper also seeks to influence public opinion on political and other matters. Elements of appraisal may be observed in the very selection and way of presentation of news, in the use of specific vocabulary, casting some doubt on the facts recorded, and syntactical constructions indicating a lack of assurance of the reporter or his desire to avoid responsibility. The principle vehicle of interpretation and appraisal is the newspaper article and the editorial in particular. Editorial is a leading article which is characterized by a subjective handling of facts. This purpose defines the choice of language elements which are mostly emotionally colored.

Newspaper style has its specific vocabulary features and is characterized by an extensive use of:

- 1) special political and economic terms (president, election);
- 2) non-term political vocabulary (nation, crisis, agreement, member);
- 3) newspaper clichés (pressing problem, danger of war, pillars of society);
- 4) abbreviations (NATO, EEC);
- 5) neologisms.

English newspaper style may be defined as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community speaking the language as a separate unity that basically serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader. Since the primary function of newspaper style is to impart information, only printed matter serving this purpose comes under newspaper style proper. Such matter can be classed as:

1. brief news items and communiqués;
2. advertisements and announcements
3. headlines 4. editorial

a) Brief news items

The function of a brief news item is to inform the reader. It states only facts without giving comments. Newspaper style has its specific vocabulary features and is characterized by an extensive use of: 1. special political and economic terms; 2. non-term political vocabulary; 3. newspaper cliché; 4. abbreviations; 5. neologisms.

The following grammatical peculiarities of brief news items are of paramount importance, and may be regarded as grammatical parameters of newspaper style: 1. complex sentences with a developed system of clauses; 2. verbal constructions; 3. syntactical complexes; 4. attributive noun groups; 5. specific word order.

b) The headline

The headline is the title given to a news item of a newspaper article. The main function of the headline is to inform the reader briefly of what the news that follows is about.

Syntactically headlines are very short sentences or phrases of a variety of patterns: 1. full declarative sentences; 2. interrogative sentences; 3. nominative sentences; 4. elliptical sentences; 5. sentences with articles omitted; 6. phrases with verbals; 7. questions in the forms of statements; 8. complex sentences; 9. headlines including direct speech.

c) Advertisements and announcements

The function of advertisement and announcement is to inform the reader. There are 2 basic types of them in the modern English newspaper: classified and non-classified(separate). In classified the information is arranged according to the subject matter: births, marriages, deaths, business offers, personal etc.

d) The editorial

Editorials are an intermediate phenomenon bearing the stamp of both the newspaper style and the publicistic style.

The function of the editorial is to influence the reader by giving an interpretation of certain facts. Emotional coloring in editorial articles is also achieved with the help of various stylistic devices(especially metaphors and epithets).English newspaper writing dates from the 17th century. The first of any regular English newspapers was the Weekly News which first appeared in May, 1622. The early English newspaper was principally a vehicle of information. Commentary found its way into the newspapers later. But as far back as the middle of the 18th century the British newspaper was very much like what it is today, carrying foreign and domestic news, advertisements, announcements and articles containing comments.

Not all the printed materials found in newspapers comes under newspaper style. Only materials which perform the function of informing the reader and providing him with an evaluation of information published can be regarded as belonging to newspaper style. English newspaper style can be defined as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community as a separate linguistic unity that serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader. Information in the English newspaper is conveyed through the medium of:

- 5) brief news items;
- 6) press reports;
- 7) articles purely informational in character;
- 8) advertisements and announcements.

The newspaper also seeks to influence public opinion on political and other matters. Elements of appraisal may be observed in the very selection and way of presentation of news, in the use of specific vocabulary, casting some doubt on the facts recorded, and syntactical constructions indicating a lack of assurance of the reporter or his desire to avoid responsibility. The principle vehicle of interpretation and appraisal is the newspaper article and the editorial in particular.

Editorial is a leading article which is characterized by a subjective handling of facts. This purpose defines the choice of language elements which are mostly emotionally colored.

Newspaper style has its specific vocabulary features and is characterized by an extensive use of:

- 6) special political and economic terms (president, election);
- 7) non-term political vocabulary (nation, crisis, agreement, member);
- 8) newspaper cliches (pressing problem, danger of war, pillars of society);
- 9) abbreviations (NATO, EEC);
- 10) neologisms.

2. The Belles-Lettres Style

According to I.R. Galperin, this is a generic term for three substyles: the language of poetry; emotive prose (the language of fiction); the language of the drama. Each of these substyles has certain common features, and each of them enjoys some individuality. The common features of the substyles are the following:

1. *The aesthetico-cognitive function* (a function which aims at the cognitive process, which secures the gradual unfolding of the idea to the reader and at the same time calls forth a feeling of pleasure and satisfaction which a reader experiences because he is able to penetrate into the author's idea and to form his own conclusions).

2. *Definite linguistic features*:

- Genuine, not trite, imagery, achieved by purely linguistic devices.
- The use of words in different meanings, greatly influenced by the lexical environment.
- A vocabulary which will reflect to a certain degree the author's personal evaluation of things or phenomena.
- A peculiar individual selection of vocabulary and syntax.
- The introduction of the typical features of colloquial language to a full degree (drama), to a lesser degree (in prose), to a slight degree (poetry).

The belles-lettres style is individual in essence. This is one of its most distinctive properties.

The belles-lettres style is a generic term for 3 substyles:

1. the language of poetry or simply verse;
2. emotive prose, or the language of fiction;
3. the language of the drama.

The purpose of the belles-lettres style is to suggest a possible interpretation of the phenomena of life by forcing the reader to see the viewpoint of the writer. This is the cognitive function of the belles-lettres style. An aesthetico-cognitive effect is a system of language means which secure the effect sought.

The belles-lettres style rests on certain indispensable linguistic features which are:

1. genuine, not trite, imagery, achieved by purely linguistic devices.
2. the use of words in contextual and very often in more than one dictionary meaning, or at least greatly influenced by the lexical environment.
3. a vocabulary which will reflect to a greater or lesser degree the author's personal evaluation of things or phenomena.
4. a peculiar individual selection of vocabulary and syntax, a kind of lexical and syntactical idiosyncrasy.
5. the introduction of the typical features of colloquial language to a full degree(in plays) or a lesser one(in emotive prose) or a slight degree, if any(in poems).

Lecture 6. Translation of Drama, Poetry and Prose Plan

1. Translation of Poetry.
2. Translation of Drama.
3. Translation of Prose

Recommended Literature

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1. Translation of Poetry.

Language is the central subject of any discussion about translation. However, there are certain elements involved in the process of translation which go beyond this conventional area. This is especially true for literary translation in general and translation of poetry in particular. According to Jackson (2003), literary translation is a translational species in itself, but it "differs in many important respects from the kind of translation practiced in a language class. He contends that, on the one hand, literary translation involves a good deal of interpretation about intent and effect. On the other hand, the literary translator is often not as much interested in literal 'transliteration' as in finding a corollary mood, tone, voice, sound, response, and so forth. Jackson brings forth the following extract from Petrarch to confirm the idea of similarity (but not sameness) as well as creativity in translating a poem as a literary genre: An imitator must see to it that what he writes is similar, but not the very same; and the similarity, moreover, should not be like that of a painting or statue to the person represented, but rather like that of a son to a father, where there is often a great difference in the features and body shape, yet after all there is a shadowy something—akin to what the painters call one's air—hovering about the face, and especially the eyes, out of which there grows a likeness ... [W]e writers, too, must see to it that along with the similarity there is a large measure of dissimilarity; and furthermore such likeness as there is must be elusive, something that it is impossible to seize except by a sort of still-hunt, a quality to be felt rather than defined.... It may all be summed up by saying with Seneca, and with Flaccus [Horace] before him, that we must write just as the bees make honey, not keeping the flowers but turning them into a sweetness of our own, blending many different flavors into one, which shall be unlike them all, and better.

So, contrary to some critics' argument that poetry "loses" in translation or poetry is "untranslatable", there are others with the opposite standpoint that it can be preserved, illustrated and illuminated if a good job is done, because poetry is in large part found again and re-painted by the translator. Of course, many of the original poetical touches of color cannot be transposed and "they must be arranged; yet these new arrangements may be even more luminous than the original." Thus a good translation discovers the "dynamics" of poetry, if not necessarily its "mechanics" (Kopp, 1998). The point to be noted here is that as Newmark (1988) states, literary translation is "...the most testing type of translation..." (p.162). It can further be claimed that translation of poetry is the acid test showing the challenging nature of the task.

Basically, poetry translation should be semantic translation for a poem is typically rich with aesthetic and expressive values. The translator may face the linguistic, literary and aesthetic, and socio-cultural problems in translating it. The linguistic problems include the collocation and obscured syntactic structure.

The aesthetic and literary problems are related with poetic structure, metaphorical expressions, and sounds. While the socio-cultural problems arise when the translator translates expressions containing the four major cultural categories: ideas, ecology, behavior, and products. This material shows some basic considerations on how to solve them.

Translating literary works is, perhaps, always more difficult than translating other types of text because literary works have specific values called the aesthetic and expressive values. The aesthetic function of the work shall emphasize the beauty of the words (diction), figurative language, metaphors, etc. While the expressive functions shall put forwards the writer's thought (or process of thought), emotion, etc. And the translator should try, at his best, to transfer these specific values into the target language (TL). As one genre of literature, poetry has something special compared to the others. In a poem, the beauty is not only achieved with the choice of words and figurative language like in novels and short stories, but also with the creation of rhythm, rhyme, meter, and specific expressions and structures that may not conform to the ones of the daily language. In short, the translation of poetry needs 'something more' than translating other genres of literature. This simple writing will present in brief some considerations in translating poetry.

SOME POSSIBLE PROBLEMS IN TRANSLATING A POEM

About translating problems linguists find that in general a literary translator faces linguistic, literary and aesthetic, and socio-cultural problems. In translating a poem, one of the literary genres, the translator are also likely to face similar problems.

1. Linguistic Problems

In term of linguistic factors, according to the writer, at least there are two points to consider: collocation and obscured (non-standard) syntactical structures. The word "collocation" used here refers to words or word groups with which a word or words may typically combine. The combination may by syntagmatic or horizontal, like make a speech (not say a speech), run a meeting (not do a meeting), etc. Something to remember is in different languages the collocates tend to be different. The other class of collocation is pragmatic or vertical. This consists of words belonging to the same semantic field or be semantic opposite. Different from the first class, the collocates in this class may be the same for several languages. Land, sea, air are exactly the same as *земля, море, повітря*.

Whatever the reason is, where there is an accepted collocation in the SL, the translator must find and use its equivalent in the TL if it exists. But a closer attention should also be paid to the collocation with similar form in the SL and TL, but different meaning. The clear examination can only be done if the translator understands the contextual meaning.

The second point to consider in term of linguistic matters is obscured (non-standard) syntactic structures. Such kinds of structures may be intentionally

written in a poem as a part of the expressive function of the text. Hence, such structures should be rendered as closely as possible.

The first step to deal with this problem is to find the deep (underlying) structure. According to Newmark (1981: 116), the useful procedure is to find the logical subject first, and then the specific verb. If the two important elements are discovered, the rest will fall into place. After that the translator can reconstruct the structure in the TL as closely as possible to the original structure. Besides, the structure of each phrase or clause should be examined clearly also.

2. Literary or Aesthetic Problems

Aesthetic values or poetic truth in a poem are conveyed in word order and sounds, as well as in cognitive sense (logic). And these aesthetic values have no independent meaning, but they are correlative with the various types of meaning in the text. Hence, if the translator destroys the word choice, word order, and the sounds, he impairs and distorts the beauty of the original poem. Delicacy and gentleness, for instance, will be ruined if the translator provides crude alliterations for the original carefully-composed alliterations. So, the problems in translating a poem is how to retain the aesthetic values in the TL text.

The aesthetic values, according to Newmark (1981: 65) are dependent on the structure (or poetic structure), metaphor, and sound. Poetic structure includes the plan of the original poem as a whole, the shape and the balance of individual sentences in each line. Metaphor is related to visual images created with combinations of words, which may also evoke sound, touch, smell, and taste. While sound is anything connected with sound cultivation including rhyme, rhythm, assonance, onomatopoeia, etc. A translator cannot ignore any of them although he may order them depending on the nature of the poem translated.

2.1. Poetic Structure

The first factor is structure. It is important to note that structure meant here is the plan of the poem as a whole, the shape and the balance of individual sentence or of each line. So, it does not have to relate directly to the sentential structures or grammar of a language, even in fact it is very much affected by the sentential structure. Thus, maintaining the original structure of the poem may mean maintaining the original structure of each sentence.

2.2. Metaphorical Expressions

Metaphorical expressions, as the second factor, mean any constructions evoking visual, sounds, touch, and taste images, the traditional metaphors, direct comparisons without the words "like" and "as if", and all figurative languages. Intentionally, the writer does not use the term metaphor in the sub-heading since it has different meaning for some people. What is generally known as (traditional) metaphor, for example, is not the same as metaphor meant by Newmark.

To understand the meaning of metaphor as proposed by Newmark, it is advisable to understand the following terms: object, image, sense, metaphor, and metonym. Object, called also topic, is the item which is described by the

metaphor. Image refers to the item in terms of which the object is described. It is also called vehicle. The next term, sense, refers to the point of similarity between aspects of the objects and the image. Metaphor here means the word(s) taken from the image. And finally, metonym refers to one-word image which replace the object, which is in many cases figurative but not metaphorical.

In the expression "rooting out the faults", for example, the object is 'faults', the image is 'rooting out weeds', the sense is (a) eliminate, (b) with tremendous effort, and the metaphor is 'rooting out'. The expression 'the seven seas' referring 'the whole world' is not metaphorical. It is figurative and a metonym.

Newmark (1981: 88-91) proposes seven procedures to translate metaphors in general. The first procedure is reproducing the same image in the TL if the image has comparable frequency and currency in the appropriate register. This procedure is usually used for one-word metaphor, e.g. ray of hope. Ray of hope can be simply translated into *sinar harap*.

The second procedure is replacing images in the SL with a standard TL image within the constraints of TL cultures. The English metaphor 'my life hangs on a thread', with this procedure, can be translated into Indonesian 'hidupku di ujung tanduk'.

The next is translating a metaphor by simile, retaining the image in the SL. This procedure can be used to modify any type of metaphor. And the rest of the procedures, translating metaphor (or simile) into simile plus sense, conversing metaphor into sense, deleting unimportant metaphor, and translating metaphor with some metaphors combined with sense, are not considered appropriate for poetry translation.

The possible question arising now is 'how far a translator can modify the author's metaphorical expressions?' It depends on the importance and expressiveness. If the expressions are very expressive in term of the originality, the expressions should be kept as close as possible to the original, in terms of object, image, sense, and the metaphor.

And then what about the culturally-bound metaphors or expressions?

As it is known, there are two kinds of expressions: universal and culturally-bound expressions. Universal expressions are the ones which consist of words having the same semantic field with that of most cultures in the world. Engkaulah matahariku, for example, is a universal expression for every culture sees the sun as the source of light, source of energy, source of life. Therefore, the expression can be simply transferred into 'You are my sun'.

2.3. Sound

The last of literary or aesthetic factors is sound. As stated before, sound is anything connected with sound cultivation including rhyme, rhythm, assonance, onomatopoeia, etc. A translator must try to maintain them in the translation. As Newmark (1981: 67) further states, "In a significant text, semantic truth is cardinal [meaning is not more or less important, it is important!], whilst of the three aesthetic factors, sound (e.g. alliteration or rhyme) is likely to recede in importance -- rhyme is perhaps the most likely factor to 'give' -- rhyming is

difficult and artificial enough in one language, reproducing line is sometimes doubly so." In short, if the translation is faced with the condition where he should sacrifice one of the three factors, structure, metaphor, and sound, he should sacrifice the sound.

On the other hand, the translator should balance where the beauty of a poem really lies. If the beauty lies more on the sounds rather than on the meaning (semantic), the translator cannot ignore the sound factor.

3. Socio-cultural Problems

Words or expressions that contain culturally-bound word(s) create certain problems. The socio-cultural problems exist in the phrases, clauses, or sentences containing word(s) related to the four major cultural categories, namely: ideas, behavior, product, and ecology (Said, 1994: 39). The "ideas" includes belief, values, and institution; "behavior" includes customs or habits, "products" includes art, music, and artifacts, and "ecology" includes flora, fauna, plains, winds, and weather.

In translating culturally-bound expressions, like in other expressions, a translator may apply one or some of the procedures: Literal translation, transference, naturalization, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, description equivalent, classifier, componential analysis, deletion, couplets, note, addition, glosses, reduction, and synonymy. In literal translation, a translator does unit-to-unit translation. The translation unit may range from word to larger units such as phrase or clause.

He applies 'transference procedure' if he converts the SL word directly into TL word by adjusting the alphabets (writing system) only. The result is 'loan word'. When he does not only adjust the alphabets, but also adjust it into the normal pronunciation of TL word, he applies naturalization. The current example is the Indonesian word "mal" as the naturalization of the English word "mall".

In addition, the translator may find the cultural equivalent word of the SL or, if he cannot find one, neutralize or generalize the SL word to result 'functional equivalents'. When he modifies the SL word with description of form in the TL, the result is description equivalent. Sometimes a translator provides a generic or general or superordinate term for a TL word and the result in the TL is called classifier. And when he just supplies the near TL equivalent for the SL word, he uses synonymy.

In componential analysis procedure, the translator splits up a lexical unit into its sense components, often one-to-two, one-to-three, or -more translation. Moreover, a translator sometimes adds some information, whether he puts it in a bracket or in other clause or even footnote, or even deletes unimportant SL words in the translation to smooth the result for the reader.

These different procedures may be used at the same time. Such a procedure is called couplets. (For further discussion and examples of the procedures, see Said (1994: 25-28) and compare it with Newmark (1981: 30-32)).

The writer does not assert that one procedure is superior to the others. It depends on the situation. Considering the aesthetic and expressive functions a

poem is carrying, a translator should try to find the cultural equivalent or the nearest equivalent (synonym) first before trying the other procedures

The verse. Its first differentiating property is its orderly form, which is based mainly on the rhythmic and phonetic arrangement of the utterances. The rhythmic aspect calls forth syntactical and semantic peculiarities which also fall into a more or less strict orderly arrangement. Both the syntactical and semantic aspects of the poetic substyle may be defined as compact, for they are held in check by rhythmic patterns. Syntactically this brevity is shown in elliptical and fragmentary sentences, in detached constructions, in inversion, asyndeton and other syntactical peculiarities. The language of poetry is characterized by its orderly form, which is based mainly on the rhythmic and phonetic arrangement of the utterances. The rhythmic aspect calls forth syntactic and semantic peculiarities. There are certain restrictions which result in brevity of expression, epigram-like utterances and fresh, unexpected imagery. Syntactically this brevity is shown in elliptical sentences, in detached constructions, in inversion, etc.

Rhythm and rhyme are immediately distinguishable properties of the poetic substyle provided they are wrought into compositional patterns. The various compositional forms of rhyme and rhythm are generally studied under the terms versification or prosody.

The poetical language remains and will always remain a specific mode of communication differing from prose. The poetic words and phrases, peculiar syntactical arrangement, orderly phonetic and rhythmical patterns have long been the signals of poetic language. But the most important of all is the power of the words used in poetry to express more than they usually signify in ordinary language.

Italian has a saying, "traduttore-traditore" (translator-betrayer). The phrase reveals at once the problem of all translators - words don't have literal equivalents in different languages. To say "translator-traitor" in English would be unduly dramatic!

But, as Christopher Caudwell notes in his "Illusion and Reality", while the qualities of great novels can survive translation, those of poetry cannot. Surprisingly enough, this is not due to the difficulty of translating metrical pattern, but to the nature of poetry itself. The usefulness of the debate on translating is that it compels us to look more critically at the task of the poet and the function of poetry

Poetry is neither just words, nor just metre. It is a music of words, and is a way of seeing and interpreting the world and our experience of it, and of conveying to the listener a heightened awareness of it through an intense concentration of metaphor and words in which the natural flow of speech sounds is moulded to some kind of formal pattern. Such patterns can never be the same after the act of translation

Pattern, obviously, is governed by the rules of syntax and prosody that language has inherited from the historical and social pressures that shaped it. Poets may accept or reject these rules, but this is also determined by historical and social tensions. Some who choose to modify the rules may, like Lear or Carroll, for

example, or Edith Sitwell, do so by writing "sound poems" or nonsense verse, musical but meaningless. Emerging from the same social tensions, poetic "movements" have expressed widely divergent views on what should be the purpose and the structure of poetry.

What, then, is a translator to do? Which of the many threads of which poetry is made must he capture in his translation? Luckily, we don't have to answer that question. He answers it for us. He responds to his own poetic instincts. He chooses which of the poem's many threads he will seek to interpret. If he aims at literal translation, he will not necessarily expect a "poetic" result. He may aim to translate a poem's "music" or "mood". But the sounds of words and the norms of prosody make of every language a fortified compound, as hard to escape from as to access.

Many years ago, Stanley Burnshaw, aware of these problems of translation, compiled a work in which poems in various languages were translated literally, and set side by side with texts interpreting the verse and a guide to the prosody and pronunciation of each poem's original language. The book, "The Poem Itself", was - and remains - a unique and fertile work.

Literal translations do not make a poem. Some of the music or magic, some faint ghost of the original, may come across, but its full, rich fabric rarely survives undamaged. Understanding, tuning in on its or the poet's linguistic or cultural wavelength, a free translation, may all make an acceptable, even an outstanding poem, but then it may not be a "translation". It was Jorge Luis Borges who pointed out in his famous 1967 Harvard lectures, just published in Italian as "L'invenzione della poesia", that German clearly distinguishes between Umdichtung (a poem modelled on another), Nachdichtung (a free translation) and Übersetzung (a translation), but however neat the distinction, any translation is a new poem, modelled, closely or less closely, on the original. The question we must answer is, whose poem is it?

Where the music is dominant in the original work, as in the ancient sagas and epic poems, the translator rightly concentrates on the music. A striking example of a successful capture of the "music" of a poem is the 1996 Greek translation by Panos Karagiorgos, who lives and works in Corfu, of the Anglo-Saxon epic "Beowulf". It is interesting to reflect on possible reasons for the success of this long 3,182-line translation. One lies in the similarities of structure of the original Anglo Saxon epic and of Greek epic poetry. But another explanation must surely also lie in the translator's fine cultural tuning to the mood of his subject, derived from his life-long familiarity with the Greek folk epics.

We still must ask, however, what can be left of poetry after its passage, whether in literal or in free translation, across so forbidding a frontier? How can even the most talented of translators presume to take it across undamaged? Almansi and Merry introduce their study on "Montale: the private language of poetry", published in 1977, with the comment that to present a poet "to a foreign public is a desperate enterprise, motivated by love, passion and arrogance... Any smuggler of great poetry into another linguistic country knows well this

contradictory feeling, as he is encouraged to his task by his proselytizing urge, discouraged by his common sense."

We return, therefore, to the question, what is this thing "poetry" that travels so badly? And if it travels so badly, why then is it that it is always to be found abundantly beyond the frontiers of its native tongue in spite of the virtually universal view that the result is not a good replica of the original poem? Better, some might say, a poor imitation than no poem at all. But is that all there is to it? I think not.

Poetry has deeper roots in our consciousness than most of us are aware. From our earliest days we are nourished with nursery rhymes. Rhymes at school help us remember rules of grammar and arithmetic. Rhymes help drivers remember the rules of the road, and pilots their take-off checks. Poetry read, or sung, has helped man face heavy labour and adversity. And chanted patterns of words assisted - and still assist - the performance of physical labour.

The origins of poetry pre-date written literature. Speech rhythms fitted to metrical designs assisted memory in distant ages when learning existed but writing did not. Some - all? - of the earliest written languages were hieroglyphic, and what are hieroglyphs if not metaphors, the images from which poetry is constructed? Poetry is, indeed, deep in our roots. It is not uncommon to find illiterate people who may not normally be articulate, who can and often do, when stirred by emotion, lapse into rhythmic, poetic speech.

A "gooseflesh reaction" then tells you that you are listening to poetry.

PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATING POETRY

Translation of poetry is probably the subject in translation studies that triggers the strongest polemics. Even those not specialized in translation often have an opinion on the subject; consequently it is much platitudinized.

One of the most boring and useless debates concerns translatability and untranslatability of poetry. It is not worth while spending time on that, since there is a commercial and private production of translation of poetry, and thus a readers public ready to read such translated texts and to recognize, in a way, more or less perceivable traces of identity of this or that author.

Someone translates poetry and someone reads translated poetry, and that is more than enough.

Even for poetry, the translation dilemma is either creating a text enabling a reader to access the original, or creating a beautiful poetic text inspired by the original. Therefore, it is better make some distinctions on the aim pursued by translating poetry.

1. direct access to the original: probably the most common form of translation of poetry is metatextual, and consists in a critical apparatus prepared for a poem - in the same language of the poem or in another language - allowing people not particularly proficient in that language to access an interpretation of the text through a clarification of the semantic values of the original.

2. interlinear translation with parallel text: this is another form of direct access to the original, but in this case the aid is textual and not metatextual. Even if it is not always possible to call a parallel text "text". When the parallel verse is the reproduction, word for word, of the original verse, its only aim is to indicate the meaning (the one, among the many possible meanings, chosen by the translator) attributed to the individual words in the original, and seldom the whole result can be called "text" in the proper sense of the word, i.e. a consistent and coherent set of words.

3. philological translation: a translation that does not consider the readability of the text that is produced, only its philological adherence to the prototext. Aim of such a translation is to give access to the original for readers unable to access it through one of the previous strategies. Philological translation can be in prose or verse. When in verse, the verse of the metatext generally matches the verse of the prototext, but of course there are no rhymes (if not by chance), or pursued alliterations, and rhythm and other non-denotative aspects of the text are not considered. One of the most famous advocates of such a strategy is Vladimir Nabokov:

There is a certain small Malayan bird of the thrush family which is said to sing only when tormented in an unspeakable way by a specially trained child at the annual Feast of Flowers. There is Casanova making love to a harlot while looking from the window at the nameless tortures inflicted on Damians. These are the visions that sicken me when I read the "poetical" translations from martyred Russian poets by some of my famous contemporaries. A tortured author and a deceived reader, this is the inevitable outcome of arty paraphrase. The only object and justification of translation is the conveying of the most exact information possible and this can be only achieved by a literal translation, with notes. (1973: 81)

4. single-dominant translation: usually the result of a poor and superficial analysis of the prototext, or of insufficient poetic competence, or of a low-profile publishing policy. One aspect of the original is found, the one most visible to the inexperienced reader, like rhyme for example. In translation, the rhyme pattern is reproduced. Due to the anisomorphism of natural codes, pursuing the rhyme means obligatorily discounting the sense. For the dominant's sake, all the rest is lost, relegating the role of subdominant to the sense, when a part of it can be preserved. This kind of translation, especially when the rhyme is preserved and the measure of the verse is even, is also called "singsong" because of the effect similar to counting-out rhymes.

5. translation with a hierarchy of dominant and subdominants: this is the method that, while seeking an equilibrium between the opposite extremes of translatability and untranslatability, takes for granted the impossibility to translate everything. It is a strategy deriving from Torop's total translation view. You first make a translation-oriented analysis of the prototext to identify the dominant elements in the source culture. Then such dominants are projected onto the

receiving culture, and one must foresee the understandable elements, those textually incomprehensible and the partially understandable ones. Based on the model reader, the publishing strategy, the type of publication and, often, the translator's taste, one decides which important elements of the prototext can become dominants of the metatext, and which elements can be rendered only metatextually (through a critical apparatus)

Then a critical apparatus is made in which the metatext reader is told all that and a metatextual rendering of the translation residue (e. g. explaining the meter of the prototext that is not possible to reproduce in the metatext, or what connotative meaning a given poetic form in the source culture has).

When drafting the translated text, absolute precedence is given to the main dominant; once rendered, the translator tries to make room for the other dominants too, according to the hierarchy set during analysis.

The most important aspect of such an approach is absolute transparency of the decisions made by the translator (often by the publisher too) as concerns translation strategy. A translation of poetry that doesn't make clear what its carefully analyzed blind spots are, runs the risk of presenting itself as a "complete", "absolute" translation or, as some insist in saying, "faithful" translation of the original, a situation in which the reader comes out of feeling cheated, teased and/or manipulated.

6. cultural transposition: it is the strategy of people thinking of those who believe themselves able to find the cultural homologue of the poetic forms from a culture to the other. Let us see how David Connolly expresses the notion:

the sonnet form does not signify for the contemporary North American reader what it did for Petrarch's contemporaries in fourteenth-century Italy. Using the same form for a translation in a different age and a different culture may therefore carry quite a different meaning and produce the opposite of a faithful rendering. One solution is to look for a cultural equivalent (such as the English iambic pentameter for French Alexandrines) or a temporal equivalent (modern free verse for classical verse forms of the past) (1998: 174).

Putting aside the presumption implicit in the choice of a supposed "equivalent", cultural or temporal that it might be, since it is evident that such a choice is highly disputable anyway, such a strategy has a very low consideration of its model reader. It implies a person who isn't open-minded enough to understand that a given form can have had a different meaning in another time or in another culture. This is what I have already written about rendering the reader responsible, and on esteem for the reader. With this kind of strategy one decides to underestimate her, to withdraw any responsibility she may have and, to top it all, to propose her a text that is very different from the original but that is presented as a "faithful translation".

7. poetic translation - author's translation: the translation is given a poet in the receiving culture. The result is often poetry, sometimes wonderful, sometimes better than the original. It is the best choice if one wants to produce

poetic texts inspired by the original in another language, and if the philological interest is the last of the subdominants.

Translation of poetry is the most difficult process of translation. Poetry abounds in the use of different figures of speech such as simile, metaphor, irony, paradox with phonological, syntactic and semantic patterns such as alliteration, assonance, rhyming pattern and morphological parallelism. The same type of figures of speech, though available in the TL, do not tally with that of the SL. So the translator faces the problem. Apart from the linguistic distinction, poetry has ideas, images, symbols which are non-linguistic in nature. The translator, therefore, has to take extreme care and caution while translating the poem.

Poems have different stanzaic patterns. If the general theory of translation as a faithful and equivalent copy of the SL text in the TL text is accepted, then perhaps, translation of poetry becomes almost impossible. How can one think of creating the stanza pattern of a Spenserian stanza in any Indian language? Similarly many stanza patterns existing in Marathi or Hindi do not have their counter part in English. Therefore, deviations, distortion and digression become, quite often, a feature of translating poetry. Bassnett cites the example of the translation of Petrarch's sonnet into English by Wyatt and Surrey. The same sonnet when translated into English by two English poets has two different levels of meaning and rhyme scheme.

To sum up, translating poetry is like a puzzle which the translator probably will fail to do full justice to any text. Broadly speaking, poetry, more than any other kind of literature, means different things to different people. So to what meaning the translator will stick to is a difficult choice. Again, in a poem there always arises a blend of form and meaning. Bradley says:

“[It] is the succession of experiences – sounds, images, thoughts, emotions – through which we pass when reading or listening impressionably and exerting our imaginations in the act of recreation. In such poetic experience ‘meaning’ and ‘form’ are not apprehended separately but operate together. There is a ‘resonant, meaning or a meaning of resonance, two expressions for one and the same thing. It is only in later reflection that the formal aspect of true poetry can, by a fiction, be detached from the aspect of meaning. We adopt this fiction for purposes of criticism... But the meaning in strictness cannot be expressed in any but its own words, nor can the words be changed without changing the meaning.” (Forster, Leonard, 23)

In fact, the form of poetry refers to the rhyme scheme, stanza pattern, meter and versification along with the use of other devices of alliteration, assonance etc. In the target language it is almost impossible to think of equivalence however gifted the translator might be. So Forster rightly remarks that, “The translation is a new product, that is to say that it is the result of re-creative process.” (Forster, 23)

Translation of the drama

The first thing to be said about the parameters of this variety of belles-lettres is that the language of plays is entirely dialogue. The author's speech is almost entirely excluded, except for the playwright's remarks and stage directions.

The degree to which the norms of ordinary colloquial language are converted into those of the language of plays, that is, the degree to which the spoken language is made literary varies at different periods in the development of drama and depends also on the idiosyncrasies of the playwright himself.

Any presentation of a play is an aesthetic procedure and the language of plays is of the type which is meant to be reproduced. Therefore even the language of a play approximates that of a real dialogue, it will none the less be stylized. Language of the drama is entirely dialogue. The author's speech is almost entirely excluded except for the playwright's remarks and stage directions. But the language of the characters is not the exact reproduction of the norms of colloquial language. Any variety of the belles-lettres style will use the norms of the literary language of the given period. The language of plays is always stylized, it strives to retain the modus of literary English.

In the typology of texts to be translated, the theatrical text is that presenting the biggest problems as far as plausibility of dialogues and playability of lines are concerned.

When speaking of translation for theater, we must distinguish translation for printed editions and translation for acting. Drama, especially the classics, are also read for themselves, and in such a case the translator can set the dominant not in the playability but in the philological care for the original text and the culture where it originated. Translation for theater becomes, in this case, an example of literary translation, where obviously direct speech is much more prevalent than indirect speech, and where, therefore, any preoccupation for the translation of dialogues is justifiable.

But when a translation is made for the dramatization of a work, the criteria for playability are fundamental. Here is what Pirandello wrote speaking of the playwright, and I think can be said of the drama translator:

But in order for the characters to jump alive and moving off the written pages, the playwright must find that word that is spoken action, the living word that moves, the immediate expression, natural to the action, the unique expression that cannot be but that one, that is proper to that given character in that given situation; words, expressions that cannot be invented, that arise when the author has truly identified with his creature to the point that he feels it like the creature feels, until he himself wants it like the creature itself wants itself (1908: 235).

In Luzi's opinion, the acid test of the stage is when it reveals the adequateness of a translation. The stage functions as amplifier not only for the good solutions, also for the unhappy ones, causing moments of embarrassment in the theater. Luzi considers such a concrete possibility of trial a fortune as compared to the problems of poetic translation. In it the translator's liberty is enormous, and there is not even a direct confrontation with the audience.

The stage reveals even that circumstantial dramaticity a text of real dramatic poetry hides to the reading in its recesses, both in the thoughtful extension and in the tentative flattening of the speech: it allows, in short, the translator to reach out and touch more than just an explicit action the barely visible filigree of inner and diffuse dramaturgy projecting concrete consequences onto the scene [...] The stage like a seismograph records the variations in the character's energy /1990: 98).

such a likeness to the seismograph can be extended in general to the translator's revision and her self-critical mind. Having an audience - potentially or in reality - who listens to the produced text emphasizes the weaknesses in one's work and allows greater critical lucidity.

In drama translation, the maximum of the translator's sensitivity is required for fresh and plausible dialogues. An implausible dialogue line uttered by a character in a given work has a negative impact on the actor's work, it disables his identification with the part and his playing it well.

An important part of the drama production contains dialect, slang, and jargon elements. Here the translator must decide in favor of a re-creation of such elements with dialects, slang, and jargon in the receiving culture.

The question of dialect is very hard. The affected use of dialect (like when a translator attributes a given dialect to a character) often creates an unwanted burlesque effect. But the greatest problem is that the viewer gets a false idea of the theatrical work, thinking perhaps that it isn't a translated work, since he recognizes a dialect of the receiving culture.

One way to solve this problem (or at least not to make it worse) consists in the use of supertitles. A work is played in the original language, and over the stage a luminous text is beamed above the action containing the translation of the spoken lines. It is a solution systematically used by some drama companies. For example, the Malyj Teatr of Saint Petersburg, directed by Dodin, tours throughout the world, performing in Russian with supertitles and, if such a medium fatigues the audience, certainly doesn't discourage them from following passionately the company's representations, that can last many hours and are often divided into two evenings.

Creative re-writing is also widespread, often commissioned to playwrights of the receiving culture. Here the prototext is used as an outline, a pattern on which freely build the metatext. Such a procedure is particularly used in cultures where the taste for entertainment prevails over the cultural curiosity for the different and the new. So, in comedy, in general, especially in non-classical contemporary comedy, considering the dominant of the metatext as pure entertainment to the detriment of recognizability of the cultural origins of a work, there are frequent complete reworkings, with a reconstruction of the cultural references, changed in order to have the target culture as its subject.

The model viewer of such operations has few pretences or cultural interests, goes to theater to laugh, therefore more for physical exercise than mental. Drama critiques, on the other hand, are sometimes so well adapted to their cultural milieu

that they do not realize they place odd demands on translators and adapters. Anderman quotes the case of a French critic:

When Pinter's *The Caretaker* was staged in translation in France, a French critic reacted negatively to Davies, the tramp, drinking tea. He would have preferred him to be drinking wine since in France 'tea is a drink taken mainly by genteel old ladies' (1998: 72).

This French critic has indeed little consideration for the spectators of his nation. He thinks they cannot understand that tea in a British drama has a definite sense in that context, and has the presumption of modifying the dramatic text of no less than the great Harold Pinter.

It is, however, valid to consider the time constrictions of audiences at the theater. If at home a reader has time to think over elements she does not understand and to seek help from reference works, at the theater she does not have that possibility. That means that, without necessarily thinking that the audience is ignorant, lazy or feeble-minded, it may be necessary to offer them the tools for understanding at least the greater part of what is played in the moment of use.

2. PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATING DRAMA

Translating drama poses the greatest difficulty for the translator. A drama is an articulate story enacted on the stage before an audience by a group of men and women supported by action or gesticulation. Besides, a drama is primarily intended to be performed under the planning and instruction of a director helped by the producer. The written words in the form of the dialogue are only a part of the drama. Therefore, the translator feels as if inside the maze trying to find a way out. A drama is a composite art. The methods of translating poetry or prose cannot be successfully applied to the translation of drama. Therefore, a new methodology for translating drama has to be evolved.

In a drama the sense or meaning does not solely depend on the linguistic construct i.e. the words. The stage, setting, the characters' manner of speaking the dialogue and their dress, the director's instruction to portray the feeling through physical movements known as acting and finally, the nature and quality of the audience constitute the total meaning or sense of the drama. Since the drama is a performing art, all the aspects of the drama need to be transformed from the SL to the TL. Clifford E. Landers sums up the problem as follows:

In translating drama the translator has unseen collaborators: the actors and the director. Both can make explicit elements that on the printed page might forever remain cryptic. But in order for meaning to journey from paper to spoken word and gesture, the translator must provide the extra textual clues through explanatory notes. As in any other field of literary translation, culture has a leading role. (Landers, 105)

So as a sort of guidance to the translator of drama, David Johnson writes:

[T]he translator as dramaturge must provide, in the sense of making explicit, in the target language text (and, in an ideal world, subsequently through active participation in rehearsal) an array of information which is encoded in the culture-

specific frame of reference or the **paraverbal** elements of the original, so that the final process of reconstitution can take place on stage in as complete a way as possible. (Landers, 105)

Above all these the drama, as it is meant to be performed, must have some topical references in order to make it intelligible to the audience. The audience has no time to pause and ponder over the words of the dialogue to understand its meaning. All the plays of Ibsen or Shaw or Galsworthy abound in topical references. If the translator chooses to translate such a play, how is he to manage those references? Should they be changed to incidents happening in the 21st century? If not, the meaning of the drama may remain obscure.

The drama, like the novel and poetry is culture specific. Any Greek or Latin drama has at its background the culture of that language speaking people. If such a drama in the SL has reference to any cultural or mythical points of which the TL language speakers are not conversant with it, the translated drama may fail to make any impact on them.

To overcome these difficulties poses a serious problem which is very difficult to surmount on the part of the translator. So Bassnett writes:

A central consideration of the theatre translator must therefore be the performance aspect of the text and its relationship with an audience, and this seems to me not only to justify modifications...of the original text, but to suggest the translator must take into account the function of the text as an element for and of performance. (Bassnett, 132)

1. The Notion of Performability/Speakability in Drama Translation

Drama translation scholars have been interested in the specific characteristics of drama which distinguish this genre from the other literary genres and are thus expected to have an incidence on its translation. Prominent amongst such characteristics are performability and speakability. These two notions, often regarded as fundamental to and characteristic of drama, and which represent the gestic/action and oral/acoustic dimensions of the drama/theatre text, have animated discussion amongst drama translation scholars over the past three decades and indeed continue to sustain active debate amongst them.

As Bassnett has pointed out, in the twentieth century, the notion of a gestural dimension that is seen as inherent in the language of a theatre text has become an issue of considerable importance. And this is evident from the fact that many scholars and theoreticians (cf. Wellwarth 1981, Ubersfeld 1978, Elam 1980, Helbo 1987, Bassnett 1991, Moravkova 1993, Aaltonen 2000, Upton 2000) have successively, over the years, attempted to define the nature of the relationship between the verbal text on the page and the gestic dimension somehow embedded in the text waiting to be realized in performance.

Susan Bassnett stands out as one of the scholars who has consistently given this aspect in-depth and critical thought (cf. Bassnett 1980, 1991, 1998). The first

issue raised by Bassnett with respect to the notion of performability is that of its definition. In effect, she asserts:

The term 'performability' is frequently used to describe the undescribable, the supposedly existent concealed gestic text within the written. [...] It has never been clearly defined, and indeed does not exist in most languages other than English. Attempts to define the 'performability' inherent in a text never go further than generalized discussion about the need for fluent speech rhythms in the target text. What this amounts to in practice is that each translator decides on an entirely ad hoc basis what constitutes a speakable text for performers. There is no sound theoretical base for arguing that 'performability' can or does exist (Bassnett 1991: 102)

Several years later, still rejecting the term performability altogether, she declares, "it seems to me a term that has no credibility, because it is resistant to any form of definition" (Bassnett 1998: 95). In stating that in practice what this amounts to is that each translator acts on an entirely ad hoc basis, she does not seem to sufficiently take into consideration the two important factors of general context and situational context surrounding any dramatic text or its translation. Interestingly, as she herself points out (cf. Bassnett 1991: 109), theatre anthropology has established the fact that all forms of theatre vary according to cultural conventions and what needs to be done in each case is to investigate and determine the elements that constitute performance in different cultures. To corroborate this, it can even be argued and asserted further here that in addition to investigating and determining the elements that constitute performance in different cultures, such elements should also be specifically determined for each of the drama types. It is Bassnett's very assertive and categorical position with respect to the notion of performability as highlighted in the above quotations that has probably prodded and led other scholars to reflect in depth on the notion. Espasa (2000: 49-61) for instance, and in contrast to Bassnett, examines and analyzes the notion of performability from textual, theatrical and ideological perspectives. In an attempt to clearly circumscribe the notion which Bassnett considers to be "resistant to any form of definition", she starts by synthesizing the terminology related to it. She thus asserts that, "from a textual point of view, performability is often equated with 'speakability' or 'breathability', i.e. the ability to produce fluid texts which performers may utter without difficulty" (Espasa 2000: 49). She also points out that performability is synonymous to and interchangeable with theatricality, playability, actability and theatre specificity (cf. Espasa 2000: 49-50). Having related all these terms to the notion of performability, she asserts that performability is firstly conditioned by textual and theatrical practices, and that the following definition of theatricality by Pavis is perfectly applicable to performability:

Theatricality does not manifest itself [...] as a quality or an essence which is inherent to a text or a situation, but as a pragmatic use of the scenic instrument, so that the components of the performance manifest and fragment the linearity of the text and of the word (Pavis 1983, in Espasa 2000: 52)

There is no doubt that the above view of theatricality or performability, contrary to Bassnett's view on the same notion, opens up the debate on this issue. In effect, instead of viewing performability as the "gestic dimension embedded in the text, waiting to be realized in performance" (Bassnett 1991: 99), Pavis and Espasa consider that it is not a quality or an essence inherent to the text but rather a pragmatic use of the scenic instrument. According to this "pragmatic use of the scenic instrument", one cannot therefore talk about an abstract, universal notion of performability and this is bound to vary depending on the ideology and style of presentation of the company or the cultural milieu. It can thus be said that Bassnett's (1991: 102) preoccupation with the fact that "if a set of criteria ever could be established to determine the 'performability' of a theatre text, then those criteria would constantly vary, from culture to culture, from period to period and from text type to text type" need not be regarded as negative but could rather be considered a characteristic of drama and a constraint manifested by this genre which should be taken into consideration in its treatment by the drama translator.

Since drama is essentially rooted in a given culture, it could further be argued and asserted that universal applicability of a set of criteria established to determine performability need not to be the main issue. Instead the focus could be on the predictability of such established criteria for a given culture, period or drama type. In other words, instead of seeking to determine universals of performability in all drama/theatre texts indistinctly, the researcher could attain more pertinent findings whose syntheses and applicability could be more readily and fruitfully related to the culture, period and drama type in question. Obviously, such a case by case approach as advocated here seems to confirm and justify the prevailing situation which Bassnett (1991: 105) rather highlights with disapproval whereby "most of the existing literature on theatre translation consists of case studies of individual translations and translators, translators' prefaces [...]".

Espasa (2000: 49-56) also further opens up perspectives on performability by asserting that performability involves negotiation and by placing theatre ideology and power negotiation at the heart of performability. For her, performability is thus shaped by consideration of status and the 'crucial' question from this perspective then becomes who has power in a theatre company to decide what is performable and what is ruled out as unperformable. However, analyses of the distinct roles of the drama translator and the director as well as the drama communication chain seems to suggest that the above question is not that 'crucial' or does not even arise as it is evident that such power naturally and logically devolves upon the director and the company, and not the translator except the latter, after effecting the translation, were to go on to direct or perform the play himself.

The issue of the performability and speakability of a drama text may not be simply discarded as advocated by Bassnett (1991, 1998). The ultimate aim of re-writing a play is usually to see it performed even though it is not always that a play script which is even published finds its way on stage for a number of reasons". In the same vein, Makon (1988: 262) asserts that:

In this regard, Totzeva (1999: 81) has rightly described the play as “a text conceived for possible theatrical performance” and she too has examined the issue of performability or theatrical potential of the dramatic text from a semiotic perspective stating that “in recent semiotic approaches, theoreticians refer to theatricality as a relation between dramatic text and performance”. Theatrical potential is understood to mean the semiotic relation between the verbal and nonverbal signs and structures of the performance. She goes on to assert that: in a dramatic text this semiotic relation is already to some extent present as a concept through given theatrical codes and norms, although the performance does not need to follow it. [...] Theatrical potential (TP) can be seen as the capacity of a dramatic text to generate and involve different theatrical signs in a meaningful way when it is staged. [...]. The problem for translation as an interlingual transformation of the dramatic text is therefore how to create structures in the target language which can provide and evoke an integration of nonverbal theatrical signs in a performance (Totzeva 1999: 81-82)

The form of the play itself thus demands dramaturgical capacity to work in several dimensions at once, incorporating visual, gestural, aural and linguistic signifiers into the text. As Brater (1994) points out in his book *The Drama in the Text*, much of the material in drama often makes more sense when spoken and heard than when simply read and silently digested. It can thus be argued that when a play is written it contains the characteristics/qualities of performability and speakability which the drama translator equally strives to identify and to preserve in the translation, even when such characteristics are subsequently subjected to various manipulations by the other persons intervening downstream in the drama production chain. In effect, it is well known that the original drama text itself as well as its translation is also affected by interpretation on the part of the director, actors and staging devices which influence the mood and atmosphere of the production, such as stage type, pace/movement, light/colour, costume, mask/make-up, music, etc. In this regard, Bassnett (1998: 101) has also pointed out that there is a whole range of different ways of reading the drama text: the director's reading which may involve a process of decision making and the constraints and possibilities offered by the text would be foregrounded in his/her interpretation of it; the actor's reading which will focus on a specific role so that one role is highlighted while other roles are perceived as secondary or instrumental; the designer's reading which will involve a visualization of spatial and physical dimensions that the text may open up; the dramaturgical reading and readings by any other individual or group involved in the production process; the rehearsal reading which is subsequent to initial readings and will involve an aural, performance element through the use of paralinguistic signs such as tone, inflexion, pitch, register, etc. It can thus be posited that by paying particular attention to and by examining closely how these different stages of the drama production chain affect the various readings and by integrating these reading strategies into his/her own reading and translation strategies, the drama translator will offer the target language director(s) and actors (who in effect constitute the first consumers of the translation) a translated version of the play which will, to a

large extent, meet their performability expectations. It is worth noting here that, in effect, the target language directors, actors and all the other persons of the drama communication chain constitute the first consumers of the translation before it gets to the audience watching it on stage.

On yet another level, it can also be asserted that the drama translator's strategies and translational behaviour should equally be informed by the prevailing theatrical practices in the target culture given that these practices often differ from one culture to another. Theatrical practices are identified by certain key features. First, there is the introduction by directors of certain characters who often feature regularly and prominently in their performances. For instance, there is the narrator/commentator whose role is to render the play in a lively manner and to constantly sustain the attention of the audience. In most plays this character constitutes the heart of the action. He evolves both on the stage and in the hall amongst the audience. He thus serves as a physical bridge between the imaginary world of the actors and the real world of the audience thereby eliminating the barrier that separates the two distinct spaces traditionally reserved for actors and the audience in Western theatres (cf. Doho, 1988: 70-1).

From a textual point of view or from that of staging, dramatists or directors always distinguish this character from the others by making use of certain signifiers. In the classical Western set-up the theatre is composed of two distinct areas: the stage and the hall. The hall is for the audience, for those watching the play, while the stage is the space for the actors where the micro universe of the play is reconstituted. There is usually a barrier that separates the two spaces. However, while this can be generally considered to be the situation, it should be noted that in some more innovative Western theatre such barriers have been broken down. Sometimes dramatists and directors therefore strive to eliminate the communication gap between actors and the audience such that the latter not only watches and listens but also actively participates in the drama event.

The unity of place of action is also violated in drama and theatrical performances, particularly as in their dramatic compositions or performances most playwrights or directors tend to be fluid in the use of space and time and the plays when performed may sometimes go on for hours on end. In this connection, Mbassi (1988: 109) has pointed out that:

It is therefore necessary and interesting to carry out a separate and detailed corpus-based macro- and micro-textual comparative and contrastive study to determine the incidence on the message and aesthetics of the Western plays as a result of their appropriation and adaptation.

At a more practical and pragmatic level, therefore, it may be argued and posited that instead of continuing to spill much ink on the much debated issue of the performability and speakability of translated drama, drama translators and scholars could achieve more useful and concrete results by examining closely and analyzing what directors and performers in each culture/region actually do to the text in order to make it performable or speakable and for it to be effectively performed in conformity with the norms and conventions of the given culture/region. From this perspective, they could then be in a better position to

determine and describe for a given drama type within a given culture/region the criteria that render the drama text performable. Corresponding guiding principles and strategies could then be outlined for the drama translator based on such established criteria.

3. Translation of emotive prose

The substyle of emotive prose has the same common features as has for the belles-lettres style in general; but all these features are correlated differently in emotive prose. The imagery is not so rich as it is in poetry; the percentage of words with contextual meanings is not so high as in poetry; the idiosyncrasy of the author is not so clearly discernible. It is a combination of the literary variant of the language, both in words and syntax, with the colloquial variant. It is more exact to define it as a combination of the spoken and written varieties of the language, inasmuch as there are always 2 forms of communication present – monologue (the writer's speech) and dialogue (the speech of the characters). Emotive prose shares the same common features, but these features are correlated differently than in poetry. The imagery is not so rich as in poetry; the percentage of words with contextual meaning is not so high. Emotive prose features the combination of the literary variant of the language, both in words and in syntax, with the colloquial variant. But the colloquial language in the belles-lettres style is not a simple reproduction of the natural speech, it has undergone changes introduced by the writer and has been made "literature-like". In emotive prose there are always two forms of communication present - monologue (the writer's speech) and dialogue (the speech of the characters). Emotive prose allows the use of elements from other styles as well. But all these styles undergo a kind of transformation under the influence of emotive prose. Passages written in other styles may be viewed only as interpolations and not as constituents of the style.

The language of the writer conforms or is expected to conform to the literary norms of the given period in the development of the English literary language.

Emotive prose allows the use of elements from other styles as well. Thus we find elements of the newspaper style, the official style, the style of scientific prose.

Present-day emotive prose is to a large extent characterized by the breaking-up of traditional syntactical designs of the preceding periods.

A translated text, whether prose or poetry or non-fiction, is judged acceptable by most publishers, reviewers and readers when it reads fluently, when the absence of any linguistic or stylistic peculiarities makes it seem transparent, giving the appearance that it reflects the foreign writer's personality or intention or the essential meaning the foreign text_ the appearance, in other words, that the translation is not in fact a translation, but the original. Venuti discussed invisibility hand in hand with two types of translating strategies:

1. Domestication
2. Foreignisation

He advocated *foreignizing* (as against *domesticating*) translation at all costs. He considered domestication as dominating Anglo-American (T.L) translation culture. Just as the post-colonialists were alert to the cultural effects of the differential in power relation between colony and ex-colony, so Venuti bemoaned the phenomenon of domestication since it involves reduction of the foreign text to the target language cultural values. This entails translating in a transparent, fluent, invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the T.T. Venuti believed that a translator should leave the reader in peace, as much as possible, and he should move the author toward him.

Foreignization, on the other hand, entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which excluded by dominant cultural values in target language. Venuti considers the foreignizing method to be an ethno deviant pressure on target language cultural values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad. According to him it is highly desirable in an effort to restrain the ethnocentric violence translation. The foreignizing method of translating, a strategy Venuti also termed *resistancy*, is a non-fluent or estranging translation style designed to make visible the persistence of translator by highlighting the foreign identity of S.T and protecting it from the ideological dominance of the target culture.

Another point is that there are, especially in literary translation, instances in which the source text includes features such as the ones Venuti advocates in *The Translator's Invisibility. A History of Translation* (1995) –

"discursive variations, experimenting with archaism, slang, literary allusion and convention" (Venuti, 1995: 310).

In such cases perhaps the convention of "faithful" or "invisible" translation Venuti so despises would better convey the features that prompted their translations in the first place. What is more, it is at least potentially paradoxical that the translator should be "visible" and employ "foreignizing" features at the same time, since foreignizing features, at least in the Schleiermacher tradition, were primarily introduced into the target text from the source text, not by the translator's invention.

Bassnett states that "the shift of emphasis from original to translation is reflected in discussions on the visibility of the translator. Lawrence Venuti calls for a translator-centered translation, insisting that the translator should inscribe him/herself visibly into the text". Bassnett also recanted her previous stance that comparative literature is a dying subject that will slowly be replaced by translation studies.

Translation Studies, then, has moved beyond the old distinctions that sought to devalue the study and practice of translation by the use of such terminological distinctions as 'scientific v. creative'. All texts, he claims, being part of a literary system descended from and related to other systems, are 'translations of translation of translations':

"Every text is unique and, at the same time, it is the translation of another text. No text is entirely original because language itself, in its essence, is already a translation: firstly, of the non-verbal world and secondly, since every sign and

every phrase is the translation of another sign and another phrase. However, this argument can be turned around without losing any of its validity: all texts are original because every translation is distinctive. Every translation, up to a certain point, is an invention and as such it constitutes a unique text" (cited in Susan Bassnett, 1980: 38).

Walter Benjamin's significant essay "The Task of the Translator became very important for the deconstructionist theory because it so strongly questions the idea of an essential origin. A translation for Benjamin does not indicate an original text, it has nothing to do with communication, its purpose is not to carry meaning, etc. He illustrates the relationship between the supposed original and translation by using the symbol of a tangent: translation is like a straight line or curve, which touches the circle (i.e. the original) in one single point only to follow its own way thereafter.



Neither the original nor the translation, neither the language of the original nor the language of the translation are permanent and lifelong classes. They do not have essential quality and are constantly transformed in space

and time. I want to further analyse the above stated symbol of tangent; at the very beginning, the translator keeps both the *Source Language* (S.L) and *Target Language* (T.L) in mind and tries to translate each and every word carefully. But, it, sometimes, becomes extremely difficult for a translator to decode the whole textbook literally; consequently, he takes the help of his own view and attempts to translate accordingly. Notably, I have, with the development of this article, presented certain examples related to this fact.

Eugene Nida says that defining a dynamic equivalent translation is to describe it as "the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message". This definition contains three essential terms, namely

- (1) *equivalent*, which refers to the source-language message;
- (2) *natural*, which refers to the receptor language and
- (3) *closest*, which "binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation".

Natural refers to three areas of the communication process: a natural description should fit the whole receptor language and culture, the context of the specific message, and the receptor-language audience. Therefore, the translation should bear no clear trace of a foreign origin. A diagram of the communicative relationship in the process of translation shows that the translator is both receiver and emitter, the end and the beginning of two separate but linked chains of communication:

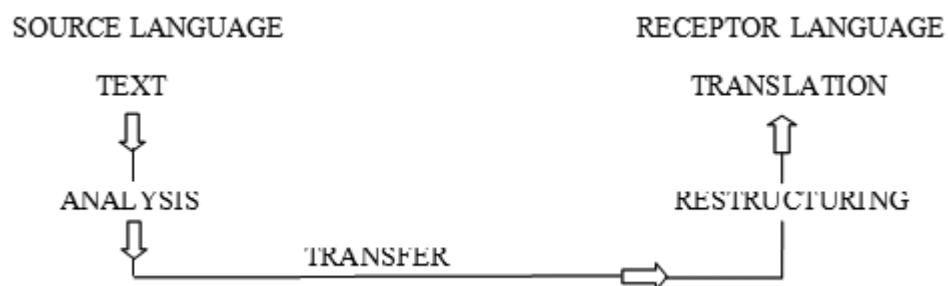
Author – Text – Receiver - = Translator – Text - Receiver

Translation is the performative nature of cultural communication. The translation is language in actu (enunciation, positionality) rather than language in situ (*enonce*, or propositionality) and the sign of translation continually tells, or 'tolls' the different times and spaces between cultural authority and its performative practices.

In his article, "On Linguistic Aspects of Translation", Roman Jakobson goes on immediately to point to the central problem in all types: that while messages may serve as adequate interpretations of code units or messages, there is ordinarily no full equivalence through translation. Because complete equivalence (in sense of synonymy or sameness) cannot take place in any of his categories, Jakobson declares that all poetic art is, therefore, technically untranslatable. Only creative transposition is possible: either intralingual transposition - from one poetic shape into another, or interlingual transposition - from one language into another, or finally intersemiotic transposition - from one system of signs into another, e.g. from verbal art into music, dance, cinema or painting. What Jakobson is saying here is taken up again by Georges Mounin, the French theorist who

"perceives translation as a series of operations of which the starting point and the end product are 'significations' and the function within a given culture" (cited in Susan Bassnett, 1980: 15).

Nida says that no translation that attempts to bridge a wide cultural gap can hope to eliminate all traces of the foreign setting. He reckons that it is inevitable that when source and receptor languages represent very different cultures there should be many basic themes and accounts which cannot be 'naturalized' by the process of translating. A natural translation must also be in accordance with the context of the specific message, which could include grammatical and lexical elements but also detailed matters such as intonation and sentence rhythm. Naturalness of expression in the receptor is, according to Nida, basically a problem of co-suitability. Therefore, the translator operates criteria that transcend the purely linguistic, and a process of decoding and recoding takes place. Nida's model of the translation process illustrates the stages involved:



"Semiotic transformations (Ts) are the replacements of the signs encoding a message by signs of another code, preserving (so far as possible in the face of entropy) invariant information with respect to a given system of reference" (cited in Susan Bassnett, 1980:18).

Correspondingly, Edward Sapir claims that 'language is a guide to social reality' and that human beings are at the mercy of the language that has become the medium of expression for their society. Experience, he asserts, is largely determined by the language habits of the community, and each separate structure represents a separate reality. He further mentions in his text, Culture, Language and Personality (1956):

"No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached" (cited in Susan Bassnett, 1980: 13).

Sapir's thesis, endorsed later by Benjamin Lee Whorf, is related to the more recent view advanced by the Soviet semiotician, Yuri Lotman that language is a modelling system. Lotman describes literature and art in general as secondary modelling systems, as an indication of the fact that they are derived from the primary modelling system of language, and declares as firmly as Sapir or Whorf that no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its centre, the structure of natural language. Then, language is the heart within the body of culture, and it is the interaction between the two that the surgeon, operating on the heart, cannot neglect the body that surrounds it, so the translator treats the text in isolation from the culture at his peril.

According to Nico Wiersema, cultures are getting closer and closer and this is something that he believed translators need to take into account. In the end, it all depends on what the translator, or more often, the publisher wants to achieve with a certain translation. In his opinion, by entering SL cultural elements:

1. the text will be read more fluently (no stops),
2. the text remains more exotic, more foreign,
3. the translator is closer to the source culture and the reader of the target texts gets a more genuine image of the source culture.

Every literary unit from the individual sentence to the whole order of words can be seen in relation to the concept of system. In particular, we can look at individual works, literary genres, and the whole of literature as related systems, and at literature as a system within the larger system of 'human culture'. The failure of many translators to understand that a literary text is made up of a complex set of systems existing in a dialectical relationship with other sets outside its boundaries has often led them to focus on particular aspects of a text at the expense of others. It seems to be easier for the (careless) prose translator to consider *content as separable* from form.

If the text describes a situation which has elements peculiar to the natural environment, institutions and culture of its language area, there is an inevitable loss of meaning, since the transference to the translator's language can only be approximate. Nevertheless, we must value the translator's work precisely because the mediator always acts as a get-between. However, it is usually thought that something constantly gets lost in translation. Conversely, some people stick, firmly, to the concept that something can also be obtained. Certainly, these gains are traces of a transcultural space that can merely be traced, repeated and adjusted in the continuing *modus operandi* of cross-cultural communication. As Susan Bassnett mentions in her magnum opus, *Translation Studies* (1980):

"Once the principle is accepted that sameness cannot exist between two languages, it becomes possible to approach the question of loss and gain in the translation process. It is again an indication of the low status of translation that

so much time should have been spent on discussing what is lost in the transfer of a text from S.L to T.L whilst ignoring what can also be gained, for the translator can at times enrich or clarify the S.L text as a direct result of the translation process. Moreover, what is often seen as 'lost' from the S.L context may be replaced in the T.L context" (Bassnett, 1980: 30).

My remarks and my reflections on this topic arise from a very simple fact: translators, beside dealing with the difficulties inherent to translation of prose, must consider the aesthetic aspects of the text, its beauty and style, as well as its marks (lexical, grammatical, or phonological), keeping in mind that one language's stylistic marks can be drastically different from another's. The important idea is that the quality of the translation be the same in both languages while also maintaining the integrity of the contents at the same time. However, translation brings cultures closer; in each translation, there will be a certain distortion between cultures. The translator will have to defend the choices he/she makes, but there is currently an option for including more foreign words in certain prose. Therefore, it is now possible to keep S.L elements in target texts. As Lahiri rightly says,

CONCLUSION

From the studies of theorists of translation it apparently emerges that translation of a text from SL to TL is a forbidden act. The translator can never produce an exact replica of a text in one language to another language. Since all literary work, be it a poem or a prose fiction or a drama is a unique work of art and it cannot therefore have an exact counter- part. From this, it does not follow that translation is an unproductive activity. Besides, any literary text apart from its surface meaning has most often a deeper suggestive meaning which may be lost in translation. In such cases, the translator ought to fall back on any single method of translation or may take help of other methodologies like word-to-word, sense-to-sense, adaptation or re-creative methodology. In translation of literary works, near perfection or real perfection is expected. As languages differ no two literary works in two languages can be exactly alike in all respects. A literary work can be looked at from many points of view, each of which might require a different sort of translation.

The translation theorists have formulated the methodology of translation taking into account literary translation i.e. the translation of literary texts. But apart from literary text, a host of other texts such as scientific treatises, advertisement stunts, manuals, legal and commercial documents etc need translation for international understanding. Without translation, therefore, man will become like a frog inside the well with limited knowledge of the world where expansion of human knowledge has no limit. So in spite of the limitations of translation as the theorists point out, widening of the horizon of human knowledge has become the primary function of translation, both literary and otherwise.

Hillaire Belloc presented six general rules for the translator of prose texts Taylorian lecture, *On Translation* in 1931:

1. The translator should not *plod on*, word by word or sentence by sentence, but should always *block out* which means that he should consider the work as an integral unit and translate in sections.

2. The translator should render *idiom by idiom* ‘and idioms of their nature demand translation into another form from that of the original.

3. The translator must render ‘intention by intention’, bearing in mind that ‘the intention of a phrase in one language may be less emphatic than the form of the phrase, or it may be more emphatic’. By ‘intention’, Belloc seems to be talking about the weight a given expression may have in a particular context in the S.L that would be disproportionate if translated literally into the T.L.

4. Belloc warns against *les faux amis*, those words or structures that may appear to correspond in both S.L and T.L but actually do not e.g. *demander* - *to ask*, translated wrongly as *to demand*.

5. The translator is advised to ‘transmute boldly’ and Belloc suggests that essence to translating is ‘the resurrection of an alien thing in a native body’.

6. The translator should never embellish.

Seminar 5-6 Functional Styles. Translation of the Drama and Poetry Plan

3. The notion of the Functional Style.

4. Peculiarities of Different Functional Styles.

5. Translation of the Drama

6. Translation of the Poetry

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.

2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.

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4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

1. Read the text.
2. Translate the text.
3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Learning-centred classrooms and schools and colleges

Fact or fiction? Will yours be a learning-centred classroom?

For some people, the idea of a learning-centred classroom is far-fetched, and given the trends of recent decades in UK classrooms (more whole-class teaching, more copying from the board), that may be understandable. But such classrooms do exist here and now in the UK.



For others, the idea of a learning-centred classroom is not an attractive proposition, because they view it as an extreme scenario ('pupils doing what they want') and this triggers their fears of 'losing control' which are based on old conceptions of the teacher's role.

Running a learning-centred classroom does not mean throwing everything out: it means shifting some of the focus from teaching to learning: it means addressing the same curriculum, but with a focus on learners and learning; it means giving attention to how the pupils are covering' the content, rather than the teacher. And it means helping pupils learn about their learning and thus be better prepared for the future.

Teachers who run learning-enriched classrooms have made a shift from the dominant model instruction. They have resolved the tensions of the classroom in a new way, and have often made changes in the:

- balance of power - it has become more shared
- function of content - there is more focus on understanding
- role of the teacher - is more of an orchestrator
- responsibility for learning - is more with the pupils
- purpose and process of evaluation - is more to improve the classroom.

Teachers who operate learning-centred classrooms are those who know that things can be better

It would be wrong to overstate these changes, to the point of implying that they cannot happen in the current climate in the UK. Teachers sometimes say 'You couldn't do that - I have to prepare for the SATs, and in so doing they revert to teacher-centred 'coverage' and 'delivery'.

But learning-centred classrooms get better results, so we have to challenge the idea that the tests make us behave this way. Performance testing on its own does not create teacher-centred classrooms. Add the extra ingredient of judgement and fear, and this shifts the responsibility for learning - it is this ingredient which leads teachers to act in a more controlling way. In a context of pressure and compliance, this leads to a narrowed teacher repertoire and to teachers being described as 'risk-averse'.

Teachers who operate learning-centred classrooms are those who know that things can be better, and are prepared to act according to their principles rather than according to their fears. They take what might seem to others to be risks, knowing that in education the biggest risk is not to take one!

Recognising that running a learning-centred classroom is a shift of emphasis and role, it is still possible to outline some of the practices. If we view learning as an individual making sense, they could include:

- an explicit focus on learning, for example in goals and products
- tasks framed in cognitive terms ('classify', 'analyse', predict')
- encouraging learners to plan and reflect before proceeding
- an explicit model of learning, for example 'Do-Review-Learn-Apply'
- learners generating their own questions and then attempting to answer them
- learners being asked to make sense (to themselves and to others) of what they meet
- promoting dialogue and collaboration
- reviewing learning, as opposed to performance
- a building-up of narrative about learning.

If we view learning as creating knowledge through doing things with others, practices could be:

- creating action together on shared tasks
- developing a classroom community goal, such as improving knowledge
- getting to know community members and the story each brings
- eliciting the questions brought to the theme
- jigsaw tasks which first separate and then re-combine a larger domain of study
- reciprocal teaching, class members teaching each other
- developing dialogue, to exchange ideas and understand others' thinking
- learning about learning and how the community best creates knowledge
- creating group goals for assessment
- building community governance, classroom reviews
- focusing on pro-social behaviour, development of trust, helping each other to learn.

Learning-centred schools and colleges share certain characteristics: staff relations are more collaborative, staff discussions often focus on learning, and

pupil performance is higher. In current times such schools and colleges are fiercely independent: they are clear about their purposes and stick to them.

They need to be strategic in the environment which has been created for schools and colleges, for example in having plenty of data available to justify their decisions to those who would challenge them.

Even through a device which was not designed for this purpose - the Ofsted framework for inspection - learning-enriched schools and colleges stand out. In one primary school the word 'learn' was used 23 times in its inspection report, which concluded that in the under-privileged school, 'Pupils are highly motivated, independent learners'.

Learning-enriched schools and colleges are not compliant places: the variety of learners and learning is welcomed and teaching has not been made routine. Indeed in learning-enriched schools and colleges when teachers are asked, 'Do you ever have to break the rules in order to do what's best for pupils?' The great majority say 'Yes'. In many cases such schools and colleges are the ones who have gone beyond the routine prescriptions they are offered, and do so on the basis of their own evidence.

2. Read and translate samples of different functional styles

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Address : B -21, Bhagwati Garden, Uttam Nagar, Near Dawarka More Metro Station Delhi, Delhi - 110 05539, INDIA 

Phone : 0984318622026 **Fax :** Not Available **Mob. :** 0931332088412

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merican Dream Is Dead—If You Are In The 99%

Author: A Mohit

Published: January 21, 2013 at 10:31 am

Next to the headline *Goldman Raises CEO's Stock Bonus 90% to \$13.3 Million* was another, *Ranks of working poor increasing*—the sad part is most do not see correlation between them.

Goldman CEO Lloyd C. Blankfein's stock bonus will enable him to now top JPMorgan Chase's top honcho Jamie Dimon. Oh poor Jamie!

On the other hand despite the Obama administrations touting of continued job creations for 27 consecutive months, a third of the nation's working families earning is so low that they continually juggle to meet their daily necessities.



A report released on last Tuesday by the Working Poor Families Project, released, "Although many people are returning to work, they are often taking jobs with lower wages and less job security, compared with the middle class jobs they held before the downturn."

The report mentioned that “more than 70 percent of low-income families and half of all poor families were working by 2011. The problem is they did not earn enough to cover their basic living expenses.”

A solid 32 percent of working family earnings placed them below double the poverty threshold of \$45,622, a rise from 28 percent in 2007. The percentage of children rose from 33 percent in 2007 to 37 percent in 2011, as part of working poor families.

Why is this happening?

The report says, “The growth in the ranks of the working poor coincides with continued growth in income inequality. Many of the occupations experiencing the fastest job growth during the recovery also pay poorly. Among them are retail jobs, food preparation, clerical work and customer assistance.” While, “many jobs that do not require much in the way of educational credentials but pay relatively well have lagged in the recovery. They include carpenters, painters, real estate brokers and insurance professionals.”



Team UniSA-Australia Supporters' Club

Welcome to our Supporters' Club. We're glad to have you on board to support one of the longest participating teams in the Santos Tour Down Under (STDU).

Team UniSA first entered the Tour in 2001 and we have been flying the flag for young Australian cycling talent ever since.

In 2006, the race classification was elevated to Hors Categorie and Team UniSA became the official Australian national team in the event. In 2008 the STDU joined the prestigious UCI ProTour; the first event outside cycling's traditional home of Europe to do so and Team UniSA-Australia was still in the thick of things.

The team has a history of determination, passion for the win and a record to prove it. It is always home to new talent in Australian cycling and the riders you follow here will often go on to make it big in Europe and around the world as they join the professional circuit.

So join us in flying the flag for Australian cycling. We will keep you up-to-date with our riders at every stage of the Santos Tour Down Under making you a part of a band of enthusiastic supporters both online and trackside. On the site you can access race reports, inside information on the race routes from Supporters' Club Captain, Olympian and five times Tour de France contestant, Patrick Jonker and news about our Tour competitions and events.

Rep. Mitt Romney's First Ad of 2012 Campaign a Lie

Author: Weston McCready

Published: November 30, 2011 at 5:56 pm

In a bold move, Republican Presidential hopeful Mitt Romney's campaign has released its very first political ad of the 2012 Presidential race and it is a lie. Regardless of what party you support, there is no denying the deception in this message.

The ad in question, which was being shown in New Hampshire last week, used a partial quote of then Senator Barack Obama from an October 2008 speech. The ad uses this portion of the quote, "If we keep talking about the economy, we're going to lose," we can hear now President Obama say. When in fact, after digging, with very little difficulty you can find that the actual full context of the quote was, "Senator McCain's campaign actually said, and I quote, if we keep talking about the economy, we're going to lose."

We have seen ads from parties on both sides which have skewed the truth or taken quotes out of context to serve their message. But never has an ad gone so far to flat out lie to the public. This ad is a blatant deception of the truth to the public. Whether you are a Republican, a Democrat or an Independent, this evolution of political advertising should stop here.



Candidate Romney has defended this ad saying "There was no hidden effort on the part of our campaign. It was instead to point out that what's sauce for the goose is now sauce for the gander." At least he was honest. There was obviously no hidden effort at deception as it took almost no time at all to look up the true context of the quote. Unfortunately it is not as simple to discover who in the campaign was responsible for the message in this ad.

The person responsible for this message should be held accountable. While there are many who will call this article a leftist strategy, I only ask you to watch the ad and then look up the quote for yourself and make your own determination. For too many years, these "swift-boating" tactics have been gaining in popularity while trying to find the true message of any campaign has been more difficult to find due to constant back and forth jabs at each other.

Newspaper Samples of Engagement Announcements

Josephine Bloggs of Vacluse and Jonathan Dough of Darling Point wish to announce their engagement to all their relations and friends.

Mrs Martha Robinson announces the engagement of her niece, Miss Josephine Broden to Mr Ian Walker. Miss Broden is the daughter of the late Margaret and Andrew Broden. Brisbane, QLD.

3. Compare the original and the translation of the episode from «Hamlet» By W. Shakespeare.

King.
Though yet of Hamlet our dear brother's death
The memory be green, and that it us befitted
To bear our hearts in grief, and our whole kingdom
To be contracted in one brow of woe,
Yet so far hath discretion fought with nature
That we with wisest sorrow think on him
Together with remembrance of ourselves.
Therefore our sometime sister, now our queen,
Th' imperial jointress to this warlike state,
Have we, as 'twere with a defeated joy,
With an auspicious, and a dropping eye,
With mirth in funeral, and with dirge in marriage,
In equal scale weighing delight and dole,
Taken to wife; nor have we herein barr'd
Your better wisdoms, which have freely gone
With this affair along. For all, our thanks.

Now follows, that you know, young Fortinbras,
Holding a weak supposal of our worth,
Or thinking by our late dear brother's death
Our state to be disjoint and out of frame,
Collegued with this dream of his advantage,
He hath not fail'd to pester us with message
Importing the surrender of those lands
Lost by his father, with all bands of law,
To our most valiant brother. So much for him.
Now for ourself and for this time of meeting.
Thus much the business is: we have here writ
To Norway, uncle of young Fortinbras,
Who, impotent and bedrid, scarcely hears
Of this his nephew's purpose, to suppress
His further gait herein, in that the levies,
The lists, and full proportions are all made
Out of his subject; and we here dispatch
You, good Cornelius, and you, Voltemand,
For bearers of this greeting to old Norway,
Giving to you no further personal power
To business with the King, more than the scope
Of these dilated articles allow. [*Gives a paper.*]
Farewell, and let your haste commend your duty.

Король

Смерть нашего возлюбленного брата
Еще свежа, и подобает нам
Несть боль в сердцах и всей державе нашей
Нахмуриться одним челом печали,
Однако разум поборол природу,
И, с мудрой скорбью помня об умершем,
Мы помышляем также о себе.
Поэтому сестру и королеву,
Наследницу воинственной страны,
Мы, как бы с омраченным торжеством -
Одним смеясь, другим кручинясь оком,
Грустя на свадьбе, веселясь над гробом,
Уравновесив радость и унынье, -
В супруги взяли, в этом опираясь
На вашу мудрость, бывшую нам вольной
Пособницей. За все - благодарим.
Теперь другое: юный Фортинбрас,
Ценя нас невысоко или мысля,
Что с той поры, как опочил наш брат,
Пришло в упадок наше королевство,

Вступил в союз с мечтой самолюбивой
И неустанно требует от нас
Возврата тех земель, что в обладанье
Законно принял от его отца
Наш достославный брат. То про него.
Теперь про нас и про собрание наше.
Здесь дело таково: мы просим этим
Письмом Норвежца, дядю Фортинбраса,
Который, немощный, едва ль что слышал
О замыслах племянника, пресечь
Его шаги, затем что и наборы
И все снабженье войск обременяют
Его же подданных; и мы хотим,
Чтоб ты, мой Вольтиманд, и ты, Корнелий,
Свезли посланье старому Норвежцу,
Причем мы вам даем не больше власти
В переговорах с королем, чем здесь
Дозволено статьями. Добрый путь.
Поспешностью отметьте ваше рвенье.

6. Translate the text. Make the summary.

MODDING: WINDOW MODS, LIGHTING MODS

When personal computers became mainstream, the majority were produced in simple, beige-colored cases. This functional design was often referred to as a beige box. Although this served the purpose of containing the components of the personal computer, many users saw their computers as "tacky" or "dull", and began modifying their existing chassis, or building their own from scratch.

Case modification later became more accepted when the Apple iMac was released, which had a design in stark contrast to the beige box. As the price of computers fell and competition increased, system builders began selling PCs in black, charcoal, and other colored cases. A new market for third-party computer cases and accessories began to develop. Computer cases now come in a large variety of colors and styles.

Today the business of "modding" computers and their cases is a hugely profitable endeavour. Modding competitions are commonly held at gaming events and prizes are awarded for categories such as the most original mod. Some of the most non-computer related items have been used as housing for computers (usually called artistic modding, where anything goes). Most competitors attempt to make something unique, and consider their creations works of art. **Window mods:** Putting a window within one of the panels of a computer case. This is most often done to the left hand side panel, . -: less often to the top panel. This modification is so popular that - **any** of the major case manufacturers now offer cases with the pre-installed, or replaceable side panels with a window preinstalled. Some companies even offer entire cases made out of transparent materials. A

window kit may be modified to hold an CD screen. Laser engraving can be done on acrylic windows to *add* a distinct look to a modded case.

Lighting mods: A lighting mod refers to lighting *in* or on the **computer** cases. This is usually achieved with cold cathode lights, £D case fans, or electroluminescent wire lights. The lights are sometimes paired with sound controllers that make the lights pulse in time to sound. CCLs come in long tubes and generally produce a **r.i.e** bit of heat. LEDs come in many sizes and forms, most often *веп* in bars similar to CCLs or within fans, called LED fans. Electroluminescent wire, which takes the form of a small light rope, : ften embedded in cables such as SATA cables. Lighting modifications are often paired with window mods to - help show off the components. Although not as common, they are LSO placed in cases without a window, allowing light to shine through any holes or gaps of the case which add subtle aesthetics to *in* otherwise plain looking case; this is also done for practical purposes such as to make a computer double as a night light.

Cooling mods: There are many modifications that can fall into this category. The most common one is simply drilling a mount for a new fan, or removing a restrictive fan grill. Others include air ducts, water cooling, filtering, sealing openings to promote better air flow, or even the adding of a tank of pressurized carbon dioxide or liters of mineral oil to the case. These modifications are often done by overclockers either looking for better cooling for hot components or sound reduction. Modding kits are available, and some companies sell pre-made cases modified for better cooling.

Spray paint: Painting a case is another method of distinguishing your work from others. Spray paint is the common method preferred among amateur modders. There are many spray painting guides for amateur modders. The finish cannot be compared to automotive paint or powder coating, but is a simple way to change the look of a case.

Compare the original and the translation of the episode from “Eugene Onegin” by Alexander Pushkin

"Мой дядя самых честных правил,
Когда не в шутку занемог,
Он уважать себя заставил
И лучше выдумать не мог.
Его пример другим наука;
Но, боже мой, какая скука
С больным сидеть и день и ночь,
Не отходя ни шагу прочь!
Какое низкое коварство
Полу-живого забавлять,
Ему подушки поправлять,
Печально подносить лекарство,

Вздыхать и думать про себя:
Когда же чорт возьмет тебя!"

*'My uncle, what a worthy man,
Falling ill like that, and dying;
It summons up respect, one can
Admire it, as if he were trying.
Let us all follow his example!
But, God, what tedium to sample
That sitting by the bed all day,
All night, barely a foot away!
And the hypocrisy, demeaning,
Of cosseting one who's half alive;
Puffing the pillows, you contrive
To bring his medicine unsmiling,
Thinking with a mournful sigh,
"Why the devil can't you die?"'*

I.

Деревня, где скучал Евгений,
Была прелестный уголок;
Там друг невинных наслаждений
Благословить бы небо мог.
Господский дом уединенный,
Горой от ветров огражденный,
Стоял над речкою. Вдали
Пред ним пестрели и цвели
Луга и нивы золотые,
Мелькали сёлы; здесь и там
Стада бродили по лугам,
И сени расширял густые
Огромный, запущённый сад,
Приют задумчивых Дриад.

II.

Почтенный замок был построен,
Как замки строиться должны:
Отменно прочен и спокоен
Во вкусе умной старины.
Везде высокие покои,
В гостиной штофные обои,
Царей портреты на стенах,
И печи в пестрых изразцах.
Всё это ныне обветшало,
Не знаю право почему;
Да, впрочем, другу моему
В том нужды было очень мало,

Затем что он равно зевал
Средь модных и старинных зал.

*Our bored Yevgeny's place of leisure
Was in fact a fine estate,
Where lovers of life's simple pleasure
Would thank the heavens for their fate.
The manor house was quite secluded,
Screened by the hills when storms intruded,
Beside a river. On every side,
Stretched the pastures far and wide,
Golden cornfields, flowery meadows,
Here a village, there another,
Cattle grazing in the clover,
Parkland, overgrown, soft shadows
Deepening the garden's shade,
Where the pensive dryads played.*

.....
*The stately pile was nobly planned
As such fine mansions ought to be,
Firmly founded on the land,
With all the taste we used to see.
Every salon high and handsome,
Damask in the drawing-room,
Ancestral portraits stretched for miles,
Stoves shone with ceramic tiles.
All this is out of fashion now,
Though why it is, who can say,
Yet none of it, the whole display
Moved our hero, I'll allow,
An ancient house or one new-born
Both of them would make him yawn.*

7. Compare the original and the translation of the verses (Anna Akhmatova)

Есть в близости людей заветная черта...
Анна Ахматова

Есть в близости людей заветная черта,
Её не перейти влюбленности и страсти,-
Пусть в жуткой тишине сливаются уста,
И сердце рвётся от любви на части.

И дружба здесь бессильна, и года
Высокого и огненного счастья,
Когда душа свободна и чужда
Медлительной истоме сладострастья.

Стремящиеся к ней безумны, а её
Достигшие - поражены тоскою...
Теперь ты понял отчего моё
Не бьётся сердце под твоей рукою.

There is a cherished line in human closeness.

Яни Cum

*** **

*There is a cherished line in human closeness,
An amorousness and passion can't get across it,-
Let the lips interflow in an uncanny quietness,
And let the heart break to pieces from love.*

*And a friendship is powerless here, and years
Of highly and fierly happiness, when the soul
Is free and alien, and it is slowly faint
With thirst of an avid voluptuousness.*

*Those are insane, who aim at it, aspire to it;
After this attainment, they will be ..stricken by
melancholy...*

*Now you understand why
My heart doesn't beat under your palm.*

*** **

**Compare the original verses with their translations.
Try to make your own translation of the one of them.
She Walks In Beauty like the night (Lord Byron)**

She walks in beauty, like the night
Of cloudless climes and starry skies;
And all that's best of dark and bright
Meet in her aspect and her eyes:
Thus mellowed to that tender light
Which heaven to gaudy day denies.
One shade the more, one ray the less,
Had half impaired the nameless grace
Which waves in every raven tress,
Or softly lightens o'er her face;

Where thoughts serenely sweet express
How pure, how dear their dwelling place.
And on that cheek, and o'er that brow,
So soft, so calm, yet eloquent,
The smiles that win, the tints that glow,
But tell of days in goodness spent,
A mind at peace with all below,
A heart whose love is innocent!

Она идет во всей красе

Она идет во всей красе
Светла, как ночь ее страны.
Вся глубь небес и звезды все
В ее очах заключены,
Как солнце в утренней росе,
Но только мраком смягчены.
Прибавить луч иль тень отнять
И будет уж совсем не та
Волос агатовая прядь,
Не те глаза, не те уста
И лоб, где помыслов печать
Так безупречна, так чиста.
А этот взгляд, и цвет ланит,
И легкий смех, как всплеск морской,
Все в ней о мире говорит.
Она в душе хранит покой
И если счастье подарит,
То самой щедрою рукой!

(Перевод Маршак С. Я.)

Your Name (Jessica Blade)

I wrote your name in the sky,
but the wind blew it away.
I wrote your name in the sand,
but the waves washed it away.
I wrote your name in my heart,
and forever it will stay.
Я написал твое имя на небе,
но ветер унес его далеко.
Я написал твое имя на песке,
но волны смыли его.
Я написал твое имя в моем сердце,
И оно навсегда там останется.

A White Rose (J B O'Reilly)

The red rose whispers of passion,
And the white rose breathes of love;
O the red rose is a falcon,
And the white rose is a dove.
But I send you a cream-white rosebud
With a flush on its petal tips;
For the love that is purest and sweetest
Has a kiss of desire on the lips.
Красная роза шепчет о страсти,
Белая – чуть дыша, говорит о любви.
Красное – сокол, белое – голубь,
Что в небе летают: горд и красив.
Но я подарю тебе тот белый бутон,
Что с алой каемкой на всех лепестках.
Словно любовь, что светла и чиста,
С поцелуем мечты на губах.

My Love (Tasha Shores)

My love is like an ocean
It goes down so deep
My love is like a rose
Whose beauty you want to keep.
My love is like a river
That will never end
My love is like a dove
With a beautiful message to send.
My love is like a song
That goes on and on forever
My love is like a prisoner
It's to you that I surrender.
Моя любовь, как океан
Она также глубока
Моя любовь, как роза
Чью красоту вы хотите сохранить.
Моя любовь, как река
Которая никогда не заканчивается
Моя любовь, как голубь,
С красивым сообщением для отправки.
Моя любовь как песня
Которая всегда звучит и звучит
Моя любовь, как заключенный
Для вас, потому что я сдался.

Meeting at Night (Robert Browning)

The gray sea and the long black land;
And the yellow half-moon large and low;
And the startled little waves that leap
In fiery ringlets from their sleep,
As I gain the cove with pushing prow,
And quench its speed i' the slushy sand.
Then a mile of warm sea-scented beach;
Three fields to cross till a farm appears;
A tap at the pane, the quick sharp scratch
And blue spurt of a lighted match,
And a voice less loud, through its joys and fears,
Than the two hearts beating each to each!

Тёмный берег и серый залив,
Низко повисла луны половина.
Прыгают волны, пугливы, легки,
Яркие пляшут их завитки,
К бухте толкая мою бригантину,
В мокром песке свой бег погасив.
Теплую отмель прошёл до конца.
Через поля приблизился к дому.
Стук по стеклу, скрип, словно треск,
Спички зажжённой синий всплеск,
И голос, не громче сквозь радость истомы,
Чем бьются друг в друга наши сердца.

8. Read the article.

Write down the summary in English.

**Удосконалення професійно-педагогічної підготовки майбутнього
вчителя іноземної мови початкової школи**

На сучасному етапі свого розвитку початкова освіта в Україні зазнає значних змін, оскільки відбувається перехід від системи освіти, орієнтованої на передачу вчителем та засвоєння учнем певної суми знань до системи освіти, спрямованої на розвиток особистості учня. Слід також зазначити, що визнання на державному рівні доцільності запровадження іноземної мови у початковій школі актуалізувало проблему вдосконалення теоретичної бази і технологічного забезпечення підготовки вчителя початкових класів, зокрема вчителя іноземної мови початкової школи, як з огляду на зростання сучасних суспільних і особистісних вимог до педагогів, практичних потреб, так і необхідності переходу на кредитно-модульну систему навчання. Оновлення системи підготовки педагогічних кадрів для початкової ланки освіти передбачає включення в навчальний процес нових технологій, серед яких педагогічне моделювання може зайняти важливе

місце. Державна програма “Вчитель” наголошує на модернізації системи підготовки педагогічних працівників. Основними складовими удосконалення підготовки педагогічних кадрів виділено оновлення змісту і форм їх професійної діяльності, розробка концептуальних засад модернізації змісту підготовки педагогічних працівників з урахуванням вимог реформування системи загальної освіти та тенденцій розвитку європейського освітнього простору, поліпшення культурологічної, мовної (українська та іноземна мови), психолого-педагогічної, методичної, практичної підготовки з усіх педагогічних спеціальностей та підготовки вчителів початкових класів до викладання однієї з іноземних мов у початковій школі. Проте недостатньо вивченим залишається питання професійно-педагогічної підготовки майбутніх учителів іноземної мови початкової школи. Дана проблема є досить актуальною на даний час, оскільки особлива роль вчителя початкової школи полягає в тому, що від якості знань і умінь учнів, сформованих у початкових класах, залежить ефективність роботи загальноосвітньої і професійної школи. За останні роки разом із базовою спеціальністю “Учитель початкових класів” розширилась підготовка майбутніх учителів за подвійною спеціальністю (англійська мова, трудове навчання, фізичне виховання, та ін.). Та в результаті відбувається значне розширення спеціалізації на фоні зменшення кількості годин, відведених на вивчення базових дисциплін. Крім цього, студенти-майбутні вчителі початкової школи не отримують достатньої практичної підготовки. Це явище веде до зниження якості базової освіти вчителя іноземної мови початкової школи. Саме тому гостро постає питання модернізації педагогічної освіти, запровадження нових педагогічних технологій. Та перш за все слід проаналізувати основні вимоги щодо вчителя іноземної мови початкової школи. На даний час це питання є дискусивним. Зокрема, Manuel Jimenez Raya (Universidad de Granada) стверджує, що вчитель іноземної мови початкової школи – це професійний творець висновків, який здобув хоча б мінімум методичних навичок, які може вчасно і доречно використовувати у процесі навчання. На основі аналізу методично-педагогічної літератури та проведеного опитування серед вчителів іноземної мови початкової школи Manuel Jimenez Raya виділяє наступні вимоги щодо педагогічної діяльності вчителів початкового рівня освіти: вчитель повинен знати структуру і особливості іноземної мови; володіти базовими принципами і технологіями комунікативного навчання; знати вікову психологію учнів; сприймати навчання/вивчення іноземної мови як комплексний інтерактивний процес; мати чітке уявлення щодо кінцевої мети навчання; співпрацювати з іншими вчителями початкової школи; створювати сприятливу атмосферу в класі; використовувати наочні засоби навчання; використовувати вірші, пісні, ігри, іграшки; запроваджувати навчальні технології які поєднують декілька видів роботи.

(Бондаренко О.Ф., Бігич О.Б.)

Tasks for the individual work

1. Make the presentation "Translation of drama nad poetry".
2. Make the presentation "Translation of poetry"
3. **Read and translate the text**

Enrolment evolution of elementary schools in Ukraine

....The data on indicator 2 in Ukraine are not available. The main reason is an insignificance of such parameter from the point of view of the chiefs of the Ukrainian educational system and statistical services. As it was mentioned above, monitoring of the real level of children' psychophysical development for a choice of either "long" or "short" course of elementary school is being considered as more important. Nowadays in Ukraine 3-6 years old children have good opportunities to receive suitable training in pre-school institutions. Such training (but a little bit shorter) can be received also in elementary and other types of schools. Hence, practically all children (if their parents wish) can be trained for schooling due to special programs, duration of which considerably exceeds 200 hours. An insignificant (much less than 1 per cent) part of 3-6 year olds, living in very small settlements with neither pre-schools, nor schools might be an exception. But this fact would be a violation of the Article 14 of the Law on Education, prescribing to local governments to make possible transportation of all children of pre-school age to the educational institutions of the closest settlements, if parents wish their children to receive pre-school training. Correct and annual data on indicator 3 in Ukraine are also not available for several reasons, some of them are mentioned above. According to the Conventions on Human Rights and Child Protection, the educational legislation of Ukraine does not demand to direct children to the first grade of elementary school only because " they achieve the official school age of 7 years ". Child protection and creation of mostly favorable conditions for his development and schooling become a reality only on the condition that the child will have an opportunity to enter the first grade, when he is ready for schooling, and, hence, has a wish to study and is capable to do it rather successfully. This principle is in the basis of the educational laws of Ukraine, resolutions of the Cabinet of Ministers and regulations of the Ministry of Education. Parents have the right to appeal to educational institutions for testing their children development in order to come to the motivated decision about time of beginning of their child schooling. In practice it results that the majority (over two thirds) of children enters elementary school in the age of seven years old, their smaller part - of six years. In exclusive cases (according to the recommendations of commissions and the appropriate sanction of local bodies of educational authorities) a child may enter elementary school in the age of incomplete 6 or after 8. In the data of Ukrainian statistical services we find only total enrolments of pupils of the first grade, regardless of their age. They change every year, but after 1993 we deal with the constant reduction of the entrants' enrolment. The reason is not a quickly growing number of drops out, but the constant reduction of the newborns' number in Ukraine. The demographic data prove that in the next years this tendency will be kept. All children will receive the primary education, but their number will become less and less. Better demographic situation might

be in the next century. Indicators of this kind are not used in Ukraine, and a very low rate of repeaters makes them identical in Ukraine. Politics of state bodies, which find both understanding, and support of the population, consists in the individual approach to each child. Every child has the right to enter elementary school and to receive compulsory education determined by the Law - general secondary education, duration of which is 10-11 years. Therefore all efforts of local bodies of administrative educational authorities are concentrated on keeping every child in the field of vision. It means following his development, determination of the level of his readiness for regular schooling and recommendation to the parents of appropriate educational institution (sometimes they are schools for children with special needs). This approach is a priority one for all levels of administrative and educational authorities in Ukraine. The most important quantitative indicators in Ukraine are correct data on the amount of available educational institutions and classrooms, enrolments of teachers and pupils, but not the rate of schooling scope of some age group of the population. Absolute parameters dominate in all statistical directories, which are accessible to the population every year due to the appropriate bodies (State Committee of Statistics, the Ministry of Education and others). In Ukraine the statistical services collect the data on absolute enrolments of the 1-st, 2-d and other grades both in every school up to the all territory of the country. The analysis of the evolution of these data for several years is carried out very seldom, and comparison with the demographic data for all Ukraine is even more rare. *Generalized data of scope of different age groups' children by regular education in permanent educational institutions (percentage of pupils from a total population of the appropriate age group)*. It follows from this data, that the rate of children scope by the basic education in 5-9 grades in all oblasts of Ukraine is much higher, than by the primary one (from the first up to the fourth grades). The reason of it, as it was mentioned above, consists in incomplete scope by schooling of children in the age from six up to seven. In elementary school there were only those of them, who in the age of six at the moment of the beginning of school year (the first of September) were ready for schooling. There are great differences in children scope by primary education not only between some oblasts (Khmeln'nyts'kyi - 95,1 per cent, Chernivtsi - 77.7 per cent), but also within the same oblast. The examples are Kyiv and Kyiv oblast, and also Sevastopol and Autonomous Republic of Crimea.

In Kyiv there is a low level of scope - only 70,4 per cent of the 6-9 years old age group. Within the other territory of the oblast, at the first glance, the parameter of scope of this age group is much better - about 81,3 per cent. Data, according distribution of children of school age by various courses of elementary school - three-year and four-year ones - explain this phenomena. In Kyiv practically all children were directed to the short (three-year) courses. Most children, aged 6, were in pre-schools or at home with their parents and did not study at schools. As a result, they have lowered the parameter of children scope in the age of 6-9 by primary education. Within Kyiv oblast the most part of the population lives in villages and small settlements. The children development rate is lower and parents more often, than in Kyiv, consider a long course of

elementary school as more expedient for their children. That's why the oblast parameter of scope of 6-9 year olds' age group by primary education is higher, than in Kyiv. The same situation is in Sevastopol and within Autonomous Republic of Crimea. Other examples of such situation: in Khmel'nyts'kyi many parents choose a four-year course of elementary school for their children, therefore parameter of children scope by primary education is high. In Chernivtsi oblast most parents choose a three-year course, that's why the parameter of 6-9 year old' age group is smaller, than in Khmel'nyts'kyi oblast. Hence, lack in the Ukrainian statistics of the data on the age structure of each grade of school makes impossible to estimate all indicators of primary education, which are recommended by UNESCO to use in the given National Report.

**(MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF UKRAINE.
Country Report. UKRAINE. - KYIV 2010).**

Module 4. The Notion of Equivalence.

lecture 7. Types of Equivalence

Plan

1. Types of Equivalence.
2. Aspects of Translating Process.
3. Pragmatic of Translation.

Recommended Literature

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1. Types of Equivalence. First Type of Equivalence.

Translation equivalence is defined as a measure of semantic similarity between ST and TT. It is obvious that in all similar cases the differences which can be revealed between the original text and its translation should not be ascribed to the translator's inefficiency or detract from the quality of his work. The pragmatic value of such translations clearly compensates for their lack of equivalence. Evidently there are different types of translation serving different purposes.

Equivalence implies variability and consequently several types of equivalence can be distinguished.

First Type – Formal Equivalence.

The content, the structure of the sentence and the semantic components (language units) are similar. Each element of the SL text has a corresponding one in the TL text. But such cases of complete similarity are rather rare.

Second Type – Partial Correspondence Equivalence.

Non-corresponding elements may be lexical, grammatical or stylistical. Equivalence of the second type is usually achieved by means of various transformations: substitution or replacements (both lexical and grammatical), additions and omissions, paraphrasing and compensation.

Although a considerable degree of equivalence has been achieved a number of transformations, certain losses have been incurred, namely, compactness and vividness. They are accounted for by existing discrepancies in collocability (valency).

Attention should be paid to the *Stylistic aspect* of equivalence because of its importance in achieving the second type of equivalence. The stylistic aspect of equivalence implies the rendering in translation of stylistic and emotive connotations. Stylistic connotations presuppose the use of words belonging to the same layer of the vocabulary (literary, neutral and colloquial). Emotive connotations presuppose the use of words evoking similar connotations. The following example illustrates the rendering of stylistic connotations:

Attention should also be drawn to the *Pragmatic aspect* of equivalence.

Pragmatic equivalence can be achieved only by means of interpreting extra-linguistic factors. The substitution of the subject and the addition of the participle construction convey the necessary pragmatic information. If a detail denoting some national feature is not important enough it may safely be omitted, e.g.

The pragmatic aspect of the content is sometimes closely interwoven with the linguistic aspect and their interaction also requires explanatory additions, e.g.

Third Type – Situational or Factual Equivalence.

The content or sense of the utterance is conveyed by different grammatical and lexical units. Situational equivalence is observed when the same phenomenon is described in a different way because it is seen from a different angle, e.g.

In this way, the third type of equivalence conveys the sense, the meaning of the utterance without preserving its formal elements.

Phonetic level of Equivalence

The sound form of corresponding English and Russian words seldom coincide, consequently this level of equivalence is not common and is of primary importance only in poetic translation.

If we compare a number of TTs with their STs we shall discover that the degree of semantic similarity between the two texts involved in the translating process may vary. In other words the equivalence between ST and TT may be based on the reproduction of different parts of the ST contents. Accordingly, several types of translation equivalence can be distinguished.

In plain English, the translation does not convey either “what the original text is about”, or what is said in it” or “how it is said”, but only “what it is said for”, i.e. what the Source meant, what the aim of the message is.

This part of the contents which contains information about the general intent of the message, its orientation towards a certain communicative effect can be called “*the purport of communication*”. Thus we can deduce that **in the first type of equivalence it is only the purport of communication that is retained in translation.**

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

- *He answered the telephone.* - *Он снял трубку*
- *You see one bear, you have seen them all.* - *Все медведи похожи друг на друга*
- *It was late in the day.* - *Близился вечер.*

This group of examples shows that the equivalence of translations here does not involve any parallelism of lexical or structural units. Most of the words or syntactical structures of the original have no direct correspondences in the translation. At the same time it is obvious that there is a greater proximity of contents than in the preceding group.

Consider, for instance, the translations:

- (1) *Maybe there is some chemistry between us that doesn't mix.* *Бывает, что люди не сходятся характерами.*
- (2) *He answered the telephone.* *Он снял трубку.*

In (1) the things referred to are different, so that there is hardly any logical connection between the two statements. We can draw identical conclusions about the speaker's sentiments: there is no love lost between him and another person.

In (2) the incomparable language units in the original and in the translation describe, in fact, the same action, refer to identical reality, as a telephone call

cannot be answered unless one picks up the receiver. Both texts give different information about the same, or, as one sometimes says, they express the same idea “using different words”. It is the type of equivalence that can be well explained in terms of the situational theory. We may presume that such phrases describe identical situations but each is presented in a different way. Since in each of the two texts the situation is described in a different way, the common feature is not the method of description but the reference to the situation, the possibility of identifying the situation, no matter how it is described in the text. The information which characterized the second type of equivalence can, therefore, be designated as “*identification of the situation*”.

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

- *Scrubbing makes me bad-tempered. Отъ мытья полов у меня настроение портится.*

- *London saw a cold winter last year.-В прошлом году зима в Лондоне была холодной./ A fost o iarnă grea pentru Londra în anul trecut.*

- *You are not serious? – Вы шутите?/ Glumești ?? Faci glume?*

The translation contains the same general notions as the original. This means that the translation is a semantic paraphrase of the original, preserving its basic semes and allowing their free reshuffle in the sentence. The common semes are easily discovered in the comparative analysis of the translations of this group. Consider the first of the examples cited. Both in the translation and in the original the situation is described as a “cause-effect” event with a different pattern of identical semes. In the original: A (scrubbing) causes B (I) to have C (temper) characterized by the property D (bad). In the translation: C (temper) belonging to B (I) acquires the property D (bad) because of A (scrubbing).

The use of the identical notions in the two texts means that the basic structure of the messages they convey remains intact. Here it indicates “what is said in the original”, i.e. what aspect of the described situation is mentioned in the communication.

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

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

- *He was never tired of old songs.Старые песни ему никогда не надоедали./*

- *I don't see that I need to convince you. Не вижу надобности доказывать это вам./ Nu e nevoie să te conving*

- *He was standing with his arms crossed and his bare head bent. Он стоял, сложив руки на груди и опустив непокрытую голову./ El stătea cu mâinele încrucișate și cu capul plecat.*

In such translations the syntactic structures can be regarded as derived from those in the original through direct or backward transformations. This includes cases when the translation makes use of similar or parallel structures.

Equivalence imply the retention of the linguistic meaning, i.e. the information fixed in the substantial or structural elements of language as their plane of content. The translation conveys something of the “how-it-is-said in the original”.

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

The fifth group of translations can be discovered when we analyse their relationships with the respective originals. Here we find the maximum possible semantic similarity between texts in different languages. These translations try to retain the meaning of all the words used in the original text. There is considerable semantic proximity of the correlated words in the two sentences:

Here we can observe the equivalence of semes which make up the meaning of correlated words in the original text and the translation; parallelism of syntactic structures implying the maximum invariance of their meanings; the similarity of the notional categories which determine the method of describing the situation; the identity of the situations; the identical functional aim of the utterance or the purport of communication.

We can sum up. We have discovered that there are five different types of semantic relationships between equivalent phrases (texts) in two languages, differing as to the volume and character of the information retained in each.

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

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

A translation can be good at any level of equivalence.

TYPES OF EQUIVALENTS

The structural similarity of ST and TT implies that relationships of equivalence are established between correlated units in the two texts.

Some of the SL units have permanent equivalents in TL, that is to say, there is a one-to-one correspondence between such units and their equivalents. Thus “London” in Russian is «Лондон», “a machine-gun” as «пулемет» and “hydrogen” is always rendered as «водород». As a rule this type of correspondence is found with words of specific character, such as scientific and

technical terms, proper or geographical names and similar words whose meaning is more or less independent of the particular contextual situation.

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

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

The choice of the equivalent will depend on the relative importance of a particular semantic element in the act of communication.

A variety of equivalents may also result from a more detailed description of the same object in TL. The English word “attitude”, for instance, is translated as «отношение, позиция, политика» depending on the variant the Russian language prefers in a particular situation. Here the choice between equivalents is determined by TL factors.

Even if a SL unit has a regular equivalent in TL, this equivalent cannot be used in TT whenever the unit is found in ST. An equivalent is but a potential substitute, for the translator’s choice is, to a large extent, dependent on the context in which the SL unit is placed in ST. There are two types of context: linguistic and situational. The linguistic context is made up by the other SL units in ST while the situational context includes the temporal, spacial and other circumstances under which ST was produced as well as all facts which the receptor is expected to know so that he could adequately interpret the message.

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

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

It is obvious that in the first sentence it should be the Russian «отношение (к работе)», in the second sentence — «позиции (обоих сторон)», and in the third sentence - «поза (що погрожує)».

The fact that a SL unit has a number of regular equivalents does not necessarily mean that one of them will be used in each particular translation. True, in many cases the translator’s skill is well demonstrated in his ability to make a good choice among such equivalents.

Geographical names have such equivalents which are formed by imitation of the foreign name in TL. And the name of the American town of New Haven (Conn.) is invariably rendered into Russian as «Нью-Хейвен». But the sentence “I graduated from New Haven in 1915” will be hardly translated in the regular way since the Russian reader may not know that New Haven is famous for its Yale university. The translator will rather opt for the occasional equivalent: «Я закінчив Йельський університет у 1915 році».

The same goes for phraseological equivalents. Phraseological units or idioms may also have permanent or variable equivalents. Such English idioms as “the game is not worth the candle” or “to pull chestnuts out of the fire for smb.” are usually translated by the Russian idioms «игра не стоит свеч» and «таскать каштаны из огня для кого-л.», respectively. These equivalents reproduce all the aspects of the English idioms semantics and can be used in most contexts. Other permanent equivalents, though identical in their figurative meaning, are based on different images, that is, they have different literal meaning. Cf. “to get up on the wrong side of the bed” — «встать с левой ноги», “make hay while the sun shines” — «куй железо, пока горячо». Now an English idiom may have several Russian equivalents among which the translator has to make his choice in each particular case. For instance, the meaning of the English “Do in Rome as the Romans do” may be rendered in some contexts as «С волками жить - по-волчьи выть», and in other contexts as «В чужой монастырь со своим уставом не ходят». But here, again, the translator may not infrequently prefer an occasional equivalent which can be formed by a word-for-word reproduction of the original unit: «В Риме поступай так, как римляне».

The choice of grammatical units in TT largely depends on the semantics and combinability of its lexical elements. Therefore there are practically no permanent grammatical equivalents. The variable equivalents in the field of grammar may be analogous forms in TL or different forms with a similar meaning. In the following English sentence “He was a guest of honour at a reception given by the Soviet government” both the Russian participle «устроенном» and the attributive clause «который был устроен» can be substituted for the English participle “given”. And the use of occasional equivalents is here more common than in the case of the lexical or phraseological units. We have seen that in the first three types of equivalence no equivalents to the grammatical units are deliberately selected in TL.

Semantic dissimilarity of analogous structures in SL and TL also result in SL structures having several equivalents in TL. For instance, attributive groups are common both in English, Russian and Romanian: “a green tree” — «зеленое дерево/ copac verde». But the semantic relationships between the numbers of the group are broader in English, which often precludes a blue-print translation of the group into Russian. As often as not the English attributive group is used to convey various adverbial ideas of location, purpose, cause, etc. Consider such groups as “Madrid trial” (location), “profits drive” (purpose), “war suffering” (cause). Such groups may also express various action-object relationships. Cf. “labour movement” (movement by the workers), “labour raids” (raids against the workers), and “labour spies” (spies among the workers).

A word within an attributive group may sometimes alter its meaning. So, “war rehabilitation” is, in fact, rehabilitation of economy after the war, that is, “post-war rehabilitation”.

As a result, many attributive groups are polysemantic and are translated in a different way in different contexts. “War prosperity” may mean “prosperity during the war” or “prosperity in the post-war period caused by the war”. The

Berlin proposals” may imply “proposals made in Berlin” (say, at an international conference), “proposals made by Berlin” (i.e. by the FRG), “proposal on Berlin” (of political, economic or other nature).

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

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

1. Using loan-words imitating in TL the form of the SL word or word combination, e.g. *tribalism* – *трайбализм*, *impeachment* – *импичмент*, *backbencher* – *заднескамеечник*, *brain-drain* – *утечка мозгов*.

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

3. Using all kinds of lexical (semantic) transformations modifying the meaning of the SL word, e.g. “*He died of exposure*” may be rendered into Russian as «*Он умер от простуды*» or «*Он погиб от солнечного удара*».

4. Using an explanation to convey the meaning of the SL unit, e.g. *landslide-victory* на выборах подавляющим большинством голосов, *brinkmanship* – искусство проведения политики на грани войны, etc.

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

There are also quite a number of equivalent-lacking idioms. Such English phraseological units as “*You cannot eat your cake and have it*”, “*to dine with Duke Humphrey*”, “*to send smb. to Coventry*” and many others have no regular equivalents in Russian. They are translated either by reproducing their form in TL through a word-for-word translation or by explaining the figurative meaning of the idiom, e.g.: *People who live in glass should not throw stones.* – *Люди, живущие в стеклянных домах, не должны бросать камни*; *to see eye-to-eye with smb.* – *придерживаться одних взглядов*.

Equivalent-lacking grammatical forms give less trouble to the translator. Here occasional substitutes can be classified under three main headings, namely:

1. Zero translations when the meaning of the grammatical unit is not rendered in the translation since it is practically identical to the meaning of some other unit and can be safely left out. In the sentence “*By that time he had already left Britain*” — К тому времени он уже уехал из Англии the idea of priority expressed by the Past Perfect Tense needn't be separately reproduced in TT as it is made superfluous by the presence of “by that time” and “already”.

2. Approximate translations when the translator makes use of a TL form partially equivalent to the equivalent-lacking SL unit, e.g.: *I saw him enter the room* – Я видел, как он вошел в комнату. The Russian/ Romanian languages have no complex objects of this type but the meaning of the object clause is a sufficient approximation.

3. Transformational translation when the translator resorts to one of the grammatical transformations e.g.: *Your presence at the meeting is not obligatory. Nor is it desirable* – Ваше присутствие на собрании необязательно и даже нежелательно (the syntactical integration).

As has been emphasized, equivalents are not mechanical substitutes for SL units but they may come handy as a starting point in search of adequate translation. The translator will much profit if he knows many permanent equivalents, is good at selecting among variable equivalents and resourceful at creating occasional equivalents, taking into account all contextual factors.

2.ASPECTS OF TRANSLATING PROCESS

Description of the translating process is one of the major tasks of the translation theory. Here we deal with the dynamic aspects of translation trying to understand how the translator performs the transfer operation from ST to TT.

Psychologically viewed, the translating process must need to include two mental processes - understanding and verbalization. First, the translator understands the contents of ST, that is, reduces the information it contains to his own mental program, and then he develops this program into TT. The problem is that these mental processes are not directly observable and we do not know much of what that program is and how the reduction and development operations are performed. That is why the translating process has to be described in some indirect way. The translation theory achieves this aim by postulating a number of translation models.

A **model** may describe the translating process either in a general form or by listing a number of specific operations (or transformations) through which the process can, in part, be realized. Translation models can be oriented either toward the situation reflected in the ST contents or toward the meaningful components of the ST contents.

The existing models of the translating process are, in fact, based on the **situational** (or referential) model and the **semantic-transformational** model. These models are supposed to explain the dynamic aspects of translation. In other words, it is presumed that the translator actually makes a mental travel from the original to some interlingual level of equivalence and then further on to the text of translation.

In the situational model this intermediate level is extralinguistic. It is the described reality, the facts of life that are represented by the verbal description. The process of translating presumably consists in the translator getting beyond the original text to the actual situation described in it. This is the first step of the process, i.e. the break-through to the situation. The second step is for the translator to describe this situation in the target language. Thus the process goes from the text in one language through the extralinguistic situation to the text in another language. The translator first understands what the original is about and then says “the same things” in TL.

For instance, the translator reads in A. Cronin’s “Citadel” the description of the main character coming by train to a new place of work: “*Manson walked quickly down the platform, searching eagerly for some signs of welcome*“. He tries to understand what reality lies behind the words “searching eagerly for some signs of welcome”. The man was alone in a strange place and couldn’t expect any welcome committee or deputation. Obviously, he just wanted to see whether anyone was there to meet him. So, the translator describes the situation in Russian in the following way: «Мэнсон быстро прошел по перрону, оглядываясь, не встречает ли его кто-нибудь».

A different approach was used by E. Nida who suggested that the translating process may be described as a series of transformations. The transformational model postulates that in any two languages there is a number of nuclear structures which are fully equivalent to each other. Each language has an area of equivalence in respect to the other language. It is presumed that the translator does the translating in three transformational stages.

First – the stage of analysis – he transforms the original structures into the nuclear structures, i.e. he performs transformation within SL.

Second – the stage of translation proper – he replaces the SL nuclear structures with the equivalent nuclear structures in TL. And third – the stage of synthesis – he develops the latter into the terminal structures in the text of translation.

Thus if the English sentence “*It is very strange this domination of our intellect by our digestive organs*” (J.K. Jerome) is translated into Russian as «Странно, до какой степени пищеварительные органы властвуют над нашим рассудком» we presume that the structures “domination of our intellect” and “domination by our digestive organs” were first reduced to the nuclear structures “organs dominate” and “they dominate intellect”, respectively. Then they were replaced by the equivalent Russian structures «органы властвуют/ organele domină» and «они властвуют над рассудком/ ele domină asupra rațiunii», after which the nuclear structures were transformed into the final Russian/Romanian variant.

A similar approach can be used to describe the translation of semantic units. The semantic model postulates the existence of the “deep” semantic categories common to SL and TL. It is presumed that the translator first reduces the semantic units of the original to these basic semantic categories and then expresses the appropriate notions by the semantic units of TL.

Thus if he comes across the sentence “*John is the proud owner of a new car*“, he is first to realize that it actually means that “*John has a new car*” and that “*he is proud because of that*”. After transferring these basic ideas to Russian/Romanian and converting them to the semantically acceptable phrases he will get the translation «У Джона (есть) новая машина, которой он очень гордится / *John are o mașină cu care el se mîndrește*».

Training translators we may teach them to use these models as practical tools. Coming across a specific problem in ST the translator should classify it as situational, structural or semantic and try to solve it by resorting to the appropriate procedure. If, for instance, in the sentence “*He is a poor sleeper*” the translator sees that the attributive group cannot be directly transferred into Russian/Romanian, he can find that the transformational model will do the trick for him here and transform the attributive group into a verb-adverb phrase: «Он плохо cnum / *El doarme rău/ El are insomnie*».

Another approach to the description of the process of translating consists in the identification of different types of operations performed by the translator. The type of operation is identified by comparing the initial and the final texts.

The **first** group of operations (or transformations) is characterized by imitation of the form of a word or of a collocation. In the first case the translator tries to represent the pronunciation or the spelling of the foreign word with the TL letters. Thus we get such translations as «битник», «стриптиз», «эскалация», etc.

In the **second** case the translator creates a blueprint collocation in TL by using a loan translation. This results in such forms as «люди доброй воли» (*people of good will/ oameni de bună voință/ credință*).

The second group of operations includes all types of lexical transformations involving certain semantic changes. As a result, the meaning of a word or word combination in ST may be made more specific, more general or somewhat modified as a way to discovering an appropriate equivalent in TL.

The choice of a more specific word in translation which gives a more detailed description of the idea than does the word in SL is a very common case in the English-Russian translating process. English often makes use of general terms to describe very definite objects or actions. The following sentence refers to a frightened woman trying to hide from an intruder who had suddenly burst into the room where she was pensively looking into the fire:

My mother had left her chair in her agitation, and gone behind it in the corner. (Ch. Dickens)

An attempt to use regular Russian equivalents for such general English verbs as “to leave – a părăsi” and “to go – a se duce” will produce a ludicrous Russian/ Romanian phrase like this: «Матушка оставила свое кресло и пошла за него в угол».

To cope with the problem a contextual substitute may be created by using the detailing technique, i.e. by describing how the woman performed those actions instead of just naming them, e.g.:

Взволнованная матушка вскочила со своего кресла и забила в угол позади него./ Mama speriată a sărit din fotoliu și s-a ascuns după dînsul.

Another type of lexical transformations is often called “modulation”. It involves the creation of an equivalent by replacing a unit in SL with a TL unit the meaning of which can be logically deduced from it and which is just another way of referring to the same object or an aspect of the same situation. Consider the following sentence:

Manson slung his bag up and climbed into a battered gig behind a tall, angular black horse. (A. Cronin)

It confronts the translator with a number of problems. First, what should be said in Russian for “to sling a bag up”? Second, in Russian it seems so obvious that one gets into a gig behind and not in front of the horse that any mention of the fact is preposterous unless it is implied that the horse was in the gig, too. Third, “an angular horse” cannot be either «угловая» or «угловатая лошадь».

All these translation problems can be solved with the help of contextual substitutes. “*Slinging the bag up*” evidently implies that the bag was placed into the gig, “*climbing into the gig behind the horse*” certainly means that this horse was harnessed to the gig and “an angular horse” is probably a horse with bones sticking out at angles, i.e. a bony or skinny animal. The Russian translation can therefore express these derived ideas to describe the identical situation, e.g.:

Мэнсон поставил свой чемодан и влез в расхлябанную двуколку, запряженную крупной костлявой черной лошастью./ Manson și-a pus valiza și a urcat în brișcă veche, la care era înhămat un cal slăbănog negru.

In such cases the substitute often has a cause-and-effect relationship with the original:

– *The window was full of clothes I wouldn't want to be seen dead in. В витрине были выставлены платья, в которых я не хотела бы даже лежать в гробу.*

A dead person is usually put in a coffin and “to be seen dead in a dress” logically implies lying in the coffin in such a dress. One more example.

– People who have tried it, tell me that a clear conscience makes you very happy and contented. (J.K. Jerome)

A direct translation of “who have tried it” is hardly possible. But if somebody has tried something he has some experience about it. So, the translation may run as follows:

Некоторые люди, ссылаясь на собственный опыт, утверждают, что чистая совесть делает человека веселым и счастливым.

The third group of translating procedures comprises all types of transformations involving units of SL grammar. The translator may solve his problems by preserving the syntactic structure of the source text and using the analogous TL grammatical forms or “a word-for-word translation”. This may be called “a zero transformation” and can be easily exemplified, e.g.:

John took Mary by the hand. Джон взял Мери за руку.

In other cases the translator may resort to various types of grammatical substitutes.

First, we may mention two types of transformations which change the number of sentences in TT as compared to ST.

As a rule, the translator renders the original text sentence by sentence and the number of sentences remains the same. However, it may so happen that the structural and semantic problems of a translation event can be best solved by breaking an original sentence into two parts, i.e. translating it with two sentences in TL. Another type of such partitioning is to replace a simple sentence in the original with a complex one in the translation, comprising one or several subordinate clauses.

The problems that can be solved through this technique are varied. First of all it may come handy in dealing with the English syntactic complexes which pack in two subject-predicate units, each unit making up a sentence or a clause in the Russian translation, e.g.:

– *I want you to speak English.* - *Я хочу, чтобы вы говорили по-английски.*
– *She hates his behaving in this way.* - *Ей очень не нравится, что он так себя ведет.*

The partitioning of sentences in translation can also be used to overcome the difficulties caused by the idiomatic semantic structure of the original text, e.g.:

– *This was a man to be seen to be understood.* - *Чтобы понять этого человека, надо было его увидеть.*

Sometimes the translator can prefer partitioning to the other possible methods of translation, as producing a variant more suitable stylistically or emotionally. Consider the following examples:

The annual surveys of the Labour Government were not discussed with the workers at any stage, but only with the employers.

The contrast in the last part of the sentence can be best reproduced in Russian by making a separate unit of it, e.g.:

– *Ежегодные обзоры лейбористского правительства не обсуждались среди рабочих ни на каком этапе. Они обсуждались только с предпринимателями.*

And this is how this procedure can be used to reproduce the emotional implications of the original:

– *How well I recollect it, on a cold grey afternoon, with a dull sky, threatening rain. (Ch. Dickens)* - *Как хорошо помню я наш приезд! Вечереет, холодно, пасмурно, хмурое небо грозит дождем.*

The opposite procedure means integrating two or more original sentences into one or compressing a complex sentence into a simple one. This technique is also used both for structural and semantic reasons.

Sometimes one of the sentences is grammatically too incomplete to warrant its separate reproduction in translation:

– *It is not possible to do the work in two days. Nor is it necessary.* *Выполнить эту работу за два дня нет ни возможности, ни необходимости.*

The integration procedure may be necessitated by close semantic ties between adjacent sentences:

– *We did not want scenery. We wanted to have our supper and go to bed.*
Мы не хотели красивых пейзажей —мы хотели поужинать и лечь спать.

The partitioning and integration procedures may be used together, resulting in a kind of syntactic and semantic reshuffle of sentences in translation. Here is an example:

But occasionally an indiscretion takes place, such as that of Mr. Woodrow Wyatt, Labour M.P., when Financial Secretary to the War Office. He boasted of the prowess of British spies in obtaining information regarding armed forces of the USSR. (J. Gollan)

The end of the first sentence is replaced by the personal pronoun in the second sentence. The sentence can, therefore, be broken into two and its last part integrated with the second sentence, e.g.:

Однако по временам допускается нескромность. Так, например, лейборист, член парламента Вудро Уайтт в бытность свою финансовым секретарем военного министерства хвастался ловкостью, проявленной английскими шпионами в деле получения сведений о вооруженных силах СССР.

Another type of grammatical transformations is characterized by the translator's refusal to use analogous grammatical units in TT. He tries to render the meaning of SL units by changing the grammatical form of a word, the part of speech or the type of the sentence. Such changes are very common and the translator should never hesitate to use them whenever necessary. Here are some examples:

– *We are searching for talent everywhere.* *Мы повсюду ищем таланты.*
 – *I am a very rapid packer.* *Я очень быстро укладываюсь.*
 – *It is our hope that an agreement will be reached by Friday.* *Мы надеемся, что к пятнице будет достигнуто соглашение.*
 – *He does not mind your joining our group.* *Он ничего не имеет против того, чтобы вы присоединились к нашей группе.*

Finally, there is a group of transformations which ensure the required degree of equivalence by a number of changes of both lexical and grammatical nature. They involve a different arrangement of ideas, a different point of view and other semantic modifications whenever a direct translation of a SL unit proves impossible. A typical example of such a procedure is the so-called antonymous translation describing the situation, as it were, from the opposite point of view and rendering an affirmative SL structure by a negative TL one or vice versa:

The door was not unbolted. *Дверь была на засове.*

A complex change also occurs in explicatory translations in which a SL unit is replaced by a TL word combination describing or defining its meaning:

A demonstration of British conservationists was held in Trafalgar Square yesterday. *Вчера на Трафальгар-сквер состоялась демонстрация английских сторонников охраны окружающей среды.*

In conclusion, we should mention one more specific procedure which may come handy to the translator when he is baffled by an apparently unsolvable translation problem. It may be called the compensation technique and is defined

as a deliberate introduction of some additional elements in translation to make up for the loss of similar elements at the same or an earlier stage. For instance, Eliza in B. Shaw's 'Pygmalion' makes a mistake typical for the speech of an uneducated person: 'I'm nothing to you – not so much as them slippers.' And Professor Higgins corrects her saying: "those slippers". The linguistic error in the episode is untranslatable and its loss makes this dialogue meaningless. But the loss can be compensated for by introducing a mistake – and its correction – at a point where everything is correct in the original but where an uneducated Russian speaker is likely to make it. As a result in the translation Eliza says: «Я для вас ничто, хуже вот этих туфель»; And Higgins can self-righteously correct her: «туфель».

The compensation method is often used to render the stylistic or emotional implications of the original. Consider the following example.

They had reached the mysterious mill where the red tape was spun, and Yates was determined to cut through it here and now. (S. Heym)

"Red tape" is translated as "bureaucracy but the latter cannot be spun at a mill. And the translator invents his own figure of speech to compensate for the loss:

Они уперлись в стену штабной бюрократии, но Йейтс твердо решил тут же пробить эту стену.

2. PRAGMATICS OF TRANSLATION

Words in language are related to certain referents which they designate and to other words of the same language with which they make up syntactic units. These relationships are called semantic and syntactic, respectively. Words are also related to the people who use them. To the users of the language its words are not just indifferent, unemotional labels of objects or ideas. The people develop a certain attitude to the words they use. Some of the words acquire definite implications, they evoke a positive or negative response, they are associated with certain theories, beliefs, likes or dislikes. There are "noble" words like "*honour, dignity, freedom*", etc. and "low" words like "*infamy, cowardice, betrayal*". Words can be nice or ugly, attractive or repulsive. Such relationships between the word and its users are called "pragmatic".

The pragmatic implications of a word are an important part of its meaning that produces a certain effect upon the Receptor. Of even greater significance is the pragmatic aspect of speech units. Every act of speech communication is meant for a certain Receptor, it is aimed at producing a certain effect upon him. In this respect any communication is an exercise in pragmatics.

Since the pragmatic effect plays such an important part in communication, its preservation in translation is the primary concern of the translator, though it is by no means an easy task. The pragmatic aspect of translation involves a number of difficult problems.

To begin with, the pragmatics of the original text cannot be as a rule directly reproduced in translation but often require important changes in the transmitted message. Correlated words in different languages may produce dissimilar effect upon the users. An "ambition" in English is just the name of a quality which may

evoke any kind of response – positive, negative or neutral. Its Russian counterpart «амбиция» is definitely not a nice word. Thus, the phrase ‘The voters put an end to the general’s political ambitions’ can be translated as «Избиратели положили конец политическим амбициям генерала», retaining the negative implication of the original, but if the implication were positive the translator would not make use of the derogatory term. The sentence ‘*The boy’s ambition was to become a pilot*’ will be translated as «Мечтой мальчика было стать летчиком».

Such words as “idealism” or “nationalism” often have a positive effect in the English text and are rendered into Russian not as «идеализм» or «национализм» but as «служение идеалам, бескорыстие» and «национальное самосознание, национальные интересы», respectively.

When we consider not just separate words but a phrase or number of phrases in a text, the problem becomes more complicated. The communicative effect of a speech unit does not depend on the meaning of its components alone, but involves considerations of the situational context and the previous experience. A report that John has run a hundred metres in 9 seconds will pass unnoticed by some people and create a sensation with others who happen to know that it is a wonderful record-breaking achievement.

Here again, a great role is played by differences in the historical and cultural backgrounds of different language communities, in their customs and living conditions. It stands to reason that the natives of a tropical island can hardly be impressed by the statement that something is “as white as snow”. The reported “cooling” in the relations between two friends may be understood as a welcome development by the people who live in a very hot climate.

It seems imperative, therefore, that translation should involve a kind of pragmatic adaptation to provide for the preservation of the original communicative effect. This adaptation must ensure that the text of translation conveys the same attitude to the reported facts as does the original text. It goes without saying that in an adequate translation the comical should not be replaced by the tragical or a praise turned into a censure.

The pragmatic adaptation of the translation must also see to it that TR understands the implications of the message and is aware of its figurative or situational meaning. A phrase like “Smith made another touchdown in three minutes” refers to a situation which does not mean anything to a Russian Receptor who does not know anything about the rules of American football. When the English original just refers to the First Amendment, the Russian translation should make it more explicit by speaking about the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution; otherwise TR will not understand what it is all about.

It is obvious that there can be no equivalence if the original text is clear and unequivocal while its translation is obscure and hard to understand.

Discussing the problem of equivalence at different levels, we have emphasized the necessity of making the translation as understandable and intelligible as the original text is. We have also taken care to include in the overall meaning of the text all its emotional, figurative and associative implications. The

pragmatic adaptation of this kind is an integral part of translation procedures which ensure the necessary level of equivalence.

The pragmatics of the text, which are linguistically relevant and depend on the relationships between the linguistic signs and language users, are part of the contents of the text. It is a meaningful element whose preservation in translation is desirable at any level of equivalence. It is reproduced in translation if TR gets the whole information about the pragmatic aspects of the original text and the pragmatics of the original text are just as accessible and understandable to him as they are to SR. This does not imply that he will be actually influenced by this information or react to it in the same way.

Apart from the pragmatics of linguistic signs, there are also the pragmatics of individual speech acts. In a concrete act of speech the Source has to do with the specific Receptor upon whom he tries to produce the desired effect, and from whom he would like to elicit the desired reaction.

This second type of pragmatics is also present in translation events. A translation event is a kind of speech act and it is performed with a certain pragmatic purpose as well. But here we are confronted with a more complicated process than in ordinary speech.

A translation event is pragmatically oriented in two directions. On the one hand, it is translation which means that its primary purpose is to give the closest possible approximation to the original text. This orientation towards a foreign text is one aspect of its pragmatics.

But on the other hand, a translation event is a concrete speech act in the target language. Therefore, it is not just an act of interlingual communication between the Source and TR, but also an act of speech communication between the Translator and TR. This involves two important implications. First, a translation event may be pragmatically oriented toward a concrete TR, and, second, it is the result of the activities of a concrete translator, who may have some additional pragmatic motivation, may pursue some aims beside and beyond the true reproduction of the original text.

As long as translation is not just an exercise in producing an equivalent text in another language but a pragmatic act under specific circumstances, its results can be assessed both in terms of its loyalty to the original and its ability to achieve the purpose for which it has been undertaken. This necessitates the introduction of the concept of the “pragmatic value” in translation, which assesses its success in achieving this pragmatic super-purpose.

As has been pointed out, the additional pragmatic goal of the translation event may depend either on the particular type of TR or on the translator’s designs beyond his call of duty as a no-nonsense transmitter of the original message.

The users of the translation often make judgements of its quality exclusively on its merits as an instrument in achieving some specific aim. If in doing it, the translation departs from the original text, so much the worse for the latter.

In this way the pragmatics of translation acquire a new dimension. E. Nida introduced the concept of “dynamic equivalence” which should be judged not against the original but against the Receptor’s reactions. For many practical

purposes the process of translation is predominantly oriented towards TR. So, translation of the maintenance instructions is considered good if, after reading it, a technician will be able to operate the appropriate piece of machinery correctly.

Sometimes books written for adults are translated for children's reading with appropriate alterations made in the course of translation. Presumably any text should be differently translated depending on whether it is for experts or laymen, for staging or screening, and so on.

As to the specific aims pursued by the translator, they may also bring about considerable changes in the resulting text with no direct bearing on the original. Each translation is made in a certain pragmatic or social context, and its results are used for a number of purposes. The translator is assigned his task and paid for it by the people for whom his work is not an end in itself but an instrument for achieving some other ends. Aware of this, the translator tries to make his work meet these "extra-translational" requirements, introducing appropriate changes in the text of translation. Sometimes these changes are prompted by the desire to produce a certain effect on the Receptors, which has already been mentioned.

The specific goal, which makes the translator modify the resulting text, often means that, for all practical purposes, he assumes an additional role and is no longer just a translator. He may set himself some propaganda or educational task, he may be particularly interested in some part of the original and wants to make a special emphasis on it, he may try to impart to the Receptor his own feelings about the Source or the event described in the original. In pursuance of his plans the translator may try to simplify, abridge or modify the original message, deliberately reducing the degree of equivalence in his translation.

It is clear that such cases go far beyond the inherent aspects of translation and it is not the task of the translation theory to analyse or pass a judgement on them. But the translator should be aware of this possibility for it will have an impact on his strategy.

In many types of translation any attempt by the translator to modify his text for some extra-translational purpose will be considered unprofessional conduct and severely condemned. But there are also some other types of translation where particular aspects of equivalence are of little interest and often disregarded.

When a book is translated with a view to subsequent publication in another country, it may be adapted or abridged to meet the country's standards for printed matter. The translator may omit parts of the book or some descriptions considered too obscene or naturalistic for publication in his country, though permissible in the original.

In technical or other informative translations the translator or his employers may be interested in getting the gist of the contents or the most important or novel part of it, which may involve leaving out certain details or a combination of translation with brief accounts of less important parts of the original. A most common feature of such translations is neglect of the stylistic and structural peculiarities of the original. In this case translation often borders on retelling or precis writing.

A specific instance is consecutive interpretation where the interpreter is often set a time limit within which he is expected to report his translation no matter how long the original speech may have been. This implies selection, generalizations, and cutting through repetitions, incidental digressions, occasional slips or excessive embellishments.

Seminar 7 Some Fundamentals of Theory of Translation Plan

- 1 Types of Equivalence
2. The Notion of the Text.
3. The Notion of the Discourses.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
5. Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.
6. Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

1. Карабан В. І. Посібник-довідник з перекладу англійської наукової і технічної літератури на українську мову / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Київ-Кременчук, 1999. – 120 с.
2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

- 1. Translate the material.**
- 2. Make the summary of the material.**
- 3. Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.**
- 4. Retell the abstract.**

The Profession of a Teacher

There are professions – vocations – and people surrender themselves wholly to these professions. Undoubtedly, the profession of a teacher is one of them.

Even if you want to be a teacher you can't become a good one. You must be born one. Love for children, an ability to communicate with them, understand and teach them – these are the most important qualities of a genuine teacher. An ability to be a genuine teacher is God's gift; it's a talent like the talent of a writer, an artist or a musician. In my point of view it's even more – it's fate. I think a teacher is like a sculptor: he moulds a personality out of a child like a sculptor creates a beautiful statue out of clay.

Pedagogy is a very complex and responsible study; probably, no less responsible than medicine. As a patient hands to the doctor the most expensive thing – his life, so parents entrust the teacher with the most valuable creature – their child. And mainly it depends on a teacher what kind of person a child will grow up to be: a genius or a villain. If you have been dreaming of become a teacher since your childhood, it's not a problem nowadays.

In Russia there are more than 250 teachers training colleges and universities; six of them are in Moscow. Every year thousands of young people graduate from these colleges to come to school on September 1st. According to a survey, more than 70 per cent of students enter these colleges by their own choice, and it is well-known to them what difficult and sometimes ungrateful work is waiting for them after receiving their diplomas. In the process of education when they were asked whether they were sorry about their choice of profession, 60 per cent said that they were not sorry at all. Judging by these facts, I can say that teachers come to school not for money (the salary of a teacher is laughable), but they simply can't help coming because it's their vocation to work with children.

The profession of a teacher combines both joy and sorrow.

A person who gets pedagogical training should master a lot of knowledge. But the main thing he should understand is according to what laws and rules the personality of a child develops. The most important of them are love and mercy. Doctors have a rule: "Don't do harm". I think teachers must also follow this rule; because there is nothing more valuable than children and it depends on teachers what kind of people the children will become. In my opinion, a teacher is responsible for all his pupils, for, according to Antoine de Saint Exupéry we are answerable for those whom we have tamed.

By Daria Bitsigan, 11th year pupil

- 1. Translate the material.**
- 2. Make the summary of the material.**

3. Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.

4. Retell the abstract.

"I was talking about the plantations. They had a great deal to do with it. But I'll come to that. Our life there was both luxurious and primitive. And we ourselves found it extremely attractive. You see, we lived far better there than we could have ever lived in France. Perhaps the sheer wilderness of Louisiana only made it seem so, but seeming so, it was. I remember the imported furniture that cluttered the house." He smiled. "And the harpsichord; that was lovely. My sister used to play it. On summer evenings, she would sit at the keys with her back to the open French windows. And I can still remember that thin, rapid music and the vision of the swamp rising beyond her, the moss-hung cypresses floating against the sky. And there were the sounds of the swamp, a chorus of creatures, the cry of the birds. I think we loved it. It made the rosewood furniture all the more precious, the music more delicate and desirable. Even when the wisteria tore the shutters off the attic windows and worked its tendrils right into the whitewashed brick in less than a year.... Yes, we loved it. All except my brother. I don't think I ever heard him complain of anything, but I knew how he felt. My father was dead then, and I was head of the family and I had to defend him constantly from my mother and sister. They wanted to take him visiting, and to New Orleans for parties, but he hated these things. I think he stopped going altogether before he was twelve. Prayer was what mattered to him, prayer and his leather-bound lives of the saints.

"Finally I built him an oratory removed from the house, and he began to spend most of every day there and often the early evening. It was ironic, really. He was so different from us, so different from everyone, and I was so regular! There was nothing extraordinary about me whatsoever." He smiled.

"Sometimes in the evening I would go out to him and find him in the garden near the oratory, sitting absolutely composed on a stone bench there, and I'd tell him my troubles, the difficulties I had with the slaves, how I distrusted the overseer or the weather or my brokers... all the problems that made up the length and breadth of my existence. And he would listen, making only a few comments, always sympathetic, so that when I left him I had the distinct impression he had solved everything for me. I didn't think I could deny him anything, and I vowed that no matter how it would break my heart to lose him, he could enter the priesthood when the time came.

1.Translate the material orally.

2. Make the summary of the material.

3. Make different kinds of questions in Ukrainian and in English.

4. Retell the abstract.

Equivalence in Translation: Between Myth and Reality
by Vanessa Leonardi

The comparison of texts in different languages inevitably involves a theory of equivalence. Equivalence can be said to be the central issue in translation although its definition, relevance, and applicability within the field of translation theory have caused heated controversy, and many different theories of the concept of equivalence have been elaborated within this field in the past fifty years.

whenever there is deficiency, terminology may be qualified and amplified by loanwords or loan translations, neologisms or semantic shifts, and finally, by circumlocutions

The aim of this paper is to review the theory of equivalence as interpreted by some of the most innovative theorists in this field—Vinay and Darbelnet, Jakobson, Nida and Taber, Catford, House, and finally Baker. These theorists have studied equivalence in relation to the translation process, using different approaches, and have provided fruitful ideas for further study on this topic. Their theories will be analyzed in chronological order so that it will be easier to follow the evolution of this concept. These theories can be substantially divided into three main groups. In the first there are those translation scholars who are in favour of a linguistic approach to translation and who seem to forget that translation in itself is not merely a matter of linguistics. In fact, when a message is transferred from the SL to TL, the translator is also dealing with two different cultures at the same time. This particular aspect seems to have been taken into consideration by the second group of theorists who regard translation equivalence as being essentially a transfer of the message from the SC to the TC and a pragmatic/semantic or functionally oriented approach to translation. Finally, there are other translation scholars who seem to stand in the middle, such as Baker for instance, who claims that equivalence is used 'for the sake of convenience—because most translators are used to it rather than because it has any theoretical status'.

1.1 Vinay and Darbelnet and their definition of equivalence in translation

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 French translation Prenez-en un. 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 Échantillon gratuit.

1.2 Jakobson and the concept of equivalence in difference

Roman Jakobson's study of equivalence gave new impetus to the theoretical analysis of translation since he introduced the notion of 'equivalence in difference'. On the basis of his semiotic approach to language and his aphorism 'there is no signatum without signum', he suggests three kinds of translation:

Intralingual (within one language, i.e. rewording or paraphrase)

Interlingual (between two languages)

Intersemiotic (between sign systems)

Jakobson claims that, in the case of interlingual translation, the translator makes use of synonyms in order to get the ST message across. This means that in interlingual translations there is no full equivalence between code units. According to his theory, 'translation involves two equivalent messages in two different codes'. Jakobson goes on to say that from a grammatical point of view languages may differ from one another to a greater or lesser degree, but this does not mean that a translation cannot be possible, in other words, that the translator may face the problem of not finding a translation equivalent. He acknowledges that 'whenever there is deficiency, terminology may be qualified and amplified by loanwords or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts, and finally, by circumlocutions'. Jakobson provides a number of examples by comparing English and Russian language structures and explains that in such cases where there is no a literal equivalent for a particular ST word or sentence, then it is up to the translator to choose the most suitable way to render it in the TT.

There seems to be some similarity between Vinay and Darbelnet's theory of translation procedures and Jakobson's theory of translation. Both theories stress the fact that, whenever a linguistic approach is no longer suitable to carry out a translation, the translator can rely on other procedures such as loan-translations, neologisms and the like. Both theories recognize the limitations of a linguistic theory and argue that a translation can never be impossible since there are several methods that the translator can choose. The role of the translator as the person who decides how to carry out the translation is emphasized in both theories. Both Vinay and Darbelnet as well as Jakobson conceive the translation task as something which can always be carried out from one language to another, regardless of the cultural or grammatical differences between ST and TT.

It can be concluded that Jakobson's theory is essentially based on his semiotic approach to translation according to which the translator has to recode

the ST message first and then s/he has to transmit it into an equivalent message for the TC.

1.3 Nida and Taber: Formal correspondence and dynamic equivalence

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'. In the second edition (1982) of their work, the two theorists provide a more detailed explanation of each type of equivalence.

Formal correspondence consists of a TL item which represents the closest equivalent of a SL 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. The use of formal equivalents might at times have serious implications in the TT since the translation will not be easily understood by the target audience (Fawcett, 1997). 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 TL wording will trigger the same impact on the TC audience as the original wording did upon the ST 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. This is perfectly understandable if we take into account the context of the situation in which Nida was dealing with the translation phenomenon, that is to say, his translation of the Bible. Thus, the product of the translation process, that is the text in the TL, must have the same impact on the different readers it was addressing. Only in Nida and Taber's edition is it clearly stated that 'dynamic equivalence in translation is far more than mere correct communication of information'.

Despite using a linguistic approach to translation, Nida is much more interested in the message of the text or, in other words, in its semantic quality. He therefore strives to make sure that this message remains clear in the target text.

1.4 Catford and the introduction of translation shifts

Catford's approach to translation equivalence clearly differs from that adopted by Nida since Catford had a preference for a more linguistic-based approach to translation and this approach is based on the linguistic work of Firth and Halliday. His main contribution in the field of translation theory is the introduction of the concepts of types and shifts of translation. Catford proposed very broad types of translation in terms of three criteria:

The extent of translation (full translation vs partial translation);

The grammatical rank at which the translation equivalence is established (rank-bound translation vs. unbounded translation);

The levels of language involved in translation (total translation vs. restricted translation).

We will refer only to the second type of translation, since this is the one that concerns the concept of equivalence, and we will then move on to analyze the notion of translation shifts, as elaborated by Catford, which are based on the distinction between formal correspondence and textual equivalence. In rank-bound translation an equivalent is sought in the TL for each word, or for each morpheme encountered in the ST. In unbounded translation equivalences are not tied to a particular rank, and we may additionally find equivalences at sentence, clause and other levels. Catford finds five of these ranks or levels in both English and French, while in the Caucasian language Kabardian there are apparently only four.

Thus, a formal correspondence could be said to exist between English and French if relations between ranks have approximately the same configuration in both languages, as Catford claims they do.

One of the problems with formal correspondence is that, despite being a useful tool to employ in comparative linguistics, it seems that it is not really relevant in terms of assessing translation equivalence between ST and TT. For this reason we now turn to Catford's other dimension of correspondence, namely textual equivalence which occurs 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'. He implements this by a process of commutation, whereby 'a competent bilingual informant or translator' is consulted on the translation of various sentences whose ST items are changed in order to observe 'what changes if any occur in the TL text as a consequence'.

As far as translation shifts are concerned, Catford defines them as 'departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL' (ibid.:73). Catford argues that there are two main types of translation shifts, namely level shifts, where the SL item at one linguistic level (e.g. grammar) has a TL equivalent at a different level (e.g. lexis), and category shifts which are divided into four types:

Structure-shifts, which involve a grammatical change between the structure of the ST and that of the TT;

Class-shifts, when a SL item is translated with a TL item which belongs to a different grammatical class, i.e. a verb may be translated with a noun;

Unit-shifts, which involve changes in rank;

Intra-system shifts, which occur when 'SL and TL possess systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system'. For instance, when the SL singular becomes a TL plural.

Catford was very much criticized for his linguistic theory of translation. One of the most scathing criticisms came from Snell-Hornby (1988), who argued that Catford's definition of textual equivalence is 'circular', his theory's reliance on bilingual informants 'hopelessly inadequate', and his example sentences 'isolated and even absurdly simplistic'. She considers the concept of equivalence in translation as being an illusion. She asserts that the translation process cannot simply be reduced to a linguistic exercise, as claimed by Catford for instance, since there are also other factors, such as textual, cultural and situational aspects, which should be taken into consideration when translating. In other words, she does not believe that linguistics is the only discipline which enables people to carry out a translation, since translating involves different cultures and different situations at the same time and they do not always match from one language to another.

1.5 House and the elaboration of overt and covert translation

House (1977) is in favour of semantic and pragmatic equivalence and argues that ST and TT should match one another in function. House suggests that it is possible to characterize the function of a text by determining the situational dimensions of the ST.* In fact, according to her theory, every text is in itself is placed within a particular situation which has to be correctly identified and taken into account by the translator. After the ST analysis, House is in a position to evaluate a translation; if the ST and the TT differ substantially on situational features, then they are not functionally equivalent, and the translation is not of a high quality. In fact, she acknowledges that 'a translation text should not only match its source text in function, but employ equivalent situational-dimensional means to achieve that function'.

Central to House's discussion is the concept of overt and covert translations. In an overt translation the TT audience is not directly addressed and there is therefore no need at all to attempt to recreate a 'second original' since an overt translation 'must overtly be a translation'. By covert translation, on the other hand, is meant the production of a text which is functionally equivalent to the ST. House also argues that in this type of translation the ST 'is not specifically addressed to a TC audience'.

House sets out the types of ST that would probably yield translations of the two categories. An academic article, for instance, is unlikely to exhibit any features specific to the SC; the article has the same argumentative or expository force that it would if it had originated in the TL, and the fact that it is a translation at all need not be made known to the readers. A political speech in the SC, on the other hand, is addressed to a particular cultural or national group which the speaker sets out to move to action or otherwise influence, whereas the TT merely informs outsiders what the speaker is saying to his or her constituency. It is clear that in this latter case, which is an instance of overt translation, functional equivalence cannot be maintained, and it is therefore intended that the ST and the TT function differently.

House's theory of equivalence in translation seems to be much more flexible than Catford's. In fact, she gives authentic examples, uses complete texts and, more importantly, she relates linguistic features to the context of both source and target text.

1.6 Baker's approach to translation equivalence

New adjectives have been assigned to the notion of equivalence (grammatical, textual, pragmatic equivalence, and several others) and made their appearance in the plethora of recent works in this field. An extremely interesting discussion of the notion of equivalence can be found in Baker (1992) who seems to offer a more detailed list of conditions upon which the concept of equivalence can be defined. She explores the notion of equivalence at different levels, in relation to the translation process, including all different aspects of translation and hence putting together the linguistic and the communicative approach. She distinguishes between:

Equivalence that can appear at word level and above word level, when translating from one language into another. Baker acknowledges that, in a bottom-up approach to translation, equivalence at word level is the first element to be taken into consideration by the translator. In fact, when the translator starts analyzing the ST s/he looks at the words as single units in order to find a direct 'equivalent' term in the TL. Baker gives a definition of the term word since it should be remembered that a single word can sometimes be assigned different meanings in different languages and might be regarded as being a more complex unit or morpheme. This means that the translator should pay attention to a number of factors when considering a single word, such as number, gender and tense.

Grammatical equivalence, when referring to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages. She notes that grammatical rules may vary across languages and this may pose some problems in terms of finding a direct correspondence in the TL. In fact, she claims that different grammatical structures in the SL and TL may cause remarkable changes in the way the information or message is carried across. These changes may induce the translator either to add or to omit information in the TT because of the lack of particular grammatical

devices in the TL itself. Amongst these grammatical devices which might cause problems in translation Baker focuses on number, tense and aspects, voice, person and gender.

Textual equivalence, when referring to the equivalence between a SL text and a TL text in terms of information and cohesion. Texture is a very important feature in translation since it provides useful guidelines for the comprehension and analysis of the ST which can help the translator in his or her attempt to produce a cohesive and coherent text for the TC audience in a specific context. It is up to the translator to decide whether or not to maintain the cohesive ties as well as the coherence of the SL text. His or her decision will be guided by three main factors, that is, the target audience, the purpose of the translation and the text type.

Pragmatic equivalence, when referring to implicatures and strategies of avoidance during the translation process. Implicature is not about what is explicitly said but what is implied. Therefore, the translator needs to work out implied meanings in translation in order to get the ST message across. The role of the translator is to recreate the author's intention in another culture in such a way that enables the TC reader to understand it clearly.

1.7 Conclusion

The notion of equivalence is undoubtedly one of the most problematic and controversial areas in the field of translation theory. The term has caused, and it seems quite probable that it will continue to cause, heated debates within the field of translation studies. This term has been analyzed, evaluated and extensively discussed from different points of view and has been approached from many different perspectives. The first discussions of the notion of equivalence in translation initiated the further elaboration of the term by contemporary theorists. Even the brief outline of the issue given above indicates its importance within the framework of the theoretical reflection on translation. The difficulty in defining equivalence seems to result in the impossibility of having a universal approach to this notion.

* It should be noted that House's model of situational dimension is adapted from Crystal and Davy's model elaborated in 1969. House gives an extensive explanation of the reasons which motivated her to change, and sometimes omit, some of the information given by Crystal and Davy. Further details can be found in House, or in D. Crystal and D. Davy, *Investigating English Style* (London: Longman, 1969).

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Read the text.

Translate it and write the summary in Ukrainian.

Explain your attitude to bullying in class.

Imagine that you are a teacher and you have to solve such a problem.

Effective approaches to anti-bullying practice

There are two components to effective anti-bullying practice: preventing bullying incidents and responding to them.

The most effective anti-bullying policy includes a range of strategies that can be adapted to suit particular incidents, built around a whole-school approach.

There are five key points to keep in mind when approaching the issue of bullying:

- never ignore suspected bullying
- don't make premature assumptions
- listen carefully to all accounts — several pupils saying the same thing does not necessarily mean they are telling the truth
- adopt a problem-solving approach which moves pupils on from justifying themselves follow up repeatedly, checking bullying has not resumed.

Choosing strategies for dealing with bullying

The following paragraphs list some of the key strategies that schools have used to prevent or reduce bullying. They might not remain appropriate if there has

been violence - tougher measures will then be needed. Anti-bullying strategies for older pupils can include preparation for adult relationships. Many strategies for older pupils can be used, with adaptation, for younger ones. They can be taught to be assertive and to work cooperatively - some schools have taught mediation or conflict resolution skills to young pupils.

Many schools have found that the best policies usually include a combination of strategies that can be drawn on and adapted to fit the circumstances of particular incidents. A single strategy is unlikely to provide a complete solution on its own to the problem.

Cooperative Group Work from age 5

When this is integrated into normal classroom practice, pupils can:

- explore issues and controversies by considering different points of view
- be more tolerant of others and more willing to listen
- trust those of the opposite gender and those from other ethnic groups
- become better integrated into the peer group.

Several pupils saying the same thing does not necessarily mean they are telling the truth

Children work together on shared tasks, involving cooperation and individual accountability. For example, groups of pupils in 'expert' groups research aspects of a topic. The 'experts' then return to the 'home' group to instruct one another and produce a joint piece of work. In a final plenary session, children are debriefed about the task that they have just done, or the way in which they have worked together, or both.

Variants include trust-building exercises, cooperative games, problem-solving activities, discussion groups, role-play and simulations. All share some essential aspects:

- pupils work together and help one another, managing conflicts within the group
- there are tasks needing a group effort
- children share information and divide work towards common goals
- roles vary within groups: leading, minuting, problem-solving, tidying up.

Working together as colleagues, relationships sometimes develop into real friendships. Children who could potentially face bullying can be drawn into working groups with other children who do not abuse or take advantage of them.

Circle Time - from age 5

Time is set aside each week for teachers and pupils to sit in a circle and take part in enjoyable activities, games and discussion. The positive atmosphere generated in the well-managed circle usually spreads into other areas of class activity. Circle Time:

- creates a safe space to explore issues of concern
- explores relationships with adults and peers

- enhances effective communication
- affirms the strengths and enhances the self-esteem of each member

Circles last for 20-30 minutes, at the beginning or end of a session. Participants listen carefully, making eye contact with one another, and address particular problems - for example, relationships, anger, fighting and bullying.

The teacher and pupils agree on simple, positive rules which encourage the group to:

- focus on their own feelings and those of others
- listen to one another, and tolerate each others' views
- learn to take turns
- discuss difficult issues using a problem-solving approach.

Putting this method into practice needs good organisation and links to other anti-bullying strategies. Staff need training, for example, by educational psychologists or counsellors. There are many resources available for those who wish to research this further.

Circles of Friends - from age 5

Although often used by primary schools, this technique can also prove an effective anti-bullying strategy in secondary schools. Sometimes known as 'Circles of Support', these build relationships around a vulnerable pupil. The approach also supports those who bully as a result of feeling isolated and rejected themselves. The method must first be explained to the bullied pupil and the parents, whose agreement and support are essential. Circles aim to:

- improve the level of acceptance and inclusion of the pupil
- help the pupil make friends inside or outside the Circle
- increase insight into the pupil's feelings and behaviour.

The class meet with a trained counsellor or an educational psychologist who explains it is unusual to talk in this way about a pupil who is not present, but making clear that the pupil has agreed to the discussion. The class members then:

- describe the pupil — only positive things may be said
- list things about the pupil that they find difficult
- discuss how they would feel and behave if they were isolated or socially excluded.

Consider how they might help. Pupils typically produce two clear solutions: offering friendship, and finding ways to keep the pupil on track:

- Identify what might stop the pupil changing
- Volunteer to form the pupil's Circle of Friends (between six and eight pupils).

Soon afterwards, the initial Circle of Friends meeting takes place, including the focus pupil. Ground rules are negotiated and aims clarified about helping them to make friends and change any negative behaviour. In turn, circle members explain why they volunteered. The leader asks 'What do we like and value about this person?' and responses are written down. Next, the leader carefully asks about the pupil's negative behaviour. The group brainstorms strategies for helping the pupil, which are recorded and then prioritised. Finally, Circle members come up

with a name for their group, and subsequent weekly meetings of thirty to forty minutes are set up.

Experienced leaders comment frequently on the extent of the support offered by Circle members and their ingenuity in devising practical strategies. As well as benefiting the person needing support, it provides all participants with a creative way of forming positive relationships with their peers. Case studies confirm that this is a flexible and creative method to form positive relationships with peers. Training is essential for those who wish to use this method and there are many resources around for those who wish to learn more about it.

Shared concern (Pikas approach)

This non-punitive approach is designed for situations where a group of pupils has been bullying one or more pupils for some time. It does not try to identify all the events of the bullying situation and aims to allow the pupils to co-exist rather than to create friendships.

A teacher uses a script to talk to each of the pupils who are doing the bullying, with the aim of reaching agreement that the bullied pupil is unhappy, and concluding with each pupil agreeing to try to help improve the situation. These meetings are followed by a supportive talk between the teacher and the bullied pupil. Where the bullied pupil's behaviour may have been seen as provocative the teacher encourages him or her to understand that their behaviour should change. Individual follow-up meetings are held to review progress. A final meeting is held to reach a public agreement about reasonable behaviour by everyone over the long term.

Befriending - from age 9

Befriending involves assigning selected pupil volunteers to 'be with' or 'befriend' peers whom teachers have referred. Befrienders:

- need friendly personal qualities
- give support with emotional and social problems – newness to a school, difficulty making friends, upset at separation or loss, being bullied or socially excluded
- run after-school clubs offering companionship and activities to peers who would otherwise be miserable and alone
- may share a common difficulty - for example, bereavement – perhaps setting up a support group.

The befriended feel more positive about themselves, having had someone to talk to about their problems. Befrienders feel more confident and value other people more. The school becomes safer and more caring, as relationships improve generally. Befrienders need training in active listening, assertiveness and leadership. Educational psychologists, counsellors and PSHE advisers can help.

No Blame (Support Group) approach

The No Blame approach (also called the 'support group' approach) addresses bullying by forming a support group for the bullied pupil, made up of those involved in the bullying and bystanders. Without apportioning blame, it uses

a problem-solving approach, giving responsibility to the group to solve the problem and to report back at a subsequent review meeting. Part of this aim is to get the bully to identify with the bullied pupil.

When bullying has been observed or reported, the No Blame Approach offers a seven-step procedure, which can be used by a teacher or other facilitator. These seven steps are listed below:

- Talk to the victim. At this stage the facilitator encourages the victim to talk about how they feel. The key is that the victim should feel secure in speaking out without fear of retribution from the bully.
- Convene a meeting. The facilitator now arranges to meet a group of pupils, including the bully but not the victim, following suggestions from the victim. The aim is to include reliable children along with those who have been involved or complicit in the bullying.
- Explain the problem. The group is told about an unnamed child at the school who has been having a 'hard time'. The teacher then recounts their story – without allocating blame or going into details.
- Share responsibility. Now the teacher takes the discussion in an unexpected direction by stating that:
 - no one will be punished
 - we must all take responsibility to make child X safe
 - we are here to solve the problem
- Ask the group for ideas. Each group member is now asked to suggest ideas to help child X feel better. For example, 'I will sit with child X at lunch.' The child who has been bullying often feels guilty about child X's situation and starts to understand the effect the bullying behaviour has had.
- Leave it up to them. The key aim is a joint commitment to take action and the teacher passes responsibility for following up on the agreed actions to the group. It is a matter of trust.
- Meet again. Finally the teacher meets each child in turn, including the victim, and discusses how things are going. This allows monitoring of the situation and keeps lines of communication open.

The whole focus of the process is to transfer feelings of responsibility about the bullying, and how to make the situation right again, over to the children. A survey in a number of schools showed the technique has had a success rate of 80% in reducing bullying.

Mediation by adults - from age 9

These methods focus on pupils who have been bullying others regularly for some time, as well as those being bullied. The overall aim is to establish ground rules that will enable the pupils to coexist at the school. There is a simple script available:

- hold brief, non-confrontational, individual 'chats' with each pupil in a quiet room without interruptions - the bullying pupils first
- get agreement from each that the bullied pupil is unhappy and that they will help improve the situation - if they cannot suggest ways to do this, be prescriptive

- chat supportively with the bullied pupil - helping them to understand how to change if thought to have 'provoked' the bullying
- check progress a week later, then meet all involved to reach agreement on reasonable long-term behaviour - at this stage participants usually cease bullying
- check whether the bullying starts again or targets another pupil.

If bullying persists, combine the method with some other action targeted specifically at that child, such as parental involvement or a change of class.

The approach is successful, at least in the short term, provided the whole process is worked through. Alone, it cannot tackle all forms of bullying, and it may not have long-term success unless backed up by other procedures, including firm disciplinary ones.

It is vital that teachers and support staff colleagues are trained in this. Families can be invited to training sessions.

Mediation by peers - from age 9

In a structured way, a neutral person helps voluntary participants resolve their dispute. The aims are to:

- enable both the bullying and bullied pupils to identify problems and solutions, defusing tension between peers
- ensure that all involved come away with a sense that the outcome is fair to both sides.

Trained peer mediators can solve problems between pupils. The usual process is: define the problem: in turn, participants describe their perspectives - without interruption, but within set time limits. The mediator clarifies the feelings of each participant and then summarises what has been said

- Identify key issues: listed on paper, divided into conflict and non-conflict issues.
- Brainstorm possible options: both parties suggest solutions, which are written down. They consider the implications, for themselves and each other.
- Negotiate a plan of action and agreement: the mediator asks which solutions will most likely satisfy both parties. One solution is identified and a written agreement is made and signed by all participants. Both parties shake hands.
- Follow-up: evaluate outcomes.

Responses are generally positive, resulting in a substantial fall in aggressive behaviour as the school climate and pupils' relationships improve. Surveys have found up to 85 per cent of disputes resulting in lasting agreements. The necessary training for pupils can take up to 30 hours, including practice. Staff - including lunchtime supervisors - need at least one in-service training session after school, and ideally a full training day. Educational psychologists can help and manuals and materials on both Peer Mediation and Conflict Resolution are available.

(This advice is offered by Elizabeth Holmes, author of ATL's publication Apply yourself)

Tasks for the Individual Work

- 1. Rread the material.**
- 2. Translate the material.**
- 3. Make the summary.**

Translation and Meaning **by Magdy M. Zaky**

Since translation is, above all, an activity that aims at conveying meaning or meanings of a given-linguistic discourse from one language to another, rather than the words or grammatical structures of the original, we should look briefly at the most significant and recent developments in the field of study of "meaning", or semantics. Our interest here lies in the shift of emphasis from referential or dictionary meaning to contextual and pragmatic meaning. Such a shift represents a significant development, particularly relevant to translation, and to communicative register-based approach to translation.

The meaning of a given word or set of words is best understood as the contribution that word or phrase can make to the meaning or function of the whole sentence or linguistic utterance where that word or phrase occurs.

The meaning of a given word or set of words is best understood as the contribution that word or phrase can make to the meaning or function of the whole sentence or linguistic utterance where that word or phrase occurs. The meaning of a given word is governed not only by the external object or idea that particular word is supposed to refer to, but also by the use of that particular word or phrase in a particular way, in a particular context, and to a particular effect.

The first type of meaning, i.e., the meaning of reference, is often referred to as the "referential" meaning, the "lexical" meaning, the "conceptual" meaning, or the "denotative" meaning. It is also sometimes referred to as the "signification" of a lexical item.

There is a distinction between conceptual meaning, on the hand, and connotative, stylistic, affective, reflected, and collocative types of meaning on the other hand. Thus, we classify the last five types of meaning under one general category of associated meaning. There is a clear distinction between the logical meaning or the lexical reference of a particular word, and between the types of associated meaning. Such a distinction in the field of semantics between the lexical and the associated may remind us of the distinction between the semantic and the communicative approach as far as the literature on translation is concerned. The reason why there is a distinction, however, is that the conceptual meaning of a word is the type of meaning which could be mainly deduced in isolation from any other linguistic or even non-linguistic context, whereas the other types of meaning, whether associative or theoretical, are broadly speaking to be derived from the context of the utterance. Hence, this is relevant to

translation and translation theories. It is usually easier to find the conceptual or the logical meaning of a given word, but that type of meaning is not always telling in the case of translation. However, it is often difficult to obtain even the lexical equivalent of a given item in translation, when the translation is taking place across two different languages that do not have a culture in common, such as translation from Arabic into English and vice versa. Yet, we should not indulge in a tedious and rather worthless search for the lexical equivalent, since, even if such lexical items are easy to come by, they might not be helpful in translation.

Distinction between the referential or lexical meaning of a word and the meaning it acquires or radiates in a given context

There is a difference between the referential meaning of a word and the contextual meaning of the same word. Let us consider, for example, three lexical items which have the same physical reference in the world of non-linguistic reality, but are not simply used alternatively in free variation on each other. The words 'father', 'daddy' and 'pop' refer to the same physical object, i.e. the male parent. Yet other factors contribute to the choice of one rather than the other two in different situations. These factors may vary in accordance with the personality of the speaker or addressor, the presence or absence of the male parent in question, the feelings the addressor has towards his father as well as the degree of formality or informality between the two. In the case of translation, it is almost needless to point out the significance of such factors.

The same difference is recognized between referential and contextual types of meaning of lexical items, by the use of a different set of labels. Distinction is made between the signification of a given lexical item and its value or meaning when used in a particular context. In translation, consequently, the translator ought to translate the communicative function of the source language text, rather than its signification. A translator must, therefore, look for a target-language utterance that has an equivalent communicative function, regardless of its formal resemblance to original utterance as far as the formal structure is concerned. In other words, translation should operate or take place on the level of language use, more than usage. It has to be carried out in the way the given linguistic system is used for actual communication purposes, not on the level of the referential meaning or the formal sentence structure. Conveying textual effect of the original is the final objective to which a translator aspires, "A text is a whole entity, to be translated as a whole"..

4. Make the report "Types of Equivalence".

Lecture 8. Three Types of Lexical meaning. Plan

1. Three Types of Lexical meaning.
2. Referential meaning and its Rendering in Translation.
3. Divergences in the Semantic Structure of words. Different Valency.

4. Different Usage. Translation of Polysemantic Words , Words with Wide Meaning..

5. Non-equivalents.Partial Equivalents.

Recommended Literature

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1.Three Types of Lexical Meaning

Languages differ in their phonological and grammatical systems; their systems of meaning are also different. Any language is able to describe things, notions, phenomena and facts of life. This ability of language ensures cognition of the outside world. But the ways of expressing these things and notions usually vary in different languages. That means that different languages use different sets

of semantic components, that is, elements of meaning to describe identical extra-linguistic situations.

She is not out of school yet. (G. Heyer).

Она еще не кончила школы (у нее учится в школе).

The same fact is described in the English and the Russian languages by different semantic elements.

Benjamin paced his chamber, tension building in him. (E. Taylor).

Бенджамин шагал по комнате, его напряженное состояние все усиливалось.

The correlated verbs “to build” and *строить* (primary meanings) have different semantic structures, they are not co-extensive and do not cover each other. Consequently the verb *строить* is unacceptable in this context. Equivalence is achieved by the choice of another verb – *усиливаться*. The two verbs “to build” and *усиливаться* taken by themselves express different notions, but in this context they possess the **same semantic component** viz. the component of intensification (of tension). A non-correlated word is often selected in translation because it possesses some common semantic component with the word of the SL text, as in the present case (*to build* – *усиливаться*). The existence of a common seme in two non-correlated words is a factor of primary importance in the choice of equivalents which opens up great possibilities for translators. Another example may illustrate this point.

The cash needed to repair the canal is sitting in the bank.

Деньги, предназначенные для ремонта канала, все еще лежат в банке.

The verb “to sit” and *лежать* are by no means correlated words. But they possess one seme in common – to be at rest, to be unused.

As one of the main tasks of translation is to render the exact meaning of words, it is important to consider here the three types of lexical meaning which can be distinguished. They are: **referential**, **emotive** and **stylistic**.

Referential meaning (also called nominative, denotative or cognitive) has direct reference to things or phenomena of objective reality, naming abstract notions and processes as well. Referential meaning may be primary and secondary thus consisting of different lexical Semantic Variants (LSV).

Emotive meaning unlike referential meaning has no direct reference to things or phenomena of objective reality but to the feelings and emotions of the speaker. Therefore emotive meaning bears reference to things, phenomena or ideas through the speaker’s evaluation of them. Emotive meaning is inherent in a definite group of words even when they are taken out of the context.

Stylistic meaning is based on the stylistic stratification of the English vocabulary and is formed by stylistic reference, e.g. *face* (neutral), *countenance* (literary), *mug* (colloquial).

6. Referential Meaning and its Rendering in Translation

Lexical transformation which are practically always required in the rendering of referential meaning in translation are caused by various factors. They may be classed as follows:

a) **different vision** of objects and phenomena and **different approach** to them;

b) **different semantic structure** of a word in the SL and in the TL;

c) **different valency or collocability**;

d) **different usage**. Different vision.

It is common knowledge that one and the same object of reality may be viewed by different languages from different aspects: *the eye* (of the needle – *ушко иголки*; *hooks and eyes* – *крючки и петельки*).

Hot milk with skin on it – *горячее молоко с пенкой*.

Desalination – *опреснение*; *visible to the naked eye* – *видимый невооруженным глазом*; *a fortnight (forteen nights)* – *две недели*.

He lives next door – *Он живет в соседнем доме*.

All these words (*naked eye* – *невооруженный глаз*; *fortnight* – *две недели*; *next door* – *соседний дом*) describe the same facts and although formally not correlated they are equivalents.

He was no armchair strategist – *Он отнюдь не был кабинетным стратегом*.

Not only words of full meaning but even prepositions may imply different vision.

He folded his arms across his chest, crossed his knees.

Он скрестил руки на груди, положил ногу на ногу.

This factor (different vision) usually presents little difficulty for the translator but it must never be overlooked, otherwise the translator may lapse into literal translation. The difficulty arises when such words are used figuratively as part of some lexical stylistic device, that is, when they fulfill a stylistic function, e.g.

Instant history, like instant coffee, can be remarkably palatable, at least it is in this memoir by a former Whitehouse side who sees L.B.J. as “an extraordinary gifted President who was the wrong man, from the wrong place, at the wrong time, under the wrong circumstances.

Современная история, так же как и такой современный продукт как растворимый кофе, иногда бывает удивительно приятна, по крайней мере это так в рецензируемых мемуарах бывшего помощника президента Джонсона, который характеризует его как «исключительно способного президента, который был неподходящим человеком, родом из неподходящего места, в неподходящее время, при неподходящих обстоятельствах».

One and the same product is named in the S and T languages according to its different properties: the English language stresses the speed with such coffee

can be prepared whereas the Russian language lays special accent on the fact that it is soluble.

A word in one Language may denote, due to different vision, a wider non-differentiated notion, while the same notion is, as it were dismembered in the other language, and, consequently, there are two or more words denoting it. For example, the Russian word *часы* corresponds to two English words; “*watch*” and “*clock*”. The Russian word *город* has two counterparts; “*town*” and “*city*”. And vice versa, one English word may correspond to two or more Russian words, e.g. “*moon*” – *луна, месяц*, “*bell*” – *колокол, колокольчик, бубенчик, звонок, склянка, рында*. The Russian language uses one word *палец* which is indiscriminately applies “to terminal members” of the hand and foot, while the English language discriminates between these members and has accordingly three different words: *thumb, finger, toe*.

3. Divergences in the Semantic Structure of Words

The semantic structure of words presents a complicated problem as the so-called correlated words of the T languages are far from being identical in this respect. The only exception are some groups of monosemantic words which will be dealt with later.

Divergences in the semantic structure of words of the S and T languages are one of the primary cases of lexical transformations. These divergences or dissimilarities are connected with certain peculiar features of a word or a group of words. Even words which seem to have the same meaning in the two languages are not semantically identical. The primary meanings of correlated words often coincide while their derivative meanings do not. Thus there is only partial correspondence in the structures of polysemantic words as their lexical semantic variants do not cover one another. Semantic correlation is not to be interpreted as semantic identity and one-to-one correspondence between the semantic structures of correlated polysemantic words in the two languages is hardly ever possible.

Such partial correspondence may be illustrated by the following analysis of the correlated words *стол* and *table*. Their primary meanings denoting the same article of furniture are identical. But their secondary meanings diverge. Other lexical semantic variants of the word *table* are: part of the machine-tool; slab of wood (stone); matter written on this; level area, plateau; palm of hand, indicating character of fortune, etc. Lexical semantic variants of the word *стол* are: еда, пища, (стол и квартира, диетический стол); учреждение, отдел в канцелярии (паспортный стол, стол находок) etc.

Not infrequently the primary meaning (and sometimes the derivative meanings as well) of an English word consist of more than one semantic component or some, forming the so-called “bundles” of semantic elements. This is usually reflected in dictionaries which give more than one Russian equivalent of each LS of the English word.

The analysis of the polysemantic word “*mellow*” shows that it can modify a wide variety of objects and notions: fruit, wine, soil, voice, man, etc. Each sphere of its application corresponds to a different derivative meaning and each meaning (consisting of several semes) accordingly has two or more Russian equivalents.

1. спелый, мягкий, сочный (о фруктах); 2. выдержанный, старый (о вине); 3. приятный на вкус; 4. подобревший, смягчившийся с возрастом (о человеке); 5. мягкий, сочный, густой (о голосе и красках); 6. рыхлый, плодородный (о почве); 7. разг. веселый, подвыпивший. (БАРС)

It also follows from the above example that there is no single Russian word with a similar semantic structure corresponding to the word “*mellow*” and comprising all its meanings.

Different Valency

The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is described as its lexical valency or collocability which amounts to semantic agreement. Collocability implies the ability of a lexical unit to combine with other lexical units, with other words or lexical groups. A word as a lexical unit has both paradigmatic and syntagmatic collocability. The lexical meaning of a word is revealed in either case. The contexts in which a word is used bring out its distribution and potential collocability, thus the range of lexical valency of words is linguistically determined by the lexical meaning of words, by the compatibility of notions expressed by them and by the inner structure of the language word-stock.

It should be noted that valency comprises all levels of language – its phonological, syntactical and lexical levels. Only lexical valency will be considered here.

A detailed analysis of factual material shows that valency in the English language is broader and more flexible than that in the Russian language. This fact confronts the translator with additional difficulties, as it enables a writer to use unexpected individual combinations. It follows that valency may be obligatory non-obligatory and words accordingly fall into two categories: “open” or discrete words and “closed” or non-discrete ones. The adjective “aquiline” is a classical example of a word with a closed valency (ср. the Russian adjective *кромешный*).

Every language has its established valency norms, its types of word combinations, groups of words able to form such combinations. This especially concerns traditional, obligatory combinations while individual combinations give greater scope to translators. Individual collocability is by no means arbitrary and must not violate the existing models of valency. As a writer may bring out a potential meaning of some word he is also able to produce unexpected combinations. Such individual but linguistically justifiable collocations belong to the writer’s individual style in the way as his epithets or metaphors and may be regarded as an effective stylistic device, e.g.

She had seen many people die, but until now, she had never known a young foreign death. (R.Godden).

У нее на глазах умирало много людей, но до сих пор ей не приходилось видеть как умирал чужеземец, да еще такой юный.

Words traditionally collocated tend to constitute clichés, e.g. *a bad mistake, high hopes, heavy sea (rain, snow)*, etc. the translator is to find similar TL clichés, traditional collocations: *грубая ошибка, большие надежды, бурное море, сильный дождь (снег)*. The key word in such collocations is a noun, both semantically and structurally, while the modifying adjective plays a subordinate role. The key word is always preserved in translation but the collocated adjective is rendered by a word possessing a different referential meaning which expresses the same category (in this case – intensity) and corresponds to the TL valency norms. For example:

a bad mistake – *грубая ошибка*

a bad headache – *сильная головная боль*

a bed debt – *невозвращенный долг*

a bad accident – *тяжелый несчастный случай*

a bad wound – *тяжелая рана*

a bad egg – *тухлое яйцо*

a bad apple – *гнилое яблоко*.

It should be noted that words playing a qualifying role may be not only adjectives but also verbs and adverbs, e.g. *trains run* – *поезда ходят*; *to sit in dry dock* – *стоять в сухом доке*.

The problem of semantic agreement inevitably arises in the translation of phraseological units consisting of a verb of wide meaning and a noun (collocations or set expressions). The verb is practically desemantised and the noun is the semantic centre of the collocation.

The translation of the verb is determined by the law of semantic agreement, e.g. *to make tea (coffee)* – *заваривать чай (кофе)*

To make beds – *стелить постели*

To make faces – *строить рожи*

To make apologies – *приносить извинения*.

Every language possesses regular and compatible collocations.

After a day of heavy selling and in spite of persistent Bank of England support, the pound closed on Monday at a new record low against the United States dollar.

После того как в течение всего дня усиленно сбывались фунты стерлингов и несмотря на упорную поддержку Английского банка, к закрытию биржи в понедельник курс фунта достиг рекордно-низкого уровня по отношению к доллару.

The richer the semantic volume of a word is, the richer is its collocability which opens up wide translation possibilities.

A detailed analysis of various collocations shows that individual and unexpected collocations in different functional styles are much more frequent in English than in Russian.

Different collocability often calls for lexical and grammatical transformation, though of the collocation may have its equivalent in Russian, e.g. a “*controversial question*” – спорный вопрос but the collocation “*the most controversial Prime Minister*” cannot be translated as самый спорный премьер-министр.

Britain will tomorrow be welcoming on an official visit one of the most controversial and youngest Prime Minister in Europe.

Завтра в Англию прибывает с официальным визитом один из самых молодых премьер-министров Европы, который вызывает самые противоречивые мнения.

Sweden's neutral faith ought not to be in doubt.

Верность Швеции нейтралитету не подлежит сомнению.

A relatively free valency in the English language accounts for the free use of the so-called transferred epithet in which logical and syntactical modifications do not coincide.

I sat down to a very meditative breakfast.

В раздумье я принялся завтракать.

Logically the adjective “meditative” refers to the subject of the sentence whereas syntactically it is attached to the prepositional object. This unusual attachment converts it into a transferred epithet. The collocation *задумчивый завтрак* is hardly possible in Russian.

2. Different Usage

Traditional usage of words of word combinations is typical of each language. Traditional S.L. and T.L. usage or clichés do not coincide. The words forming such clichés often have different meanings in the two language but they are traditionally used to describe similar situations. The problem of the proper selection of equivalent words and clichés can be solved only if the peculiarities of the correlated languages are taken into consideration, e.g.

He is survived by his wife, a son and a daughter.

Он оставил после себя жену, сына и дочь. (После него остались жена, сын и дочь.)

She never drank boiled water.

Она никогда не пила сырой воды.

Sometimes different usage is partly due to different vision:

The city is built on terrace rising from the lake.

Город построен на террасах, спускающихся к озеру.

As a matter of fact there two verbs (*to rise* and *спускаться*) may be called conversives, that is, they describe the same situation from diametrically opposite angles.

Sometimes different usage is apparent in the use of semantically complete prepositions.

He wrote under several pseudonyms, many of his essays appearing over the name of "Little Nell". (F.Johnson).

Он писал под разными псевдонимами, многие его очерки появлялись под подписью «Крошка Нелл»

Usage is particularly conspicuous in set expressions.

The New Zealand earthquake was followed by tremors lasting an hour. No loss of life was reported.

После землетрясения в Новой Зеландии в течение часа ощущались толчки. Жертв не было.

The fact that the US Government was finally and firmly coming to grips with crime impressed many.

На многих произвело впечатление то, что правительство Соединенных Штатов, наконец, очень энергично начало борьбу с преступностью.

Usage plays an important part in translating orders and instructions.

Commit no nuisance – останавливаться воспрещается.

Usage is closely linked with the history and development of the language, of its lexical system. Hence every language creates peculiar clichés, ready-made formulae. They are never violated by the introduction of additional words or by the substitution of their components.

Translation of Monosemantic Words

Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number and the bulk of English words are polysemantic. English monosemantic words usually have full equivalents in Russian. There are the following lexical groups of monosemantic words: 1. proper names, 2. geographical names, 3. names of the months and the days of the week, 4. numerals, 5. some scientific and technological terms, 6. names of the streets, 7. names of hotels, 8. names of sports and games, 9. names of periodicals, 10. names of institutions and organizations.

The group of monosemantic words presents considerable variety because of its heterogeneous character.

Translation of Polysemantic Words. Polysemantic Words and the Context

A polysemantic word, as has been shown, is a word having several meanings or lexical-semantic variants. These lexical-semantic variants possess both lexical and grammatical features which are closely interwoven. These different meanings or lexical-semantic variants of polysemantic words are revealed in the context. By the term "context" is understood the minimum stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of a word.

The context individualises the meaning of the word, brings it out, reveals the intended lexical-semantic variant. It is in this sense that we say that the meaning of a polysemantic word is determined by the context. The term context comprises both the *narrow* or micro context and the *wide* or macro context. The narrow context implies sentence or even a word combination, e.g.: *bright star* – *яркая звезда*; *bright wine* – *прозрачное вино*; *bright day* – *светлый день*; *bright reply* – *блестящий ответ*; *a bright boy* – *способный,мышленный мальчик*. The following examples illustrate the importance of the context in translation.

The construction of the UNO was no simple or easy task.

This explains the peculiar construction of the Security Council.

In the first sentence the word “*construction*” has the meaning of “act of devising and forming” (Webster III), in the second sentence the meaning is “structure”.

These different contexts bring out different lexical-semantic variants of the word “*construction*” which are reflected in the Russian translation.

Создание ООН было не простой и не легкой задачей.

Это объясняет своеобразную структуру Совета Безопасности.

The importance of the context for translation is obvious. The micro context implies not only lexical but also syntactical ambient elements, e.g.: *the elm stood before the house* – *перед домом стоял вяз*; *he stood a whisky and soda* – *он угостил меня виски с содовой водой*.

The context or the situation not only reveals the intended meaning of a polysemantic word but also its concrete or abstract, its direct or transferred meaning.

A dictator relies upon his army and police force. – direct meaning
Диктатор опирается на свою армию и полицию.

The whole army of words – *вся масса слов* – transferred meaning.

An army of insects – *туча насекомых* – transferred meaning

He was crippled in the Vietnam war.

Он был искалечен на войне во Вьетнаме.

The criminal forces of reaction and anti-détente aim at crippling international cooperation.

Цель преступной поджигательной политики реакционеров и противников разрядки – подорвать международное сотрудничество.

Contextual Meaning of Polysemantic Words

The so-called contextual meaning is always individual, occasional and context-bound. It lives only in its context and disappears if the context is altered.

The contextual meaning of a word is usually semantically richer than the dictionary meaning because of the connections which it arouses.

In an atomic war women and children will be the first hostages.
Первыми жертвами в атомной войне будут женщины и дети.

The dictionary meaning of the word “hostage” is *заложник*, but in this context it is synonymous with “victim” as every hostage might become a victim and die. Thus the contextual meaning of a word is not arbitrary, it is inherent in its semantic structure and is brought out by the writer who is able to perceive its potentialities.

The vital role of context in bringing out different lexical-semantic variants and its importance in translation are well illustrated by the use of the noun and the verb “frustration, to frustrate”.

That there is a great deal of frustration in the land today is made evident by a proliferation of societies, leagues, committees, councils and crusades which propose to stop the clock or to turn its hands back.

О наличии в настоящее время глубокого разочарования в стране говорит множество всяких обществ, лиг, комитетов, советов и крестовых походов, которые стремятся остановить время или повернуть его вспять.

A second common denotation of the Rightist group is that they tend to attribute every frustration to betrayal by traitors.

Второй общей чертой всех правых групп является склонность приписывать все неудачи измене и предательству.

It is hard to escape a conclusion that the essential negativism of the “either - or” approach is designed to frustrate rather than forward any kind of agreement.

Нельзя не прийти к выводу, что крайний негативизм подхода «или – или» (все или ничего) рассчитан на срыв, а не на заключение любого соглашения.

Words of Wide Meaning

Words possessing a wide volume of meaning are peculiarly adaptable to different contexts.

The commanding officer singled him out because of his university background. (Nicholas Monserrat)

Командир выбрал его, так как он был человек с университетским образованием.

...he was a landlord with a Tory background.

...он был помещиком и происходил из семьи консерваторов.

Parents of genuine hippies find themselves up against a type of mentality with which they are unprepared, either by background or experience, to cope.

Родители убежденных хиппи сталкиваются с таким образом мыслей, с каким они не могут справиться ни благодаря своему воспитанию, ни своему жизненному опыту.

Did reporters usually allow the Secretary of State to determine after an interview whether it was going to be on the record, off the record or only for background. (Carl Bernstein, Bob Woodward).

Неужели корреспонденты обычно позволяли Государственному секретарю решать после интервью будет ли оно считаться официальным, неофициальным, или данным только для их информации.

In certain cases the translator has to turn to a wider context which sometimes comprises a whole paragraph a whole chapter or a whole book.

Thus in Chapter LIII of “Vanity Fair” Thackeray describes the unexpected return of Rawdon Crawley from the debtor’s prison and his consternation when he finds his wife in the company of Lord Steyne.

“The wretched woman was in a brilliant full toilet”.

The adjective “wretched” has the following meanings: miserable, unhappy, afflicted, inferior, of bad quality or no merit, contemptible, unsatisfactory, causing discontent or discomfort or nuisance. (The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English).

Thackeray, a moralist, condemned immorality throughout his writing. Aware of this the translator naturally chooses contemptible.

На этой презренной (низкой, подлой, вероломной, коварной) женщине был роскошный вечерний туалет.

3. Non-Equivalents

Non-equivalents are SL words which have no corresponding lexical units in the TL vocabulary.

The absence of equivalents may be explained both by extralinguistic and linguistic reasons. Accordingly, non-equivalents may be divided into two groups. The first group consists of words denoting referents unknown in the target language – things, objects, notions, features of national life, customs, habits, etc. the words of this group bear a distinctly national character and are tied up with the history of the people speaking that language, the growth of its culture, its way of life and traditions. Cultural discrepancy accounts for the appearance of words which are untranslatable in the literal sense of the word. Yet there are different ways of rendering these words in translation and of overcoming the so-called “barrier of untranslatability” (cultural untranslatability). The words belonging to this group cover a wide range of denotata, e.g. *speaker, parliament, public school, landslide, coroner, teach-in, drive-in, know-how, striptease, brain drain, backbencher, grill-room*, as well as titles of politeness, etc.

The second group embraces words which for some linguistic reason have no equivalents in the target language, the so-called linguistic lancunae, e.g. *privacy, involvement, glimpse, conservationist, environmentalist, oralist, readership, riser, bedder, vote-getter, statehood*, etc.

It should be stressed that the term “non-equivalents” merely implies the absence of a word or a word-combination in the vocabulary of the target language but does not exclude the possibility of rendering “non-equivalents” in translation, usually by descriptive translation.

Translation of Non-Equivalents

There are three ways of rendering non-equivalents in translation.

By Borrowings

The borrowed words may be either transliterated or transcribed, e.g. *ale* – эль, *roastbeef* – рoстбиф, *sweater* – свитер (transliterated borrowings). *Parliament* – парламентар, *striptease* – стриптиз, *speaker* – спикер, *know-how* – ноу-хау, *establishment* – истеблишмент (transcribed borrowings). The latter principle is, as seen from the above examples, applicable to the rendering of neologisms.

By translation loans

House of Commons – Палата Общин, *backbencher* – заднескамеечник, *brain trust* – мозговой трест.

By Descriptive or Interpreting Translation

Landslide – победа на выборах с огромным перевесом голосов;
a stringer (америк.) – частично занятый корреспондент, труд которого оплачивается из расчета количества слов;
a conservationist (environmentalist) – человек, озабоченный загрязнением или уничтожением окружающей среды.

Differences in cultural background frequently require detailed additions which are explanatory. What is familiar to the native reader may be unfamiliar to the reader of the translation. Additions in this case make up for the implicit information, contained in the text.

Her home is filled from top to toe with Victoria, classically elegant, very together.

Ее дом сверху донизу наполнен мебелью и всякими вещами викторианской эпохи, все в строгом и элегантном стиле, очень хорошо сочетается между собой.

The presidential campaign of 1976 produced the neologism “oralist”.

This college professor is what campaign sides describe as an “oralist” – someone who isn’t asked to hammer out position papers, but can drop by or call up with some words of advice.

Организаторы избирательной кампании называли этого профессора «устным советчиком» - он не должен был писать программные документы; он только забежал, чтобы дать коротенькие советы или давал их по телефону.

Translation of Words of Emotive Meaning

As has been pointed out some words contain an element of emotive evaluation. The element of emotive meaning may be regarded as another seme, and is an integral element of their semantic structure, e.g. *love, hate, to cry, to suffer*, etc.

Morphological factors may heighten the emotive meaning already contained in the semantic structure of a word. For instance, the emotive meaning inherent in the word “*vexation*” is intensified by the use of this word in the plural.

Despite the limitation on its jurisdiction, the International Court of Justice manages to smooth a considerable number of petty frictions, and keep them from becoming serious vexations. (P.Lyon).

Несмотря на такое ограничение своей юрисдикции, Международному Суду удается сглаживать значительное количество мелких трений и не давать им перерасти в серьезные конфликты.

The emotive meaning is created by connotations which may be positive or negative. In the following example “*the endless resolutions received by the National Peace Committee*” has positive connotations. Its correlated word *бесконечные* cannot be used in the translation of this phrase as it will evoke negative connotations: boring, dull. The right word to choose in this context is *многочисленные (бесчисленные) резолюции, полученные Национальным Комитетом Мира*.

The meaning of the English noun “*blow*” is neutral but when it is used with the preposition “for” or “against” it acquires positive or negative connotations respectively (help, oppose – The COD) whereas the Russian noun always evokes negative connotations.

The peaceful policy of the Soviet Union is a tremendous blow for peace.

Мирная политика Советского Союза является огромным вкладом в дело обеспечения мира.

The Russian verb *озарить* conveys positive connotations, e.g. *ее лицо озарила улыбка*, whereas its referential equivalent in English is evidently neutral.

Horror dawned in her face. (Victoria Holt)

На ее лице появилось выражение ужаса.

These connotations may form part of the same semantic structure of a word but they may also be due to its collocations with certain words and become permanent, compare: *черная меланхолия, черная зависть, черная неблагодарность; розовые надежды, розовые очки, в розовом свете*.

Emotive meaning varies in different word classes. In some of them, for example, in interjections, the emotive element prevails. On the other hand, in conjunctions the emotive meaning is practically non-existent. In other classes of words which possess emotive meaning it forms, as has already been said, part of their semantic structure.

Emotive meaning should be rendered in translation. Words of wide semantic structure, of vague and indefinite semantic boundaries are difficult for

translation due to their semantic ambiguity and the possibility of subjective interpretation. The adjective *fierce*, for example, is a good illustration of that kind of emotive meaning. The dominant seme inherent in all its lexical-semantic variants is the seme of “vehemence” which acquires different semantic modifications in these variants. The БАРС dictionary gives the following meanings: *fierce* – 1. свирепый, лютый, жестокий; 2. неистовый, сильный; 3. неудержимый, горячий; 4. бодрый, энергичный; 5. амер. жарг. невыносимый, отвратительный.

There was no answer, only the tapping on the window, once more repeated, fierce and sharp. (I. Murdoch).

Никто не ответил, только повторился стук в окно, сильный и резкий.

At night passers would see the fierce dead glare of the patent lamp.

(W. Falkner)

Ночью прохожие видели нестерпимо-яркий мертвенный свет неприкрытого щитом уличного фонаря.

The Spaniards ruled Sardinia for four centuries and gave Sardinians their aura of grave courtliness and their fierce pride.

Испанцы правили Сардинией четыре столетия и привили сардинцам суровую учтивость и необузданную гордость.

The element of vehemence is distinctly felt in all these uses of the word “*fierce*” corresponding to all its dictionary lexical-semantic variants. But in the following example the reference of the adjective “*fierce*” is suppressed by its emotive meaning and it is practically used as an expletive. Its vague referential meaning is commented upon by the writer.

*In a fury of haste he dragged a bottle-green sweater over the dark red one he wore. “Gosh”, he exclaimed, “this is fierce”. What he designated as “*fierce*” can only be guessed, but probably referred to the furious speed with which life was moving.* (M. de la Roche).

В безумной спешке он натянул темно-зеленый свитер поверх темно-красного, который на нем был. «Черт возьми», - воскликнул он – «здорово». Что он хотел сказать этим, можно только догадываться, возможно он имел в виду ту бешеную скорость, с какой летела жизнь.

There are cases when *fierce* deprived of all reference becomes a mere intensifier/ the translation in such cases is purely contextual? E.g. *fierce black hair, fierce red moustache* – *черные как смоль волосы, огненно-рыжие усы.*

Sometimes different usage of different valency do not allow the use of the correlated Russian word with the same reference.

In the general strike, the fight against the depression, the antifascist struggle, and against Hitlerism the British Communist party played a proud role.

Во время всеобщей забастовки в борьбе против кризиса, в антифашистской борьбе в самой Англии и в борьбе против гитлеризма коммунистическая партия Великобритании играла выдающуюся роль.

“Proud” and «выдающийся» “have the same degree of intensity and may be regarded as emotive equivalents.

As has already been pointed out the emotive meaning of some adjectives and adverbs is pronounced that it suppresses their referential meaning and they come to be used merely as intensifiers. Their translation is achieved by Russian intensifiers irrespective of their reference.

Even judged by Tery standards, the level of the debate on the devaluation of the pound yesterday was abysmally low.

Даже с точки зрения консерваторов, дебаты в Палате Общин вчера по вопросу с девальвации фунта происходили на чрезвычайно (невероятно) низком уровне.

Rendering of Stylistic Meaning in Translation

Every word is stylistically marked according to the layer of the vocabulary it belongs to. Stylistically words can be subdivided into literary and non-literary. The greater part of the literary layer of the Modern English vocabulary is formed by words of general use (i.e. words of general purpose) possessing no special stylistic reference and known as neutral words. Neutral words comprise common colloquial words and common literary words as well. Colloquial words and some groups of literary words are expressive while neutral words are not.

The stylistic function of the different strata of the English vocabulary depends not so much on the inner qualities of each of the groups as on their interaction when opposed to one another.

It would be an error to translate a neutral or a literary word by a colloquial one or a colloquial word by a literary one or to introduce a colloquial word in a literary context.

TOPICS FOR SELF-CONTROL AND CLASS/HOME REVIEWING

1. The main rules of translating of words of wide meaning.
2. The main rules of translating of polysemantic words.
3. The main rules of translating of emotive words.

Seminar 8. Three Types of Equivalence Plan

1. Types of Equivalence
2. The Notion of the Text.
3. The Notion of the Discourses.
4. Polysemantic words.

5. Words of Wide Meaning.

Recommended Literature

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2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

Task 1

1. Read the material.
2. Translate the text.
3. Write down the essay “Training of primary school teacher in Ukraine”

Primary school teacher: Training

Newly qualified teachers (NQTs) throughout the UK must serve an induction or probationary period, normally of one year. They are monitored and

supported, have a reduced timetable and a designated induction tutor and work on areas identified for development during their initial teacher training (ITT).

In-service training is available and teachers are encouraged to pursue continuing professional development (CPD) relevant to their own responsibilities and the development needs of the school. Training takes place in-house on teacher training days or at regional training centres run by local authorities.

Topics often covered in training include:

- curriculum issues;
- target setting and assessment;
- special needs;
- subject leadership;
- pastoral care;
- new initiatives;
- technology.

Some teachers study on a part-time basis for higher qualifications related to their specialist subject or they take a Masters degree in education or business administration (MBA), depending on their career aims. Professional qualifications for school managers are also available.

(AGCAS 

Written by Laura Stanley, University of Wolverhampton)

Task 2

- 1. Read the material.**
- 2. Translate the text.**
- 3. Write down the essay “Ukrainian primary school teacher. Job description”.**

Primary school teacher: Job description

Primary school teachers develop schemes of work and lesson plans in line with curriculum objectives. They facilitate learning by establishing a relationship with pupils and by their organisation of learning resources and the classroom learning environment.

Primary school teachers develop and foster the appropriate skills and social abilities to enable the optimum development of children, according to age, ability and aptitude. They assess and record progress and prepare pupils for examinations. They link pupils' knowledge to earlier learning and develop ways to encourage it further, and challenge and inspire pupils to help them deepen their knowledge and understanding.

Typical work activities

Primary schools in England and Wales are usually divided into:

- Foundation Stage (ages 3-5, nursery and reception);
- Key Stage 1 (ages 5-7, years 1 and 2);
- Key Stage 2 (ages 7-11, years 3-6).

Lower primary usually refers to the Foundation Stage and Key Stage 1 and upper primary is Key Stage 2. In England there is sometimes a middle tier, so that children go to a primary school up until the age of 8 or 9, transfer to a middle

school until the age of 12 or 13 and then move to a secondary school. In Scotland, primary school classes are organised by age from Primary 1 (ages 4-5) to Primary 7 (ages 11-12).

Tasks are broadly the same for all primary school teachers and include:

- teaching all areas of the primary curriculum;
- taking responsibility for the progress of a class of primary-age pupils;
- organising the classroom and learning resources and creating displays to encourage a positive learning environment;
- planning, preparing and presenting lessons that cater for the needs of the whole ability range within their class;
- motivating pupils with enthusiastic, imaginative presentation;
- maintaining discipline;
- preparing and marking work to facilitate positive pupil development;
- meeting requirements for the assessment and recording of pupils' development;
- providing feedback to parents and carers on a pupil's progress at parents' evenings and other meetings;
- coordinating activities and resources within a specific area of the curriculum, and supporting colleagues in the delivery of this specialist area;
- working with others to plan and coordinate work;
- keeping up to date with changes and developments in the structure of the curriculum;
- organising and taking part in school events, outings and activities which may take place at weekends or in the evening;
- liaising with colleagues and working flexibly, particularly in smaller schools;
- working with parents and school governors (in England, Northern Ireland and Wales) or School Boards (in Scotland) to maximise their involvement in the school and the development of resources for the school;
- meeting with other professionals such as education welfare officers and educational psychologists, if required.

AGCAS 

(Written by Laura Stanley, University of Wolverhampton)

Task 3

Read the material.

Translate the material.

Write down your own CV.

Create a successful CV

Your CV is a great chance to prove that you have the specific skills and experience required by an employer. To promote yourself effectively, identify the skills required in the vacancy and provide evidence of you having them.

For example, you could prove your teamwork skills by describing a specific activity at university and outlining how you:

Listened to colleagues, encouraged them and responsibly carried out my personal role, resulting in a mark of 71% and a business recommendation.

You should use positive power words and any headings you want to promote your specific skills and experiences - here are some of the headings you should consider:

Personal details

This is usually the first heading on a CV and you should keep it short.

- Print your name at the top in a large font.
- If necessary, include both your term-time and home addresses (with dates when you will be at each).
- Create a professional voicemail reply message and email address incorporating your name.
- As a rule, do not include information relating to your age, sex, nationality, marital status or health.
- If you are not from the European Economic Area and have permission to work here you may want to make this clear to employers.

Education

Provide details of your education going back to your GCSEs (or equivalent). For each school, further education and higher education institution you have attended (or are attending), list the following:

- the institution's name;
- the town (and country, if it is overseas);
- when you were there (from start to finish);
- your qualifications and grades (especially if they are good), and their UK equivalents if they were taken overseas).

Summarise GCSEs, but promote your recent education and training more fully. Relate your degree(s) to the job you are going for. For example, you could list relevant modules, outline related projects and/or promote the skills you have gained.

Experience/work experience

All work experience counts, whether paid, voluntary or shadowing (working alongside someone for a short time to see what their job is like). Outline your responsibilities and achievements that were/are relevant to the job you are seeking. Provide more information for recent and relevant roles. Some experience can be grouped together. For example:

Summer 2009: A variety of customer service roles including bar work, waitressing and telesales. Developed an awareness of customer relationship management and improved my teamwork skills whilst working with challenging customers in high pressure environments.

Positions of responsibility/achievements/interests

Choose one of these headings to outline extracurricular accomplishments which demonstrate your personal initiative and career motivation. Briefly

describe what you have done, how you have succeeded and the relevant skills you have gained. For example:

As president of the university karate club I organise regular meetings to discuss possible events and successfully collaborate with a wide range of people including undergraduates, postgraduates, administrators, senior academics and sponsors.

Referees

You can either provide the contact details of two referees or tell the employer that your references are 'available upon request'. One of your referees should be work-related, e.g. a manager at work, and one should be an academic at university - most people use their personal tutor.

Optional headings

You can also create any other headings which highlight your particular attributes for the specific job. Some options are shown below.

Personal profile/career objective

This is a short (three/four line) summary of your relevant attributes and specific career aims. Well targeted profiles can attract attention but general statements often create a bad impression.

Follow these rules:

- use the third person (do not use 'I' or 'my');
- focus on just one or two of the key skills and experiences required.

For example:

Pro-active marketing graduate with over three years' experience organising and publicising successful events. Created a popular marketing campaign during internship with Virgin Airlines. Looking for a challenging and creative marketing position in the airline industry.

Relevant experience and Additional experience

If you have a wide range of employment experience, you may want to highlight your most relevant work history under a 'Relevant experience' heading and list your other jobs in an 'Additional experience' section.

Other possible headings

You may want to include any number of additional headings such as: 'Career summary', 'Technical skills', 'Publications', 'Additional skills' and 'Accountancy experience' (if relevant to the job role).

Layout

It should be easy to scan your CV and see your key skills and experiences. To do this effectively:

- use an appropriate (chronological, skills-based or academic);
- highlight relevant skills and experiences;
- place key information at the top of the CV where it can be easily seen;
- use bullet points to break up text;
- use positive headings such as 'Skills gained' and 'Relevant experience';
- list your experiences in reverse chronological order (most recent first);
- make dates easy to see and leave no unexplained gaps in time.

Presentation

To create a good impression:

- use good quality paper (if sending a hard copy);
- in most instances, use two full pages (investment banks may expect a one-page CV, and academic institutions may want a longer academic CV for academic roles);
- use a simple consistent format;
- promote yourself with positive words and phrases;
- spell everything appropriately and use correct grammar;
- avoid graphics and tables as they can look cluttered;
- use a larger font size for headings and use bold for emphasis (but do not overdo it);
- keep it simple and attractive even if a job calls for artistic creativity (you can always provide a portfolio of your work);
- avoid too much white space.

Ask a careers adviser for further help and feedback.

Types of CV

Chronological CV

This is the traditional CV format which directly links your education, work experience, achievements and interests to your relevant skills. Experiences are listed in reverse chronological order (i.e. your most recent studies and jobs are shown first).

This format is particularly effective if you have relevant experience because it highlights:

- what you have done;
- who you have worked for;
- how you have progressed.

Skill-based CV

In this type of CV you briefly list your education, work experience, achievements and interests in one section and outline your relevant skills in a separate 'skills profile'.

CVs with well-targeted skills profiles are particularly effective when:

- your experiences are not obviously relevant;
- you have changed jobs frequently;
- you have a wide range of experiences;
- you are looking to change career direction.

This is because your skills profile shows that you have addressed the needs of the employer and you have gained all the transferrable skills required

Academic CV

If you are looking for a research role you should demonstrate your relevant academic knowledge and achievements. Your headings could be:

- dissertation;
- research abstracts;
- research interests;

- areas of expertise;
- teaching experience;
- administrative experience;
- publications;
- presentations;
- conferences attended;
- professional memberships;
- fellowships and awards.

Remember - your research interests should be comprehensible to people outside your field but scholarly enough to interest fellow researchers.

Do not neglect your transferable skills and always use a professional layout. Academic employers want academic staff who are motivated team players, and can manage projects, bring in funding and communicate concisely and professionally.

For further information on marketing a PhD effectively, see your PhD, what next? If you are a postgraduate but not looking for an academic career, your CV should follow an alternative layout.

(Written by Steve Rook, AGCAS)

Task 4

- 1. Translate the material.**
- 2. Make the summary of the material in Ukrainian.**
- 3. Make the conspect in English.**

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS - ITS ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT

Discourse analysis is a primarily linguistic study examining the use of language by its native population whose major concern is investigating language functions along with its forms, produced both orally and in writing. Moreover, identification of linguistic qualities of various genres, vital for their recognition and interpretation, together with cultural and social aspects which support its comprehension, is the domain of discourse analysis. To put it in another way, the branch of applied linguistics dealing with the examination of discourse attempts to find patterns in communicative products as well as and their correlation with the circumstances in which they occur, which are not explainable at the grammatical level.

2.1 Starting point of discourse analysis

The first modern linguist who commenced the study of relation of sentences and coined the name 'discourse analysis', which afterwards denoted a branch of applied linguistics, was Zellig Harris. Originally, however, it was not to be treated as a separate branch of study - Harris proposed extension of grammatical examination which reminded syntactic investigations.

The emergence of this study is a result of not only linguistic research, but also of researchers engaged in other fields of inquiry, particularly sociology, psychology, anthropology and psychotherapy. In 1960s and 1970s other scholars, that is philosophers of language or those dealing with pragmatics enormously influenced the development of this study as well. Among other contributors to this field the Prague School of Linguists, whose focusing on organization of information in communicative products indicated the connection of grammar and discourse, along with text grammarians are worth mentioning.

A significant contribution to the evolution of **discourse analysis** has been made by British and American scholars. In Britain the examination of discourse turned towards the study of the social functions of language. Research conveyed at the University of Birmingham fruited in creating a thorough account of communication in various situations such as debates, interviews, doctor-patient relations, paying close attention to the intonation of people participating in talks as well as manners particular to circumstances. Analysis of the factors essential for succession of decently made communication products on the grounds of structural-linguistic criteria was another concern of British scholars. Americans, on the other hand, focused on examining small communities of people and their discourse in genuine circumstances. Apart from that, they concentrated on conversation analysis inspecting narratives in addition to talks and the behavior of speakers as well as patterns repeating in given situations. Division and specification of types of discourse along with social limitations of politeness and thorough description of face saving acts in speech is also American scholars' contribution.

- Sphere of interest of discourse analysts.

The range of inquiry of discourse analysis not only covers linguistic issues, but is also concerned with other matters, such as: enabling computers to

comprehend and produce intelligible texts, thus contributing to progress in the study of Artificial Intelligence. Out of these investigations a very important concept of schemata emerged. It might be defined as prior knowledge of typical situations which enables people to understand the underlying meaning of words in a given text. This mental framework is thought to be shared by a language community and to be activated by key words or context in order for people to understand the message. To implement schemata to a computer, however, is yet impossible.

Discourse analysts carefully scrutinize universal circumstances of the occurrence of communicative products, particularly within state institutions. Numerous attempts to minimize misunderstandings between bureaucrats and citizens were made, resulting in user-friendly design of documents. The world of politics and features of its peculiar communicative products are also of concern to discourse analysts. Having carefully investigated that area of human activity scholars depicted it as characterized by frequent occurrence of face saving acts and euphemisms. One other sphere of life of particular interest to applied linguists is the judicature and its language which is incomprehensible to most common citizens, especially due to pages-long sentences, as well as peculiar terminology. Moreover, educational institutions, classroom language and the language that ought to be taught to enable learners to successfully comprehend both oral and written texts, as well as participate in real life conversations and produce native-like communicative products is the domain of discourse analysis. Last but not least, influence of gender on language production and perception is also examined.

2.2.1 Spoken language analysis

The examination of oral discourse is mainly the domain of linguists gathered at the University of Birmingham, who at first concentrated on the language used during teacher - learner communication, afterwards altering their sphere of interest to more general issues. However, patterns of producing speech characteristic of communities, or members of various social classes within one population were also of ethnomethodologists' interest. A result of such inquiries was discovering how turn taking differs from culture to culture as well as how standards of politeness vary. In addition, manners of beginning discussions on new topics were described.

What is more, it was said that certain characteristics are common to all societies, for instance, indicating the end of thought or end of utterance. The words that are to point the beginning or the closing stages of a phrase are called 'frames'. McCarthy claims that it is thanks to them that people know when they can take their turn to speak in a conversation. However, in spite of the fact that frames can be noticed in every society, their use might differ, which is why knowledge of patterns of their usage may be essential for conducting a fluent and natural dialogue with a native speaker. Moreover, these differences are not only characteristic of cultures, but also of circumstances in which the conversation occurs, and are also dependent on the rights (or 'rank') of the participants.

Apart from that, it was pointed out that some utterances are invariably interrelated, which can enable teachers of foreign languages to prepare learners adequately to react as a native speaker would. Among the phrases whose successors are easy to anticipate there are for instance: greeting, where the response is also greeting; apology with the response in the form of acceptance or informing – and acknowledging as a response. Such pairs of statements are known as adjacency pairs. While the function of the reply is frequently determined by the former expression its very form is not, as it depends on circumstances in which the conversation occurs. Thus, in a dialogue between two friends refusal to provide help might look like that: *no way! I ain't gonna do that!*, but when mother asks her son to do something the refusing reply is more likely to take different form: *I'm afraid I can't do that right now, can you wait 5 minutes?* Frequently used phrases, such as "I'm afraid", known as softeners, are engaged when people want to sound more respectful. Learners of a foreign language should be aware of such linguistic devices if they want to be skillful speakers.

2.2.2 Written texts analysis

Since the examination of written language is easier to conduct than the scrutiny of oral texts, in that more data is available in different genres, produced by people from different backgrounds as well as with disparate purposes, it is more developed and of interest not only to linguists but also language teachers and literary scholars. Each of them, however, approaches this study in a different way, reaching diverse conclusions, therefore only notions that are mutual for them and especially those significant for language methodology are accounted for here. What is worth mentioning is the fact that in that type of analysis scholars do not evaluate the content in terms of literary qualities, or grammatical appropriateness, but how readers can infer the message that the author intended to convey (Trappes-Lomax 2004:133).

Apart from differences between written and spoken language described beforehand it is obviously possible to find various types and classes of discourse depending on their purpose. Written texts differ from one another not only in genre and function, but also in their structure and form, which is of primary importance to language teachers, as the knowledge of arrangement and variety of writing influences readers' understanding, memory of messages included in the discourse, as well as the speed of perception. Moreover, written texts analysis provides teachers with systematic knowledge of the ways of describing texts, thanks to which they can make their students aware of characteristic features of discourse to which the learners should pay particularly close attention, such as cohesion and coherence. In addition, understanding these concepts should also improve learners' writing skills as they would become aware of traits essential for a good written text.

One of the major concerns of written discourse analysts is the relation of neighboring sentences and, in particular, factors attesting to the fact that a given text is more than only the sum of its components. It is only with written language analysis that certain features of communicative products started to be satisfactorily described, despite the fact that they were present also in speech, like

for instance the use of 'that' to refer to a previous phrase, or clause. As mentioned before written language is more integrated than the spoken one which is achieved by more frequent use of some cohesive devices which apart from linking clauses or sentences are also used to emphasize notions that are of particular importance to the author and enable the reader to process the chosen information at the same time omitting needless sections.

Task 5

1. Read the material.

2. Translate it orally and make the summary in Ukrainian.

The Challenges of Being a Translator on the Eve of the 21st Century by Frédéric Houbert

Note: Please note this article is based on my own experience as a freelance translator; it is therefore not intended to reflect the situation and frame of mind of all freelancers, be it in France or elsewhere. Some readers will find it somewhat pessimistic and gloomy, while others may find something in it to personally relate to (I suppose “Awaiting Big Break,” who recently told about her own experience in the “Bottom Line” column of the Translation Journal, would probably fit in the second category). In any case, it is a fairly accurate account of my present view of the translation profession.

Most senior translators will probably tell you that starting a career as a freelance translator 20 or 30 years ago was a relatively simple matter: all you needed then was appropriate language skills, a reliable typewriter and a fair idea of how to find clients and keep them. Even five years ago, when I started my own career as a freelancer, I thought that my university qualifications and sense of purpose would be enough for me to join this profession I had long admired. And indeed, I was right: after three or four months of feeling my feet, my prospecting efforts finally started to pay off and work began to come in in a steady, if not altogether overwhelming flow.

Now, five years later, I cannot help but cast a nostalgic and regretful eye on my debut as a freelance translator. In spite of my relative lack of experience in the trade, I often find myself thinking, “those were the days...,” when I come to consider the turn the translation trade has taken over the past few years. Indeed, the days of smooth sailing are over; experience, good translating skills, competitive rates and fast turnaround are simply no longer enough to meet the many requirements translators are now faced with and to ensure a sufficient workload in the long run. The rules of the game have changed, the wheel has turned, and a good command of bluffing techniques just won't do now.

Now, you may rightly wonder, why has this come about? Whatever happened on the way to “translation paradise”? Let me just try and provide one or two personal explanations to this riddle.

A couple of decades ago, translators were usually highly regarded by clients or at least recognized for what they truly were, that is, high-level linguists with a satisfactory level of expertise in one or several fields of specialization

A couple of decades ago, translators were usually highly regarded by clients or at least recognized for what

they truly were, that is high-level linguists with a satisfactory level of expertise in one or several fields of specialization and a fairly decent knowledge of the industrial world. Why? Simply because they provided a service that was deemed useful in spite of the cost it entailed. Nowadays, partly due to the widespread feeling of distrust prevailing in the working world, most translators, or at least those with under 10 years' experience, are looked upon as opportunistic service providers with few or no skills of their own; clients often consider them as “bogus” specialists, with no real expert knowledge, and self-proclaimed language experts, who could probably be dispensed with altogether since most people now perfectly understand English anyway (it should be pointed out at this stage that I primarily handle translations from English into French).

I thus recently spoke to a shipbroker I had contacted in order to offer my services as an English-French translator. He sounded genuinely surprised that I should seek to sell him my stuff, since, in his opinion, all experts working in the field of shipping and maritime transport should be fluent speakers and writers of English. My reply was that although the people working in his specific field are obviously expected to have at least a basic understanding of English, languages and more specifically, the transmission of shades of meaning from one language into another, hardly come within their scope of expertise. The shipbroker however stood his ground (isn't that a funny expression for an expert in sea transport?!) and we continued our conversation on more diplomatic terms, each sticking to our guns. The one thing I learned from this particular conversation is that as long as the client doesn't see where your skills as a linguist can benefit his business, chances are he will always consider you as a kind of go-between trying to take advantage of the lack of professionalism of certain individuals in his field.

The widespread feeling that most people are now fluent in English is of course a major disadvantage for translators, especially those who, like myself, essentially handle English-into-French assignments (and obviously even more so in the case of translators doing jobs into English). We have all heard stories, regardless of the language combination, of how a large number of companies now satisfy their translation needs on an in-house basis, using whatever “multipurpose” employee they believe is best qualified to do the job (incidentally, the “employee” in question often turns out to be a secretary or someone from the communication department with no proper translation background). The question in fact is the following: when faced with a client with few or no language skills, how can a translator possibly give proof of his competence as a linguist? The London-based Institute of Linguists asks the same question and provides a “biased” answer, to say the least!: “As a translator, how do you prove to potential clients that you are ‘professionally competent’? How do you demonstrate to them that you are a cut above the rest, how do you show them that you are a true expert in your field? By showing them that you hold the Institute of Linguists’ Diploma in Translation, that’s how,” (taken from the “Linguist” section in the IoL's web site). This suggestion is interesting enough but it hardly answers the bottom-line

question: how can the translator show his client the difference between “being fluent for business purposes” and being able to master each and every subtlety of language? After all, this is what it all comes down to: the problem is not so much about providing proof of your own competence as trying to make the client aware of the gap that exists between his own skills and yours.

As a translator myself, I simply couldn't tell you how many times I have been told by a client, after having been given a translation to perform: “I would have done it myself, but as you know, time is scarce, so I thought I'd give you a call....” Now, is this really what a translator likes to hear, or more accurately, is this really what a translator deserves to be told? I think this observation says a lot about the present frame of mind of a large number of clients with respect to translators.

The slow change in the client's perception of translation as a profession is, however, but one of the many predicaments modern translators have to deal with nowadays. Indeed, in addition to their sometimes difficult relationship with clients, translators are usually faced with a multitude of challenges which take up whatever time they have left once the translation work itself is out of the way.

The first challenge the translator has to take up is directly related to his profession and is something that translators often take for granted, without giving the matter a serious thought: I am talking about maintaining one's language skills. Many translators feel that just spending time translating is enough to ensure their skills are maintained at an appropriate level of quality. Well, this is obviously wrong: translators, regardless of their personal level of competence, should spend a decent amount of time, before and after translating, researching information, speaking or otherwise practicing their languages, compiling glossaries, seeking out dictionaries, following training courses in their fields of expertise, etc. This is probably the first step towards guaranteeing 100% dedication to your work. A translator who never even bothers to read the papers (in both his source and target languages), travel abroad or listen to foreign news on the TV or radio is definitely not worthy of the title he uses, because he lacks the one quality that all translators should exhibit in the first place: curiosity.

In addition to updating his linguistic skills on a continuous basis, the translator needs to make sure his computer literacy is in sync with the standards set by his clients (especially those who regularly come with fat user manuals and other large translation projects). A few years back, a translator could not reasonably offer his services without including in his equipment a high-speed modem. These days, hanging around trade fairs and having to admit you are still without your own e-mail address will make you look like a would-be Formula 1 driver cruising around in a second-hand Lada.

Updating your information technology skills is probably more of a challenge than “simply” maintaining your linguistic competence; indeed, while there are many ways for a translator to maintain or improve his knowledge of languages on a stand-alone basis, organizing your own IT training courses proves a much harder task. Most translators will always find an answer to their

terminology-related problems but will see most error or warning messages on their computer screen as a potential threat to their mental integrity.

It is true that the fast-changing world of computers represents a major challenge not only for translators but also for most people working on a freelance basis, and although senior translators sometimes manage to retain their long-term clients despite their obvious reluctance to use modern means of communication, their fledgling colleagues will often find that a strong background in computing and IT usually stands as a prerequisite for a career as a freelancer.

The trickiest part of keeping abreast of technological evolutions is probably the necessary ability to anticipate what will become tomorrow's standard requirements: after the modem and e-mail address, what will be required of translators next in order to be given assignments? Having their own web site? More and more freelancers are now trying to sell their skills via the Internet, which is a proof of our increasing awareness of the potential of this medium. Although web sites aren't as yet an indispensable accessory in the marketing toolbox of modern translators, they certainly prove to be an invaluable communication tool which translators can use to show their clients that they are in step with the modern world and that their horizon reaches far beyond the clichéd heaps of dictionaries and gloomy library halls with which translators have always been associated.

For those of us who manage both to maintain our language skills and resist the unrelenting tide of technological progress, the next step is to keep an eye on the many requirements imposed upon us by the “administration” (this word is used in France to describe the French army of civil servants) and the various departments of government, which often seem to be out on a mission to make our lives a misery. Most translators practicing in France will tell you that fighting one's way through red tape and solving the many problems posed by the “Direction des Impôts” (i.e., the French IRS) is a time-consuming process that often leaves little or no room for more useful pursuits such as those mentioned above (updating your skills, etc.). Well, being a “traducteur libéral” myself, I unfortunately have no alternative but to subscribe to this point of view; however, the problems related to red tape are probably more acute in the early stages of a translator's career, when lack of experience at most levels often makes even the most harmless looking form look like a maze full of pitfalls (that was my case anyway). As far as I am concerned, even though I am now less easily impressed by the hefty amount of material I receive every day from “les impôts” and other governmental departments or organizations, I still find it difficult at times to grasp the logic of French bureaucracy or to know exactly where I stand (it should be pointed out here that I act as my own accountant, which means I have no choice but to keep myself informed of any changes affecting this field).

Now, if you manage to keep your language skills up to top quality standards, get the hang of every IT novelty, successfully fight your way through red tape, and still manage to meet your client's deadline every time, I suppose you deserve a star on the Hollywood Boulevard of Translators.

The problem is, even complying with all of the above is sometimes just not enough to ensure a steady workload over a long period of time. I don't really know

if this has anything to do with the above-mentioned client's perception of a translator's work, but it seems to me that clients' top requirements are now increasingly for shorter deadlines and low rates to the obvious detriment of quality. This trend has been noticeable for some time now and it certainly doesn't look like things are going to improve in the near future. I am fairly confident that if you take 10 freelancers and ask them about the quality of their relationships with their clients, at least 6 or 7 of them will tell you how disrespectful most of their clients are (with the possible exception of 2 or 3) of their work and how little consideration they give to quality. For those of you who may find this statement exaggerated, I am ready to provide you with the names of several fellow translators who would make similar observations.

A favourite topic among translators these days seems to be “client education,” or how we should all make it a priority to take a minute or two and explain to our clients that ours is a very challenging job and that you can't just “feed” a translator a text and press a button for immediate delivery. There is obviously a need for client education, and I wholeheartedly agree with Geoffrey Samuelsson-Brown's statement according to which “We, as translators, do however have an obligation to the profession as a whole to make clients aware that translating is a very demanding occupation and that quality does take time and does cost money,” (in *A practical guide for translators, Multilingual Matters*, 1995). Nevertheless, I am convinced that the problem lies elsewhere: before having thoughts about educating the client, I think the profession should first try and educate itself. The general problem I am raising here is the lack of organization observed in the translation trade, which may be one explanation for the lack of recognition it is suffering from nowadays. In spite of the efforts of the Société Française des Traducteurs (the French Translators' Association), whose most influential members are doing their very best to define and establish professional standards applicable to all translators, we-I am writing on behalf of all French translators-are still a long way from the nationwide status translators deserve and need in order to be acknowledged as true dedicated professionals. The problem is, today, in France, pretty much as everywhere else I suppose, anyone can start his own translation business without being required to demonstrate his skills or otherwise provide proof of his qualifications. Even the standards set by translators' organizations sometimes fall short of what one would be entitled to expect from a professional body providing translator certification. Could it be that some of these organizations are more eager to increase their membership than they are to control the actual quality level of their members?

I sincerely believe that it shouldn't be up to each and every translator to explain to the client the usefulness of his role and relevance of his services: have you ever expected your lawyer to give proof of his qualifications or to justify his fees? Now, although the translation trade and legal profession obviously have little in common, comparing the two gives a good idea of what we translators have yet to achieve in order to gain recognition.

Unfortunately, the lack of coordination between the various translators' organizations Europe-wide and worldwide leaves most of us to set our own

standards and define our own rules. As far as I am concerned, I decided, when I started out as a freelancer five years ago, to abide by a certain number of principles which I swore I would never deviate from; one of these—I suppose you could call it my “tariff policy”—was I would never accept working under a certain price limit. Another was I would always—and I mean always!—comply with whatever deadline I have agreed to work to, no matter how tight. So far, I am proud to say I have never failed in my commitments. As opposed to what others might think, I don't believe we translators should burn the midnight oil at any cost: dedication is one thing, slaving away at our job is another.

Task 6

1. Read the Text.
2. Translate it orally.
3. Make the summary.

Problem parents

No matter how well prepared you are, some parents will always prove more challenging than others.

Here are some key concerns with some suggested responses.

One parent in particular is making my life a misery. She criticises me constantly and I feel totally undermined by her. What can I do?

Many teachers have had this experience at some point in their career and it can be stressful and demoralising. Whatever you do, don't take it personally! It's important to alert your line manager and/or induction tutor about what's going on. Her comments should be listened to, but if you ever feel that they are unfair or unreasonable, calmly state that you will raise what she has said with your manager and a meeting will be arranged during which these matters can be discussed.



Comments from parents should be listened to but don't necessarily have to be taken on board if they have no grounding in reality. It could be that your headteacher could talk or write to her to come to some understanding. Above all else, do not let incidents like this undermine your confidence in your abilities. If anything, use them to confirm to yourself that you know what you are doing and are justified in taking the actions you take. Criticism can be great if it's constructive - after all it helps to propel us towards making improvements and becoming more effective in whatever it is that we are doing – but constant undermining serves no positive purpose and you don't have to tolerate it.

If you feel that this situation has not been handled sufficiently by your managers, and it has not been resolved satisfactorily, you may want to discuss matters with ATL.

Some of the parents of children in my class have asked if they can help in the classroom. I'm not keen at this point in my career but feel I ought to say yes. Any ideas on dealing with this so I don't offend anyone?

The first thing to consider is, what is your school's policy on having parent helpers in the classroom? Some are very keen while others prefer not to encourage this. Don't do anything at all without first discussing it with your headteacher.

If you decide to make use of this offer of help, and your headteacher is in agreement, talk to your induction tutor about it. Perhaps you can identify some tasks which could usefully be done by a parent while you get on with teaching. Remember that they would have to go through a Criminal Records Bureau check. It would also be a good idea to discuss closely with any parent helpers exactly what it is that you want them to do, and how to do it. You may like to keep a notebook with a list of tasks they could be getting on with that they could refer to each time they visit your classroom. It's also a good idea if you can arrange a regular time they turn up, so that there's some structure to the help they are giving you. Remember, though: don't do anything with any offers of help without discussing them in detail with your head teacher. There are child protection issues which need to be considered.

However, if you really don't want to accept any offers of help, then you can politely decline them for the time being. That way you are not saying never but you are buying yourself time until you feel more confident about using additional help in this way.

I was recently in a situation where a parent behaved in what I would describe as an inappropriate way. I had no idea how to deal with it. What should I have done?

It is never acceptable for a parent to put a teacher in a position that they feel is inappropriate. You do not have to tolerate that, although it can be difficult to deal with at the time.

If it happens again, politely remove yourself from the situation (give an excuse, for example, being late for a meeting) and make a written record of exactly what happened, what was said, what was intimated and any actions that took place. As soon as possible report the incident to your headteacher. If you are a member of ATL, you may also like to seek advice from your school rep, your branch secretary or the London, Belfast or Cardiff office.

You should expect total support from your headteacher in resolving the issue. It could be that the parent is communicated with about the incident, but whatever happens you should feel safe and supported. If you don't, it will be advisable to discuss the matter with your union. Never feel that you have to just put up with this kind of behaviour. It should always be taken seriously.

The parent of one child in my class is known to be aggressive. I have to meet him about some issues that have arisen regarding his son. Are there any points I should remember when I do this? How should I handle it?

This probably won't happen much in your career but you're wise to be aware of the risks when it does. If this parent has a history of aggressive behaviour you should not be expected to meet him on your own, and it would be perfectly reasonable for you to request that another member of staff be present when you do meet.

As a teacher, you do not have to tolerate any level of aggression directed at you by a parent. It is never acceptable. These precautions can help you to avoid being in a situation when aggression may arise:

- Put your personal safety first.
- Always meet in a public area rather than behind a closed door and aim for you both to be seated.
- Always have a third party present.
- If the discussion deteriorates and you suspect that anger and aggression may follow, terminate the meeting and explain that it will be better for you to talk another time.
- Don't feel that have to change or soften what you say for fear of a reaction from the parent. If you are reasonable and can back up everything you say with examples, you are perfectly justified in saying it regardless of whether the parent wants to hear it.
- Aim to work in partnership for the benefit of the child.
- If you think an encounter with a parent has been aggressive or violent, report the matter immediately to your headteacher and make a written record of exactly what happened. Ask your witness to do the same.
- The matter should be handled by the headteacher. You may also like to seek ATL's advice.

It's always going to best for the child if channels of free communication can be kept open between the school and a parent such as this, but you do not have to risk your personal safety in order to achieve this. Be aware and take precaution!

One parent has complained that I don't give their child enough homework and yet I carefully stick to the school policy on homework. Should I give more work to the child?

It's a good idea always to refer complaints such as this to your headteacher. As long as you have been following your school's policy on homework, which will have been conveyed to parents, you should receive your head teacher's full support.

Treating this particular child differently by setting extra homework is inadvisable. However, after discussing the matter with your head teacher, you may decide to set some extension work for this child to do. This should not be work that requires you to spend additional time on marking and assessment, but it could appease the parent and nurture the child's interest in his or her work. That said, any such arrangement should be fully discussed and agreed between you, the parent and the headteacher and should not add unduly to your workload. If you're abiding by your school's homework policy, this should be your call.

This advice is offered by Elizabeth Holmes, author of ATL's publication *Apply yourself!*.

(The text is taken from Elizabeth's book FAQs for NQTs: Practical advice and working solutions for newly qualified teachers. (2006)

Tasks for the Individual Work

- 1. Read the material.**
- 2. Translate the material and write down the summary.**

3.Compose the essay “The translator’s life”

Reflections on a Translator's Life

by Susana Greiss

When I reflect on my professional life, I am always surprised at how quickly we have accepted the revolution in the way translators are trained and how they earn their livelihood, which has actually occurred in the span of only a few short years.

Stick to the languages you know best, and polish, them, polish them, polish them.

The changes that have taken place with the advent of computers are nothing short of miraculous, and yet we have not only taken them in stride, but are constantly seeing new developments, which most of us embrace almost immediately. Perhaps it is in the very nature of translators to adapt, since we are used to going back and forth between cultures, so why not the ever-shifting conditions with which we must deal at every turn?

When I think back, it seems that it was quite inevitable that I would become a translator, although in those days parents were usually concerned with their daughters' future, more than they were concerned with their careers. They believed that their daughter's future would be determined by who they would eventually marry.

My parents were Russian and I was born in Georgia, where they had moved from Moscow to escape the harsh winter and the famine that followed the Russian Revolution. My father was a civil engineer, which automatically made him an "enemy of the State", part of the "intelligentzia". It soon became clear that it was not safe for us to remain, even in the South, and so my parents found a way to get out. The first country that would take us was Brazil. I was four years old, an only child, and already on the way to a multicultural destiny.

I learned to read and write Russian on that first long and arduous voyage. Upon arriving in Brazil, my father went to work in the jungles of Sro Paulo in search of sources of hydroelectric power for the Light & Power Company (of Canada). When I developed a bone disease, doctors advised us to seek treatment in France, where my mother and I spent four years. At the age of 7, I was learning my third language, French. Life was harsh for emigrñs. Unlike immigrants who leave their country in search of a better life, never intending to return, emigrñs are like exiles, always dreaming of a triumphant return to their ancestral home, with their bank accounts intact. This is why emigrñs seldom prosper in their new land - they always feel they are just visiting and will soon be heading home. The downside of this thinking is that it is unlikely to happen; the upside is that children of emigrñs like myself retain a great deal more of their parents' culture and are the richer for it.

Upon our return from France, my parents split up, my mother remaining in Brazil and my father, having lost his job due to the nationalization of foreign-owned utilities by the new Brazilian President Getulio Vargas, moved to Uruguay in hopes of finding work. It was the depth of the Depression. He eventually found

a job with the British Railroad, which assured him a lifetime of genteel poverty. I moved to Uruguay at the age of 15 and enrolled in the British School. One thing my parents learned early on: if you knew English, you could make it anywhere, but it was too late for them. At the American School I attended in Rio de Janeiro, English was taught as just another foreign language, but at the British School all the subjects were taught in English. So now I had to learn Spanish and English at the same time: languages four and five.

Upon graduation, after two years of business and more language courses, I went to work as a bilingual secretary. I found the work extremely boring and regimented, but as long as I was acquiring skills and experience, I stayed with it. I wasn't thinking about the long term; in those days, a girl worked for a few years, and then she got married. If a girl continued to work after getting married, everyone would shake their heads: "He is unable to support her," they would say. Then came the war, and the world was turned upside down.

I eventually went to work for the American Embassy in Buenos Aires and married an Argentinian. One good thing came out of that marriage: my two kids, a boy and then a girl. My life as a homemaker was short-lived, though; it lasted about six years, and then it was back to earning a living. In those days secretaries didn't make enough to support a family, so after returning to Uruguay for three years, I moved to Brazil where my mother still lived. I became a trilingual secretary - a notch up. I found that there was a demand for translators at international conferences, and they paid well. I was probably not a very good translator, but I was in demand and I was learning "on the job." My father insisted that I should go to the United States. It would be good for me, he said, and it would be good for the kids. To placate him I reluctantly agreed to apply, half hoping that it would take ten years before I was called. I liked what I was doing, and I was not eager to embark on a new venture. However, barely two years later, the American Consulate called me for an interview and my company agreed to sponsor me. I was in!

My first job in the United States was a disappointment and paid little. I was supposed to "pay my dues," they said. I didn't like that; I wasn't using my talents. So I began looking for another job. I found one as a Translator-Correspondent, working in four languages - English, Spanish, Portuguese and French. At last, another notch up. A few years later I was hired by a leading bank in New York as a translator. Over the years I had acquired a background in several fields, and could hold my own among my peers. However, it took me a few more years before I actually earned a bachelor's degree and then a master's degree in translation. That's what I call doing it the hard way!

At the time, I discovered that translators generally 1) were foreign-born, and many were refugees; 2) they had started out with other aspirations. No one woke up in the morning saying to themselves: "My goal in life is to be a translator!" Only at the League of Nations did they have good jobs for translators, and you know what happened to IT! Also, a few ladies of leisure would translate poems and novels for pocket money or because they felt it was "glamorous." It was like this wonderful TV ad where kids say: "When I grow up, I want to be a

school dropout;" "When I grow up, I want to be ignored;" "When I grow up, I want to be forced into early retirement...." Translators just didn't get recognition, they didn't expect to make much of a living, just get by. Very few people were actually trained as translators, but most had a solid college education and a solid knowledge of languages, at least their own language.

I had a friend who fell exactly into that category and my circle of friends expanded to include other translators. I found them to be much more interesting as people, and discovered that we often had similar life experiences. I never had trouble making friends, but I always felt "different" and I'm sure they felt it too. When my friend retired, she recommended me as her replacement. I now entered the realm of Reinsurance, of which I knew nothing. I was also the only translator there, and didn't have much to fall back on. However, it was another notch up....

On my new job, I started looking through the files, asking questions and got the company to enroll me in Insurance courses. The College of Insurance was across the street, and I consulted fire codes, insurance policies and fire extinguisher catalogs in their library. I was learning what I had never had the luxury of being able to do before: research. The first time I had to translate a proposal for purposes of insurance of a nuclear plant, I got a call from the head man in that department, congratulating me on the job I had done. "Compares favorably with what we are used to," he said. What an upper! What happened was that I consulted a document in the files similar to the one I was tackling for guidance, but when I saw that my predecessor had used the word "nucleus" instead of "core", I realized that the files were useless to me. I went across the street to the library and looked up "nuclear plants." I immediately found all the terminology I needed.

It takes a great deal more than that to be a good translator these days, of course. We still have very few institutions where we can take formal courses or a degree in translation. But we have a strong organization - the American Translators Association - with its annual conferences and scores of workshops starting from beginners to advanced to specialized. We have accreditation in all major languages, and some not-so-major languages. We have a directory where we can look up other translators in our own field or language, most of whom are quite gracious when it comes to sharing their expertise and give their support to those less experienced. We have local groups, such as the New York Circle of Translators which organizes monthly meetings and frequent workshops, and offers opportunities to socialize and meet not only other translators but also owners of translation bureaus and potential employers.

The trend today is away from full-time employment and toward independent work as a contractor or a bureau offering other related services, such as editing, extracting, research, desktop publishing, teaching, not to mention the wide range of specialized interpreting skills (court, conference, escort, community, etc.), script writing, cross-cultural consulting, voiceovers, narration, dubbing, and so forth - the latter bordering on acting. Translation itself is also specialized: medical, legal, financial, and a million other fields, which can be quite challenging and require special background.

We are now also required to live in close intimacy with computers, familiarize ourselves with new software, and span the world on the wings of the Internet. All this is very exciting, but it is also time-consuming and costly. Just as you thought you had it all together, here comes a new program, and your state-of-the-art computer is obsolete. It can be frustrating, especially for a newcomer who can barely wait to get his or her first assignment, not to mention pay his or her first month's rent. Some of us love it, and some are cool to it. For instance, I don't feel that I have a really close, intimate relationship with my computer. I don't trust "him" one hundred percent. Sometimes it plays annoying tricks on me at the most inconvenient times, so we either sit down for a quiet heart-to-heart talk, or I call 911 for a rescue team (usually some more knowledgeable colleague!). Of course, the "impasse" is usually my own fault, but that's besides the point!

Seriously, if anyone is interested in a few pearls of wisdom from someone who has been around this business for a while, I will say this:

Get all the education you can. There is no such thing as information that you cannot use in translation. You never know what your next assignment might be.

Decide whether you want to concentrate on just one or two language combinations or go as far afield as you can. There are pros and cons on either side. For instance, in my case, I have accreditation in five language combinations (but only into two) languages. Stick to the languages you know best, and polish, them, polish them, polish them. Language evolves so fast these days that it is hard to keep up. If you translate into only one language, your brain will respond much faster; you don't have to shift gears all the time. You retain new terminology better. You can work more efficiently. Of course, we have exceptionally gifted people who seem to have no limits to their language skills. But not everyone is like that. On the other hand, if there isn't a large volume of translation work into your native language, then you should try to develop another language as much as possible. However, this is almost impossible unless you have lived a number of years in a country where that language is spoken.

Develop writing skills. I see a lot of badly written documents authored by native writers. If you cannot write, you can never be a good translator because you have difficulty putting words together and expressing what you want to say.

Choose one or more specialized fields. Remember that unless you are translating a letter from someone's aunt (and that doesn't pay much), practically everything that needs translating is either literary or technical. If you live outside the United States, in many countries there is work for literary translators, because there is a large number of new books published in English and a large market for them abroad. In the United States, as my friend Cliff Landers, professor of economics and Portuguese translator once said, you can count the number of people who make a living at literary translation in the United States on the fingers of one hand. Go into any bookstore and see how many books are translations from other languages: very few. And these translations are done by people like Cliff, who is a full-time professor and translates in his spare time for the love of the art (and a few bucks).

How do you acquire a technical background? You take courses, preferably college or graduate courses. You take a job as a paralegal, in a doctor's office or hospital, a bank, a real estate office, or what have you. Read the Wall Street Journal, or at the very least the New York Times or Time Magazine.

You also need to learn how the world of translation works. For that, in the first place you must be schizophrenic. That is a requirement. On the one hand, here you are, an aspiring translator. On the other hand, you have to be a business person. The best translator in the world will sit idle if he or she is not a business person. So, how do you achieve that? My first advice is get a job in a translation bureau if you can. You will see how they go about getting clients, how they relate to their clients, translators and other professionals. You will learn how to organize your office, and many other useful things. You will also see the work of many experienced translators and learn from them.

If you are a nine-to-five person, freelance translation is not for you. On the other hand, freelancing does give you the flexibility to take care of your other responsibilities or to travel, or sleep late (or stay up late to finish a job due first thing in the morning). It also opens up the opportunity to grow into a business. Many translation bureaus started out that way. If you have family obligations, working at home is a Godsend. When I had a full-time job, I was counting the months and weeks I had to wait until my vacation, and the years I had to wait for my retirement. My retirement age has come and long gone, but now I don't want to retire. I am my own boss and working gives me a rich life (never a dull moment), friends, it keeps me in the fray of things and gives me enough income to indulge in some travel and a few "luxuries."

When I decided to freelance after many years of working in-house, the only calls I got were for interpreting. Interpreting today is much more professional than it used to be. Years ago courts would hire you practically off the street. No test was required. If the clients didn't complain, they would use you again and again. I refused these assignments at first, but since I wasn't busy, I decided to try my hand at EBTs (examinations before trial), Family Court cases, etc. The rules were simple and I did a good job. After a while, I became busier with translation work. We didn't have beepers or cell phones in those days, so I would stand in line at the phone booth at lunch break to call home. However, I never knew when I would be through with my assignment, or a translation bureau would call while I was in the subway on my way home, so I would lose work. Also, I didn't like the court atmosphere and having to sit for hours just waiting to be called. When I figured that I was probably losing more money interpreting than staying home, I gave up interpreting (To this day they sometimes still call me). Some people prefer interpreting to translating, they say it's easier. You might want to try it.

You need to have a good resumé and cover letter. Writing or calling translation bureaus cold is a hard way of getting work. However, there are lists of translation bureaus that can be purchased (with labels and all), and you must decide whether this is the way you want to go.

Translators don't live in an oasis. They need contacts and they need credentials. You can get both by joining (and attending) your local translation

group and the American Translators Association. ATA puts out a magazine that will open your eyes, as it did for me when I first joined. Get accreditation if you feel you are ready for it, or take a practice test, which will be returned to you with corrections and comments and will give you food for thought. If you fail accreditation, you can always try again later. Accreditation and membership will get you listed in professional directories and lists consumers of translation buy. The ATA directory is on the Internet, and I have received a number of calls from that listing.

When I joined ATA and the New York Circle of Translators, it opened a whole new world for me. Not only did I learn from my peers and made contacts, but I found that one person can make a tremendous difference. I started the Continuing Education Committee, the Slavic Languages Division, and presented several sessions at ATA Annual Conferences, to mention a few of my professional activities. In 20 years, I only missed one conference, and everyone knows me or of me. It's almost like a passport (not to mention all the fun I've had along the way). But the point is that I started with no particular talents that qualified me over anyone else.

The most important thing is for you to be proficient, to be honest with your clients and to follow their instructions, particularly deadlines. Deadlines are the password in translation. A missed deadline could have dire results for your client, so honor it. If you find you have a problem with it, be honest. Don't bury your grandmother. After all, you only have two of those. Don't use her as an excuse for not delivering the job on time. Call your client and explain as early on as possible what the problem is. It is a good idea to look your document over immediately to check for any problems (legibility, missing pages, etc.).

If you have a genuine concern that you may not be able to complete the job on time, or that you may not be familiar with the subject matter, let the client know at once. For instance, a new client called asking that I translate a piece for some publication in Spanish. When I received the document, I saw that it was on architecture and had very specific architectural terms. I then called the client and told him that since this piece was going to be published, correct terminology was of essence and that architecture was not my field. I could do some research in the library, but the result might still be wanting and the job would be time-consuming. My client was silent for a moment, and then he said: "I am impressed by your sincerity and your professionalism. Thank you for being honest with us. We will certainly keep you in mind for other assignments because we value quality work." Within the hour, he was on the phone with another job. However, even if he hadn't, I am sure that he would have no problem recommending me to his colleagues.

The client will sometimes describe the document inaccurately; one of my least favorite terms some clients use is "straightforward." Very often what seems straightforward to them may not be straightforward to you. For instance, I once was given a brochure for pre-teen girls to translate into Spanish. The only problem was that in every Spanish-speaking country the designation for women's clothing is different, so they had to go through a string of "consultants" to decide which term would be understood by everybody.

Reputation is extremely important in our profession. Guard yours with great care. It will pay off.

To conclude, as I said earlier, freelance translating is not for everyone, but good translators can make excellent money these days. We have lawyers, engineers and other professionals who are making a good living at translation. We are also developing ways in which you can provide for your future with IRAs, KEOG plans, annuities, group insurance, and so forth. If you are looking for a full-time job, at this juncture your best bet is the government, but in the corporate world there are many jobs that are translation related, so develop other skills, the least of which is, of course, good typing.

Good luck, and may the Force be with you

Module 5. Lexical Problems of Translation.

Lecture 9. Translation of the International words

Plan

1. Units of the International Lexicon.
2. The Genuine Internationalisms.
3. Translating of the Loan Internationalisms.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
5. Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.
6. Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

1. Карабан В. І. Посібник-довідник з перекладу англійської наукової і технічної літератури на українську мову / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Київ-Кременчук, 1999. – 120 с.

2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.

3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.

4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

1. UNITS OF INTERNATIONAL LEXICON AND WAYS OF RENDERING THEIR MEANING AND LINGUAL FORM

By internationalisms are meant such language units which are borrowed from one and the same source language by at least three genealogically different languages in the same or similar lingual form and identical meaning (cf. доллар, атом, інтерес, директор, база, стадіон, театр, фізика, etc.). International, however, may be not only words and phrases/word-groups, but also morphemes - prefixes, suffixes and even inflexions, nothing to say about root morphemes as the English or Ukrainian words fund фонд, gas газ, lord лорд, ohm ом, park парк, pound фунт, smog смог and many others.

These morphemes are conveyed with the help of the translator's transcription (i.e. either transliterated or transcribed) sometimes, through, the combination of both these methods may be and is employed.

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

I. Prefixes: anti-/анти, ex-/екс-, inter-/інтер-, trans-/транс-, ul-tra-/ультра-; as in antibody антитіло, export (v.) експортувати, international інтернаціональний, transmission трансмісія, ultraviolet ультрафіолетовий.

II. Suffixes: -ar/-ар, -er/-ер, -ist/-ист/-іст, -ssion/-сія, -tion/-ція, etc. as in quasar/кв^азар, actor/актор, volunteer/волонтер, human-ist/гуманіст, constitution/конституція, aggression/агресія, humorist/гуморист, etc.

III. Inflexions: -it/-ум, (memorandum меморандум). -us/-ус, (radius радіус), -a/-а (formula формула), etc.

The lexicon of each developed language comprises a very large layer of foreign by origin words, word-groups/phrases and even a small number of sentences. These lexical and syntactic level units have been acquired by the borrowing languages to designate notions hitherto unknown in them. The bulk of these borrowed morphemes, lexemes and syntaxemes are found in many languages of a culturally, historically, and often geographically common area as Europe, the Middle East or the Far East. They are used to designate notions belonging to different domains of human knowledge or activity.

Hence, there is distinguished: a) the social and political terminology comprising the most commonly used political, economic, philosophical, historical, sociological units of lexicon (audit, bank, constitution, parliament, party, president, barter, sophism, etc.). Here also belong terms designating

international law, diplomacy, numerous literary terms (cf. drama, poet, metaphor, epithet, hyperbole, etc.); b) natural history/sciences terminology (physics, mathematics, genetics, chemistry) used not only in special but also in scientific and popular works and in mass media (chemical/physical reaction, genes, pneumonia, etc.); c) numerous technical terms (names of machines and their parts: motor, carter, starter, accelerator, battery), as well as names of different means of transport (bus, metro, taxi) and communication (fax, telegraph, telex, radio, e-mail), etc.

These and other words and phrases of the kind are referred to as internationalisms, or more precisely **genuine internationalisms**. The latter never considerably change their lingual (orthographic or sounding) form nor their internationally established meaning. (Cf.: motor мотор, audit аудит, therapeutic терапевтичний).

The main characteristic feature of genuine internationalisms, whether single words or words-combinations, is their semantic singularity. It means that their lexical identity and orthographic similarity in the source language and in all target languages remains unchanged both at language level (when taken separate) and at speech level, i.e., when used in texts/speech.

Apart from many thousands of genuine international words and word-combinations, which retain in several languages an identical or similar lingual form and identical meaning, there exists one more group of international lexis called ***translation loan units of lexicon***. These have also a generally common structural form (of word, word-combination) but rarely a similarity in their orthographic form or sounding. *Loan internationalisms* are mostly different terms designating scientific and technological notions, in the main: brake *гальмо*, citric acid *лимонна кислота*; lead oxide *окис свинцю*; specific gravity *питома вага*; surplus value *додана вартість*; non-conducting *непровідність*, agreement *узгодження*; government *керування*, juxtaposition *прилягання* (gram.), etc.

Along with these two groups of word internationalisms there also exist many stable international phraseological/idiomatic expressions in each language's lexicon. Their fund is constituted by the so-called absolute and near equivalents having a common language of origin - Greek, Latin or modern. Absolute and near international equivalents of this subgroup retain in different languages of a geographical area the same (or nearly the same) denotative and connotative meaning, the same expressive force and pictur-escuence: Heel of Achilles *ахіллесова п'ята*; sword of Damocles *дамоклів меч*; to cross/pass the Rubicon *перейти Рубікон*; the die is cast *жереб кинуто*; after us the deluge *після нас хоч потоп*; the fair sex *прекрасна стать*; tilt at windmills *«воювати з вітряками»* («донкіхотствувати»); the tree of knowledge *дерево пізнання*, etc.

The use of international idioms is restricted in all languages to belles-lettres, partly to social and political texts and to conversational speech style. These idioms are also occasionally used in didactic style and are practically not used in scientific and technical matter texts.

A separate subgroup of genuine internationalisms constitute proverbs, sayings and set expressions which are used in their foreign/ original lingual form

(they are predominantly of Latin, French, English, German origin). Due to centuries long usage they have become regular mots often referred to as barbarisms: sine qua non невідмінна умова; status in statu держава у державі; repetitio est mater studiorum (Lat.) повторення - мати навчання; sotto voce тихо (впівголоса); fmita la commedia (Ital.) настав кінець, крах (справі кінець); da ist der Hund begraben! (Germ.) ось де собака закопаний! О.К., all right (Engl.) усе гаразд; c'est la vie (Fr.) таке життя.

The number of these idiomatic/stable word-combinations unlike the fund of genuine internationalisms and translation loans remains practically unchanged. That is mainly because idioms/phraseological expressions penetrate into different languages through scholastic, literary and cultural channels, as a rule. This may be conditioned by some extralingual factors, which may facilitate in some important political situations their spontaneous appearance and penetration into several languages during a short period of time. For the last half a century there have appeared few stable expressions of this kind, e.g.: «the fifth column» (1936, Spain), «Iron Curtain» (1947), «peaceful coexistence» (1950's), «cold war» (1946, USA), «permissive society» (1967, Gr. Br.) and a few others.

The structural form of international idioms in most languages is identical or similar. The occasional absence of identity in their structural form is explained by the divergences in the grammatical systems and forms of expression in the source language and in the target language (cf. the heel of Achilles/Achilles' heel ахіллесова п'ята, the Pillars of Hercules/Hercules' Pillars (Herculean Pillars) геркулесові стовпи or стовпи Геркулеса).

Identification of International Lexicon Units

As has been noted, the units of genuine international lexicon are identified on the basis of their common in different languages lexical meaning and identical or only similar lingual form. Loan internationalisms, on the other hand, are identified mainly on the basis of their common sphere of use, their lexical meaning, functional significance and partly - structural form.

The identification of genuine or loan internationalisms presents no difficulty so far as the monosemantic language units are concerned. That is explained by the terminological nature of the signs, which are used to signify social, political, scientific, technological, cultural and other notions (cf. parliament, theatre, theory, poet, arithmetic, artillery, botany, phoneme, suffix, theorem, proton, volt, decimal fractions, space probe, management, motor, computer, internet, electricity, etc.). These and many other internationalisms are monosemantic words or word-combinations which constitute a peculiar layer of lexicon in quite different languages. They are characterized by a similarity of their lexical meaning, by an identity or similarity in their orthographic and sounding form, by their denotative meaning and sometimes by their motivation. The meaning of these and a lot of other international words and phrases/ word-groups

of the kind does not change in any other contextual environment. Consequently, their nature is constantly monolithic.

Apart from the polysemantic words with several meanings, one of which is genuine international and the rest pseudo-international, i.e., non-international as in the examples above, there are also quite a few words in present-day English and Ukrainian which have an identical orthographic form but quite different lexical meaning: accurate точний, правильний, влучний but not акуратний; billet ордер на постій, приміщення для постою but not квиток; compositor складач (друк.) but not композитор; data дані but not дата; decade десятиріччя but not декада; decoration нагорода, прикраса but not декорація; Dutch голландський but not данський; fabulist байкар, вигадник but not фабуліст; intelligence розум, кмітливість but not інтелігенція; momentous важливий but not моментальний; matrass колба but not матрац (mattress); obligation зобов'язання but not облігація; potassium калій but not поташ;

¹ An illustration of this pseudo-international meaning of the noun **conductor** can be seen in the following excerpt from The Economist journal (February 28, 1998): A spectacular example of Oxford Health Plans once fastest-growing HMO in America. The **conductor** Stephen Wiggins was forced to resign as chairman on February 24th.

prospect перспектива but not проспект; production виробництво, випуск but not only продукція; replica точна копія but not репліка; spectre привид but not спектр, etc.

As can be ascertained, these English words quite accidentally coincide in their lingual form with some other borrowed words in Ukrainian. Thus, «replica», for example, has quite a different denotative meaning in Ukrainian than our репліка (cue, remark). So is the denotative meaning of many other words, whose number by far exceeds that on the above-given list. These and the like pseudo-international words are often referred to as «false friends of the translator» (удавані друзі перекладача).

Unlike common lexical units, whose orthographic and sounding forms never coincide in the target language and in the source language, the lingual form of genuine international lexemes in all languages is always either identical or similar. It does not mean that the structural form of genuine internationalisms is necessarily always transplanted to the target language as it is observed in simple lexemes like drama, poet, opera, suffix, lord, kimono, sari, kiwi, motor, proton (драма, поет, опера, суфікс, лорд, кімоно, сарі, etc.).

More often the same genuine international lexemes in English and Ukrainian may have a different morphological structure. In Ukrainian they usually take derivational and often also inflexional affixes which is rarely observed in present-day English. As a result, most of genuine international words in Ukrainian are structurally more complicated than in English (cf. apathy - апат/я, dietic-дієтичний, form-форма, exploit - експлуатувати, economic - економічні/й), etc.

Some genuine international words, however, may be structurally more complicated in English than in Ukrainian: Cf.: Greek: analysis, аналіз, diagnosis,

діагноз, sclerosis, склероз, academician академік, geographer географ, mathematician математик, philosopher філософ, geologist геолог; Latin: appendicitis апендицит, tuberculosis туберкульоз, rheumatismus ревматизм, etc.

Hence, the structural models according to which different logico-grammatical classes of internationalisms are adopted in English and in Ukrainian mostly differ. On this ground relevant for the identification, as well as for the translation of any international word, remains its root morpheme, i.e., its sense bearing seme. Taking this into account, lexemes like **anti-trade**, **arch-enemy**, **inventor** consisting of international affixes and having common root morphemes are to be treated as **non-internationalisms**, i.e., as **pseudointernationalisms**. The international nature/status of a source language lexeme is considered to be fully retained, when the root morpheme or at least the sense and lingual form (part of it) can be rendered in the target language. Consequently, the compounds consisting of a genuine international and a common root morpheme as school-mate, coal-gas. washing-мас/т/ле. etc. are to be defined in English as partly international, i.e., mixed-type lexical units. Similarly in Ukrainian: Газосховище, раоУохвилі, водно-слі/ртовий.

2. The Genuine Internationalisms.

From what has been pointed out concerning the nature and componental structure of genuine internationalisms becomes clear, that a faithful rendering of their lexical meaning often requires considerable attention on the part of translators. At any rate, in the process of their translation several factors have to be taken into consideration both at language level and at speech level. These factors imply the lingual form, the lexical meaning, the structure, the source of origin and the orthographic presentation of internationalisms in both the languages. As a result, expresing of meaning of some internationalisms may not always be termed «translation» proper, since it is a regular and complete transplantation of the source language units to the target language (cf. atom *атом*, plan *план*, professor *професор*, algebra *алгебра*, poet *поет*, etc). Besides, translating of international lexemes may sometimes depend on the established model stereotype according to which they are generally adopted in the target language. Taking into account various peculiarities of meaning and form of international lexemes, several ways of conveying their meaning can be suggested.

1. Literal Translating of Genuine Internationalisms. It should be pointed out that the lingual form of all componental parts in genuine international words and phrases is more often completely transplanted, when they originate from languages, whose orthographic systems have been arranged on phonetical principles. Hence, the authenticity of literal translating from languages as Latin, Greek, Italian, Ukrainian, partly Russian and Spanish will be always higher than that from the English or French languages, whose orthographic systems are based on the historical and etymological principles. It does not mean, however, that a less exact literal transplantation should be regarded as less faithful or inferior. Any

of them is faithful enough when it conveys the form and meaning of internationalisms. In this view literal translating of genuine internationalisms should not be regarded as a mechanical substitution of each letter of the source language lexeme for a corresponding letter of the target language. In many a case a letter may be dropped or added (substituted for another) in the target language when it is not in full conformity with its sound or spelling systems. Nevertheless, there are many letter-to-letter transliterated genuine internationalisms in English and Ukrainian. **Latin:** angina ангіна, dentist дантист, symposium симпозиум, gladiator гладіатор, microscope мікроскоп, rector ректор; **Greek:** poet поет, micron мікрон, electron електрон, stadium стадіон, drama драма, theatre театр; **Italian:** macaroni макарони, pizza піцца, concerto концерт, duet дует, solo соло; **Spanish:** armada армада, tango танго, El Dorado ельдорадо, embargo ембарго, etc.

It would be wrong to assume that genuine internationalisms from other than the above-mentioned languages can not be fully or almost fully transliterated. Literal translating can faithfully convey the lexical meaning of many English, French, German and also other than European by origin lexemes: English: bulldog бульдог", club клуб, mister містер, shelf шельф, shilling шилінг¹, shrapnel шрапнель; **French:** chef шеф, festival фестиваль, chiffon шифон, franc франк; **Germ.:** Diktat диктат, Deutsche Магкдойч марк; **Portugese:** cobra кобра, flamingo фламінго; **Czech:** robot робот; **Hindi:** brahmin брамін, khaki хакі, sari сарі; **Japanese:** kimono кімоно, tsunami цунамі; **Arabic:** algebra алгебра, atlas атлас, harem гарем; **African:** banana банан, baobab баобаб, zebra зебра; **Australian aboriginal:** dingo дінго, kiwi ківі, etc.

Literal translation of some of these and other genuine internationalisms may not be fully trusted, perhaps, as it has been performed not directly from the original languages but through English, which is an intermediary language here. The existence of literal forms of genuine internationalisms from these languages, however, is beyond any doubt like those from Ukrainian (cf. steppe, Cossack/Kozak, hryvnia); or Russian (balalaika, samovar, vodka, etc.). Nevertheless, in many genuine internationalisms there is no absolute literal/orthographic coincidence in the source language and in the target language: basin басейн, monsoon мусон, waltz вальс, wine вино, salt сіль, степ steppe, devil диявол, muscle мускул, etc.

These divergences in the literal rendering are to be explained either by the influence of the intermediary languages or by the peculiarity of the target language admitting or not admitting the source language orthographic representation (cf. brahmin брамін, class клас, diet дієта, molecule молекула, etc.) or foreign signs by the target language.

2. Translating via Transcribing/Conveying the Sounding Structure

Many genuine internationalisms are also faithfully rendered into the target language in their sounding form. This kind of translating provides the rendition of the lexical meaning of a lot of internationalisms originating from English, French and some other languages, which have their orthographic systems based

on other than phonetical principles. Cf.: **English:** *boom* бум, *box* бокс, *jeans* джинси, *knock-out* нокаут, *leader* лідер, *raid* рейд, *round* раунд, *track* трек; **French:** *boulevard* бульвар, *bouquet* букет, *bourgeoisie* буржуазія, *bureau* бюро, *e/gare* драп, *prize* приз, *pince-nez* пенсне, etc.

The English and French international lexemes above belong to the lexico-grammatical class of nouns. But the number of genuine internationalisms, whose lexical meaning is faithfully conveyed in their unchanged original lingual form is small. More units of the layer of lexicon in English and Ukrainian do not fully coincide in their orthographic, sounding and morphological (structural) form. This is to be explained by the differences in the phonetic and morphological systems of the two languages and also by the possible influence of a third language as an intermediary between the source/target language and the language from which the international lexeme originates. To render faithfully the denotative meaning and the lingual form of these genuine internationalisms other ways of translating are to be employed.

3. Translating by Practical Transcribing

International morphemes and lexemes are adopted in all languages according to the historically established traditions of their own. These find their expression in stereotype models for each lexico-grammatical class of words. As a result, any international word, whatever the language of its origin and irrespective of the source language, from which it is translated, will have one and the same lingual and structural form in the target language. Thus, whether it is *bankruptcy* in English, *bankrott* in German, *banqueroute* in French or *bancarot-ta* in Italian, it will always remain «банкрутство» in Ukrainian. Hence, only some degree of likeness is retained between the lingual form of *bankruptcy* and its Ukrainian equivalent «банкрутство». The adopted word has obtained in the target language an orthographic, sounding and morphological/structural form, which is only similar to that of English, French, German, or Italian. This kind of adopting internationalisms is traditionally called «**practical transcribing**» or **translator's transcription**.

Hence, some internationalisms may retain still less similarity/ likeness in their lingual form when they are translated from English into Ukrainian: *bachelor* бакалавр, *cocoa* какао, *crown* корона/крона, *dance* танець, *giant* гігант, *grade* градус, *hocus-pocus* фокус, *mother-of-pearl* перламутр, *mosque* мечеть, *olive* олія, *outpost* аванпост, *para/pap* папський, *pound* фунт (from German Pfund), etc.

The number of internationalisms making up this group is comparatively small in the two contrasted languages. The bulk of international lexemes, when conveyed by way of practical transcribing, still retain a considerable degree of lingual and structural similarity in the two languages. These are first of all nouns of Greek and Latin origin and also some adjectives, adverbs and verbs. They may often differ considerably in their morphological structure, mostly taking additional affixal morphemes in Ukrainian: *ambition* амбіція, *apathy* апатія, *condenser* конденсатор., *devil* диявол, *о/р/отасуд* дипломатія, *hierarchy* ієрархія, *lecturer* лектор, *vegetarian* вегетаріанський, *condense* конденсувати,

criticize критикувати, *stabilize* стабілізувати, *seriously* серйозно, *economic* економічний, etc.

Translating of genuine and mixed-type international compounds is performed on the basis of and in accordance with the lingual form and structure of their componental parts. As a result, English international compounds can be rendered in the following ways:

a) with the help of corresponding compounds having the same international root morphemes as in the source language: *electro-biology* електробіологія, *///т-асГогкіноактор*, *gas-meter* газометр, *motor-cyclist* мотоцикліст, *radio-active* радіоактивний, *six-footer* шестифутовий, etc.

b) by word-combinations consisting of the same componental parts as in the international English compound words but of different than in the source language morphological structure and nature of a componental part of speech: *dance-music* (N+N) танцювальна (adj.) музика, *gas-collector* газовий (a.) колектор, *nerve-centre* нервовий (a.) центр, *olive-coloured* оливкового (a.) кольору, *police-station* поліційне (a.) відділення, *radio-active element* радіоактивний (a.) елемент, *telegraph-line* телеграфна (a.) лінія, etc. Thus, only radioactive and радіоактивний are adjectives in both languages.

Mixed-type compounds consisting of international and common Ukrainian root morphemes are translated in accordance with their complex nature. Their equivalents in Ukrainian, however, may be both compound words and word-combinations consisting of international and non-international (as in the original) component parts (or even simple words): *gas-mask* протигаз, *taxi-cab* таксі, *river-basin* басейн річки, *toilet-table* туалетний столик, *torpedo-boat* торпедний катер, *turning-point* поворотний пункт, etc.

4. Descriptive Translating of international Lexemes Many genuine international lexemes are semantically condensed and can be translated into the target language only in a descriptive way. Depending on the nature of the lexemes, their translation may have two somewhat different realizations:

a) the lingual form of the source language lexeme/s can be retained as the main lexeme/s of the target language word-combination/ sentence: *civilizable* той (та,те), що піддається цивілізуванню/ цивілізації; *classifiable* той (та,те), що піддається класифікації; *barony* 1. володіння барона; 2. титул барона; *energize* викликати (збуджувати) енергію; *examinee* той, що екзамнується/складає іспит; *golf-club* 1. клуб гравців з гольфу; 2. ключка для гри в гольф;

b) the lingual form of the internationalism is not or can not be retained in the target language. It happens when the internationalism has not been adopted yet by the target language. Thus, the noun *epilogue* is a genuine internationalism in many European languages but the adjective *epilogic* derived from it, though semantically quite pellucid, is unknown in Ukrainian. Besides, some internationalisms can be substituted in the process of translation with the aim of achieving expressiveness (for the reasons of style) or for the sake of explaining their denotative meaning: *deputize* (v) виступати (бути представником) від когось; *epilogic* заключний, кінцевий; *park* (parking) ставити машину на

стоянку; регсел/еглихвар («процентник»); *tworennu* нікчемний/ копійчаний (вартий двох пенні).

5. Translating by Way of Synonymous Substitution An international lexeme of the target language can be often substituted in the process of translation for another international lexeme of synonymous or close to it (or of the same) meaning. The substitutions are mostly performed in larger context, though sometimes they may also be carried out at language level. This kind of substitution becomes possible due to the existence in the target language of internationalisms borrowed by it at different previous historical periods. Such international lexemes are of the same logico-grammatical/lexico-grammatical class. The faithfulness of translation achieved through this kind of synonymous substitutions may be usually established in a text, at word level or at word-group level. The existence of some equivalent internationalisms for a notion is explained by its contacts in different periods with different languages. Cf. base (Greek) *база*, *фундамент* (Lat.); elixir (Arab.+Greek) *еліксир*, *панацея* (Greek); Fata Morgana (Ital.) *фата моргана*, *міраж* (Fr.); diagram (Greek) *діаграма*, *графік* (Ibid.), *схема* (Ibid.); fashion (Fr.) *фасон*, *мода* (Fr.+Latin); athletics (Greek) *атлетика*, *гімнастика* (Ibid.), etc. Such kind of translation presents, of course, an equivalent conveying of meaning and structural forms.

3. TRANSLATING OF LOAN INTERNATIONALISMS

Forming a common fund of lexicon in different languages of a geographical area, the loan units usually retain an identical/similar surface structure, i.e., form of a word, word-combination or sentence. Like genuine internationalisms, they are constantly appearing in different languages as a result of unceasing progress in various domains of science, technology and culture. A great many of international loans have long become an integral part of each language's lexicon. Despite all that, they preserve in each national language the unity of their componental parts, i.e., their structural peculiarity, an absolutely identical notional meaning and a common sphere of functioning: *loudspeaker*: Germ. *Lautsprecher*, Ital. *altoparlante*, Ukr. *гучномовець*, Russ. *громкоговоритель*; *steam-engine*: Germ. *Dampfmaschine*, Ital. *macchina a vapore*, Ukr. *парова машина*, Russ. *паровая машина*; *long/short waves* (radio), Germ. *lange/kurze Wellen*, Ital. *onde lunghe/ corte*, Ukr. *довгі/короткі хвилі*, Russ. *длинные/короткие волны*, etc.

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

a) by direct translation of the componental parts without changing considerably their structural form cf.: coefficient of efficiency коефіцієнт

корисної дії, conjugation/declension дієвідмінювання/ відмінювання (слів); genitive/dative case родовий/давальний відмінок; personal/possessive pronouns особові/присвійні займенники; prepositional government прийменникове керування; compound nominal predicate складений іменний присудок; literal/ verbal translation буквальний/дослівний переклад, etc.

Note. It is worth mentioning that some Ukrainian or Russian loan internationalisms may be genuine internationalisms in other languages and vice versa. Thus, *підмет*, *присудок* and other parts of the sentence are genuine internationalisms in English, German, Italian and in some other West European languages. Cf.: the subject, the predicate, the object; German: der Subjekt, das Prädikat, das Objekt; Italian: il soggetto, il predicato, etc. Consequently, these and other loan internationalisms are practically rendered only with the help of the phonological level units, i.e., they are transcribed or transliterated in these three languages.

b) with the help of componental translation and some replacements, omissions or substitutions arising from the national peculiarities of the target language, i.e, depending on its stylistic mode of usage. Thus, the equivalent of the English set expression *foreign trade* is not *іноземна торгівля* but *зовнішня торгівля*, and living *standard* is not життєвий *стандарт* but життєвий *рівень*. Similarly in other cases with single loan internationalisms. Cf.: homogeneous parts of the sentence однорідні *члени* речення but not *частини* речення; *structure* of matter is *будова* матерії but not *структура* матерії, *national anthem* is *державний* гімн but not *національний* гімн. Similarly with *national serviceman* військовослужбовець, а не національний службовець and *parts of speech* are *частини* мови, but not *члени* мови.

c) with the help of descriptive translation as in the examples like: digital computer цифрова обчислювальна машина; compound/ complex sentence складносурядне/складнопідрядне речення; involution (math.) піднесення до ступеня; pluralia tantum іменники, що вживаються тільки в множині; singularia tantum іменники, що вживаються тільки в однині; evolution (mathem.) винесення з-під радикала (витягнення кореня), common fraction (mathem.) простий дріб.

Translation of Pseudo-International Words

There is a distinct group of words which constitute a special difficulty for the translator, the so-called pseudo-international words. International words are mostly words of Greek, Latin and French origin which have a more or less similar phonetic form in many languages. They express not only scientific, social and political notions but everyday things and notions as well: *electronics* – *електроніка*; *dynamic* – *динамічний*; *calorie* – *калорія*; *elegant* – *елегантний*. These words have become an indispensable part of the vocabulary of different languages. Their referential meaning is in most cases identical. But there is another category of international words which as part of the lexical system of different languages have acquired in these languages novel semantic features –

different semantic structures, additional lexical-semantic variants, different connotations and different usage. The Russian language borrows these words most often as terms and they tend to be monosemantic while in the English language they are usually polysemantic. Although warned against them translators are often deceived into making errors by purely formal resemblances.

The rabbit was lying in a depression between two clods. (F. Norris)

БАРС gives the following meanings of the word depression: 1. угнетенное состояние, депрессия; 2. эк. депрессия, застой; 3. ослабление, уменьшение; 4. низина, впадина, котловина.

This sentence was rendered in a translation published in the late twenties as *Кролик лежал в какой-то депрессии между двух кочек.*

There were attempts to sabotage key services in Santiago.

Делались попытки вывести из строя основные объекты коммунального обслуживания в Сантьяго.

The meaning of the Russian word *саботаж* is narrower.

We are told that BBC television this autumn will give a massive coverage to the general election.

Сообщают, что нынешней осенью передачи Би-би-си по телевидению будут широко освещать парламентские выборы.

Sometimes the referential meanings of international words coincide, while their contextual meanings do not.

Britain's world wide exploitation was shaken to the roots by colonial liberation movements.

Колониальное могущество Англии было потеряно до основания национально-освободительным движением в ее колониях.

The contextual meaning of the word “*exploitation*” is metonymical – the power of colonial systems was based on exploitation. A similar metonymic transference of the word *эксплуатация – могущество* is rendered to in the Russian translation.

Benches gleamed empty and crimson under the light, their occupants haveng gone to tea. (C.P.Snow).

Все члены Палаты лордов оправились пить чай, и опустевшие скамьи сверкали красной обивкой при электрическом свете.

The Russian loan word *оккупант* is used only in a special sense as a military term with negative connotations whereas the English word is polysemantic. The addition *члены Палаты лордов* has been made for pragmatic reasons.

Sometimes pseudo-international words may have different connotations in spite of practically identical referential meanings. Thus the word *прогpecс* has

usually only positive connotations while the word “*progress*” has a wider range of connotations – positive, neutral and negative.

For instance, the title of John Bunyan’s book “The Pilgrim’s Progress” is an allegory depicting man’s progress towards perfection. The Russian traditional translation is “Путь пилигрима” (к совершенствованию) – positive connotations.

Her progress about London during that first week was one thrilling adventure.

(H.Walpole).

Ее прогулки по Лондону в ту первую неделю были сплошным увлекательным приключением. – (neutral connotations).

Hogarth’s series of engravings “Rake’s Progress” has distinctly negative connotations. The traditional translation is «Жизнь повесы».

Different usage of pseudo-international words is often a stumbling block to translators, e.g.

Once upon a most early time there was a Neolithic man. R.Kipling).

Давным давно, еще в каменном веке, жил да был один человек. (translated by K.Chukovsky).

The adjective “*Neolithic*” has its counterpart in Russian – *неолитический*, but its use is confined to scientific prose. It would not be suitable in a tale for children. So the translator introduced a traditional combination – *человек, живший в каменном веке* – resorting to a redistribution of semantic components.

Translation of Neologisms

There are also three ways of rendering neologisms in translation.

By Borrowings

By borrowed words may be either transcribed or transliterated. E.g. *hippy* – *хиппи*; *smog* – *смог*. It should be noted that transcription of such words is not always exact, e.g. *nylon* – *нейлон*; *laser* – *лазер*.

By Translation Loans

Neutron bomb – *нейтронная бомба*.

By Descriptive or Interpreting Translation

Feedback – *обратная связь*, *activism* – *агитационная деятельность*, *bugging* – *тайное наблюдение с помощью технических средств*.

In some cases neologisms may be regarded as non-equivalents and translated accordingly.

TOPICS FOR SELF-CONTROL AND CLASS/HOME REVIEWING

- 1.The main rules of translating of words of wide meaning.
- 2.The main rules of translating of polysemantic words.
- 3.The main rules of translating of emotive words.

Lecture 10. Translation of Proper Names.

Plan

1. Proper Names. Geographical Names. Names of Months, Seasons and Days of the Week.
2. Numerals. Names of Street. Names of Hotels. Names of Sports and Games.
3. Names of Periodicals. Names of Institutions and Organizations.
4. Rendering of the Contextual Meanings of the Definite and Indefinite Articles. Transcription, Transliteration, Translation.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
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4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
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2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

1. Rendering of Proper Names in Translation

The function of proper name is purely nominative. They help to distinguish a person, a pet or a place, to recognize them as unique. Thus they have only nominal meaning and are designated by a capital letter.

There are two ways of rendering proper names in translation: transcription and translation.

Transcription is now universally accepted: *Mary* – *Мэри*. Phonetic peculiarities, however, sometimes interfere and modify this principle by causing certain departures, e.g. the name of the well-known novelist Iris Murdoch is rendered with the inserted letter (and sound) “p” – Айрис Мэрдок.

Translation or representing a SL word by means of the more or less corresponding corresponding TL characters, that is, in a graphic way, is no longer regarded as an acceptable method of rendering proper names in translation. But tradition has preserved it in some cases and therefore this method still survives, e.g. *Lincoln* is rendered as *Линкольн* and *Wellington* as *Веллингтон*. *O’Henry* – *О’Генри*.

Traditionally, names of prominent people are rendered by their Russian counterparts: *Isaak Newton* – *Исаак Ньютон*, *Abraham Lincoln* – *Авраам Линкольн*, *King James* – *Король Яков*. All these factors explain the existence of double forms of proper names.

A problem by itself is presented by the translation of the so-called token names which reveal some typical features of the character named. Sometimes attempts are made to translate them, in this way following the writer’s intent, e.g. *Humpty-Dumpty* – *Шалтай Болтай*, *Тяпкин-Ляпкин* – *Slap-Dash*, etc. unfortunately this tendency inevitably conflicts with the principle of preserving the national character of the origin. So *Mr Surface* in Sheridan’s “School for Scandal” would hardly be recognizable as an English dandy if he were called *Вертопрахов*.

There are no finally established rules yet as to how different kinds and types of English proper names should be translated into Ukrainian, though Ukrainian proper names of people and family names are mostly conveyed on the basis of their phonemic/orthographic structure, i.e., are transliterated in English. E.g.: *Антоніна* Antonina; *Віра* Vira; *Лаврін* Lavrin; *Роман* Roman; *Авраменко* Avramenko; *Лавріненко* Lavrinenko; *Панібрат* Panibrat; *Іван* Ivan; *Тамара* Tamara; *Семен* Semen; *Петро* Petro, *Саливон* Salyvon, etc.

Far from all Ukrainian proper names can be conveyed by way of literal translating, however. This is because some of our vowels and consonants have no equivalent sounds/phonemes in English and must be substituted for approximately similar sounds. Among these Ukrainian sounds and sound combinations are first of all those ones, which are rendered with the help of the letters or letter combinations и, й, ий, їй, я, ю, є, ї, or partly through the letters ж, ш, х, ч, ц and palatalized consonants.

The adopted Romanization System is internally consistent and based on sound linguistic principles. It is to be strictly observed by the students of foreign

languages and the people responsible for its absolute implementation in this country and abroad. This is how the system is presented:

UKRAINIAN	ROMANIZATION	UKRAINIAN	ROMANIZATION
А а	Aa	Н н	Nn
Б б	Bb	О о	Oo
В в	V/vorW/w	П п	Pp
Г г	Hh	Р р	Rr
Ґ ґ	Gg	С с	Ss
Д д	Dd	Т т	Tt
Є є	Ee	У у	Uu
Є є	Ye ye	Ф ф	Ff
Ж ж	Zhzh	Х х	Khkh
З з	Zz	Ц ц	Tsts
И и	Yy	Ч ч	Ch/Tch ch/tch
І і	li	Ш ш	Shsh
Ї ї	Yi/li yi/ii	Щ щ	Shch shch
Й й	Yy	Ю ю	Yu yu
К к	Kkch	Я я	Yaya
Л л	LI	Ь	'(cf. Г, s', etc.)
М м	Mm		

It must be emphasized that in recent decades there has been a general tendency in translation practice to transcribe or transliterate foreign proper names and not to translate them. In *conformity* with the tendency some proper names of people and place names which had hitherto been translated are now transcribed or transliterated

The students must bear it in mind that some geographical names have in English their historically established forms/variants too: Кольський півострів Kola Peninsula, Ладозьке озеро Ladoga, Онезьке озеро Onega, Мала Азія Asia Minor, Середня Азія Central Asia, Неаполь (It. Napoli) Naples, Хебридес Гібриди/Гібридські острови (also Western Isles), etc.

Rendering of Geographical Names in Translation

Geographical names are an integral part of the Russian language, so tradition is very strong in this group of words. They are usually rendered according to the usage of earlier days, e.g. *England* – *Англия*, *Scotland* – *Шотландия*, *Ireland* – *Ирландия*.

Some geographical names have their translation equivalents in Russian: *Cape of Good Hope* – *Мыс Доброй Надежды*, *Easter Island* – *Остров Пасхи*, etc. usually geographical names of this type are token names, as they are named after the name of the holiday on which they were discovered.

Rendering of Names of Months, Seasons and Days of the Week

The names of the seasons, months and days of the week come very close to proper names. They are rendered by their Russian counterparts: *spring* – *весна*, *Monday* – *понедельник*, *Varch* – *март*, etc.

2. Rendering of Numerals

This group of words comes very close to terms. Their Russian counterparts are naturally used in translation: *ten* – *десять*, *hundred* – *сто*, *thousand* – *тысяча*.

Rendering of Scientific and Technical Terms

Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science or technology. They tend to be monosemantic in the given branch of science or technology and therefore easily call forth the required concept. They are translated by corresponding Russian terms: *calorie* – *калория*, *equator* – *экватор*, *polysemantic* – *многозначный*, etc. but it should be borne in mind, that one and the same term may have different meanings in different branches of science and technology, e.g.: *line* – 1) *контейнер*, *поточная линия*; 2) *трубопровод*, etc. thus a term may sometimes be polysemantic, e.g.: *power* (phys.) – *сила*, *мощность*, *энергия*; *power* (math.) – *степень*.

There is a special group of words of terminological nature: names of animals, birds, plants, natural elements, e.g.: *tiger* – *тигр*; *cat* – *кошка*; *swallow* – *ласточка*; *lily-of-the-valley* – *ландыш*; *drought* – *засуха*; *rain* – *дождь*; *lightning* – *молния*, etc.

The names of the rare or little known animals or plants are as a rule monosemantic and have full equivalents: *coyote* – *койот*; *armadillo* – *броненосец*; *porcupine* – *дикобраз*; *baobab* – *баобаб*.

Rendering the Names of Streets

The names of streets are transcribed: *Bayswater Road* – *Бейсвотер роуд*.

The names of streets in historical novels which sometimes happen to be token names are translated, e.g. *the “Economist” publishing office is in Threadneedle street* – *редакция журнала «Экономист» помещается на Треднидл стрит* but *“tailors lived in Threadneedle street”* – *портные жили на улице Иголка с Ниткой*.

Rendering of Names of Hotels

Names of hotels are usually transcribed, e.g. *Hotel Carlton* – *отель Карлтон*. Names of old inns are as a rule translated, e.g.: *The Red Lion* – *гостиница Красный Лев*.

Rendering of Names of Sports and Games

These are also usually transcribed, e.g.: *football* – *футбол*, *hockey* – *хоккей*.

3. Rendering of the Names of Periodicals

The Times – газета Таймс. It should be noted that for pragmatic reasons such words as газета, журнал, еженедельник are added respectively. *The United States News and World Report* – американский еженедельник «Юнайтед Стейтс Ньюс энд Ворлд Репорт».

Rendering of Names of Institutions and Organizations

These classes of proper names are usually transcribed, e.g.: *General Motors* – Дженерал Моторс, *British Airways* – Бритиш Эруейс.

But certainly there are exceptions to this rule: *The Common Market* – Общий Рынок; *The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)* – федеральное бюро расследований (ФБР). These are accepted translated equivalents.

As it has been pointed out, the process of written or oral translating presents in reality different forms of decoding or transformation which the source language units undergo at the phonetic, morphological or syntactic levels: Cf.: ambition [aembijn] амбіція, geologist геолог, metaphor метафора, *participate* брати участь, *negotiable* те (той), що піддається погодженню; *beautiful little hands*, *лісовик* (mythology) wood goblin, etc. No lingual, i.e., structural or semantic identity have in the target language many English and Ukrainian specifically national notions of lexicon (culturally biased words), which are also to be decoded, i.e., transformed Cf.: *Number 10 Downing Street* Даунінг Стріт №10 (резиденція прем'єр-міністра Великої Британії), *haggis* зварений у жирі овечий кендюх, начинений вівсяною кашею впереміш із посіченими потрохами; *cutty cooked peeled wheat, barley or nee* mixed with ground poppy seeds, raisins and parceled kernels of nuts, honey and a little boiled water, etc.

Neither are there in the target language direct semantic or structural equivalents for many idioms and stable expressions of the source language. Hence, they must be decoded, i.e., transformed, Cf.: *Tom, Dick and Harry* перший-ліпший (з), будь-хто (з), *to go to the altar* одружуватися, виходити заміж; *klepki ne vystachaе nobody home, he has got a screw loose*, etc.

A considerable number of other source language units, however, may maintain their lingual form little changed or unchanged in the target language, as in many proper names and genuine internationalisms: *Alfred* Альфред/Ельфред, *Robert Frost* Роберт Фрост, *Boston* Бостон, *president* президент, *affix* афікс, *phoneme* фонема, , *social* соціальний, *nationally* національно, etc. Such and the like words are, in fact, not translated in the true sense of the word but *turned* into the target language in their phonemic (sometimes also in their orthographic) form/structure.

Traditionally, most names of companies (corporations, firms, etc.) are transcribed or transliterated and shortly explicated at the same time. This method is also employed when rendering the names of publishing houses, titles of most newspapers and magazines or journals, and of some public bodies. The translation may be performed either with the employment of a shorter or more extended explication. The former is practised when the name of the company (corporation,

firm) is well-known or when translating at language level; the latter is resorted to when translating at speech/text level: Associated Biscuit Manufacturers англійська компанія по випуску хрустких коржиків «Ессошіейтед біскіт менюфекчерерз; TWall & Sons Co. Ltd. англійська компанія по виробництву м'ясомолочних продуктів і морозива «Т. Волл енд санз компані лімітед», but: General Motors/ Standard Oil корпорація «Дженерал Моторз/Стандард Ойл».

It is much easier to translate the names of companies/corporations when their product is indicated as in the following examples: British-American Tobacco Co. об'єднана англо-американська компанія тютюнових виробів «Брітіш-американ тобекко компані»; British and Commonwealth Shipping компанія по забезпеченню морських перевезень між Великою Британією та її колишніми колоніями «Брітіш енд коммонвелс шіппінг»; Campbell Soups Co. компанія по виробництву консервованих страв «Кемпбелл супе компані»; Coca-Cola Co. Inc. об'єднана компанія по виробництву безалкогольних напоїв «Кока-кола компані інкорпорейтід»; China Ventretech Investment Corp. китайська інвестиційна корпорація «Вентретекінвестмент корпорейшин»; West Texas Intermediate Co. американська нафтова компанія «ВестТексаз Інтермідіат Компані»; Volkswagen (VW) AG німецька акціонерна компанія по випуску легкових автомобілів «Фольксваген Акціонер Гезельшафт».

Seminar 9 Translation of the International words Plan

1. False friends of the translator.
2. Units of the International Lexicon
3. Translation of Polysemantic Words.
4. Contextual Meaning of Polysemantic Words.
5. Words of Wide Meaning.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
5. Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.

6. Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

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2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

Task 1

1. Read the article from “The Guardian”.

2. Translate the material.

3. Write down your own opinion on a given topic.

“Should citizenship be taught earlier in schools?”

Former foreign secretary David Miliband is convinced younger schoolchildren would benefit from learning about politics and economics. Is he right? Have your say in our poll

David Miliband wants to see citizenship lessons taught to younger schoolchildren. What do you think? Photograph: Graeme Robertson



There's no denying the importance of teaching students the impact of politics and economics on their lives now and in the future. But at what age should pupils be taught about what makes the world go around? And should citizenship classes be introduced at primary level?

Former foreign secretary David Miliband has been teaching AS and A-level politics at Haverstock School in London on a fortnightly basis for two years now. After giving lessons to younger schoolchildren, he thinks it is time citizenship was taught earlier.

"I have become convinced of the need for more comprehensive and open politics education earlier in the school," the Labour MP told the Guardian Teacher

Network. "The young people are bright and committed but the political process, local and national, nevermind international, seems a long way from their lives.

"Earlier teaching would complement the start made by the citizenship curriculum, and its practical experience through schools councils and the like, which Haverstock has taken seriously."

We'd like to hear your thoughts on David Miliband's suggestion. Vote in our poll."

(*"The Guardian"*).

Task 2

1. Read the article from "The Guardian".

2. Translate the material.

3. Write down your own opinion on a given topic.

"Spanish schoolboy fakes kidnap to avoid parents' evening

Police officer's 11-year-old son, who claimed he was being driven away in boot of car, was found hiding in family home

- Giles Tremlett in Madrid
- guardian.co.uk, Tuesday 22 January 2013 16.40 GMT



The Spanish civil guard later dismissed the schoolboy's fake kidnap claims as a childish prank. Photograph: Pedro Armestre/AFP/Getty Images

It was both dramatic and creative – but it was also one of the most over-the-top solutions ever invented for avoiding that well-known childhood nightmare, when parents are called in to talk to their teachers.

Early on Monday afternoon the unnamed 11-year-old son of a Spanish police officer stationed in the north-western town of Xinzo de Limia sent a text message from his mobile phone to tell his father he had been kidnapped.

When his father phoned back, the boy confirmed the worst. He had been snatched off the street as he was putting out the rubbish, he said, and was locked in the boot of a car. He had no idea where his kidnappers were taking him, but knew that the car he was in was a blue Seat.

The worried father told his commanders and, as the news was relayed around civil guard barracks across the province of Ourense, his colleagues hurriedly set up roadblocks. A nationwide alert was released in case the vehicle had left the province.

Police in neighbouring Portugal were also informed amid worries that the boy's kidnappers may have fled across the border.

Local newspapers flashed the news on their websites and ran photographs of heavily armed police manning roadblocks. It was only two hours later that the boy's father noticed the keys to a spare flat owned by the family were missing. The child was soon discovered there and reportedly explained that he had been terrified by the prospect of his parents going to school to speak to his teachers. "The civil guard attributed the false alarm to a childish 'prank' that had something

to do with the boy's situation at school," the local Faro de Vigo newspaper reported. "The child's poor school scores in recent weeks appear to explain a form of behaviour that no one in Xinzo could understand," said the Voz de Galicia newspaper. "He and his parents were due to meet his class tutor that afternoon." They did not report on whether that meeting had now been cancelled – or merely delayed.

(“The Guardian”).

Task 3

Translate and make sentences using these words:

addressee, adequate, admiral, algebraic, allergy, Alpine, annulment, archive, bamboo, botanist, bronchitis, capillary, cockatoo, cybernetics, dissymmetric, ellipsis, epochal, evacuee, fantasia, geometer, hierarchical, hypotaxis, iambus, inductor, lectureship, morphemic, morphologist, non-metal, parallelepiped, parataxis, professorate, quixotry, reduction, rhematic, sable, scenery, sonorant, stereometry, subcommittee, sublieutenant, substantival (gram.), synthetic, systemic (gram.), technologist, utilize, vacuum, voltameter, waffle, zinc, xylonite.

Task 4

Translate and make sentences using these words:

accumulator, accuracy, ambition, analyst, autocrat, balance, barbarity, buffet; calendar, civil, code, colours, co-ordination; damask, desperation, diminutive, dramatic, dynamic; effective, elementary, expedition; faction, fiction, film, figure, front; gentleman; harmonious, humanity, hypothetical; imitation, instrument; juridical; liberal, locomotive; marshal, medicine, minister; nation, natural; objective, officer, original; pamphlet, paragraph, petition, press, pygmy; racing, record, revolution; scene, storm; tank, tattooing, terror, twist; vector, vulgar; wag(g)on; zodiacal; frigid zone.

Task 5

Translate and make sentences using these words:

a) air-mechanic, administer, arch (n), barman, club-law, coffee-bean, dessert-knife, gas-main, lieutenant-colonel, mine-layer, motiveless, paper-cutter, phrase-book, soda-fountain, soda-water, submachine-gun, sugar-cane, tiger's-eye, cane-sugar, motoring, mythicize, narcotism, number, orchestric;

b) day-school, field-hospital, fire-bomb, fire-brigade, fish-torpedo, hand-grenade, opium-eater, horsemaster, seeding-machine, stamp-album, steam-turbine, stock-farm, telegenic, teleshow, talking-film, tape-machine, travel-bureau, washing-machine, zenith-distance;

c) boxing-match, consul-general, electro-dynamic, figure-artist, flag-captain, grammar-school, office-copy, orange-coloured, palm-oil, party-club, press-corrector, press-box, radio-controlled, station-master, sugar-refinery, tram-line, yacht-club.

Task 6

Translate and make sentences using these words:

1. conjugation, co-ordination, subordination, the indicative (imperative, subjunctive) mood, syllabification (phonet.), proof-reader, spelling-book, versification; 2. The law of gravitation, the theory of relativity; addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, decimal fractions, equations, identity, root extraction (math.); 3. decontamination, engineering, hothouse effect, myopia, piston, storage-battery, traffic rules, welding; 4. horse power, income tax, black soil, land improvement, cereals, legumes; 5. growth rate, latitude, longitude, mass media, national economy, precipitation, weather forecast; 6. decathlon, pentathlon, fencing, penalty area, penalty kick, snow boarding, wrestling (sport); weightlessness, purification, traffic-light.

Task 7

1. Translate the material.
2. Learn the verse by heart.

Robert Burns (1759-1796)

Robert Burns was born at Alloway, near Ayr, Scotland, the son of a farmer. Reared on a diet of austerity and Calvinistic rectitude, Robert received no formal education. He trained as a flax dresser initially, taking over the family farm with his brother on his father's death.

Following a number of passionate love affairs, he married Jean Armstrong who had borne him a child several years earlier and farmed near Dumfries, apparently unsuccessfully as he had to work simultaneously as an excise officer to supplement his income. In spite of having two jobs, he composed numerous songs and poems, many in Lowland Scottish vernacular which has to some extent limited his universal appeal. This is not true of his major works, however, and it is his earthly language, combined with a heartfelt blend of fun and nostalgia, which give his poetry a unique freshness and originality.

In Scotland, he is a cult figure as a rustic poet and the pride of his nation with his own celebratory night. His output during his short and hectic life was truly prolific and his works include many classic songs and poems which have become household names.

O were my Love yon Lilac fair

O WERE my Love yon lilac fair,
Wi' purple blossoms to the spring,
And I a bird to shelter there,
When wearied on my little wing;
How I wad mourn when it was torn
By autumn wild and winter rude!
But I wad sing on wanton wing
When youthfu' May its bloom renew'd.

O gin my Love were yon red rose
That grows upon the castle wa',

And I mysel a drap o' dew,
Into her bonnie breast to fa';
O there, beyond expression blest,
I'd feast on beauty a' the night;
Seal'd on her silk-saft faulds to rest,
Till fley'd awa' by Phoebus' light.

Task 8

Translate the material paying attention to the Proper names:

Throughout its development in both England and the United States, sea literature has traditionally involved three elements: the sea, the sailor, and the ship. At various times, any one of these has emerged as the dominant of the three. The ship has symbolized life itself—representing the background against which many youths, who looked to the sea for adventure and excitement, matured into independent men. The ordinary seaman has held a place of honor, acting as a first-hand witness to the realities of labor exploitation and the brutal conditions at sea. Yet the sea has inspired the greatest amount of interest among writers. Endowed with human qualities, the sea has been portrayed as indifferent, hostile, welcoming, and fickle. It has generated stories involving the challenge of the sea as a force to be conquered and overcome.

Translate the material paying attention to the Proper names:

"This here Progress," said Mr. Tom Smallways, "it keeps on." "You'd hardly think it could keep on," said Mr. Tom Smallways. It was along before the War in the Air began that Mr. Smallways made this remark. He was sitting on the fence at the end of his garden and surveying the great Bun Hill gas-works with an eye that neither praised nor blamed. Above the clustering gasometers three unfamiliar shapes appeared, thin, wallowing bladders that flapped and rolled about, and grew bigger and bigger and rounder and rounder--balloons in course of inflation for the South of England Aero Club's Saturday-afternoon ascent. "They goes up every Saturday," said his neighbour, Mr. Stringer, the milkman. "It's only yestiday, so to speak, when all London turned out to see a balloon go over, and now every little place in the country has its weekly-outings--uppings, rather. It's been the salvation of them gas companies." "Larst Satiday I got three barrer-loads of gravel off my petaters," said Mr. Tom Smallways. "Three barrer-loads! What they dropped as ballase. Some of the plants was broke, and some

was buried." "Ladies, they say, goes up!" "I suppose we got to call 'em ladies," said Mr. Tom Smallways. "Still, it ain't hardly my idea of a lady--flying about in the air, and throwing gravel at people. It ain't what I been accustomed to consider ladylike, whether or no." Mr. Stringer nodded his head approvingly, and for a time they continued to regard the swelling bulks with expressions that had changed from indifference to disapproval.

Task 9

Translate the material paying attention to the Proper names:

"This here Progress," said Mr. Tom Smallways, "it keeps on." "You'd hardly think it could keep on," said Mr. Tom Smallways. It was along before the War in the Air began that Mr. Smallways made this remark. He was sitting on the fence at the end of his garden and surveying the great Bun Hill gas-works with an eye that neither praised nor blamed. Above the clustering gasometers three unfamiliar shapes appeared, thin, wallowing bladders that flapped and rolled about, and grew bigger and bigger and rounder and rounder--balloons in course of inflation for the South of England Aero Club's Saturday-afternoon ascent. "They goes up every Saturday," said his neighbour, Mr. Stringer, the milkman. "It's only yestiday, so to speak, when all London turned out to see a balloon go over, and now every little place in the country has its weekly-outings-uppings, rather. It's been the salvation of them gas companies." "Larst Satiday I got three barrer-loads of gravel off my petaters," said Mr. Tom Smallways. "Three barrer-loads! What they dropped as ballase. Some of the plants was broke, and some was buried." "Ladies, they say, goes up!" "I suppose we got to call 'em ladies," said Mr. Tom Smallways. "Still, it ain't hardly my idea of a lady--flying about in the air, and throwing gravel at people. It ain't what I been accustomed to consider ladylike, whether or no." Mr. Stringer nodded his head approvingly, and for a time they continued to regard the swelling bulks with expressions that had changed from indifference to disapproval.

Task 10

Translate the names of the following English public bodies into Ukrainian:

a) 1. Amateur Athletic Association. 2. The British Field Sports Society. 3. Royal Geographical Society. 4. New Economic Foundation. 5. Greenpeace. 6. The United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority. 7. Boy Scouts Association. 8. British Association for the Security and Cooperation in Europe. 9. British Institute of Public Opinion (Gullop Poll). 10. British Medical Association. 11. CPDS, Centre for Political and Diplomatic Studies (Oxford). 12. IATEFL International Association for Teaching English as a Foreign Language 13. Central Office of Information. 14. Department of Education and Science. 14. Department of Employment. 15. Duke of Humphrey's Library (Oxford Univ.) 16. Inner London Education Authority. 17. London County Council. 18. London Stock Exchange. 19. (Public) Record Office. 20. Royal Exchange. 21. Royal Mint. 22. Royal National Institute for the Blind/Deaf. 23. Joint Nature Conservation Committee environmental protection (Gr. Br.) 24. European Agency for Safety and Health at Work. 25. UN Security Council. 26. CBIE Canadian Bureau for International Education. 27. The Democratic Party. 28. The Republican Party (USA). 29. The Royalist Party. 30. The Christian Democratic Party of Ukraine. 31. The Lovers of Beer Party (Ukraine). 32. The Women **Admirers** Party (Ukraine).

b) Find Ukrainian equivalents for the English public bodies below and translate the sentences into Ukrainian:

1. There is a broad consensus that the Social Security system needs reform, but little agreement on what should be done, and many of the important organizations in the debate are formulating their strategies. 2. The AFL-CIO, which has focused on Wall Street as an adversary in the campaign ahead, is seeking to protect a financial safety net for low-income workers, as well as to maintain a central role for government in public benefit programmes. 3. Even the AFL-CIO, however, favours investing Social Security money in the stock and bond markets, although it wants the money controlled by the government, and not put in the hands of private investors. 4. The Hong Kong Aircrew Officers' Association said pilots had been complaining of a loud buzzing in their ears that forced them to quickly change to another frequency to maintain contact with air-traffic control. 5. The strike was called by the Histadrut Trade Union Federation to protest tax increases, budget cuts and privatization plans of Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu's government. 6. The meeting of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) ended Friday in Copenhagen. 7. The Ukrainian Union of Businessmen became a member of the International Organization of Employers (IOE). 8. Abraham Katz, president of the U.S.Council for International Business and deputy chairman of the IOE executive committee, noted at the meeting that the success of reforms in Ukraine is defined by the level and speed of investments, both domestic and foreign. 9. Residents of the Bukit Gombak public housing estate in the central part of the main island of Singapore have a powerful inducement to end their support for the opposition and vote for the candidate of the governing People's Action Party. 10. Janice Shields of the U.S.Public Interest Research Group and Chris Privett of the American Society of Travel Agents, blamed airline pricing policies for the wide range of prices, saying «there may be up to 100,000 fare changes a day». 11. Mr. Rajavi married Maryam, a metallurgical engineer who had been a student leader in Tehran, and together they established the National Liberation Army, the military wing of the National Council of Resistance, a coalition of Iranian opposition groups abroad.

12. The International Monetary Fund's 2nd European Department mission to Ukraine yesterday conducted meetings with the government officials. 13. The European Union - Ukraine joint committee ended its four-day meeting in Brussels. The Ukrainian delegation was led by Roman Shpek, the head of National Agency for Reconstruction and Development (NARD). 14. 86 percent of the apartments in the high-rise blocks of Bukit Batok are being built and sold at much less than free-market rates by the government's Housing and Development Board. 15. Vancouver International Airport operated at only 10 per cent capacity Sunday and was struggling to get planes moving Monday. 16. National Railway trains were at a standstill, according to the Canadian Wheat Board, which sends most of its grain by train to the port of Vancouver.

Tasks for the Individual Work

- 1. Read the material.**
- 2. translate the material.**

3. Write down the summary

How To Proceed

Lesson Material



Especially with beginners it is important to **go slowly**. There is a steep learning curve at the very beginning of their studies especially if you are the first to introduce them to the Latin alphabet. Try to introduce manageable chunks of information and do not add in more information until your students are comfortable with what they have already covered. This may mean that they are not able to understand the purpose of learning certain things initially but perhaps after a few lessons on a topic, you can help put it all together and then **they will be amazed at how much they have learned**. For example, in one lesson you may teach your students the words *I, you, he/she/it* and what they mean but they cannot make sentences with this vocabulary until you give them some verbs to work with which may not be appropriate until a later lesson.

Teacher Talking

In the classroom you will also have to **slow down your talking speed**. Students are never going to understand you if you are talking a mile a minute. If you assist a teacher who is not a native speaker and would like you to speak at a normal speed, you can speed up slightly but a normal speed would not be appropriate for beginners. At the intermediate and advanced levels, you may speak more rapidly as their grasp on English increases and they can follow you better but it may still be challenging for them. When you do choral repetition or drill exercises, be sure to **enunciate clearly and be loud enough** for the entire class to hear you. It is often difficult for people to understand you, if your mouth is hidden from view which is odd because your students are supposed to be listening but even so, try to direct your attention towards your students, as opposed to the blackboard for instance, when you are talking to them and hold flashcards at an appropriate level.

Practice

Choose practice activities that are simple, easy to understand, and easy to explain. Using lots of words that students don't recognize to explain how to do a practice activity is only going to further confuse them. In many cases **a demonstration may be your best option**. As your students improve, you can introduce more complex activities but if an activity ever takes longer to explain than to complete, it is not worth doing again. Practice activities should revolve around students having the opportunity to speak English so even worksheets should be used for that purpose. After a worksheet has been completed, ask for volunteers to read the questions, translate the questions, and give the answers. Try to involve as many students as possible and give them continuous positive feedback.

Have Fun

Language studies give students the opportunity to learn in a different way. **English should not be taught the same way Mathematics or History is taught.** There is no room for lectures because luckily as the teacher, you already know how to speak English while the students really need to practice more than anything else. Getting students to communicate with you and each other in a positive creative environment should be the goal of every language teacher. You can incorporate many different games into your lessons and with lots of miming and role plays students will probably laugh at you, in a good way, on more than one occasion. **Taking the focus away from grammar rules and focusing on communication will encourage them to try their best, which is all you can really ask of them.**

Students just beginning their English studies have absolutely no idea what to expect so it is beneficial to you and all their later English teachers to help them enjoy it by encouraging them and showing them that learning another language is not an overwhelming task.

- 1. Read the material.**
- 2. Translate the material.**
- 3. Write down the conspect.**

Translation is an informational process, which means that the translator should render information transmitted as fully as possible. This can be achieved only if certain structural and semantic changes are introduced. These changes, which are caused by lexical and grammatical differences between languages (and broadly speaking – by the differences between the respective cultures), are called transformations in translation. In theory of translation a lot of different classifications exist. We shall analyse V. Komissarov's classification in which lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical transformations are distinguished.

I. Lexical transformations describe formal and semantic relations. This group contains transliteration, transcription, loan translation and lexico-semantic transformations such as concretization, generalization and modulation.

Transliteration is representation of the spelling of the foreign word with the TL letters.

e.g. lady – леди, Salt Lake City – Солт-Лейк Сити (Город Солёного Озера),

Paris – Париж.

Transcription is representation of the pronunciation of the foreign word with the TL letters.

e.g. striptease – стриптиз, impeachment – импичмент, display – дисплей, Warner Brothers – Уорнер Бразерс.

Loan translation is formation of a new word or word combination according to the structure of ST. In loan translation changing of component order or translation of one word and transcription of the other are possible.

e.g. mini-skirt – мини-юбка, White House – Белый Дом, superpower – сверхдержава, International Monetary Fund – Международный валютный

фонд, A United Nations Organisation – Организация Объединённых Наций, land-based missile – ракета наземного базирования.

A group of lexico-semantic transformations includes operations involving certain semantic changes. As a result, the meaning of a word or word combination in ST may be more specific, more general or somewhat modified as a way to discovering an appropriate equivalent in TL.

Concretization is the choice of a more specific word in translation which gives a more detailed description of the idea than does the word in the ST.

e.g. meal – завтрак, обед, ужин и т.д.; mother-in-law – свекровь, тёща; плавать – swim, sail, float, drift.

“thing”:

1. “Your poor old thing,” she said.(бедняжка)
2. It means a lot to her to have a fresh, pretty young thing like Mary about the house. (существо)
3. I want to look into the thing myself. (дело)
4. Things look promising. (положение)
5. How are things? (успехи)

Generalization is the use of an equivalent with a more general meaning.

e.g. I packed my two Gladstones. (Gladstone – a travelling bag hinged so as to open into two equal compartments) – Я упаковал свои два чемодана.

I saw a man six feet two inches tall. – Я увидел высокого парня (а не шести футов роста).

Modulation is replacing a unit in ST with a TL unit the meaning of which can be logically deduced from it and which is just another way of referring to the same object or an aspect of the same situation. In such cases the substitute often has a cause-and-effect relationship (причинно-следственная связь) with the original.

e.g. And he noticed with sour disfavour that June had left her wine-glass full of wine. – И он с раздражением заметил, что Джун не прикоснулась к вину.

II. Another group of translating procedures comprises all types of transformations involving units of SL grammar. Word-for-word translation, partitioning, integration and grammatical replacement constitute grammatical transformations.

Word-for-word translation (or zero transformation) is preservation of the syntactic structure of the ST using the analogous TL grammatical forms.

e.g. He was in London two years ago. – Он был в Лондоне два года назад.

Partitioning is breaking an original sentence into two parts or replacing a simple sentence in the original with a complex one in the translation, comprising one or several subordinate clauses.

e.g. I want you to speak English. – Я хочу, чтобы вы говорили по-английски.

The weather forecast: Mist covered a calm sea in the Straits of Dover yesterday. – Вчера в проливе Па-де-Кале стоял туман. Море было спокойно. (Туман окутывал вчера спокойное море в проливе Па-де-Кале - слишком поэтично для метеосводки)

This was a man to be seen to be understood. – Чтобы понять этого человека, надо его увидеть.

Integration is combining two or more original sentences into one or compressing a complex sentence into a simple one.

e.g. The Chartists had not planned to assemble in arms on Kensington Garden. Or march thence to the Houses of Parliament. – Чартисты и не помышляли о том, чтобы прийти на Кенсингтонский луг с оружием в руках и организовать оттуда вооружённое шествие к парламенту.

Grammatical replacement (substitute) is translator's refusal to use analogous grammatical units in TT. He tries to render the meaning of SL units by changing the grammatical form of a word, the part of speech or the type of the sentence.

e.g. We are searching for talent everywhere. – Мы повсюду ищем таланты.

I am a very rapid packer. – Я очень быстро укладываюсь.

III. Finally, there is a group of transformations which ensure the required degree of equivalence by a number of changes of both lexical and grammatical nature. They involve a different arrangement of ideas, a different point of view and other semantic modifications whenever a direct translation of a SL unit proves impossible. The group of lexico-grammatical transformations consists of antonymous translation, explicatory translation and compensation.

Antonymous translation is description of the situation from the opposite point of view and rendering an affirmative SL structure by a negative TL one or vice versa.

e.g. I didn't believe it until I saw it with my own eyes. – Я поверил этому только тогда, когда увидел это своими глазами.

Explicatory translation is a complex change in which a SL unit is replaced by a TL word combination describing or defining its meaning.

e.g. A demonstration of British conservationists was held in Trafalgar Square yesterday. – Вчера на Трафальгарской площади состоялась демонстрация английских сторонников охраны окружающей среды.

Compensation is a deliberate introduction of some additional elements in translation to make up for the loss of similar elements at the same or an earlier stage.

e.g. You could tell he was very ashamed of his parents, because they said "he don't" and "she don't" and stuff like that. – Было видно, что он стесняется своих родителей, потому что они говорили «хочут» и «хочете» и всё в таком роде.

Seminar 10 Translation of the Proper Names

Plan

1. Geographical Names. Names of Months, Seasons and Days of the Week.
2. Numerals. Names of Street. Names of Hotels. Names of Sports and Games.
3. Names of Periodicals. Names of Institutions and Organizations.
4. Rendering of the Contextual Meanings of the Definite and Indefinite

Articles. Transcription, Transliteration, Translation. The Notion of the Transliteration.

5. The Notion of the Transcription as the Phonetical Way of the Rendering of the Proper Names.

Recommended Literature

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3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Task 1

1. Read the article from “The Guardian”.
2. Translate the text orally.
3. Write down the summary in English.
4. write down the essay “The school of my dream”.

Inside out: trends, quirks and ideas from the School We'd Like competition

When we asked schools what they'd do with £5,000, hundreds of creative, inspiring and exciting ideas rolled in. **Wendy Berliner** gives an overview of the entries.

Tree houses and outdoor classrooms were among the popular ideas in our School We'd Like competition. Photograph: Christopher Thomond for the Guardian



If there was one overriding thing that we judges noticed as we read through the astonishing array of ideas entered for Zurich Municipal/Guardian Teacher Network The School We'd Like competition was how much teachers and students wanted to spread out of their classrooms and into The Great Outdoors.

As we sat closeted from the winter weather inside the Scott Room, eponymously named after the seminal Guardian editor CP Scott, in The Guardian's HQ in central London, we felt the call of the wild as it drifted up from hundreds of entries from schools across the UK.

Whether it was ambitious plans to plant mature trees and sling walkways around their tops to develop outdoor learning spaces – no fear of health and safety there then – or a child who wanted to chop down big trees near the playground to make more space to play football, the majority of entries wanted to breathe air that was fresher than that of the classroom.

Perhaps outside is one place students and teachers can feel freer of government powers, the curriculum being pretty much nailed down to the floor boards if schools want to flourish in tests and exams. And with our earlier Guardian/Zurich roundtable on outdoor education proving that leaders wanted to see the students taken out on trips but teachers nervous of the effect absences would have on grades, maybe this is one way of bringing the outside in – inside the school grounds. One school did indeed have the idea of making the grounds into a handy overnight camping area.

And maybe, just maybe, because the imaginations of the teachers and students who took part in the competition were flying a bit more freely, that is why we got so many snazzy ideas – that and the £15,000 worth of prize money – £5,000 each to the winning primary, secondary and special school. And also sensible – these ideas were rooted in usefulness and fun – some of them even had business plans – rather than craziness and fun; no-one wanted a school spaceship – a number of schools just wanted to give the toilets a make-over.

The idea of the competition is that school communities put their heads together and come up with an idea that would make their schools even better. Teachers and students are meant to consult one another and, where possible, consult the wider school community – support staff, parents and governors for

example. And the ideas had to be able to be replicated by other schools, so that the good ideas could travel.

Competition was very stiff and it took the judging team all day to choose between hundreds of high standard entries. The entries that have gone through to the two regional semi-finals, one in Newcastle and one in Bristol, are the ones with the great ideas who consulted most widely so that we felt the school community had a real stake in the idea. There were no duff ideas – just some ideas were better explained and better consulted on.

So back to those great ideas. Outside the ideas included covered areas, quiet areas, woodland walks, reading areas, tuck shops and outdoor classrooms - whether at ground level or at the top of trees. One school near an RAF base, and with students affected by what happened to parents serving in Iraq and Afghanistan, had a lovely idea for a tree house where children could withdraw to when they wanted to have some quiet time for reflection.

Special schools were keen on walks suitable for wheelchairs and sensory gardens, or something very practical like products for a hydrotherapy pool.

There was also a lot of interest in taking learning into enclosed spaces outside – little spaces like pods or huts and big spaces like a double decker bus kitted out as learning areas, or a campervan set out as a science lab. Astroturf was mightily popular in this land where any grass can turn to mud in any season very quickly.

Inside the ideas included internet cafes, chill out rooms, multi-faith rooms – a lot of schools, perhaps predictably, wanted iPads and Kindles for their library areas. Paint was popular too - on the floors of a big secondary school to help people find their way around, on the inside of a boring tunnel linking one campus from another – London Underground and sundry railway stations please take note.

We finally made our shortlist for the regional finals and you can see them all here. At the regional finals teams of four will now present to a Dragon's Den style judging panel who will decide which teams go forward to the final at The Guardian in Kings Place.

(Guardian Professional)

Task 2

1. Read the article.
2. Translate the text orally.
3. Write down the summary in English..

Creative Teaching Ideas - The Art and Science of the Didactic Approach

Creative teaching ideas are simply reminders of what we did or did not love about our schooling. Often disparaged as "the thing we most hated" about our schooling experience, the tool of presenting information directly is nonetheless a valuable skill to have in your repertoire. Telling people information straight out, or "giving people answers" are not inherently bad things to do. On the contrary, the art of didactic teaching is an important color to have on your creative teaching

ideas palette. When used appropriately, it can be a very effective way to transmit important information quickly and clearly.

Engaging students

For the didactic approach to be effective, students must be interested in receiving the information. If they are not, no amount of fancy technique is going to make your lecture effective. So a large part of the art of didactic teaching is learning to discern when students are ready for it-better yet, eager for it.

The didactic approach can actually be a good creative teaching idea for engaging students. Remember all those fun factoids that friend of yours is always rattling off? Well, having a wide range of those little tidbits at your disposal is like having lots of different lures and baits in your tackle box. "Hey! Did you know that..." Consider it like going fishing-you throw out a handful of "cool facts" and see when they bite. With a little practice, it's quite easy to see-body language changes, eyes light up, and students begin interrupting you to tell you what they know. No they are engaged! Just remember - it's bait! You are really just discovering what will "hook" the interest of the students.

The most crucial aspect of engaging students is your own ability to accurately perceive and constantly monitor the level of a student's interest. Especially when lecturing, you must be eternally vigilant to the body language and eye/facial expressions of your students. If they begin to fade, you'll just be wasting your time continuing on in didactic mode.

Didactic Presentation Skills

Here is a short list of important tips for effective didactic teaching once your students are genuinely interested:

- Attend closely to when students are ready for information - don't do their work for them!

- Be conscious of your priority - is it more important that information be conveyed quickly and accurately, or that the students struggle with figuring it out for themselves?

- Be clear in your own mind of the points you want to make.

- Consider the rule of three: tell them what you are going to tell them, then tell them, then tell them what you told them. Repetition is great.

- Go slow and leave time for the information to sink in before going on to the next thing.

- Watch for jargon or "insider" language that students won't understand.

- Watch carefully for signs of confusion - ask students to explain in their own words what you just covered to check if they are really understanding it.

- Allow students to ask questions as they come up - don't worry about "breaking your flow." If they are holding a question, they won't really be able to attend to what you're saying anyway.

The most important thing to remember in using didactic techniques is that mixing in other creative teaching ideas as participatory elements - like the Art of Questioning (see next topic), or giving students small activities or mysteries to explore - is a crucial part of keeping students with different learning styles engaged. The classic reputation that didactic teaching is "boring" comes mostly

from this simple fact: a painting with just one color can be pretty boring. For the most part, the didactic approach is best viewed as one color among many, one that needs to be mixed skillfully with the other colors to get the effect you want. Good luck in using this and other creative teaching ideas!

(By Chris Laliberte)

Task 3

1. Read the article.
2. Translate the text orally.
3. Write down the summary in English..

Teaching children. Nature activity HIDING GAMES

What do nature activity hiding games have to do with awareness? Well, everything really. We play our games in the woods. This helps the child to spend a lot of quiet time in the natural world and learn to blend in. The more a child can blend in to the woods, the closer he or she will be to nature. An increase in awareness of birds, animals, plants, colors, textures and all other natural things will follow. Plus, they are great fun.

With adult supervision, find a safe place in a wooded area. Be sure that the boundaries are well defined and the area is free of common hazards such as poison ivy. Hide and seek is a great way to start, and everyone knows how to play. Begin with hide and seek and then try a couple of new ones.

TRAIL SIDE HIDE

Walk down a wooded trail with two adults and a group of children. One adult stays behind while the other takes the children a little further up the trail. Then the children hide on both sides of the trail. The rule is that they must hide close enough to the trail so that they can see the adult. The other adult must close his or her eyes while the children are hiding, then walk forward. Without leaving the trail he or she tries to find as many children as possible. This is a fun activity with all age groups, but especially the younger ones.

SCATTER

This nature activity hiding game works with an older group that you are sure will follow directions. Take a walk in the woods on a well marked trail. Without warning, the adult will shout "SCATTER" and begin counting to a low number such as 8 or 10. The children will have an 8 or 10 count to find a hiding place. Then the adult will look for the hidiers while staying on the trail.

The object of this game is to find cover and blend in quickly. Running a great distance after the count is over is not allowed. As the game goes on, make the count shorter and shorter. The kids love the challenge.

Task 4

1. Read the article.

2. Translate the text orally.

3. Write down the summary in English..

Teaching children. Nature activity

NATURE ACTIVITY. HAWKS BIRDS

In this nature activity, hawk birds present a fun challenge to the children.

When a bird hawk is hunting, the birds that survive are the ones that are most aware of danger. At a young age either they learn to scatter into the trees or back into the nest, or they become lunch for a bird of prey.

This is a fast moving game that children love. It is a good one to play with large groups, although it can also be used with groups as small as four or five.

Working with the 6 to 9 year olds at Spruce Pine Montessori School, we shaped it to a version that we liked, giving our hawks and birds a lot of freedom to interchange.

Start the game with one or two hawks. Everyone else is a baby bird. The bird's "nest," or safe place, is a bandana or other object placed on the ground. Make as many nests as necessary so that the birds are not too crowded.

The game begins when the baby birds leave the nest to find food. Then the hawks began to fly around the birds. When they raise their "wings" (arms) they begin the hunt.

When the baby birds see the hawks hunting they must get back to their nest or be killed (tagged) by the hawk. Once in the nest they must practice being still and quiet. If the hawk sees movement or hears noise, it can tag the bird and the bird dies.

"Dead" birds become hawks in the next round so that no one has to sit out.

If a hawk does not catch a bird in three rounds, then it "dies" and becomes a baby bird.

Helpful hints:

1. Hawks are not allowed to touch the birds in order to make them move.
2. Hawks are not allowed to hover over a bird. They must continue to fly.
3. Baby birds must leave the nest if hawks are not hunting.
4. Limit each round to 30 to 60 seconds.

(Kamana for Kids)

Module 6.

Lexical Problems of the translation

Lecture 11. Rendering of Phraseological Units. Translation of Idioms



Plan

1. Translation of Phraseological Units
2. Translation of Idioms by Choosing Near Equivalents.
3. Translation by Choosing Genuine Idiomatic Analogies.
4. Translating Idioms by Choosing Approximate Analogies

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
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1. Translation of Phraseological Units

The phraseological units have the definite program of functioning which is predetermined by their essence itself as A.V. Kunin puts it. Some functions are constant, i.e. inherent in all phraseological units in any conditions of their realization, other functions are variable, peculiar only to some classes of

phraseological units. Communicative, cognitive and nominative functions refer to the constant functions.

The communicative function of phraseological units is their ability to serve as communicative or message means. Communication presupposes a mutual exchange of statements, and message presupposes the transfer of information without a feedback with the reader or the listener.

The nominative function of phraseological units is their relation to objects of the real world, including situations, and also replacement of these objects in speech activity by their phraseological denominations. The filling of lacunas in the lexical system of the language is characteristic of the nominative function of phraseological units. This function is peculiar to the overwhelming majority of phraseological units, as they do not have lexical synonyms. The sub-kinds of the nominative function are neutrally-nominal and nominal functions.

The neutrally-nominal function is the basic one for phraseological units, for example, *brown paper*. At realization of such phrases in communication the fact of a designation of the object is important, and not the stylistic use of the phrase. The nominal function is also characteristic for semantically transferred phraseological units (idiomatisms and idiophraseomatisms), but it is not neutral, it is stylistically marked.

Function which is closely connected with nominative function is the cognitive function, that is the socially-determined reflexion of objects of the real world mediated by consciousness, promoting their cognition. The social determinacy is shown in the fact that though potential phraseological units are created by separate individuals, these individuals are part of the society, and the realization of the cognitive function by them is possible only on the basis of previous knowledge.

The stylistic function is a special, in comparison with neutral way of expression, purposefulness of language means for achievement... of stylistic effect with preservation of the general intellectual content of the statement. The stylistic function realizes in speech connotative features of a phraseological unit. In the language there is only stylistic colouring. The idea about it is given by marks and comments in stylistic dictionaries which, unfortunately, are still far from being perfect. Comparison of a phraseological unit with its variable prototype also helps to reveal stylistic colouring.

Developing, on the Russian material, the phraseological theory in its functional-semantic aspect, S.G. Gavrin singles out some functions of phraseological units. These functions are peculiar also to English phraseological units:

- 1) the expressively-figurative function (*catch at a straw; forbidden fruit*, etc.);
- 2) the emotionally-expressional function (*damn your eyes!; go to the devil!*);
- 3) the function of speech concision by omitting some components (*do not count your chickens!* instead of *do not count your chickens before they are hatched*).

Proverbs, especially short ones, even not of the reduced kind, carry out the function of speech laconisation, for example, *prevention is better than cure - action taken to prevent an illness, dangerous event, etc., from taking place is wiser and more useful than any action that is taken to reduce its harmful effect (LD)*. It is evident, that the definition is almost five times longer than the proverb itself.

The semantic compression, characteristic for phraseological units, is one of the displays of language economy.

All these functions, and also the function of hyperbolization and intensity are sub-kinds of the stylistic function.

The cumulative function is peculiar, for example, to proverbs. They are generalization of life experience of the people.

The summarizing function of a phraseological unit consists in the fact that it is the short resume of the previous statement, e.g., *that's flat* (coll.) - it is definitively solved, resolutely and irrevocably: *Well, I will not marry her: that's flat* (G.B. Shaw).

Summarizing function in a context is characteristic of many proverbs, for example, *all's well that ends well; in for a penny, in for a pound*, etc.

Pragmatic character is also carried by the evaluative function.

A kind of the pragmatic function is the contact-establishing function consisting in creation of easy dialogue between the author and the reader or the listener, and also among the characters themselves.

Introducing a luxury car that will not take you for a ride.

The given advertising heading concerns the car, and two meanings of the phraseological unit «take smb for a ride» are played up - 1) to kill, finish off smb; 2) to inflate, deceive smb.

Proverbs are often used in the function of confirmation of a thought. It is also one of the sub-kinds of the pragmatic function.

It is an ill bird that fouls its own nest - «only the bad bird defiles the nest»:

Augustus: ...Do you mean to say, you scoundrel, that an Englishman is capable of selling his country to the enemy for gold?

The Clerk: Not as a general thing I would not say it, but there's men here would sell their own mothers for two coppers if they got the chance.

Augustus: ... It's an ill bird that fouls its own nest. (G.B. Shaw).

Interjectional phraseological units can carry out the compensatory function which is realized in the description of strong sincere emotional experience, affect, when speech of the subject is complicated and an interjectional phraseological unit is the only content of the whole remark.

Oh dear - my God:

Jimmy: They did not say much. But I think she's dying.

Cliff: Oh, dear.

The text-building (or the context-building) function is characteristic of phraseological units at their realization. For the first time the question concerning text-building functions of phraseological units was raised by I.I. Chernysheva.

Under text-building factors of phraseological units we mean realization of linguistic properties of the given language signs allowing them, equally with

grammatical and lexical means of language, to create those links in structure of the text which are elements of the structure and in certain cases also binding means of fragments of the text.

The proposition that phraseological units can be binding means not only of contexts, but also context fragments is lawful.

This function has a diverse embodiment. Therefore we will only give some examples.

Nina: You cannot do that to Sam.

Darrell (savagely): Like hell I cannot (E. O'Neill).

A phraseological unit «like hell» connects both remarks.

Gerald (With his tongue in his cheek): Then good-bye (W.S. Maugham).

The author emphasizes irony of Gerald who pretended that he said goodbye indifferently. The author's remark and the words of Gerald form a phraseological configuration.

The repetition of one-structural comparisons creates parallel constructions within the limits of a phrase context.

'Not was but a poor man himself,' said Peggotty, 'but as good as gold and as true as steel'.

In texts of various types phraseological units carry out various functions - descriptive, characterizing, terminological and others.

All functions considered above are usual. Occasional functions based on the usual ones are characteristic of phraseological units in the context when occasional changes take place: the function of additional sense, the weakening function or the function of specification of meaning, etc. Functions often cross in statements.

The interaction of functions is characteristic of idioms and idiophraseomatism, e.g.:

Like a shot - 1) quickly, promptly, at full speed; 2) instantly, at once; 3) very willingly, with pleasure. The following functions are evident here: 1) the intensity function; 2) the expressively-figurative function; 3) the function of speech compression.

Functions of phraseological units form two principal kinds of binary oppositions, i.e. regular pair oppositions: 1) stylistically neutral functions - stylistically marked functions; 2) usual functions - occasional functions (for other distinctions see:).

The presence of these oppositions can be explained by the asymmetry in the sphere of functioning of phraseological units and is one of the important elements of the phraseological system.

The enumeration of functions of phraseological units given above does not represent their classification. This challenge is waiting for its solution.

Phraseological units are usually classified into three big groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological collocations.

Phraseological fusions are non-motivated groups forming indivisible wholes both semantically and syntactically. Their meaning in Modern English does not depend on the meaning of the component elements. They seldom, if ever,

have equivalents in the S and T languages and are usually rendered by interpreting translation or by paraphrasing, e.g. *to paint the lily* – *пытаться улучшить или украсить что-л., нуждающееся в улучшении или украшении; заниматься бесплодным делом; тратить время или силы попусту. To show the white feather* – *струсить, проявить трусость.*

The meaning of a phraseological fusion may naturally be rendered by different synonyms, e.g. *to go the whole hog* – *делать что-л. основательно, проводить до конца, не останавливаться на полумерах, идти на все.*

Phraseological unities are motivated units of Modern English; their components are not semantically bound. They are often figurative and the transference of meaning is either metaphorical or metonymical, e.g. *to drop a brick* – *допустить бестактность, сделать ляпсус, промах; monkey business* – *всякие штучки, фокусы, глупости, дурачества; to eat humble pie* – *проглотить обиду, смириться.*

This group of phraseological units is heterogeneous and comprises proverbs, proverbial sayings, allusions, euphemisms, professionalisms, e.g.

Little pitchers have long ears – *дети любят слушать разговоры взрослых; What will Mrs. Grundy say?* – *Что скажут люди?*

Phraseological unities differ by their structure, by their syntactical function in a sentence and by their stylistic features.

According to the principle of their translation phraseological unities can be divided into three groups:

- Phraseological unities having Russian counterparts, which have the same meaning expressed by a similar image. They can often be traced to the same source – biblical, mythological, Latin proverbs or sayings, e.g. *a living dog is better than a dead lion* (bibl.) – *живой пес лучше мертвого льва; not all is gold that glitters* – *не все то золото, что блестит; to cut the Gordian knot* (myth.) – *разрубить гордиев узел.*
- Proverbs and Proverbial Sayings having the same meaning but expressing it by a different image.

Too many cooks spoil the broth. - *У семи нянек дитя без глазу.*

To buy a pig in a poke – *Купить кота в мешке.*

Liberal M.P.'s claimed to be united behind their leader while, at the same time, strewn banana skins in his path.

Либералы – члены парламента – утверждали, что они объединились вокруг своего лидера, а в то же время они подставляли ему ножку на каждом шагу.

- SL phraseological unities sometimes have synonymous TL equivalents, the choice is open to the translator and is usually determined by the context, e.g.

Between the devil and the deep sea – *между двух огней, между молотом и наковальней, между Сциллой и Харибдой, в безвыходном положении.*

So, to phraseological units we refer: the cliché, set-phrases, proverbs, sayings.

Proverbs are brief statements showing in condensed form the accumulated life experience of the community and serving as conventional practical symbols for abstract ideas.

A close mouth catches no flies. (proverb)

out of sight, out of mind. (saying).

Ні слуху, ні духу. (saying).

Phraseological units serve to make speech emphatic, mainly from the emotional point of view. Their use in everyday speech is remarkable for the subjective emotional colouring they produce. When they appear in written texts their expressiveness increases.

It will only add fuel to the fire. (expressive).

It will only make the situation worse. (neutral).

Без задніх ніг — дуже втомлений.

Modifications of the phraseological units.

1. insertion. It was all take and no give. (give and take — взаимная уступка).

2. Decomposing (разбиение, Breaking the phraseological unit). Skate on thin ice — скользит по тонкому льду. It was thin ice here... Captain Whise, however, seemed to skate over it easily enough.

3. Changes e.g. Antonymic changes.

Worship the ground one walks on — быть готовым целовать землю, по которой она (он) ступает. I hate the ground she walks on, and she hates me.

4) double accentuation – двойная актуализация. To go the whole hog – доводить дело до конца. Even if he wanted to go the whole hog, there's no hog, only a few strips of bacon.

In the absence of a correlated phraseological unity the translator resorts to interpreting translation, e.g. *a skeleton in the closet* (cupboard) – семейная тайна, неприятность, скрывающаяся от посторонних.

Target language equivalents possessing national colouring though expressing the same idea should be avoided as they cannot be considered true equivalents because they introduce alien associations and alien national colouring, e.g. *to carry coals to Newcastle* should not be translated by the Russian proverbial saying – *ездить в Тулу со своим самоваром*. In such cases two solutions are possible: a) to preserve the image of the English phraseological unity – *никто не возит уголь в Ньюкасл*; b) to resort to interpreting translation – *заниматься бесполезным делом*.

The same principles are applied to the translation of phraseological unities in the form of simile: *cold as ice* – *холодный как лед*; *as old as the hills* – *стар как мир*; *brown as a berry* – *загорелый, бронзовый*.

Interpreting translation of phraseological fusions and unities is justified by the fact that their literal meaning is suppressed by what may be termed their transferred meaning which conveys the idea expressed by them.

Phraseological collocations are motivated word combinations but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain degree of stability in such word groups. They are translated by corresponding collocations in Russian, e.g. *to make faces* – *строить рожи*; *to make amends* – *приносить свои извинения*; *to make a fortune* – *составить состояние*; *to make a bed* – *застелить постель*; *to make allowances* – *делать скидку*.

As seen from the above examples it is always the key word which determines the choice of the Russian verb.

Lexical transformations can be reduced to five distinct types which have a purely linguistic basis. These five types are the following: **concretization**, **generalization**, **antonymic translation**, **metonymic translation** and **paraphrasing**.

Idiomatic or phraseological expressions are structurally, lexically and semantically fixed phrases or sentences having mostly the meaning, which is not made up by the sum of meanings of their component parts¹. An indispensable feature of idiomatic (phraseological) expressions is their figurative, i.e., metaphorical nature and usage. It is this nature that makes them distinguishable from structurally identical free combinations of words Cf.: *red tape* (free word-comb.) червона стрічка - *red tape* (idiom) канцелярський формалізм (бюрократизм); *the tables are/were turned* (free word-comb.) столи перекинуті/були перекинуті - *the tables are turned* (idiom) ситуація докорінно змінилася; супротивники помінялися ролями/місцями; *play with fire* гратися з вогнем біля багаття (free word-comb.) гратися з вогнем - *наражатися на небезпеку* (idiom).

On rare occasions the lexical meaning of idiomatically bound expressions can coincide with their direct, i.e., not transferred meaning, which facilitates their understanding as in the examples like: *to make way* дати дорогу; *to die a dog's death* здохнути як собака; *to receive a hero's welcome* зустрічати як героя; *wait a minute/a moment* зачекайте хвилинку/ один момент; *to tell (you) the truth* правду казати/правду кажучи; *to dust one's coat/jacket* витрусити пальто/ піджака - дати духопеликів (idiom).

Some proper names can also be endowed with figurative meaning and possess the necessary expressiveness which are the distinguishing features of idioms²: *Croesus*, *Tommy* (*Tommy Atkins*), *Yankee*, *Mrs. Grundy*, *Jack Ketch*, etc. These proper names have acquired their constant meaning and can not be confused with usual (common) proper names of people. As a result their transferred meaning is conveyed in a descriptive way. So *Mrs. Grundy* means *світ, люди, існуюча мораль*; *Jack Ketch* кат; *Croesus* Крез, надзвичайно багата людина; *Tommy Atkins* англійський солдат; *Yankee* (in Europe) янки/американець, etc.

Idiomatic/phraseological expressions should not be mixed up with different fixed/set prepositional, adjectival, verbal and adverbial phrases the meaning of which is not an actual sum of meanings made up by their constituent parts either: *by George*, *by and by*, *for all of*, *for the sake of*, *cut short*, *make believe*; or compounds like: *topsy-turvy*, *higledy-piggledy*; coordinate combinations like: *high*

and dry, cut and run, touch and go; Tom, Dick and Harry, etc. These and a lot of other stable expressions can very often be treated as standardized collocations. Their meaning can be rendered in a descriptive way too, like that of genuine idiomatic expressions: *fifty-fifty* так собі; ні добре ні погано; *O.K.* все гаразд, на належному рівні; *cut short* обірвати, присікти/припинити щось (поїздки), обірвати (розмову).

Such and the like stable expressions, like most of other standardized collocations, have usually a transparent meaning and are easier to translate than regular idioms (the so-called phraseological fusions). Meanwhile it is next to impossible to guess, for example, the meaning of the English idiom *Hobson's choice* from the seemingly transparent meanings of its componental parts. Only a philological inquiry helps establish the meaning of the name and the real sense of the idiom -«no choice whatsoever», «acceptance of what is offered» *жодного вибору*.

Similarly treated must also be many other English and Ukrainian picturesque idioms, proverbs and sayings, which have national literary images and reflect the traditions, customs, the way of conduct or the mode of life of a nation. Their meaning, due to absence of similar idioms in the target language, can be rendered descriptively, i.e. through a regular explication. The latter, depending on the semantic structure of the source language idiom, may be sometimes achieved in the target language with the help of a single word. Cf.: **English:** *an odd/queer fish* дивак; *Canterbury tale* небувальщина, вигадка; *blue bonnet* («синій берет») шотландець; *ніде курці клюнути cramped; зубами тертяка вибивати* to be chilled. Most often, however, the meaning of this kind of idioms is conveyed with the help of free word-combinations: to *dine with Duke Humphrey* залишитись без обіду (нічого не ївши); to *cut off with a shilling* позбавити когось спадщини. Similarly in **Ukrainian:** *ноги на плечі* to go quickly (or very quickly) on one's feet; *зуби з'їсти на чомусь* to have great experience in something; *кивати/накивати п'ятами* to run away quickly/hurriedly.

It goes without saying that none of the phraseologisms above can be translated word-for-word since their constituent images would lose their connotative, i.e., metaphorical meaning in the target language. So, *пообідати з герцогом Гамфрі* or **обрізати шилінгом* could be understood by the Ukrainian language speakers in their literal meaning. The same can be said about our idiom *ноги на плечі та й зайда*, i.e., **with one's legs on the shoulders* which would never be understood, when translated literally, by the English language native speakers. Therefore, the componental images, when mechanically transplanted to the target language, may often bring about a complete destruction of the idiomatic expression.

The choice of the way of translation of this kind of idioms may be predetermined by the source language context or by the existence/absence of contextual equivalents for the idiomatic/stable expression in the target language. Thus, in the examples below units of this kind can be translated into Ukrainian either with the help of a single word or with the help of a standardized

phraseological expression: to *give a star*?здрігнути; to *give heart to one* підбадьорювати, морально підтримувати когось; *the weaker vessel (facet)* жінка (прекрасна стать; жіноцтво; слабша половина людства), *the Holy Mother* Богоматір.

Not infrequently the meaning of a standardized collocation (after Acad. V.V.Vinogradov) like that of a regular idiom may have synonymous single word equivalents in the target language. The choice of the equivalent is predetermined then by the meaning of the standardized collocation/phraseologism and by the style of the sentence where it is used: to *make sure* упевнитись (пеконатися), забезпечувати; to *make comfort* втішатися; to *take place* відбуватися; траплятися; *the world and his wife* усі.

Similarly treated are also traditional combinations which have in the target language several stylistically neutral free equivalents (words or word-combinations) as: to *run a risk* ризикувати, йти на ризик, to *apply the screw* натиснути (на когось); to *drop like a hot potato* швидко позбутися когось, обірвати стосунки, раптово припинити знайомство.

Faithful translating of a large number of picturesque idiomatic/phraseological expressions, on the other hand, can be achieved only by a thorough selection of variants having in the target language a similar to the original lexical meaning, and also their picturesqueness and expressiveness. This similarity can be based on common in the source language and in the target language componential images as well as on the structural form of them. As a result, the meaning of such idioms is mostly guessed by the students, which generally facilitates their translation.

A few examples will suffice to prove it. **English:** *a grass widow (widower)* солом'яна вдова (вдівець); *not to see a step beyond one's nose* далі свого носа нічого не бачити; *measure twice and cut once* сім раз одміряй, а раз відріж; *not for love or money* ні за які гроші/ ні за що в світі; **Ukrainian:** *не знати/тямити ні бе, ні ме, ні кукуріку* (not to know chalk from cheese); *вночі що сіре, те й вовк* all cats are grey in the dark, *який батько, такий син, яка хата, такий тин* (яблучко від яблуні далеко не відкочується) like father, like son; *not a cat's/dog's chance* жодних шансів/можливостей, (однієї) клепки бракує (he) has *not ail his buttons, etc.*

It often happens that the target language has more than one semantically similar/analogous phraseological expression for one in the source language. The selection of the most fitting variant for the passage under translation should be based then not only on the semantic proximity of the idioms/phraseologisms but also on the similarity in their picturesqueness, expressiveness and possibly in their basic images. The bulk of this kind of phraseological expressions belong to the so-called phraseological unities. (Vinogradov). Here are some Ukrainian variants of the kind of English phraselogsms: *either win the saddle or loose the horse* або пан, або пропав; або перемогу здобути, або вдома не бути; *many hands make work light* де згода, там і вигода; гуртом і чорта побореш; гуртом і батька добре бити; громада - великий чоловік; *a man can die but once* від смерті не втечеш; раз мати народила, раз і вмирати; раз козі смерть; двом смертям не

бути, а одної не минути; *haste makes waste/the more haste, the less speed*/тихше їдеш -далі будеш, поспішиш -людей насмішиш, хто спішить - той людей смішить.

A number of phraseological units, due to their common source of origin, are characterized in English and Ukrainian by partial or complete identity of their syntactic structure, their componental images, picturesqueness and expressiveness (and consequently of their meaning). Such kind of idioms often preserve a similar or even identical word order in the source language and in the target language. Hence, they are understood and translated by our students without difficulties: *to cast pearls before swine* кидати перла перед свиньми; *to be born under a lucky star* народилася під щасливою зіркою; *to cherish/warm a viper in one's bosom* пригріти гадюку в пазусі; *to be/ fall between Scilla and Charybdis* бути між Сциллою і Харібдою/між двох вогнів.

One of the peculiar features of this type of idiomatic expressions is their international nature. Only few of them have phraseological synonyms of national flavour, being thus restricted to corresponding speech styles, whereas international idioms predominantly belong to the domain of higher stylistic level:

National/colloquial variants of international idiomatic substitutes, therefore, always differ considerably by their picturesqueness, expressiveness and their lexical meaning. They are only semantically analogous to genuine equivalents, which may sometimes lack absolute identity in the source language and in the target language (*to cross the Styx* канути в Лету; *to drop from the clouds* з неба впасти; *neither fish nor flesh* ні пава ні гава).

As can be seen, some international idiomatic expressions slightly differ in English and Ukrainian either in their structural form and lexical/idiomatic meaning or in the images making up the idioms. Thus, the idiomatic expression *to fish in troubled waters* has in English the plural of *waters* whereas in its Ukrainian equivalent has a singular form, moreover, the component *to fish* is detailed and extended to *ловити рибку (рибу) в каламутній воді*; *the Society of Jesus* is орден єзуїтів (but not the Order of Jesus) and *the Babel of tongues* is вавилонське стовпотворіння and not *Вавилон мов.

Slight divergences are also observed in several other English and Ukrainian international equivalents: *the game is (not) worth the candle* (singular) варта гра свічок (plural). The idiom *a sound mind in a sound body*, on the other hand, has a reverse position of its component parts: *у здоровому тілі здоровий дух*.

Therefore, each of the above-given idiomatic expressions has either a different form of a component/image, a different word order or a slightly different lexical meaning of a componental part. And yet despite the pointed out divergences such and the like idiomatic expressions/phraseological units do not cease to be absolute equivalents in either of the two languages.

Apart from the kinds of idiomatic expressions singled out on the foregoing pages, there exists in each language a specific national layer of idiomatic/phraseological expressions comprising also proverbs and sayings, which are formed on the basis of componental images pertaining solely to a concrete national language. Such idioms are first of all distinguished by their

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

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

Isomorphic is also the existence in both the languages of a number of idiomatic expressions which are of regular sentence-type structure containing some common componental parts. Hence, their lexical meaning, nothing to say about their componental images, their picturesqueness and their expressiveness are identical as well. This is predetermined by their common source of origin in English and in Ukrainian: *if you run after two hares, you will catch neither* якщо побіжиш за двома зайцями, не впіймаєш жодного; *a drowning man will catch (snatch) at a straw* потопуючий хапається за соломинку (і за соломинку вхопиться, хто топиться); *Bacchus has drowned more men than Neptune* Вакх утопив більше людей, ніж Нептун (вино загубило більше людей, ніж море); *he who spares the rod spoils the child* хто жаліє різку, той збавляє дитину.

As can be noticed from these examples, some English and Ukrainian idiomatic expressions are far from uniform lexically, structurally, and by their componental images, picturesqueness and expressiveness. They do not always spring from the same source of origin either. Because of this a faithful translation of phraseological/idiomatic expressions depends upon some factors the main of which are as follows:

- 1) whether the idiomatic expression in the source language and in the target language is of the same/different source of origin;
- 2) whether the idiomatic expression has in the target language only one, more than one or all componental images in common;
- 3) whether the componental images, when translated, are perceived by the target language speakers;
- 4) whether the structural form of the idiomatic expressions can be retained in the target language without any transformations;
- 5) whether there exists an analogous/similar in sense idiomatic expression in the target language, etc.

All these and some other factors should not be neglected when translating idiomatic/phraseological expressions from and into English. In fact, here exists a regular interdependence between the lexical meaning, the origin, the

picturesqueness and the expressiveness of idioms on the one hand and the method of their translating on the other.

Taking into account these and some other factors, the following ways of faithful rendering the idiomatic/phraseological expressions are to be identified:

1. By Choosing Absolute/Complete Equivalents

This is the method of translating by which every componental part of the source language idiom is retained in the target language unchanged. The componental parts include all notionals and also the lexically charged functionals which contribute to the lexical meaning of the idiomatic/phraseological expression. The notional components also create the main images (the picturesqueness), the expressiveness and the figurative (connotative) meanings of idiomatic expressions. Translating with the help of equivalents is resorted to when dealing with idioms which originate from the same source in both the languages in question. These sources may be:

1) Greek or other mythology: *Augean stables* авгієві стайні (занедбане, занехаяне місце); *Cassandra warning* застереження Кассандри (застереження, на які не звертають уваги, але які збуваються); *Hercules' Pillars (the Pillars of Hercules)* геркулесові стовпи (Гібралтарська протока); *a labour of Sisyphus* сізіфова праця (важка і марна праця); *Pandora's box* скринька Пандори/Пандорина скриня (джерело всіляких лих); *the Trojan horse* троянський кінь (прихована небезпека); *Aladdin's lamp* Аладдінова лампа; *between Scilla and Charybdis* між Сциллою і Харібдою;

2) ancient history or literature: *an ass in a lion's skin* (назва однієї з байок Езопа) осел у левовій шкурі; *to cross (pass) the Rubicon* перейти Рубікон (прийняти важливе рішення); *the die is thrown/cast* жеребок кинуто (рішення прийнято); *the golden age* золотий вік (золоті часи); *I came, I saw, I conquered* прийшов, побачив, переміг;

3) the Bible or works based on a biblical plot: *to cast the first stone at one* першим кинути у когось каменем; *to cast pearls before swine* розсипати перла перед свиньми; *the golden calf* золотий телець/ідол; *a lost sheep* загубився вівця; *the massacre (slaughter) of innocents* винищення немовлят; *the ten commandments* десять заповідей; *the thirty pieces of silver* тридцять срібняків; *prodigal son* блудний син.

A great many absolute equivalents originate from contemporary literary or historical sources relating to different languages (mainly to French, Spanish, Danish, German, Italian, Arabic). **English:** *Time is money* час - гроші; *self made man* людина, що сама проклала собі шлях у житті; *my house is my castle* мій дім - моя фортеця. **French:** *after us the deluge* після нас хоч потоп; *the fair sex* прекрасна стать; *the game is worth the candle* гра варта свічок; *more royalist than the king* більший монархіст ніж сам король; *to pull the chestnuts out of the fire* вигрібати (чужими руками) каштани з вогню; *one's place in the sun* місце під сонцем; **Spanish:** *blue blood* блакитна кров; *the fifth column* (introduced in English by E. Hemingway)* п'ята колона; *to tilt at the windmills* (introduced by Cervantes) воювати з вітряками; **Italian:** *Dante's inferno* Дантове пекло; *finita la commedia* ділу кінець; **Arabic:** *Aladdin's lamp* лампа Аладдіна; **German:**

da ist der Hundbegraben ось де собака заритий; *Sturm und Drang* буря і натиск.

Some mots belonging to prominent English and American authors have also turned into regular idiomatic expressions. Due to their constant use in belles-lettres they have become known in many languages. Especially considerable is the amount of Shakespearean mots: *better a witty fool than a foolish wit* краще дотепний дурень, ніж дурний дотеп; *cowards die many times before their deaths* боягузи вмирають багато разів; *something is rotten in the state of Denmark*, etc. не все гаразд у Данському королівстві; *vanity fair* (J. Bunyan) ярмарок марнославства/суєти; *to reign in hell is better than to serve in heaven* (J. Milton) краще панувати в пеклі, ніж слугувати в раю; *the banana republic* (O. Henry) бананова республіка; *the last of the Mohicans* останній з могікан; *to bury a hatchet* (F. Cooper) закопати томагавк (укласти мир); *the almighty dollar* (W. Irving) всемогутній долар; *never put off till tomorrow what you can do today* ніколи не відкладай на завтра те, що можна зробити сьогодні; *the execution of the laws is more important than the making of them* (T. Jefferson) закони виконувати важче, ніж їх створювати/писати; *the iron heel* (J. London) залізна п'ята (ярмо); *gone with the wind* (M. Mitchell) пішло за вітром/знесено вітром; *fine cold war* (N. Lippmann) холодна війна; *Iron Curtain* (W. Churchill) залізна завіса, *silent majority* (Pres. Nixon), etc.

Translating with the help of monoequivalents, as the absolute equivalents are sometimes called, is very often made use of when dealing with the sentence idioms containing the subject, the predicate, and some other parts of the sentence, though some minor alterations in their structure/word order may not be excluded altogether. Such alterations, however, do not change either the denotative meaning or the componental images, the picturesqueness, expressiveness or connotative meaning of idioms: *appetite comes while eating* апетит приходить під час їжі; *kings go mad and the people suffer from it* королі божеволіють, а народ страждає (cf. пани скубуться, а в мужиків чуби тріщать); *the last drop makes the cup run over* егостання краплина переповнює чашу; *let the cock crow or not, the day will come* співатиме півень, чи ні, а день настане; *money is the sinews of war* гроші - «м'язи» війни; *of two evils choose the least* із двох лих вибирай менше; *out of the mouths of babes speaks the truth (wisdom)* устами немовлят говорить істина/мудрість; *the pen is mightier than the sword* перо могутніше за меч; *Caesar's wife must be beyond suspicion* (Caesar) Цезарова дружина не повинна бути під підозрою/ повинна бути поза підозрою; *the invasion of armies is resisted, the invasion of ideas is not* (Hugo) вторгненню армій можна чинити опір, вторгненню ідей - ніколи, *attic salt/wit* дотепи, тонка насмішка, etc.

As has been said, the target language variants of phraseological monoequivalents may sometimes slightly differ in their structure or in the order of words from the source language idioms (cf. *let the cock crow or not* співатиме півень чи ні). These minor changes in the structural form, however, do not influence in any way the meaning and the expressiveness or picturesqueness of absolute equivalents in the target language.

Not only regular idioms but also many so-called standardized word-combinations, which may often originate in the two languages from a common source, can be translated by absolute equivalents. Due to this, they retain in the target language the semantic identity and the componental structure of the source language units: *to give help* подавати/надавати допомогу; *to win/gain a victory* здобути/ здобувати перемогу; *to make an attempt* зробити спробу; *to throw light* проливати світло, etc.

Standardized word-combinations, as will be shown below, can also be translated in some other ways, which is an obvious testimony to the unchangeable inconsistency of the way identified as «translation by means of loans» («кальки», «калькування»).

2. Translation of Idioms by Choosing Near Equivalents

The meaning of a considerable number of phrase idioms and sentence idioms originating in both languages from a common source may sometimes have, unlike

absolute equivalents, one or even most of their components different, than in the target language. Hence, the quality of their images is not identical either, though not necessarily their picturesqueness and expressiveness (if any): *baker's/printer's dozen* чортова дюжина; *гле devil is not so black as he is painted* не такий дідько/чорт страшний, як його малюють; *a lot of water had flown/run under the bridge* багато води сплигло відтоді; *love is the mother of love* любов породжує любов; *too much knowledge makes the head bald* від великих знань голова лисіє; *in broad daylight* серед білого дня; *as short as a dog's tail* короткий, як осінній день; *as pale as paper* блідий мов стіна, *measure twice, cut once* сім раз одміряй, один раз одріж.

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

a) in the structure of the target language variant (cf. *to make a long story short* сказати коротко);

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

c) in the substitution of a feature (or image) of the source language phraseological/idiomatic expression for some other (more fitting or traditionally expected) in the target language: *as pale as paper* блідий мов стіна; *to know smth. as one knows his ten fingers* знати як свої п'ять пальців; *everything is good in its season* все добре в свій час (cf. добра ложка до обіду);

d) in the generalization of the features of the source language idiomatic expression: *one's own flesh and bone* рідна кровинка;

e) in the concretization of some features of the original: *a voice in the wilderness* глас волаючого в пустелі; *you can not catch an old bird with chaff*

старого горобця на полові не впіймаєш; *to follow like St. Anthony's* під ходити (за кимось) як тінь/переслідувати когось.

Similar componental substitutions, both semantic and structural, can be observed in regular standardized collocations and in comparative proverbs or saying as: *to do harm* завдати шкоди; *to do one's duty* виконувати свій обов'язок; *to throw/shed light* проливати світло; *(as) busy as a bee* працьовитий, мов бджола; *(as) slippery as an eel* слизький як в'юн; *as cool as a cucumber* незворушний, абсолютно спокійний; *golden opportunity* чудова можливість, *to shed crocodile's tears* плакати крокодилячими слізьми.

Therefore, faithful translation may be achieved by different methods. Moreover, it must be evident now that «translating by means of loans» may refer to any method of rendering phraseologisms/idioms which are or may become regular loans in the target language.

In other words, translation of idiomatic expressions «by means of loans» does not always fully justify the essence of the term as such.

3. Translation by Choosing Genuine Idiomatic Analogies

An overwhelming majority of English idiomatic expressions have similar in sense units in Ukrainian. Sometimes these lexically corresponding idiomatic expressions of the source language may also contain easily perceivable for the target language speakers combinations of images as well as similar or identical structural forms. These idiomatic expressions, naturally, are in most cases easily given corresponding analogies in the target language. As a matter of fact, such expressions are sometimes very close in their connotative (metaphorical) meaning in English and Ukrainian as well. Any common or similar traits of idiomatic expressions are the main proof of their being genuine analogies. The latter in each of the two languages comprise also proverbs and sayings as well as the so-called standardized and stable collocations: *le that mischief hatches mischief catches* хто іншим лиха бажає, сам лихо має/хто іншим яму копає, сам у неї потрапляє; *to have the ready tongue* за словом у кишеню не лізти; *to keep body and sole together* надголодь/насилу зводити кінці з кінцями; *like mistress, like maid* яблуко від яблуні недалеко падає; *there is no use crying over spilt milk* що з воза впало, те пропало; *beat a dead horse* товкти воду в ступі.

Many of such and the like idiomatic expressions may often have two and more analogous by sense variants in the target language. The choice of an analogy rests then with the translator and is predetermined by the style of the text: *not for love or money* ні за що в світі/ні за які скарби в світі; *don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs* не вчи вченого; не вчи рибу плавати; яйця курку не вчать, etc.; *he that lies down with dogs must rise up with fleas* з ким поведешся, того і наберешся; скажи мені, хто твій друг, і я скажу тобі, хто ти; *a crooked stick throws a crooked shadow* який Сава, така й слава/який батько, такий син, яка хата, такий тин; *don't cross the bridges before you come to them* не поспішай поперед батька в пекло; не кажи гоп, доки не перескочиш; *first catch your hare then cook him* не скуби, доки не зловиш; скажеш «гоп», як перескочиш. The number of analogous (similar by sense) expressions for an idiom in the target language may reach a regular row as it is the case with the

Ukrainian phraseological expression *і на сонці є плями/людини без вад не буває*. This idiom may have the following substitutes in different contextual environments: *every man has a fool in his sleeve; every man has his faults; every bean has its black; every man has his weak side; Homer sometimes nods/sleeps; no man is wise at all times; it is a good horse that never stumbles; a horse stumbles that has four legs, etc.*

4. Translating Idioms by Choosing Approximate Analogies Some source language idiomatic and stable expressions may have a peculiar nature of their componental parts or a peculiar combination of them and thus form nationally peculiar expressiveness and *picturesqueness of componental* images. The latter constitute some hidden meaning, which is mostly not quite explicit and comprehensible, not transient enough for the foreigner to catch it.

As a result, there exist no genuine phraseological analogies for the units in the target language. Since it is so, their lexical meaning can be expressed by means of only approximate *analogies or* through explication, i.e., in a descriptive way. These analogies are only to a slight degree similar to the source language idioms, although they may be no less picturesque and expressive than the source language variants: *kind words butter no parsnips* годувати байками солов'я; *to lose one's breath* кидати слова на вітер; *to make a cat's paw of something* чужими руками жар вигрібати; *a joint in one's armour* ахіллесова п'ята (вразливе місце); *the sow loves bran better than roses* кому що, а курці просо; *more power to your elbow* ні пуху, ні луски!; *to come off scot free* вийти сухим з води; *to be finger and thumb* водою не розлити (cf. нерозливвода); *to be from Missouri* (Amer.) вірити тільки своїм очам; *it is six and half a dozen* не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила; *what's Hecuba to me* моя хата скраю (я нічого не знаю); *to get the blues* місця собі не знаходити/ сумувати, etc.

No need to emphasize that selection of approximate analogies for a translator is no easy task, as the source languages idioms/ phraseologisms often bear some characteristics of a language's traits having no correspondence in the target language. Cf.: The answer's a lemon *такне буде/такне вийде*.

Many idioms have obscure origin/etymology and selecting of approximate equivalents as any other corresponding semantic variants often requires a linguistic investigation on the part of the translator. For example: *to be in the cart* means to be closed in a cage as a convict (for some crime) and be exposed to general scorn of one's compatriots (as in old times in England). It may be translated into Ukrainian as *бути в стані/ситуації хоч круть хоч верть; потрапити в безвихідь*.

5. Descriptive Translating of idiomatic and Set Expressions

The meaning of a considerable number of idiomatic as well as stable/set expressions can be rendered through explication only, i.e., in a descriptive way. Depending on the complexity of meaning contained in the source-language idiom, it can be expressed in the target language in some ways:

1) by a single word: *out of a clear blue of the sky* раптом, зненацька; *to pall and peel (to peel and pall)* грабувати/оббирати; *poor fish* йолоп, бевзь,

нікчема; *red blood* мужність, відвага, хоробрість; *to sell smoke* піддурювати, підманювати; *to set a limit to smth.* обмежувати, стримувати; *to set at large* звільнювати (випустити на волю); *fo go aloft* померти;

2) undoubtedly the most frequent is rendering the sense of idiomatic/phraseological expressions with the help of free combinations of words as in: *to run amock* нападати зненацька на першу-ліпшу людину; *school miss* школярка, соромлива, недосвідчена дівчина; *to sell someone short* недооцінювати когось; *to sham Abraham* удавати з себе хворого (прикидатися хворим); *to shoof Niagara* вдаватися до ризикованих дій, *short odds* майже рівні шанси; *to sit above the salt* сидіти на почесному місці; *the sixty-four dollar question* найважливіше, вирішальне питання; *a stitch in time* своєчасний захід/вчинок, своєчасна дія; *to go to rack (wrack) ruin* загинути; зовсім розоритися; *to go west/West* пропасти, зникнути, зійти зі сцени (переносно);

3) when the lexical meaning of an original idiomatic expression is condensed or when it is based on a nationally specific notion/structural form alien to the target language, the idiomatic expression may be conveyed by a sentence or a longer explanation: *a wet blanket* людина або обставина, що розхолоджує; *well day (well-day)* день, коли у хворого не погіршувався стан здоров'я (час між приступами гарячки, малярії тощо); *wise behind* млявий, що погано міркує; *white elephant* подарунок, якого важко позбутися (те, що приносить більше турбот, ніж користі); *yes man (yes-man)* людина, що з усіма згоджується, тільки підтакує (підтакувач); *to cut off with a shilling* залишити без спадщини; *fight like Kilkenney cats* битися до взаємного знищення; *to accept (the Stewardship) of the Chiltern Hundreds (Parliament)* скласти з себе обов'язки члена британського парламенту.

It must be added in conclusion that some English idiomatic/set expressions have a rather transparent lexical meaning and are easy for our students to translate into Ukrainian: *to treat one like a lord* щедро частувати (як лорда) когось, цяцькатися з кимось; *with all one's steam/with all speed* щодуху, дуже швидко; *with a founded air* ображено, з виглядом ображеного; *with flags flying/with flying colours* тріумфально, переможно; *with a good reason* не без підстав, не даремно; *to be half way between something* посередені (бути на середині між чимсь), іти назустріч комусь/чомусь; *not bom yesterday* досвідчений (у житті).

Depending on the speech style of the passage/work, in which the idiomatic/phraseological expressions are used, and taking into account the nature of them (literary, colloquial, historical) some modifications of the above-given methods of translations and even new variants of translation may be suggested by the translator. Nevertheless, the aim of translation will always remain the same, viz. to fully render in the target language the lexical meaning and where possible also the structural peculiarities, the picturesqueness, the expressiveness, and the connotative meaning (if any) of the source language idiomatic or stable expressions and this is far from always easy or even possible. How and with what

means it can be achieved will be shown on some examples of rendering the meaning of several national idioms.

TRANSFORMATION OF SOME IDIOMS IN THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATING



Language is not logical, and does not have to be: it is an art, not a science. An idiom, for example, is an expression whose meaning is not predictable from the usual meanings of its constituent elements. (Shutterstock)

As has already been pointed out, some phraseological expressions singled out by Acad. V. Vinogradov as unities and having mostly a transparent meaning may reflect various national features of the source language. The latter may be either of lingual or extralingual nature, involving the national images, their peculiar picturesqueness or means of expression with clear reference to traditions, customs or historical events, geographical position of the source language nation. Such phraseological expressions are often of a simple or composite sentence structure. Being nationally distinct, they can not have in the target language traditionally established equivalents or loan variants. As a result, most of them may have more than one translator's version in the target language. It may be either a regular sense-to-sense variant (an interlinear-type translation) or an artistic literary version rendering in which alongside the lexical meaning is also the aphoristic nature, the expressiveness, the picturesqueness, the vividness, etc. of the source language phraseologism/idiom.

Taking into account the aims pursued and the contextual environment of the idiom, there must be acknowledged at least two main levels of translating the national idioms:

1) the level of the interlinear rendering, i.e., sense-to-sense translation only, which is quite sufficient to faithfully express the lexical meaning of most of these phraseologisms/idioms;

2) the literary/literary artistic level, at which not only the sense but also the expressiveness, the vividness, the picturesqueness and the aphoristic nature (if any) of the idioms should possibly be conveyed as well.

Faithful translation of national idioms/phraseologisms is mostly achieved via deliberate transformations of all kinds performed by the translator. The transformations are aimed at making the national images, the sense and structure of these phraseologic expressions easier for the target language readers/listeners to comprehend. Such transformations, therefore, adjust in many a case the source language idiom as a sense unit to the requirements of the target language bearers. Here are some examples of translation with the help of transformations of particularly English phraseologisms performed first (1) at the interlinear level which may sometimes be close to artistic level and then (2) at the literary artistic level: *the wind cannot be prevented from blowing* 1. вітрові не перешкодиш

віяти; 2. вітрові не скажеш не віяти/дути; вітру не затулиш; *he that doesn't respect, isn't respected*

1. хто інших не поважає, сам поваги не має; 2. поважатимеш інших, поважатимуть і тебе; *it's an equal failing to trust everybody and to trust nobody*

1. однакова вада -довіряти всім і не довіряти нікому;

2. довіряти кожному і не довіряти нікому - однакова вада; *the pleasures of the mighty are the tears of the poor* 1. розваги весільних/багатих- то сльози бідних/знедолених; 2. вельможні скачуть - убогі плачуть; що панські жарти, то людські сльози; *they must hunger in winter that will not work in summer* 1. той голодує взимку, хто не працює влітку; 2. шукаєш влітку холодок- знайдеш узимку *голод*, *or*: лежатимеш на печі - не їстимеш калачі.

No need to emphasize that some successful literary artistic translations/variants of specifically national idioms may in the end become regular translation loans of the target language.'

Transformations become absolutely inevitable when the English phraseologisms or mots contain a passive voice structure, the introductory *it/there*, or some other analytical constructions, as for instance, those with the auxiliary verbs (*do, does, etc.*). Cf.: there is no love lost between them *вони недолюблюють одне одного/глек розбили*; Does your mother know you are out? *Молоко на губах ще не висохло/ще не доріс*. Can the leopard change his spots? *Горбатого могила виправить*. Though sometimes transformations may become necessary to make the denotative and connotative meaning of idioms/phraseologisms easier for the target language bearers to comprehend. Thus, neither the sense-to-sense nor the literary variant of the proverb *the moon is not seen when the sun shines* (місяця не видно, коли світить сонце/сяє сонце - місяця не видно) can fully express its connotative (and denotative) meaning when the proverb stands for somebody or something eclipsing with his or its importance (fame, size, etc.) somebody or something meant by the «moon». All in all, however, there are few such sentence-type phraseological expressions which need some additional explication in Ukrainian. More often the content of the kind of phraseologisms/ idioms is clear already at language level,

i.e., out of context, which enables their literary translation. This can be observed from a few more examples below: *what matters to a blind man that his father could see* що з того сліпого, що його батько був зрячим; *it is too late to shut the stable door when the horse is stolen* пізно зачиняти конюшню, коли коня вкрали; *when two ride on one horse one must sit behind* коли двоє їдуть на одному коні, комусь/одному з них сидітиДхати ззаду/двоє не можуть сидіти спереду.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-TESTING AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Comment on the main lingual and extralingual factors influencing the translation of phraseological/idiomatic and set expressions.

2. Define the nature of phraseological/idiomatic expressions translated by choosing absolute equivalents.

3. Point out the difference between the absolute and near idiomatic/phraseological equivalents. Illustrate it with some examples of your own.

4. Comment on the genuine idiomatic/phraseological analogies. Give a few English and Ukrainian idiomatic expressions of the kind.

5. Comment on the nature and ways of translating approximate idiomatic/phraseological analogies.

6. Comment on the possible ways of translating national idiomatic expressions. Say, whether the cast iron nature of such idiomatic expressions can ever be maintained in their sense-to-sense translation.

7. Comment on the descriptive method of translating idioms. Give examples of some descriptively translated by you English/Ukrainian phraseological/idiomatic expressions.

8. What kind of idiomatic/phraseological expressions are the easiest/most difficult to translate and why? Give your own reasons for that and illustrate your judgement with some examples of your own.

Seminar 11-12 Translation of Phraseological Units

Plan

1. Translation of Phraseological Units
2. Translation of the idiomatic expressions.
3. Translation of Idioms by Choosing Near Equivalents.
4. Translation by Choosing Genuine Idiomatic Analogies.
5. Translating Idioms by Choosing Approximate Analogies

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Tasks for the seminar

1. **Read the material.**
2. **Translate the material, write down the summary.**

Translation of phraseological units

By Nedilya O.M.

Interest in phraseology has grown considerably over the last twenty years or so. While the general linguists view of phraseology before that time can probably be caricatured as “idiom researchers and lexicographers classifying and researching various kinds of fairly frozen idiomatic expressions”, this view has thankfully changed. Nowadays, the issues of identifying and classifying phraseologisms as well as integrating them into theoretical research and practical application has a much more profound influence on researchers and their agendas in many different sub-disciplines of linguistics as well as in language learning, acquisition, and teaching, natural language processing, etc.

One of the main problems in the art of translation is phraseology. In this context, it is a disheartening fact that most of the language-pair-related phraseological dictionaries are unidirectional (source language to target language) and based on a selection of the target language's phraseological units. The problem with the unidirectional approach is the very important fact that phraseological units cannot simply be reversed. It is necessary to make a new selection among the idioms of the former target language in order to achieve a central, adequate corpus of lexical units (lemmata).

It is needed to mark that these not numerous articles are of common character only. Moreover, co-operation of languages at a phraseological level is also explored not enough, in our opinion. This question, mainly, was examined in a complex with other linguistic problems.

So, the work is devoted to the research of peculiarities of translation into Ukrainian of English phraseological units.

The object of the research – phraseological units.

The subject of the research is functioning of phraseological units in literary discourse and ways of their translations.

The aim of this work is to explore peculiarities of translation of phraseological units in the context.

At the decision of the formulated tasks the mixed methods in the research were used: distributive method, method of contextual analyses, method of translating transformations.

We should mention that this research work represents a great theoretical value for those willing to take up their future carrier in the field of translations as invaluable reference to the methods and the ways of translation of poetic literature.

And the practical value of this diploma work brings certain contribution to development of phraseology in the plan of study of phraseological units, from point of their origin and methods of translation into Ukrainian.

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

On rare occasions the lexical meaning of idiomatically bound expressions can coincide with their direct, i.e., not transferred meaning, which facilitates their understanding as in the examples like: to make way дати дорогу; to die a dog's death здохнути як собака; to receive a hero's welcome зустрічати як героя; wait a minute/a moment зачекайте хвилинку/ один момент; to tell (you) the truth правду казати/правду кажучи; to dust one's coat/jacket витрусити пальто/ піджака - дати духопеликів.

Translation of phraseologisms is a very complicated problem. Right translation is stipulated with finding the most concordant and equivalent words that is usually deprived of coloring in the translation as a usual lexical unit.

Besides it, there is also the possibility of a non phraseological translation of an idiom. This choice is preferred when the denotative meaning of the translation act is chosen as a dominant, and one is ready to compromise as to the

presentation of the expressive color, of the meaning nuances, of connotation and aphoristic form.

In the case of non phraseological rendering, there are two possibilities: one can opt for a lexical translation or for a calque. The lexical translation consists in explicating through other words the denotative meaning of the phraseologism, giving up all the other style and connotation aspects. In the case of the "hammer and anvil" idiom, a lexical rendering could be "to be in an uneasy, stressing situation".

The calque would consist instead in translating the idiom to the letter into a culture where such a form is not recognized as an idiom: in this case the reader of the receiving culture perceives the idiom as unusual and feels the problem to interpret it in a non literal, metaphorical way. The calque has the advantage of preserving intact all second-degree, non-denotative references that in some authors' strategy can have an essential importance. It is true that the reconstruction of the denotative meaning is left to the receiving culture's ability, but it is true as well that the metaphor is an essential, primal semiotic mechanism that therefore belongs to all cultures.

One should notice that translating a realia in one or another means it is wanted to lose a trope accordingly phraseologism. Trope should be transferred by tropes, phraseologism by phraseologism; only "filling" will differ from the origin one.

In each cultural context there are typical modes of expression that assemble words in order to signify something that is not limited to the sum of the meanings of the single words that compose them; an extra meaning, usually metaphorical, becomes part and parcel of this particular assembly. "To find oneself between hammer and anvil" does not literally mean to be in that physical condition; it means rather to be in a stressing or very difficult situation. In our everyday life we seldom find the hammer or anvil in our immediate vicinity.

Phraseologisms – or expressions that would aspire at becoming so – are formed in huge quantities, but do not always succeed. Sometimes are formed and disappear almost simultaneously. The only instances that create problems for the translator are the stable, recurrent lexical idioms, that for their metaphorical meaning do not rely only on the reader's logic at the time of reading, but also, and above all, on the value that such a metaphor has assumed in the history of the language under discussion.

Translating of national idiomatic expressions causes also some difficulties at a translator. Being nationally distinct, they can not have in the target language traditionally established equivalents or loan variants. As a result, most of them may have more than one translator's version in the target language. It may be either a regular sense-to-sense variant (an interlinear-type translation) or an artistic literary version rendering in which alongside the lexical meaning also the

aphoristic nature, the expressiveness, the picturesqueness, the vividness, etc. of the source language phraseologism/idiom.

Some phraseological expressions singled out by the Acad. V. Vinogradov as unities and having mostly a transparent meaning may reflect various national features of the source language. The latter may be either of lingual or extralingual nature, involving the national images, their peculiar picturesqueness or means of expression with clear reference to traditions, customs or historical events, geographical position of the source language nation. Such phraseological expressions are often of a simple or composite sentence structure.

Within a single phraseological-semantic field, which is thematically quite extensive, the phraseological units are grouped into smaller sections. The smallest section consists of phraseological units which express one single concept or one extralinguistic characteristic.

The creation of phraseological-semantic fields can serve as a method of description of certain national and cultural specifics. That is, such a description can give us some insight into how phraseological units display a special, nation-specific perception of the world. The fact that a certain phraseological unit appears in the language and remains current in it indicates that the unit contains a generally comprehensible, typical metaphor (or symbol).

Phraseological unit / set expression / idiom – *a complex word-equivalent in which the globality of nomination reigns supreme over the formal separability of elements. It is reproduced in speech. – See **Idiom proper***

Task 1

- 1. Read the material.**
- 2. Translate the text.**
- 3. Write down the summary**

Classroom management

A good classroom environment is created by establishing and maintaining positive attitudes in pupils towards their work.

It is also a classroom where good order is maintained in a climate of mutual respect between pupil and teacher.

It is a good idea to draw up a plan of the classroom and consider the most appropriate layout.

This starts outside the classroom, where a routine should be set for entering and leaving the room so that there is an expectation that pupils will prepare for learning to take place. One way is to welcome the children at the door and remind them of what to do when they enter the classroom. Your physical presence will avoid any rushing in. Other teachers in the school will have established routines for this with which the children are familiar, so it is probably a good idea to try these out initially.



Managing a lesson

There is no one skill involved in managing a lesson - it is a collection of skills which are interdependent and lead to one end - children's learning.

- Think about the way in which children will be grouped and what resources are needed. This will be determined by the particular curriculum focus.
- Set up routines that enhance orderly working and learning; these include decisions about how resources will be made available and rules for asking questions (eg 'hands up').
- Always describe behaviour you want, not what you don't want.
- Plan for good beginnings and endings. Be explicit about what you are going to do. Link it to prior learning to get maximum pupil participation. At the end, summarise the learning and let the pupils have a preview of what comes next.
- Provide a variety of motivating activities which reflect the needs of your class in terms of learning style, culture and interests.
- Monitor the progress of the lesson constantly to check understanding and pace.
- Build in regular review opportunities.
- Promote a positive ethos for learning by giving lots of praise and demonstrating respect for the ideas and beliefs of your pupils.

Transitions

The job of the teacher is to sustain the involvement of pupils in a lesson so that effective learning takes place and the learning outcomes are achieved. This requires careful organisation and planning.

- At the start of the lesson, signal that you are ready to begin by use of a firm and purposeful voice. Wait until everyone is ready. Begin with a re-cap of prior learning to set the scene for this learning episode.
- Smooth transitions within the lesson depend on careful monitoring by the teacher. Pupils who are concentrating hard on a task need to be given sufficient time to complete that task before tackling another. Sometimes tasks take longer than expected and the teacher must be sensitive to this to avoid frustration.
- Sometimes the teacher may need to stop the whole class to give further instruction but this should only be done when the instruction applies to the whole class and not to individuals. Otherwise, the concentration of the class is disrupted unnecessarily.
- Managing the end of a lesson must also be planned carefully. Make sure you leave time to sum up the learning so that the class know that the activities have been worthwhile – a good point at which to give praise and highlight good work. Time is also needed to make sure resources are tidied and work collected if necessary.
- Finally make sure that any exit from the room is done in an orderly fashion, perhaps by releasing one table at a time.

Presenting work

When presenting a lesson, it is just as important that you convey enthusiasm and confidence as it is to disseminate the lesson content. Children will pick up on your body language, facial expression and voice.

- When planning your lesson, make sure it takes account of prior learning and the interests and needs of your pupils.
- Prepare thoroughly so that the learning activities match the objectives.
- Include a variety of activities to match the different types of learner in your class.
- Ask questions with genuine interest in your voice. Skilful questioning is key to effective teaching.
- Note carefully pupils' errors and misconceptions and help remedy them: encourage children to realise that mistakes are not an indication of failure but a learning opportunity.
- Give positive feedback.
- Explain tasks thoroughly matching the work to the abilities of the individual.
- Constantly monitor the understanding of your pupils by moving around the room.
- Select resources carefully using only those which will enhance the pupil's learning.
- Feel confident that you are delivering positive and enriching learning experiences.

Classroom layout

The way in which the classroom is organised will be determined by the following factors:

- the age and phase of the pupils (eg. a classroom for early years children will be organised so that there are opportunities for learning both indoors and outdoors)
- whether the children are to work collaboratively in groups or independently
- available space.

It is a good idea to draw up a plan of the classroom and consider the most appropriate layout.

Other important factors to consider are:

- **resources:** these should be easily accessible and clearly marked. This should include careful consideration of the location of ICT resources to ensure equal access.
- **displays:** should be interactive and reflect the interests and cultures of the class. They should also be mounted well and reflect the way in which work of high quality is valued.

Recommended further reading

- Kyriacou C. (1995) *Essential teaching Skills*. Stanley Thornes, Cheltenham

- Jacques K. and Hyland R. (2003) *Achieving QTS, Professional Studies, Primary Phase*
- Smith A. (2001) *Accelerated Learning in Practice*. Network Educational Press Ltd, Stafford
- DfES (2004) *Primary National Strategy Excellence and enjoyment: learning and teaching in the primary years*
(Tara Race, Education.com)

Task 2

1. Read the material.
2. Translate the text.
3. Write down the summary

Maintaining inspiration and enthusiasm

Teacher enthusiasm plays a central role in holding student's attention

'Teacher enthusiasm plays a central role in holding students' attention, generating students' interest, and developing students' positive attitudes toward learning. Highly enthusiastic teachers are highly expressive in vocal delivery, gestures, body movement, and overall energy level. All of these are crucial ingredients that, in turn contribute to greater student achievement'. (Tauber and Mester 1995, p11)



Remind yourself from time to time of the reasons you chose this profession. Teachers are second only to parents in influencing the lives of most of their pupils. Governments may come and go, with different policies for education but teachers continue to inspire their pupils by adapting the policies to meet the needs of their pupils. The impact of your teaching in determining the lives of the children in your care should not be underestimated. It will influence their thinking long after they have left you. Remember these points when you are having a low day.

Inspiring teachers are those who have a desire to acquire the knowledge and expertise, which will enable them to deliver a rich and stimulating environment.

- Look at work and displays around the school. How do they stimulate children's imagination and inspire them to higher quality work?
- Talk to experienced colleagues whose work they respect
- Read education journals which offer a variety of suggestions for teaching in their chosen subject area
- Meet regularly with subject coordinators
- Join a subject association
- Attend network meetings

The enthusiastic teacher is constantly adapting and developing to accommodate further understanding of the pedagogies involved in their pupils learning.

- Continue to question their performance and look for ways of improving it
- Observe other teachers whenever it is possible and identify practices which are worth emulating
- Discuss their own practice with others to discover your strengths and 'areas for development'
- Read about the latest research in journals, which give a wider perspective than those issued by the government.

Teachers are second only to parents in influencing the lives of most of their pupils.

Relationships

Good teachers build good relationships with children, colleagues and parents. And:

- Know their class as individuals with individual interests and needs. This will lead to greater communication not only with the child but also with the class as a whole. This can lead to the selection of suitably motivating tasks, which will inspire the children.
- An enthusiastic teacher has an enthusiastic class so show excitement about teaching and the children will pick it up.
- Make time for mutually supportive discussions with teaching colleagues
- Similarly recognise the skills and experience of non teaching colleagues
- Most parents have a great interest in their child's progress and so are happy to co-operate with the teacher in achieving this. They need reassurance from time to time that all is going well.

Practice in the classroom

Effective teaching requires careful planning. In order to demonstrate the enthusiasm that will inspire your pupils the teacher must first:

- Research thoroughly the subject matter to be taught
- Check how this might link with the interests of their class
- Select clear and achievable learning objectives
- Provide a range of activities to accommodate different learning styles and curriculum requirements
- Plan for different teaching styles to provide a variety of learning contexts
- Identify links where appropriate with other areas of the curriculum
- Ensure appropriate provision for all abilities through consolidation and extension activities
- Identify resources needed, including other adults
- Work out the most appropriate use of the physical space.

Good beginnings and endings to a lesson don't just happen, plan for them too. A powerful introduction with a dramatic use of the voice gives the subject an excitement, which is transmitted to the class. Build in time for an ending which sums up the learning so far, and leaves the class looking forward to the next session. Good communication is the key to effective teaching.

If all these elements are in place the teacher will have the confidence to deliver the curriculum with the passion to inspire their pupils.

A newly qualified teacher can contribute enormously to the life of a school bringing new ideas and approaches to teaching, which can not only benefit the children in their care but also enthuse and inspire colleagues. The belief that education can enrich the lives of their pupils and their own commitment to lifelong learning will help maintain that initial enthusiasm throughout their career.

Reference and further reading Tauber and Mester 1995, p11 in Turner-Bisset R. (2001) *Expert Teaching* David Fulton, London

Department for Education and Skills (2003) *Excellence and Enjoyment: a Strategy for Primary Schools*, HMSO, London

Marking

Marking is time-consuming but important.

It is an integral part of the teaching process and should benefit the pupils.

When you give work back, give the pupils a few minutes to look over your comments and ask you if there is anything they don't understand.

You can make your marking helpful and encouraging with the following points.

- Use an erasable papermate so you can change your comments without messing up the pupil's book.
- Try not to mess the pupil's work up with great slashes of colour. A short deletion line is as effective as a long one and less disconcerting.
- Experts on dyslexia say that you should never use bright glaring colour to mark the work of pupils with learning difficulties, since it is so disheartening.
- If a piece of writing is riddled with errors, try to find an opportunity to take the pupil aside and ask him/her to read it to you. Write a few of the sentences out underneath for the child to see the correct version. It's clearer for him/her and not so depressing as masses of correction marks.
- Spelling corrections arise out of writing activities. Pupils with learning difficulties can only manage one at a time, and dyslexic pupils can manage one or two per week but for other pupils propose a few per piece.
- You don't need to correct every error. If there are only a few errors per page, I mark them all. In others, mark several of the most obvious ones on each page.
- At the end of a writing lesson, give pupils time to confer with each other in pairs to look at each other's work and help each other to find their own and each other's mistakes.
- Write positive comments to encourage pupils to correct their weaknesses, eg 'I like your ideas and choice of vocabulary, but please concentrate on keeping it neat as well,' not 'This handwriting is dreadful'.



Class marking

Take a piece of work done by a child and blow it up from A5 to A3. Tell the class you have chosen the piece because you are so delighted with it and start by pointing out a few positive things about it, like neat handwriting or interesting vocabulary.

Invite the pupils to mark it one sentence at a time, correcting mistakes. Providing that this is done in a positive manner with constructive remarks, it should not cause embarrassment to the child.

A few points to relieve the strain

- Use stickers and stampers with words like 'excellent', 'terrific', 'super work' and 'tres bien' and 'sehr gut' for the linguists.

- Where possible, mark in class with pupils marking their own or another's book. You have to collect and check them also, otherwise the standard falls drastically.

- While the pupils are working, pick their books up one at a time and mark what they have done. This saves you time, and enables you to point out mistakes to pupils as they go along.

- Collect books open at the right page.

- Try to mark at the most time-economic point in the day. Some teachers who commute mark on the bus or train.

The above advice was provided for ATL by teaching specialist Hazel Bennett, author of *The ultimate teachers' handbook*. Hazel can be emailed at hazel@hazelbennett.co.uk.

Task 3

1. Read the material.

2. Translate the text.

3. Write down the summary

Managing conflict

Many people find situations of conflict difficult to deal with.

What helps reduce conflict?

- **cooperation:** helping children learn to work together and trust, help, and share with each other.

- **communication:** helping children learn to observe carefully, communicate well, and listen to each other.

- **respect:** helping children learn to respect and enjoy people's differences and to understand prejudice and why it is wrong.

- **expressing themselves positively:** helping children learn to express feelings, particularly anger, in ways that are not destructive, and learn self-control.

- **conflict resolution:** helping children learn how to resolve a conflict by talking it through.

Managing conflicts - basic principles

- You don't solve conflicts by sweeping them under the carpet.

- You don't solve conflicts by force.

When you're managing conflicts between others

- Get the parties to talk in a structured way, one at a time, taking turns to speak and to listen.

- If appropriate, get both parties to take more distance on the situation by writing down how they see it.

- Get them to make suggestions for how to end the conflict.

- Treat it as a practical problem-solving exercise, rather than a moral lesson: 'What can we do to solve this?' rather than 'I want you to apologise right now'.



- Make sure that each person's proposal for resolving the conflict is put in clear practical terms, and that the other person has had a chance to indicate whether they agree to the proposal.

A conflict ends when each person has aired their views, and they have questioned each other enough to ensure that this airing has been properly achieved.

A conflict ends when each person has aired their views, and they have questioned each other enough to ensure that this airing has been properly achieved.

Have you tried a structured and practical approach to managing conflicts between others? What else would you add to the points above? How would you vary the points above for the situation in your class?

Help and support

For further advice on this issue, ATL members can speak to their school rep, their branch secretary or their regional official. They can also call the London (020 7930 6441), Cardiff (029 2046 5000) or Belfast office (02890 327 990) or email info@atl.org.uk.

For out of hours enquiries, call the out of office hours helpline on 020 7782 1612 (Monday-Friday, 5-8pm during term time).

If you are not a member, join online now.

Conveying to pupils that behaviour is inappropriate

Task 4

1. Read the material.

2. Translate the text.

3. Write down the summary

Letting your class know what behaviour is appropriate and what isn't can be key to ensuring poor behaviour is kept to a minimum.

When things are going well, the communication between teachers and pupils is complex and reflects shared meanings which have developed between them. For example, a teacher may, without looking up from the work s/he is checking with a pupil, say 'someone's being silly' and two pupils at the back of the room stop the behaviour they're involved in, because they know and can interpret the informal rules of that classroom.



But sometimes teachers haven't built up this shared meaning with a class and their ways of conveying the inappropriacy of behaviour aren't successful.

A research study identified the eleven teacher strategies that follow.

1. Descriptive statement of the deviant conduct: 'You're taking a long time to settle down'.

2. Statement of the rule which is being invoked: 'Rulers aren't for fighting with', 'When I'm talking no-one else talks'.

3. Appeal to pupil's knowledge of the rule: 'You know you're meant to write it in the book'.

4. Command/request for conformity to the rule: 'Shut up', 'Put that away'.

5. Prohibitions: 'Don't', 'Stop that'.

6. Questions: 'Are you listening?', 'What's going on over there?'.

7. Statement of the consequences of the deviant conduct: 'I won't bother to read if you go on like this', 'Someone will get hurt if this equipment is left lying here'.

8. Warnings and threats: 'I'm going to get annoyed', 'You'll be in detention', 'I'll send you to the Head'.

9. Evaluative labels of the pupil and his/her conduct: 'Stop behaving like a baby', 'Don't be daft'.

10. Sarcasm: 'We can do without the singing', 'Have you retired?'.

11. Attention-drawers: 'Sandra!', 'Girls!', '5C!'.

What are effective strategies? Strategies two and seven achieve two goals: they signal that the behaviour is unwanted and they communicate the rule. As such, they are likely to have the most effective long-term contribution.

Help and support

For further advice on this issue, ATL members can speak to their school rep, their branch secretary or their regional official. They can also call the London (020 7930 6441), Cardiff (029 2046 5000) or Belfast office (02890 327 990) or email info@atl.org.uk.

For out of hours enquiries, call the out of office hours helpline on 020 7782 1612 (Monday-Friday, 5-8pm during term time).

Classroom rules and routines

Task 5

1. Read the material.

2. Translate the text.

3. Write down the summary

Rules in classrooms aren't operative just because the teacher says so.

Rules have to be set up, agreed, used, and periodically re-examined. This is not a once-and-for-all process.

Routines have an equally important contribution to make: they may not be framed as a 'rule', but they are the way of making things happen: how resources are accessed, how homework is handed in, how the classroom is entered, and so on.

Establishing routines needs a lot of communication/teaching at the early stage. Agreeing pupils are likely to agree if rules are few in number and their purpose is clear. Using all parties, you need to publicise and refer to the rules, and mediate them in so doing. Review them periodically the class examines whether the rules in use are fulfilling their purpose.

Classroom rules often refer to these five broad areas:



- talk
- movement
- time
- teacher/pupil relationships
- pupil/pupil relationships.

Negotiation of classroom rules is something you can't avoid. If you act as though you are imposing a rule system, pupils will spend some of their time testing it out. If you negotiate more of it from the start, pupils will be more involved in applying it and are likely to learn more about themselves and behaviour in the process.

The level of detail used in establishing rules can be a trap: if you become too detailed, you end up with too many and some of them will be easy targets. One good example connects rights with responsibilities.

- We have the right to learn in this classroom according to our ability. We have the responsibility not to ridicule others for the way in which they learn, or to disturb the learning of others.

- We have the right to be treated with respect by everyone in this classroom. We have the responsibility to respect all others within the classroom.

- We have the right to express our own opinions and to be heard.

- We have the responsibility to allow others to express their opinions and be heard.

Help and support

For further advice on this issue, ATL members can speak to their school rep, their branch secretary or their regional official. They can also call the London (020 7930 6441), Cardiff (029 2046 5000) or Belfast office (02890 327 990) or email info@atl.org.uk.

Module 7.

Grammar problems of the translation

Lecture 13 . Types of Grammatical Transformations

Plan

1. Non-equivalents. Partial Equivalents.
2. Free and Bound Use of Grammatical Forms.
3. Types of Grammatical Transformations. Transpositions. Replacements. Additions. Omissions

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
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1. Non-equivalents. Partial Equivalents.

Equivalence, as has been pointed in the previous chapter, is achieved by different transformations: grammatical, lexical, stylistic. The present chapter deals with grammatical transformations and their causes. The causes generating these transformations are not always purely grammatical but may be lexical as well, though grammatical causes naturally prevail due to differences in the SL and TL grammatical structures.

Not infrequently, grammatical and lexical causes are so closely interwoven that the required transformations are of a twofold character.

Strictly speaking only the translation of the complex sentence by meaning of two sentences can be regarded as a purely grammatical transformation, whereas all the other transformations are of a mixed character – both lexical and grammatical

Naturally only some features of Modern English will be considered here.

The deeply rooted tendency for compactness has stimulated a wide use of various verbal complexes: the infinitive complex, the gerundial complex, the participial complex, the absolute nominative construction. The same tendency is displayed in some pre-positional attributes: the N1 + N2 attributive model, attributive groups, attributive phrases. None of them has any equivalents in Russian grammar and as a rule they require decompression in translation. Causative constructions also illustrate this tendency for compactness.

He ...soon twinkled Paul out of his sulks (R.F.Dalderfield).

Он начал подмигивать Полю и тот перестал дуться.

Translation is sometimes impeded by the existence of grammatical homonymy in Modern English. For example, the Gerund and Participle I are homonyms. The analytical forms of the Future-in-the-Past are homonyms with the forms of the Subjunctive mood: should (would) + infinitive. The difficulty is aggravated by a homonymous form of the Past Indefinite of the verb “will” expressing volition. The Infinitive of Purpose and the Infinitive of Subsequent Action may easily be confused. Grammatical homonymy may often be puzzling and may sometimes cause different interpretations. In such cases recourse should be taken to a wider context, e.g.

The translation of the sentence depends on the grammatical interpretation of the –ing form, i.e. whether it is interpreted as Participle I or as a Gerund. According to the former interpretation, the word combination “*is + winning*” is the form of the Present Continuous Tense; according to the latter, it is a nominal predicate – link verb + Predicative. These different interpretations result in different translations:

A different grammatical interpretation involves a different political interpretation.

Non-equivalents

Some English grammatical forms and structures have no corresponding counterparts in Russian, others have only partial equivalents. The first group (non-equivalents) includes articles, the gerund and the Past Perfect Tense.

Articles. The categories of definiteness and indefiniteness are universal but the ways and means of expressing these notions vary in different languages.

In English this function is fulfilled by the articles whereas in Russian by word order. Both the definite and indefinite articles in English are meaningful and their meanings and their functions cannot be ignored in translation.

Every utterance falls into two parts – the so-called **theme** and **rheme**. The theme indicates the subject of the utterance while the rheme contains the information about the subject. The theme, in other words, represents a known thing, which has probably been mentioned before, whereas the rheme introduces some new information. Thus the theme is the starting point of the utterance and as such it can sometimes introduce a new subject about which the rheme gives some information. In this case the indefinite article is used to indicate indefiniteness. The theme usually occupies the initial position in the sentence. The theme in the English language with its fixed word order usually coincides with the grammatical subject of the sentence. When the theme again occurs in the text it is preceded by the definite article.

A lady entered the compartment. The lady sat down in the corner seat
(P.G.Wodehouse).

The categories of indefiniteness and definiteness are expressed by the indefinite and the definite articles respectively and these categories are rendered by **word order** in translation.

До купе увійшла дама. Дама сіла у кутку у вікна.

When the articles are charged with some other meanings apart from the categories of definiteness and indefiniteness lexical means come into play in translation.

If these meanings are not rendered lexically the Russian sentence is semantically incomplete.

The influence and authority of the Secretariat depends to an extent (though not nearly to the extent that is popularly supposed) on the talents of one individual – the Secretary-General. (Peter Lyon, The U.N. in Action).

Вплив та авторитет Секретаріату залежить у певній мірі від (хоча і не в такій мірі, як вважають зазвичай) від здібностей однієї людини - Генерального секретаря.

The Gerund. Another non-equivalent form is the gerund. It fulfils various functions in the sentence and can be translated by different means.

"I wonder at Jolion's allowing this engagement", he said to Aunt Ann
(J. Galsworthy).

«Я дивуюсь, що Джоліон дозволив ці заручини», – сказав він тіточці Енн.

The gerund modified by a proper noun in the possessive case is translated by a subordinate clause.

The gerund used in the function of a prepositional object is also rendered in translation by a subordinate clause.

The mayor of the island is talking of opening up its lush and virgin interior to beef-and-dairy cattle ranching.

Мер острова промовляє про те, щоби використовувати соковиті, недоторкані його луки для м'ясомолочного господарства.

The so-called half-gerund may also be translated by a subordinate clause.

There was nothing more to say: which didn't prevent, as the game went on, a good deal more being said. (G.F.Snow)

Говорити було нема про що, але це не завадило тому, що було сказано багато.

The Past Perfect Tense. The meaning of the Past Perfect Tense is usually rendered in Russian by some adverbs of time.

The stone heat of the day had gentled down. (I.Shaw)

Жар, що йшов від розпеченого каміння, вже знав.

But in many cases the Past Perfect Tense is translated by the Russian Past Tense without any temporal specification.

The mainspring of his existence was taken away when she died... Ellen was the audience before which the blustering drama of Gerald O'Hara had been played. (M. Mitchell)

Опора його існування зникла з її смертю... Елін була тією публікою, перед якою розігрувалася бурхлива драма Джеральда О'Хара.

Partial Equivalence

SL and TL grammatical forms hardly ever coincide fully. The scope of their meaning and their functions and usage generally differ, therefore these forms are mostly partial equivalents.

The category of number in English and in Russian is a case in point. Most often the use of the singular and the plural in the two languages coincides. But divergences in the use of the singular and the plural appear in the first place in the so-called Singularia and Pluralia Tantum, that is, in those nouns which have either only a singular or a plural form, e.g. *gate* – *ворота*, *ink* – *чорнила*, *money* – *гроші*, and vice versa, *news* – *новини*.

Abstract nouns are more often used in the plural in English than in Ukrainian, e.g.

The struggles of many sections of the U.S. population against the war-lovers in America have grown to a height never reached before.

Боротьба багатьох груп населення США проти прибічників війни досягла небувалого розмаху.

Allende's political skills made him four times candidate for the presidency.

Sometimes different usage prevents a strict observance of the category of number in translation, e.g.

There is also a tendency in English to use nouns like “eye”, “cheek”, “lip”, “ear”, “limb”, etc. in the singular, e.g.

He always thought of her as seventeen or so, clean of limb, beautiful of feature and filled with the impatience for life. (R. Wilder).

Він завжди уявляв її собі якою вона була у років 17 – гарні риси обличчя, стрункі ноги та нестримна жага до життя.

The noun “limb” can also be rendered metonymically – чудова *фігура*.

There is also a considerable difference between the use of the Passive voice in English and in Ukrainian. The English language allows different types of passive constructions and there are a number of verbs in English which can be used in the passive voice while the correlated verbs in Ukrainian cannot. For example, many English verbs are used both as transitive and intransitive.

Original samples of Paris clothing have been flown to London to illustrate lectures to the fashion industry.

Нові моделі паризьких туалетів були доставлені літаком у Лондон для показу під час лекцій представникам англійських будинків моделей.

English verbs with a prepositional object are also used in the passive voice, a construction non-existing in Ukrainian.

The impersonal passive with a preposition is translated by an impersonal construction.

In some cases the use of the Russian Passive form is precluded by the fact that the Ukrainian verb is used with a prepositional object.

The Iran earthquake was followed by tremors lasting a long time.

Після землетрусу в Ірані відбулися поштовхи, що продовжувалися досить довго.

Verbs formed by conversion present great difficulties in translation especially when used in the Passive.

The roads were sentinelled by oaks. (Clemance Dane).

Уздовж дороги, ніби вартіві, стояли дуби.

Its picturesqueness is rendered by a simile which makes the translation semantically and stylistically equivalent.

The desire for giving prominence to some element of the utterance, often accounts for the use of the passive form in English. As the word order is Subject-Predicate-Object and as stylistic inversion is relatively infrequent because of its expressive value, the Passive is naturally used. The tendency is particularly marked in newspaper style.

Verbals – the Infinitive and the Participles.

Though these categories also exist in Ukrainian there are considerable difficulties in their forms and their use: the English Infinitive has Perfect and Continuous forms which are absent in the Ukrainian language, whereas these verbals in the Ukrainian language have perfective and imperfective aspects, non-existent in English. There are infinitive and participle complexes in English which have no counterparts in Ukrainian.

The Infinitive. Nominative with the infinitive (the infinitive as a secondary predicate).

Oil consumption has increased by 4 per cent and the increase is expected to go up to 5 per cent.

Споживання нафти зросло на 4 відсотки і очікується, що воно досягне 5 відсотків.

The infinitive complex is rendered by two clauses.

The Infinitive complex with the preposition “for”.

That was an odd thing for him to do. (G.Grene).

Дивно, що він так учинив.

The infinitive complex is translated by a subordinate clause.

The Infinitive used as attribute.

Here too, the infinitive is translated by a subordinate attributive clause comprising the infinitive itself.

The Infinitive of subsequent action.

The Infinitive is rendered in this case by a coordinate clause.

Partial Equivalents caused by different usage

Partial equivalents are also caused by different syntactical usage. The priority of Syntax due to the analytical character of the English language is reflected in a number of features firmly established in it by usage. Chief among them are: the use of homogeneous members which are logically incompatible, a peculiar use of parentheses, the morphological expression of the subject in the principal and the subordinate clauses, etc.

A parenthetical phrase or clause sometimes breaks up the logical flow of the sentence which is common English as the relations between the members of the sentence are clear due to the priority of syntax. But such use necessitates a recasting of the Russian sentence, the parenthetical clause must be placed where it logically belongs to, sometimes even forming a separate sentence.

As to the morphological expression of the subject in the principal and the subordinate clause it should be noted that syntactical hierarchy requires the use of a noun in the former and of a pronoun in the latter, regardless of their respective order.

The subordinate clause is translated by an attributive participle group to avoid the use of a second subject.

2.Free and Bound Use of Grammar Forms

Grammatical forms are generally used freely according to their own meaning and their use is determined by purely linguistic factors, such as rules of agreement, syntactic construction, etc. in such cases their use is not free but bound. For example, in English the singular or the plural form of a noun preceded by a numeral depends upon the number of things counted: *one table, twenty one tables*; in Ukrainian the agreement depends on the last numeral: *один стіл, двадцять п'ять столів*.

The rule of sequence of Tenses is another case in point: the use of the tense in the English subordinate clause is bound. If the past Tense is used in the principal clause, the Past or the Future-in-the-Past must be used in the subordinate clause instead of the Present or of the Future, e.g. *He says that he speaks English – он говорит, что знает английский; he said that he spoke English – он сказал, что он говорит по-английски*.

This purely formal rule of the sequence of tenses does not find its reflection in translation as no such rule exists in Russian and the use of the tense form in the dependent clause is free and is determined by the situation.

It should be borne in mind that in reported speech – in newspaper articles, in minutes, in reports and records – this rule of the sequence of tenses is observed through the text: the sequences are governed by the Past Tense of the initial sentence – *he said, it was reported, they declared, he stressed*, etc.

To conclude, only free forms are rendered in translation and bound forms require special attention.

3.Types of Grammatical Transformations. Transpositions. Replacements. Additions. Omissions

As has been said, divergences in the structures of the two languages are so considerable that in the process of translation various grammatical and lexical transformations indispensable to achieve equivalence. These transformations may be classed into four types: 1. transpositions; 2. replacements; 3. additions; 4. omissions. This classification, however, should be applied with reservation. In most cases they are combined with one another, moreover, grammatical and

lexical elements in a sentence are so closely interwoven that one change involves another, e.g.

As they leave Washington, the four foreign ministers will be traveling together by plane.

Все четыре министра иностранных дел полетят из Вашингтона вместе.

The following types of transformations have been resorted to in the translation of this complex sentence:

1. The complex sentence is translated by a simple one (replacement of sentence type);
2. The word order is changed (transposition);
3. The subordinate clause of time is rendered by an adverbial modifier of place (replacement of member of the sentence);
4. The meaning of the predicate and of the adverbial modifier is rendered by the predicate (both lexical and grammatical transformations – replacement and omission);
5. The meaning of the definite article is rendered lexically (addition).

The above analysis shows that all the four types of transformations are used simultaneously and are accompanied by lexical transformations as well.

Transpositions

Transposition may be defined as a change in the order of linguistic elements: words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Their order in the TL text may not correspond to that in the SL text.

This change of order is necessary to preserve fully the content of the utterance while observing the norms of the TL.

In considering the universal categories of definiteness and indefiniteness mention has been made of the two main parts of the sentence from the point of view of communication, viz. the known (theme) and new (rheme) elements of the utterance and their respective place in English and in Russian sentences. It should also be noted that the traditional word order in English is Subject – Predicate – Object – Adverbial modifiers while the common tendency in Russian is to place adverbial modifiers at the beginning of the sentence to be followed by the predicate and the subject at the end, e.g.

Transposition can also be effected within a complex sentence. The arrangement of clauses in English is often governed by syntactical hierarchy, whereas in Russian precedence is taken by logical considerations, e.g.

Replacements

The substitution of parts of speech is a common and most important type of replacements. Every word functions in the language as a member of a certain grammatical clause, that is, as a distinct part of speech: noun, verb, adjective or adverb. But the S and T languages do not necessarily have correlated words

belonging to the same grammatical class. In such cases replacements or replacements + additions are necessary, e.g.

The adverb is translated by a noun modified by an adjective.

A frequent use of nominal and phrase predicates with the key notion expressed by a noun or an adjective often results in the replacement of a noun by a verb.

Semantically link verbs are highly diversified. Sometimes it is hard to draw a clear demarcation line between a nominal predicate and a case of secondary predication.

Adjectives derived from geographical names are usually replaced by nouns as such Russian adjectives evidently tend to express some permanent characteristic trait but not a temporary one, e.g.

Degrees of comparison also sometimes cause replacements. Such adjectives in the comparative degree as *more, less, higher, lower, shorter*, etc. are often translated by other parts of speech.

Another linguistic phenomenon which frequently causes replacements in translation is the use of nouns denoting inanimate things, abstract notions, natural phenomena and parts of the body as subjects – agents of the action.

As a matter of fact the subject in such constructions is purely formal. Actually it expresses adverbial relations of time, place, cause, etc.

Parts of the sentence often change their syntactical function in translation thus causing a complete or partial reconstruction of the sentence by means of replacements.

Replacements of sentence types

The usual types of replacements are the substitution of a simple sentence by a complex one and vice versa; of the principal clause by a subordinate one and vice versa; the replacement of subordination by coordination and vice versa; the replacement of asyndeton by polysyndeton and vice versa. These kinds of replacements are often caused by the existence of various complexes and structures in the English language, e.g.

A simple sentence is replaced by a complex one.

Simple sentences containing infinitive complexes are usually translated by complex sentences.

A simple sentence with an absolute participle or a nominative absolute construction is usually rendered by a subordinate or coordinate complex sentence.

It should also be noted that the type of the subordinate clause may be changed on the strength of usage.

She glanced at Brendon, where he sat on a chair across her. (W.Deeping).
Она посмотрела на Брендона, который сидел на стуле против нее.

The adverb “*where*” probably does not function here as an adverb of place but rather as a word qualifying the sitter.

Apart from replacing a simple sentence by a subordinated or coordinated complex sentence it can also be replaced by two, or more simple sentences. It is especially practiced in the translation of the so-called “leads”. A lead is the first sentence of news-in-brief which contains the main point of the information. It usually coincides with the first paragraph and is usually divided into two or more sentences in translation.

Additions

The tendency towards compression both in the grammatical and the lexical systems of the English language often makes additions necessary and indispensable. Much has already been said about additions that accompany transpositions and replacements. This is particularly true in the translation of infinitive, participle and gerundial complexes. There are other cases when additions are caused by compressed structures such as the absolute possessive, attributes formed by juxtaposition $N_1 + N_2$ structures and by attributive groups.

Attributive groups are another case in point.

Attributive groups present great variety because of the number and character of the component elements. The main task facing the translator is to establish their semantic and syntactic relations with the word they modify, e.g.

The decoding of an attributive group, however, does not always involve additions, but merely transpositions and replacements, e.g.

Additions are also caused by discrepancy in the use of the plural and singular forms of certain nouns.

Additions are not infrequently caused by lexical reasons. A single instance may suffice here as the problem will be considered at length in the following chapter. Additions are indispensable in the translation of verbs which bring forth in some context two senses simultaneously.

Another cause of additions is English word building, e.g. conversation and the use of some non-equivalent suffixes.

Omissions

Some lexical or structural elements of the English sentence may be regarded as redundant from the point of view of translation as they are not consonant with the norms and usage of the Ukrainian language, e.g.

Two omissions have been made here. The meaning of the word “*notion*” is implied in the predicate of the Russian sentence and this word can safely be left out. The verb “*to choose*” and “*to adopt*” may be regarded as synonymous and the meaning of these two verbs is fully covered by the Russian verb *предпочесть* which implies choice.

Some typical cases of redundancy may be mentioned here: synonymous pairs, the use of weights and measures with emphatic intent, subordinate clauses of time and place.

Homogeneous synonymous pairs are used in different styles of the language. Their use is traditional and can be explained by extra-linguistic reasons: the second member of the pair of Anglo-Saxon origin was added to make clear the meaning of the first member borrowed from the French language, e.g. *my sire* and *father*. It was done as O.Jespersen writes in his book “Growth and Structure

of the English language” “...for the benefit of those who were refined expression”. Gradually synonymous pairs have become a purely stylistic device. They are often omitted in translation even in official documents as pleonastic, e.g.

Words denoting measures and weights are frequently used in describing people or abstract notions. They are either omitted or replaced in translation.

Subordinate clauses of time and of place are frequently felt to be redundant in Russian and are omitted in translation.

Sometimes even an attributive clause may be regarded as redundant and should be omitted in translation.

The grammatical structure of any language is as important as its word-stock or vocabulary. Grammatical meanings are no less significant than lexical meaning as they express such fundamental categories as tense relations, gender, number, modality, categories of definiteness and indefiniteness, etc. Some of these categories may be expressed grammatically in different ways owing to the existence of grammatical synonymy. But sometimes they can also be expressed lexically.

The main translation principle should never be lost sight of – what is expressed in another, generally by means of transformations.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR SELF-TESTING AND CLASS DISCUSSION

1. The most general contextual realizations of meanings of the nominalizing and emphatic articles. The means of expressing their meanings in Ukrainian.

2. The most common contextual meanings of the definite article and means of expressing them in Ukrainian.

3. The most common contextual meanings of the indefinite article and means of expressing them in Ukrainian.

4. Ways of conveying the rhematic and thematic contextual meanings of the definite and the indefinite articles in Ukrainian.

5. Other possible contextual meanings of the definite and indefinite articles and means of their expression in Ukrainian.

Seminar 13. Grammatical Problems.

Plan

1. Non-equivalents. Partial Equivalents.

2. The Infinitive. The Participle as Part of an Absolute Construction.

3. Free and Bound Use of Grammatical Forms.

4. Types of Grammatical Transformations. Transpositions.

5. Replacements. Additions. Omissions

Recommended Literature

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Tasks for the seminar

Task 1

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

Meeting the individual needs of each child

Meeting the individual needs of each child is a challenge for all teachers and something that is high on the policy agenda under the current label of 'personalised learning'.

Personalised learning



Personalised learning has been defined by government ministers as that which takes place when there is an education system in which assessment, curriculum, teaching style and out-of-hours provision are all designed to discover and nurture the unique talents of every single pupil.

In fact, this ideal has long been at the heart of education for practitioners. So what does it mean for teachers within schools and classrooms?

The key thing to remember is that the term 'personalised learning' was not introduced and developed by teachers and education experts. It does not arise from academic research, from grass-roots practice, or from the larger education policy community.

In terms of practical application, a number of key processes and areas have been identified at national government level to support 'personalisation':

- assessment for learning
- a wide range of teaching techniques to promote a broad range of learning strategies, facilitated by high quality ICT that promotes individual and group learning as well as teaching
- curriculum choice, particularly from the age of 14, and the development of subject specialism
- the organisation of the school, including the structure of the day and of lessons, using workforce reform to enhance teaching and learning and to ensure consistency
- links to services beyond the classroom, involving the wider community and families, supported by the *Every Child Matters* agenda.

Task 2

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

There are limits to how far any of these forms of personalised learning can be effective within a crowded curriculum and a high-stakes testing system. And if we are truly to 'personalise' education, surely we need to hear the voice of the pupil?

The current curriculum as taught, with due recognition of the real narrowing caused by excessive teaching to the test, is based on an inappropriate academic model. It lacks balance between the parts of personality which schools should be developing; not only thinking, but feeling, doing and making. As such, it lacks appeal to risk groups.

Only when teachers are able to focus on assessment for learning, rather than teaching to the frequent tests, within a flexible curriculum framework, will they feel empowered to move on from the repetition of the 'Strategies lesson' to a more creative and ultimately engaging pedagogy with active learners.

Task 3

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

What is accelerated learning?

The concept of accelerated learning is based on relatively recent ideas about the brain, multiple intelligences and learning styles. It has become a popular term to describe a diverse collection of ideas about how human learning can be fostered.

Though it has its origins in the 1970s in Georgi Lozanov's techniques of 'Suggestopedia', accelerated learning is not a single, unified, coherent theory.

One of its strongest and most well-known advocates in the UK, Alistair Smith, describes accelerated learning as:

'an umbrella term for a series of practical approaches to learning which benefit from new knowledge about how the brain functions; motivation and self-belief; accessing different sorts of intelligence and retaining and recalling information.' (Alistair Smith, 1996, p9)

Let's have a look at a number of the more popular theories behind 'accelerated learning' which have had impact within education; brain-friendly schooling, multiple intelligences and learning styles.

Task 4

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

Stuff on brains

Brains are often mentioned in relation to learning nowadays, with claims of how brain research informs the work of educators. We can buy packages which claim that, using findings from brain research, they can help us 'learn faster' and 'improve our memories'. Yet evidence on brain functioning shows that the brain is not a container but rather that it is engaged in continuous, very flexible processing. Memories are not stored: they are always being constructed, refreshed and reconstructed.

Popular views of brain research use simplifications which have been discredited by neuroscientists. For example, the popular 'left brain/right brain' distinction is too simple – the evidence is that anything meaningful uses parts of both sides. Some neuroscientists conclude that any model that assigns collections of mental processes, such as spatial reasoning, to one hemisphere or the other is too crude to be useful. Many neuroscientists and analysts conclude that current brain research has little to offer educational practice or policy. After all, we need to focus on meaning in learning: after all, memorisation is something we resort to when what we are learning does not make sense to us.

Multiple intelligences

The concepts of 'emotional' and 'multiple' intelligences have been particularly used and revived in the US. The hazard here is to encourage crude views of some learners being more 'intelligent' than others. The evidence does not support this: there is no connection between measured 'intelligence' (ie the ability to solve abstract problems that bear no relation to your goals under time pressure) and the higher-level skills and processes of an effective learner.

However, the strength of the idea of multiple intelligences is the idea of multiplicity rather than the idea of intelligence. Anything which helps us as educators see more of the diversity in learners and the diversity in successful learning is to be welcomed.

Task 5

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

Learning styles

Sometimes in schools and colleges, there is a tendency to put young people into this category or that, but the effects are at times unfortunate. 'Style' is a fashionable label and it has become fashionable in some quarters to apply labels to learners. There are a number of different versions of 'learning style' being promulgated, and they have little in common. It therefore becomes important to ask: 'What view of learning is this based on?'

Some are about preferences for the 'intake of information', yet this notion of learning has long been seen as erroneous.

Other versions of 'learning style' are supposedly about consistent tendencies, rather like personality, but a person's approach to learning varies across situations – and it should, in order to be effective.

It has also become popular to say that learning is more effective when learners 'match' their style with the context, yet there is equal evidence to support the idea that learning is more effective where there is a mismatch.

If our aim is to support learners in becoming self-directed, then they need to be equipped with a full range of styles. A hazard in current times is when the notion of style leads learners to categorise themselves in a fixed language: for example, 'I'm a visual learner'. This could link to a less versatile approach to learning. But learners do vary – all of us do according to our purpose, or the context we are in, or other factors.

Concentrating on effective learning

Effective learners have learned how to become effective learners. This involves not just the acquisition of strategies but also the monitoring and reviewing of learning to see whether particular strategies are effective. No one strategy works for all goals and purposes, despite any claims it might make.

Learning is an activity of construction (making meaning), not one of reception. Learning is handled with others or in the context of others. Learning is driven by the intentions and choices of learners. To promote this type of learning

involves action and reflection, collaboration, learner responsibility and learning about learning.

Task 6

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

So what can I do to meet the individual needs of each child?

The job of the whole school, particularly under the *Every Child Matters* agenda is to ensure that each child is healthy, safe, enjoying and achieving, making a positive contribution and that they achieve economic well-being. As a teacher within the school, you will meet those needs within an educational, learning context. Rather than by utilising particular styles', the individual needs of each child can be met by enabling them to be effective and self-directed learners.

An umbrella term for a series of practical approaches to learning which benefit from new knowledge about how the brain functions; motivation and self-belief; accessing different sorts of intelligence and retaining and recalling information.

Is there any point in developing self-directed learners, especially when teachers have been landed with the responsibility for learners' performance? Yes, even in the pressures of current times, those pupils who plan and reflect get significantly better marks at GCSE, and they achieve this in collaborative classrooms. More long-term, if young people are to make the most of themselves in a fast-changing world, their competence in this area is vital.

In classrooms which promote self-directed learners, pupils are doing the following:

- they are making choices – of activities, within activities, when an activity is completed
- they are making goals their own
- they are involved in planning how they will proceed
 - they are given encouragement to offer commentary on their learning – talking aloud
 - they are supported in reviewing their experience – telling the story
 - they are evaluating the end-product
 - they are asking others for help
 - they are motivated by internal incentives.

Task 7

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

How can I teach for effective learning?

When planning teaching for learning, our task as teachers, is to focus on the experience for learners, rather than on what we are going to say and do.

Learners go through four phases: **Do Review Learn Apply** in a circular, ever-developing manner. The following matrix plots these four phases on each of the aspects which evidence has shown to promote effective learning.

	Active learning	Collaborative learning	Learner responsibility	Learning about learning
Do	Tasks are designed for learner activity, using or creating materials, texts, performances	Tasks in small groups connect to create a larger whole (by roles or by parts)	Learners exercise choice and plan their approaches	Learners are encouraged to notice aspects of their learning as they engage in tasks

Review	Learners stop to notice what happened, what was important, how it felt, etc.	Learners bring ideas together and review how the group has operated	Learners monitor their progress and review their plans	Learners describe what they notice and review their learning (goals, strategies, feelings, outcome, context)
Learn	New insights and understandings are made explicit	Explanations of topic and of how the group functioned are voiced across the group	Factors affecting progress are identified and new strategies devised	Richer conceptions of learning are voiced and further reflective inquiry is encouraged
Apply	Future action is planned in light of new understanding. Transferring that understanding to other situations is examined	Future possibilities for group and community learning are considered	Plans are revised to accommodate recent learning	Learners plan to notice more and to experiment with their approaches to learning

Helping pupils to make sense of their learning

Making sense of learning has parallels with how we make sense of other things: we do it gradually, we do it by focusing on experiences and trying out

explanations. Our knowledge and language build as we go, yet also remain somewhat fragmented and partial.

There are four broad sorts of classroom practices which help learners make sense of their learning, and these have been developed with all ages, from four years upward. They build on each other and lead to a key ingredient in effective learning – one which also is reflected in improved performance.

• **First practice: noticing learning**

This requires that we occasionally stop the flow of classroom life and activity in order to notice. Notice what we did, what the effects were, how it felt, what helped, how we persevered, what we thought we might do with the learning. In these moments we highlight experiences needed to build up a language for noticing learning.

• **Second practice: conversations about learning**

This can start with pupils discussing in pairs what they have noticed, or with teacher prompts which help learners reflect on why they were doing certain things which are normally taken for granted.

• **Third practice: reflection**

Reflection can be supported, for example, by writing in a ‘learning log’ – a notebook or other format for jotting down noticings and thoughts, sometimes with the help of specific prompts from the teacher.

• **Fourth practice: making learning an object of learning**

When learning can be talked about in some detail, can be reviewed, and described more richly, explicit experiments can be set up to adapt some part of it. It can be done in any context, any classroom, by adding a cycle of learning about learning to the cycle of learning about ‘content’. For example, on one occasion we might review, examine and experiment with how we went about reading. It might be that this highlighted the goals we have in mind for our learning, so that they could be examined on another occasion. Or we could look at how we handled feelings. Or how we engaged others and how best they help. Features of the context could be reviewed and improved. And so on.

Task 8

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

Implications for assessment

Many aspects of assessment for learning fit with a learning-centred classroom which promotes thinking and learning skills. Assessment for learning means a shift of emphasis from assessing the products of learning through tests and other similar means in order to prove something to assessing the process of learning through ongoing review with the aim to improve learning and performance.

Meeting the needs of each child is a challenging task for every teacher but it is at the heart of what each teacher does. They can best do it through taking a learning-centred approach to teaching which is far richer than one which looks at

styles or intelligences but rather looks at engaging pupils directly in their own learning, not only improving their learning of lesson content but of learning itself, equipping them with the sets of skills they need to achieve the five key outcomes expressed in the *Every Child Matters* agenda.

This text has been taken from ATL's publication *Learning: a sense-maker's guide*, published by ATL and written by Chris Watkins.

(Learning a sense-makers guide. The Guardian)

Task 9

Read the text

Translate the text orally.

Write the summary in Ukrainian

Different teaching practices

'Students' learning rather than teachers' teaching is increasingly seen to be at the crux of the education process; the emphasis has moved from inputs to outcomes' (Bryson, 1998).

Research into learning styles is confusing because there is no classification of styles. There is however evidence that:

- there is a significant difference in the way learners approach learning
- all learners can benefit from experiencing different approaches.

Practices or strategies for teaching and learning are many and varied and depend on the area of the curriculum being addressed and the learning and teaching styles of the pupils and teacher.

Learning styles

Because of the pressure to cover the wide content of the national curriculum and examination syllabi, teachers tend to use reading writing and listening as an economic way of covering the content. This makes no allowance for the different types of learner in the classroom and can therefore disadvantage them. Different types of learner are the:

- visual learners prefer to see information and they can be sub-divided into those who prefer to see diagrams and pictures and those who like to read text
- auditory learners: who prefers to hear information
- kinaesthetic learners prefer to learn by touching, manipulating and doing (this type of learner is greatly disadvantaged in an environment which does not allow them to engage physically with the work).

Teachers also have a preferred style of teaching and it is important that they make a conscious effort to accommodate the different learning styles in their class.

Although children have a preferred style of learning they should be encouraged to develop a range of approaches. The teacher should provide a



variety of activities within a session to better accommodate different styles of learning. It is also important to provide breaks in the lesson in order to sustain the attention of the class.

Because they have been successful in a particular mode, teachers also have a preferred style of teaching and it is important that they make a conscious effort to accommodate the different learning styles in their class by using a variety of approaches in their teaching.

Some areas of the curriculum can promote and develop particular learning styles:

- art and design could promote visual perception
- PE could promote kinaesthetic learning
- auditory learning could be developed through discussion of science investigations
- researching a topic using ICT could provide a vehicle for all three types of learning.

Discussion before writing is essential for children with English as an additional language and special educational needs but it is motivating for all pupils and also helps improve their writing.

Children working in groups

In many classrooms children work in groups of different sizes. The teacher must decide on what type of grouping to use. This will be defined by the nature of the task and the needs of the children.

- Group children of similar ability when you want to target them for support or assessment.
- If appropriate pair children with differing abilities so one can support the other.
- A group may have the support of a language support teacher or a teaching assistant. If there are other adults involved in the children's learning, they must have a clear brief and a copy of the lesson plan.

Children learn best when they understand what they have to do, and grasp the purpose of the activity and are actively engaged.

Within the groups children may:

- work independently on the same task
- work independently on different tasks
- work independently on the same task but come together to a shared solution
- work jointly on the same task.

When children work collaboratively they develop many skills including co-operation, listening and decision-making. This will only be successful however if the children understand the purpose and parameters of their working brief.

It is vital for the beginning teacher to explore and experiment with different pedagogies. In order to inform understanding of different teaching strategies, it would be beneficial to know more about how children learn.

(DfES (2004) *Primary National Strategy. Excellence and Enjoyment: learning and teaching in the primary years/ Classroom community, collaborative and personalised learning*

Smith A. (2001) *Accelerated Learning in Practice* Network Educational Press. Stafford

Pollard A. (2003) *Reflective Teaching* Continuum, London)

Task 10

Translate the following texts

1. Macroeconomic Policies

Macroeconomic policy management has a large impact on investor confidence in the reforming country. Economic volatility raises uncertainty for investors, who look for stability and predictability. The basic elements of macroeconomic policy management for effective reform are the following.

Fiscal Policies. An important indicator of prudent fiscal management is a low, predictable rate of inflation. A lack of control over inflation points to macroeconomic and fiscal unbalances. The most extreme manifestation of this problem, hyperinflation, leads to the introduction of shock programs as a basis for stabilization. When countries impose shock programs, recessions often result, posing difficulties for local workers and consumers. By bringing inflation under control, countries establish a necessary precondition for stability and growth. The stabilization programs implemented by the survey countries had this fundamental objective in mind. For example, Argentina endured many bouts of high inflation, followed by wage and price freezes to arrest them. The controls only halted inflation temporarily, as the root cause - excessive spending by the public sector - was not addressed. Now that public spending has been brought under control with the Cavallo Plan, Argentine inflation has subsided. Real positive interest rates (i.e., interest rates higher than the rate of inflation) are important in maintaining stability in the balance of payments and are a key element of sound fiscal management.

2. Appropriate Exchange Rates. Appropriate exchange rate policy adjusts the value of the local currency on a steady, predictable basis, which, again, contributes to economic stability and investor confidence. Countries that experience high rates of inflation typically have overvalued exchange rates, because adjustments in the value of the local currency lag behind the rate of inflation. However, local currencies that are overvalued hurt exports, which are more expensive in international markets compared to the exports from countries with cheaper currencies. Exchange rate reform usually entails a devaluation of the local currency, making the country's export more competitive in terms of price and the country itself more attractive for private investment.

3. Prices and Wages. As noted earlier, price and wage controls are often used to control inflation. While they may have the desired effect in the short-term, they almost always unravel and end up creating more inflation. When

governments repeatedly employ wage and price freezes, consumers and businesses adjust their behavior in anticipation of the next round of controls by hoarding goods, raising wage demands or raising prices, leading to yet higher inflation. In Poland, prices and wages were set by the government for many years under the system of central planning. One of the first steps of the Balcerowicz Plan was to free all wages and prices as of January 1, 1990. This step marked a major event in the Polish transition to a market-oriented economy.

4. Ukrainian Cosmonaut Aboard Space Shuttle

The historic first flight of a Ukrainian citizen aboard an American spacecraft was a major theme of recent consultation in Kyiv between officials of the Ukrainian National Space Agency (NSAU) and the U.S. space agency NASA. The visit was the fifth by a NASA delegation to Ukraine this year.

In press conference NSAU General Director Oleksandr Nehoda and NASA Deputy Administrator Arnold Nikogosyan outlined the program under which Kadenyuk personally conducted 12 of 16 biology experiments scheduled for the November mission. The experiments focused on the growth and reproduction of cells in space. Kadenyuk's objective was to learn more about gravity's effect on life. The results of his work played an important role in the development of space technology, especially for long-term flights.

Task 11

Read the material.

Learn the verse by heart.

Try to translate the verse in Ukrainian

Matthew Arnold (1822-1888)

Matthew Arnold was born at Laleham in Middlesex, the son of Dr. Thomas Arnold, the celebrated headmaster of Rugby School. He was educated at Winchester, Rugby and Balliol College, Oxford.

Throughout his career as an inspector of schools, during which he simultaneously held the post of professor of poetry at Oxford for ten years, he strove to improve educational standards in Victorian England by the study of Continental systems and by the application of sound, religiously-based principles.

His poetry was written in the early part of his career, between 1849 and 1867, and is classical and somewhat lugubrious in style. His most famous works include *Dover Beach*, *Tristram and Iseult*, *Sohrab and Rustum*, *Thyrsis*, an elegy on the death of his friend, Arthur Clough, and *The Scholar-Gipsy*.

Matthew Arnold

Dover Beach

THE sea is calm to-night.
The tide is full, the moon lies fair
Upon the straits;—on the French coast the light

Gleams and is gone; the cliffs of England stand,
Glimmering and vast, out in the tranquil bay.
Come to the window, sweet is the night-air!
Only, from the long line of spray
Where the sea meets the moon-blanch'd land,
Listen! you hear the grating roar
Of pebbles which the waves draw back, and fling,
At their return, up the high strand,
Begin, and cease, and then again begin,
With tremulous cadence slow, and bring
The eternal note of sadness in.

Sophocles long ago
Heard it on the Ægean, and it brought
Into his mind the turbid ebb and flow
Of human misery; we
Find also in the sound a thought,
Hearing it by this distant northern sea.

The Sea of Faith
Was once, too, at the full, and round earth's shore
Lay like the folds of a bright girdle furl'd.
But now I only hear
Its melancholy, long, withdrawing roar,
Retreating, to the breath
Of the night-wind, down the vast edges drear
And naked shingles of the world.

Ah, love, let us be true
To one another! for the world, which seems
To lie before us like a land of dreams,
So various, so beautiful, so new,
Hath really neither joy, nor love, nor light,
Nor certitude, nor peace, nor help for pain;
And we are here as on a darkling plain
Swept with confused alarms of struggle and flight,
Where ignorant armies clash by night.

Module 7

Polyfunctional Character of Stylistic Devices

Lecture 14. Emphatic Constructions

Plan

1. Emphatic Constructions.
2. Polyfunctional Character of Stylistic Devices
3. Translation of Different Stylistic Devices

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
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11. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
12. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

1. Emphatic Constructions

Emotive colouring and expressiveness of speech may be achieved by various emphatic means both grammatical and lexical. Expressiveness and emotive colouring should not be confused. The former is a wider notion than the latter. Emphatic means are used even in those styles of language which lack emotive colouring, viz. the style of scientific prose and official style. Emphatic models give prominence either to one element of the utterance or make the whole utterance forceful and expressive.

Emphatic means of the English language present great variety and bear a distinct national character. Some emphatic models in English and in Russian coincide but there are considerable differences. Even coincidences are often partial or seeming. Therefore rendering of emphasis in translation is not a simple task.

Inversion as a Means of Emphasis

The emphatic role of inversion is a well-known fact, and need not be considered here. It is only to be mentioned that the stylistic function of inversion is frequently rendered lexically.

Emphatic Use of the “As... As” model

The model “as...as” expressing the same degree of quality may be used emphatically not in its direct function but to express the superlative degree. In this case it is as a rule combined with the pronouns “any”, “anything”, “anybody”. The translations of this model require lexical compensation.

Negative constructions are more expressive than affirmative ones and possess a stronger emotive colouring. This is due to the fact that the category of negation indicates that the link between the negation indicates that the link between the notions expressed by the subject and the predicate is non-existent.

The negative word “no” is a powerful means of stressing the some member of the sentence.

The emphatic use of the colon in the translation attracts attention to what follows. Emphasis is also created by ellipsis.

Modern English has lost almost all case inflections and has developed a fixed and rigid word order to discriminate the syntactic function of the common case of the noun. Therefore in declarative sentence the subject precedes the predicate. This is the so called direct word order, which is known to be the main "guard" of stability in the English language. This word order is observed in the majority of declarative sentences. But sometimes the direct order is changed, i. e. the subject follows the predicate. Such word order is called inversion. When the whole predicate is put before the subject, it is the full inversion.

Sentence is a programme, a body, interacting with the other ones alike. In our opinion, the phenomenon of the inversion must be explained proceeding from the communicative nature of the language. This is, of course, a holistic approach.

Language is a complex system, all parts in it work together, being ruled by general communicative necessity. Inversion is dependent on the relations, connections of the parts of the sentence, which are ruled by communication intention. Inversion is used under specific relations of the parts of sentence. O. Smirnitsky claims that there are two groups of adverbial modifiers in English: the first one are those that equally define both, the subject and the predicate; the second group are the adverbial modifiers that are related only with the predicate. The inversion in this case provides balancing sentence groups in which adverbial modifier is related to both, subject and predicate. The relations of this kind correspond to communication intention. If the predicate be placed after the subject, its meaning, its role would be completely changed, the relations between the parts of the sentence be ruined, so would be the communication intention.

2. Polyfunctional Character of Stylistic Devices

Many stylistic devices are polyfunctional: one and the same device may fulfill a variety of functions and produce diverse effects. These functions are sometimes not identical and do not coincide in English and in Russian. The same stylistic devices in two languages reveal complete concurrence, partial concurrence and no concurrence at all.

Alliteration is a case in point. Alliteration is primarily a euphonic device and euphonic function is practically identical in both languages. Alliteration appears to be one of the fundamental features of poetry. But alliteration in prose is more frequently used in English.

The second function of alliteration is a logical one. Alliteration serves as a link binding together different components of the text. It is used as a bond between the epithet and the qualified word. Alliteration in its logical function is frequently used in all kinds of emotive prose, e.g.

Alliteration here is deliberately used in the enumeration of different poetical and literary forms. The author's device and its function can, in this case, be easily rendered in translation.

Alliteration is also not infrequently used in newspaper and publicist style.

Alliteration is widely used in slogans, newspaper headlines and book titles where it fulfills an eye-catching function.

We demand universal suffrage because it is our right... we believe it will give us bread, and beef and beer. (Dave Morgan).

Alliteration here cannot be preserved as exactitude of expression and of sense may suffer.

The eye-snaring function of alliteration is apparent in newspaper headlines, e.g. *Cabinet Cool on Canal; Report on the Rampageous Right; Bacon Blow, etc.*

Alliteration is frequently used in the titles of books, e.g.

Sense and sensibility (J.Austin); *the Posthumous Paper of the Pickwick Club* (Ch. Dickens).

Rendering of Trite and Original Devices

A translator should be fully aware of the degree of expressiveness of stylistic devices used in the text. A line of distinction must be drawn between what is stylistically trite and what is stylistically original. It especially refers to lexical stylistic devices: deliberate mixing of words belonging to different layers of the vocabulary, metaphors, metonymies, epithets, similes, etc. stylistic equivalence is a fundamental requirement.

Publicist and newspaper styles have different accepted norms in English and in Russian and in conformity with these norms certain stylistic modifications may be necessary. For instance, colloquial and even slang words are frequently used in English newspaper style and therefore a typical modification in translating English newspaper texts into Russian is a switch from colloquial or neutral to literary. Such changes are due to a somewhat greater orientation of Russian newspaper style towards literary norms and standards.

You don't have to be a history buff to enjoy historic houses in Britain but it helps.

The word “buff” is a highly colloquial, if not slangy word, meaning “a dull, slow-witted person” (Webster III). In the translation its stylistic reference is elevated and it is rendered by a literary word (*недаант*).

A certain toning down is sometimes necessary in the translation of such lexical stylistic devices used in newspaper articles as metaphors, metaphoric epithets and metonymies.

Metaphors are found in all emotively coloured styles of language but metaphors in the Belles-Lettres style (in imaginative prose) are usually original whereas original metaphors in newspaper style are rare, trite metaphors are, as a rule, given preference. The object pursued by editorials to bring the reader round to the paper's point of view, to suggest that paper's interpretation is the only correct one. Editorials appeal not only to the reader's mind but to his feelings as well. That accounts for an extensive use of various stylistic devices, metaphors in particular. But unlike metaphors in imaginative prose metaphors in editorials can be easily replaced if necessary. Such substitution may be caused by different usage, different valency or different TL norms.

The communists were the friends of peace in the foul weather of the cold war.

The collocation *скверная погода холодной войны* would violate the norm of Russian stylistic usage as would the combination *друзья мира*.

The Suppression of Communism Act of 1950 in South Africa, however, was only the opening wedge of suppression. (W.Pomeroy).

Oil prices in 1973 soared into orbit.

Toning down is resorted to in translating trite metonymies which are so extensively used in English.

Red carpet for the Oil Prince.

Britain is pushing the boat out this week for the first official visit by one of the world's most powerful man, Crown Prince and Prime Minister of Saudi Arabia and the most influential voice in world politics.

The headline metonymy (red carpet) is replaced by the words expressing the notion which it stands for (*пышная встреча*).

The second metonymy is preserved by means of addition.

3. Translation of Different Stylistic Devices

Original Metaphors and Their Translation

The preservation of original metaphors in imaginative prose is obligatory as they belong to the main features of a writer's individual style. If for some linguistic reason (different valency, different semantic structure, etc.) the original metaphor cannot be preserved, resort is taken to stylistic replacements or compensation either by substituting another image or by using another stylistic device, e.g.

And Might by limping Sway disabled. (Shakespeare Sonnet 66)

The metaphoric epithets "*limping*" and *беззубый* are formally not identical semantic units but as they have a common sense denoting a physical defect, stylistically they may be regarded as equivalents.

The sun would pour through the shutters, tiger-striping the table and floor...

(G. Durrell)

Солнце светило сквозь ставни и столик и пол были похожи на тигровую шкуру.

The metaphor is rendered by a simile.

An original metaphor has sometimes to be substituted for grammatical reasons, for instance, the category of gender may be a case in point.

Can't think how he married that glass of sour milk. (W. Deeping).

The Russian noun *стакан* is masculine and must in this case be substituted by a feminine noun *чашка*.

A trite metaphor is sometimes revived by adding to it a new image expressed by one or more words.

He was a rich vein of information, and I mined him assiduously. (G. Durrell).

Sometimes the difficulty of rendering metaphors in translation is due to the fact that the metaphor is based on some phraseological unit which has no equivalent in Russian.

Never before had Lucy met that negative silence in its full perfection, in its full cruelty. Her own edges began to curl up sympathy. (J. Tey).

The metaphor in this example “her own edges began to curl up in sympathy” is linked up with two phraseological unities:

1. *to be on edge* – to be excited or irritable; 2. *to set person's teeth on edge* – jar his nerves, affect him with repulsion (The Concise Oxford Dictionary). The senses in this case are reshuffled, the referential meaning of the word “*edge*” is revived, and the meaning of the two phraseological unities (to be irritable, to have one's nerves jarred) is present. This interaction of two meanings is perceived as deliberate interplay.

Original Metonymies and their Translation

The rendering of metonymy is not always easy because of differences in usage.

So the pink sprigged muslin and the champagne voile ran downstairs in a hurry. (C. Dane).

The addition of a concrete word – *нодпызу* – is prompted by the macro context, but the stylistic effect is certainly lost in translation. What is permissible and possible in our language is impossible in another. Still there are cases when the norms of the Russian language permit the use of original metonymies.

There were only four other people in the bar. I knew them all, or knew what they did for a living: timber, flour, textiles, insurance. Timber and Flower were standing at the counter discussing the cost of labour; Textiles at a table on the opposite side of the room was complaining about his garage bills. Insurance was listening patiently. (J. Braine).

Transferred Epithet and its Translation

Another example of different frequency and different specific weight of a stylistic device is presented by the transferred epithet which is a structural variant of the metaphoric epithet. Its expressive force lies in its peculiar distribution: syntactically it modifies one word whereas logically it refers to another. Thus, syntactically it stands apart from the word to which it is semantically attached. Transferred epithets both trite and original are widely used in English while in Russian they are mainly confined to poetry. Such combinations with transferred epithets as “*hasty luncheon*”, “*quick cigarette*”, “*accusing finger*”, “*indifferent shoulder*”, etc. have become clichés through their frequent use.

Some models of transferred epithets are more unusual and therefore more expressive but nevertheless are rarely preserved in translation.

...his commanding officer had called him ... and sent him on his puzzled way. (M. West).

The Russian translation in keeping with the existing norms of valency re-establishes the logical link between the attribute and the modified word but inevitably destroys the stylistic effect.

In the narrow darkness between the doors he drew his pistol. (E.Gardner).

The epithet “*narrow*” semantically refers to the implied word “*interval*” (*between the doors*) which is introduced in the Russian translation.

Violation of Phraseological Units and its Rendering

Another stylistic device which may also be described as national is the so-called violation of phraseological units or renovation. This device is used in all types of phraseological units: fusion, unities and collocations. But despite their stability, phraseological units are easily broken by some lexical element which is either added or substituted. Evidently the ties binding the components are not indissoluble, which is probably due to a wide and flexible collocability of the English language.

The substitution of a component element may be achieved by a synonym or an antonym, by a word with a resembling sound form, or by any word prompted by the context or by the writer’s intention. These substitutions are always occasional and unpredictable, e.g.

Every country on the old continent has a fine collection of skeletons in the cupboard.

The meaning is fully rendered but the device is not reproduced in the translation. It is a typical case of semantic but not of stylistic equivalence.

The President is not going to be a bull in the economic china shop.

The device is rendered by a detached construction.

Substitution based on the phonetic principle can be illustrated by the following example from Winston Churchill’s speech in the Commons after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour:

I hesitate to express opinions about the future, because things turn out so very oddly, but I will go so far as to say that it may be Japanese, whose game is what I may call “To make hell while the sun shines” are more likely to occupy themselves in securing their rich prizes in the Philippines, the Dutch East Indies and the Malayan Archipelago”.

The effect of this violation is enhanced by a play on words resulting from combining two phraseological units: a proverb “*to make hay while the sun shines*” and a collocation “*to make hell*”.

Violation may also be achieved by a shifting of component elements, as was done, for example, by Evelyn Waugh:

“There’s danger in numbers; divided we stand, united we fall”.

In the first phrase E. Waugh substitutes the noun “*danger*” for “*safety*” (*there is safety in numbers*); in the second, he shifts the components (*united we stand, divided we fall*).

The following translation may be suggested:

The revival of a faded metaphor or metaphoric element may be regarded by the introduction of some word or words which restore and bring to mind the original transference of meaning.

I wanted to give her not a piece but the whole of my mind. (S. Maugham)

In phraseological unity “*to give a piece of one’s mind* – *откровенно высказать кому-нибудь свое неодобрение* – one of the components is a faded metaphor (*piece*) but the additional word “*the whole*” brings back the original meaning of the word “*piece*”. Naturally the device cannot be preserved but can be compensated by means of expressive synonyms and an intensifier.

Set expressions (collocations) are easily violated as the ties between the elements are rather loose. This fact is confirmed by the existence of synonymous variants, e.g. to cast a glance, to dart a glance, etc.

Phrases containing repetition (of the type “*day by day*”, “*step by step*”) are also sometimes broken by an additional word.

The clocks of Silverhill ticked away minute by slow minute. (P. Whitney).

Foregrounding and Translation.

Modern English writers and journalists often give preference to foregrounding over, traditional stylistic devices. By foregrounding is understood the use of neutral linguistic means for stylistic purposes. A grammatical form or structure thus acquires great expressiveness and may be regarded as a stylistic device.

Foregrounding reveals and brings forth the potentialities which are inherent in linguistic means. Just as a poet a writer senses the expressive possibilities of a word, he sees potential expressiveness in a grammatical structure or form and skillfully uses it. Foregrounding is always individual; is displayed in unexpected contexts and possesses a high degree of unpredictability. Practically every grammatical form and every part of speech may be foregrounded, that is used for expressiveness.

Foregrounding of Articles.

The rendering of the meaning of articles has already been considered in the chapter dealing with grammatical problems.

In the following example Iris Murdoch effectively reveals the stylistic force of the two articles, their expressive possibilities and their effective use for stylistic purposes.

Perhaps he would achieve some sort of piece, the piece of an elderly man, a piece of cozy retirement...

The foregrounded articles are compensated lexically.

Foregrounding of Degrees of Comparison.

Degrees of comparison can also be foregrounded. Such foregrounding may be achieved in two ways: either by semantic or by morphological violation of the norm. The semantic violation of the norm is applied to descriptive adjectives which by virtue of their semantics do not admit of comparison. Yet for the sake of expressiveness they are used either in the comparative or in the superlative degrees.

"Very good, sir", said the groom, at his most wooden, and sprang down into the road. (Georgette Heyer)

It should be pointed out that in this vase the superlative degree with the preposition "at" and a possessive pronoun forms a special model and is used absolutely as an elative, which implies that the object described possesses a certain quality beyond comparison.

The meaning of the elative is rendered by a colloquial intensifier.

Another example of semantic violation:

The station is more daunting than the Gare du Nord: golder, grander.
(E.Bowen)

The device is preserved in the translation.

The foregrounding of descriptive adjectives is sometimes found in newspapers style as well.

The report's proposals were handed over to a much more "political" committee...

The inverted commas indicate that newspapers style is more conventional than imaginative prose.

Morphological violation may be described as violation of established grammatical norms for stylistic purposes and the degrees of comparison become functionally charged.

"Curiouser and curioser", said Alice. (Lewis Carroll)

Polixena Solovieva, the translator, takes recourse to the same device.

"Annie, could you give me a quart of coffee in a carton?"

"It'll have to be two points, Eth."

"Good. Even gooder". (J.Stainbeck)

Foregrounding of the Plural Form.

The plural form is foregrounded when it is used with uncountable nouns or with “noun phrases”. The plural moves an uncountable noun into a new category, thus stressing it.

He was bursting with new ideas and new enthusiasms. (I.Shaw).

В нем бурлили новые идеи и новые увлечения.

We spent a long day together, with a great many “Do you remembers?”
(Desmond Young).

As conversion is used in Russian on a limited scale it can hardly ever be preserved.

Foregrounding of Word-building

New words are coined by affixation, word-compounding and conversion. All these means of word-building are frequently foregrounded. Their expressiveness is due to their individual character and is often a feature of the writer’s style.

As word-building possesses a national character the rendering of such coinages constitutes a complicated problem of translation.

Foregrounding of Suffixes

Suffixes present great variety and have different productivity in the S and T languages. The English language is particularly rich in suffixes and their productivity is prodigious. The case with which new words are formed is amazing. Individual coinages speedily become neologisms and enter the vocabulary. Some suffixes are exceptionally productive and offer great possibilities for foregrounding. Such coinages often baffle the translator and their rendering requires considerable ingenuity on his part, usually at the cost of compactness.

This is well illustrated by the word “*hackdom*” in the following example:

... no one who knows his long, dreary record in the House, 25 years of plodding through hackdom would ever accuse him of being a leader.

The suffix *-ful* is also foregrounded.

After the pattern of “*handful*” and “*mouthful*” the adjective “*faceful*” is formed for vividness of expression.

A new ward syster, fat and forceful with a huge untroubled faceful of flesh and brisk legs, was installed. (M.Spark).

The stylistic effect is lost because a very usual attribute “*мясистый*” does not stylistically correspond to the correlated nonce-word “*faceful*”.

Perhaps the most productive of all suffixes is the suffix *-er* used both for nominalization and for stylistic purposes. The frequency of its partial grammaticalization, in other words, this suffix often functions as a noun indicator.

She is a leaner, leans on me, breathes on me, too, but her breath is sweet like a cow's breath. She's a thoucher, too. (J.Stainbeck).

Despite its universal character this suffix is easily foregrounded. It is used by writers for forming nonce-words sometimes parallel with existing ones built from the verb but having a different meaning, e.g. “*a waiter*”: 1. a man who takes and executes orders (The Concise Oxford Dictionary); 2. a man who can wait. (John Stainbeck).

She is a waiter – I can see that now and I guess she had at lengthy last grown weary of waiting.

Sometimes the suffix *–er* indicating the doer is contrasted with the suffix *–ee* indicating the patient – the object of the action.

In business you sometimes were the pusher and sometimes the pushee. (I.Shaw).

No, he could imagine Marta a murderer but not a murderee. (J.Tey).

The suffix *–able*, another most productive suffix, is also frequently foregrounded. It is often used in advertising as its lexical meaning has not disappeared, e.g. *a hummable record* – a record that can be hummed; *a filmable novel* – a novel that can be filmed.

He was waiting for the last bath of the purified uranium with unfillable time on his hands. (C.P.Snow).

The lanes were not passable, complained a villager, not even jackassable.

These coinages are also translated by extension and are equivalent only semantically, not stylistically.

Foregrounding of Compounds

Nonce-words formed by compounding are naturally conspicuous.

He was a born parent-pleaser. (I.Shaw).

The following example is curious as the two component elements of the compound have the suffix *–er*.

“Marta said that you wanted something looked up”.

“And are you a looker-upper?”

“I’m doing research, here in London. Historical research I mean”...

(Josephine Tey).

Conversion and Foregrounding

Conversion – this typical means of word building in English is often foregrounded.

This mode of word-building is a typical example of compression and at the same time it is a means of achieving expressiveness.

We therefore decided that we would sleep out on fine nights; and hotel it, and inn it and pub it, like respectable folks, when it was wet, or when we felt inclined for a change. (Jerome K. Jerome).

Conversation is sometimes based on a free combination of words resulting in a compound.

The cat high-tailed away and scrambled over the board fence. (J.Stainbeck).

Again a case of semantic but not of stylistic equivalence.

Foregrounding of Adverbial Verbs

The so-called adverbial verbs, that is, verbs containing two semes, one expressing action and the other describing the character of that action, are often used for stylistic purposes in the same way as causative verbs. Such use can be traced far back even to Shakespeare.

She splashed the four chipped cups down on a table by the door.

(M.Sinclair).

In this case the verb “*to splash down*” contains three semes: the action itself, its character and its result.

Smoke sorrowed out of the chimney. (P.White).

Semantic Foregrounding

The lexical possibilities of foregrounding are also considerable. A writer sometimes skillfully uses a word in an unusual combination owing to which it becomes conspicuous and acquires greater expressive value.

I suggest, Mr. Speaker, that the government and its Department of Citizenship and Emigration have their collective sheet firmly rooted in the nineteenth century. (A.Halley)

The unusual combination “collective feet” cannot be preserved in Russian (коллективные ноги would be unacceptable) and only the semantic aspect of the combination is rendered in the translation.

Stylistic means and devices present considerable and varied problems for translation. They possess a distinct national character although at first sight they may appear to be identical. Foreground linguistic means give rise to particularly hard problems as specific national language means are brought into play by foregrounding, e.g. articles, suffixes, the passive voice, conversion, etc.

The translator must be fully aware of the function of a stylistic device and its effect, to be able to reproduce the same effect by other means, if necessary, thus minimizing the inevitable losses due to inherent divergences.

The term emphasis means stress made to fall on a particular word, phrase or sentence in general in speaking or in a written form. It can be used in a work of art or even in journalistic or oratorical style.

The topicality of the investigation is caused by the need to find out new various means of translation of the emphatic constructions on the base of already existing transformation constructions.

Emphasis is the stress on any element of a sentence which is made with the help of intonation, repetition, syntactical position and other methods. With the help of emphatic constructions separate parts of a sentence are stressed, they influence into the expressive colour of the whole sentence. Emphatic constructions are taken as those in opposition to neutral constructions. They should not be regarded as breach or deviation from the norm but as natural phenomenon of effective language.

According to processed material of such scholars as Firsov, Sokolova, Levutzka, Fiterman, Michelson, Uspenska, Komisarov, Karaban we came to the conclusion that in English grammar the emphatic constructions can be divided into lexical, constructions which use some lexical means (words or word combinations) to give an expression the affective evaluation; grammatical, constructions which use grammatical means; and lexico-grammatical, constructions which use both lexical and grammatical means. According to the results of our investigations grammatical particularly syntactical means dominate in the expression of the emphasis. On the contrary in Ukrainian grammar lexical means dominate. That is why syntactical emphasis of English sentence is translated with the help of lexical method.

To translate all kinds of emphasis we use different transformations. On the basis of comparative analysis we have found all possible transformations in Ukrainian language and those which are used for translating of emphatic constructions. We arrived at a conclusion that some of them are not used for transferring of emphatic meaning of a sentence. There are generalization, combination of sentences, explication and removal.

The classification of transformations that are used for translating of emphatic constructions consists of lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical transformations. Lexical ones are the most used and include different changes of lexical units during the translation. Addition and modulation are the most popular transformations.

Grammar rules exist so that we don't sound like complete idiots when we speak or write. Most of them have a good reason for being around; after all, clarity in communication is a good thing. However, that's not to say that all grammar rules are written in stone. Moreover, sometimes they contradict themselves which makes us angry: we've just learnt a rule, cleared up how it works and there comes an exception. Sounds familiar? Bad news: you've got to get used to it⁹. Because, as you might have noticed, generalizing is not always trustworthy, especially in case of language. Because language is a dynamical system and what is considered a rule today may not be so tomorrow. That is why we must be ready to meet exceptions all the way to our destination which is a perfect English language competence.

Seminar 14. Emphatic Constructions
Plan

1. Conversation and Foregrounding.
2. Emphatic Constructions. Inversion as a Means of Emphasis.
3. Translating of English Verbals and Verbal Constructions.
4. Ways of Rendering the Lexico-Grammatical Meanings and Function of the English Infinitive.
5. Ways of Translating the Participles and Participial Constructions.
6. Ways of Translating the Objective with the Participle Constructions.

Recommended Literature

1. Карабан В. І. Переклад англійської наукової і технічної літератури. Граматичні труднощі, лексичні, термінологічні та жанрово-стилістичні проблеми / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Вінниця, Нова книга, 2004. – 576 с.
2. Карабан В.І., Мейс Дж. Переклад з української мови на англійську мову : [навч. посібник-довідник] / В.І. Карабан, Дж. Мейс. –Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. – 608с.
3. Комиссаров В.Н. Современное переводоведение : [курс лекций] / Вилен Наумович Комиссаров. – М. : ЭТС, 1999. – 189 с.
4. Коптілов В. В. Теорія і практика перекладу : [навч. посіб. для студ.] / Віктор Вікторович Коптілов. – Київ : Юніверс, 2003. – 280 с.
5. Корунець І. В. Теорія і практика перекладу (аспектний переклад) : [підручник] / Ілько Вакулович Корунець. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2003. – 448 с.
6. Максимов С. Є. Практичний курс перекладу (англійська та українська мови). Теорія та практика перекладацького тексту : [навч. посіб. для студ. факул. переклад.] / Сергій Євгенович Максимов. – К. : Ленвіт, 2010. – 175 с.

Additional References

1. Карабан В. І. Посібник-довідник з перекладу англійської наукової і технічної літератури на українську мову / В'ячеслав Іванович Карабан. – Київ-Кременчук, 1999. – 120 с.
2. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка : [учебник] / Александр Владимирович Кунин. – М. : Междунар. отношения, 1972. – 230 с.
3. Левицкий Ю.А. Справочник по переводу английских текстов / Юрий Анатольевич Левицкий. – Пермь : ПГПУ, 1999. – 294 с.
4. Марчук Ю. Н. Проблемы машинного перевода / Юрий Николаевич Марчук. – М. : Наука, 1983. – 265 с.

Tasks for the seminar

Task 1

1. Read the text.
2. Translate the text.
3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

The value of storytelling as part of education and family life



There are numerous writings of very reputable people talking about the many benefits of storytelling, not only in children education, but in family life. What I am presenting here is a personal assessment of the points that I consider most important, with special emphasis on those that are not usually mentioned, but which may be helpful.

The greatest benefit of education, no doubt, is the ability **that has a story to convey values** . Perhaps we have not consciously made good on it, but if you think, most values more firmly rooted in our own personality came to us from the hand of a story: in "The three little pigs", for instance, we instilled the importance of working well; "The tortoise and the hare" were showing us that constancy and modesty had borne fruit, and "The cicada and the ant" made us see that it was more profitable to be working than being a laggard.

This is not accidental. Every story, including tales, has a logical argument that unites the different parts, making them much easier to remember. In this way, our memory stores precisely because this plot is the glue of all these elements, and therefore the easiest way to access the remaining details of the story. And the moral is the best summary of a story, and so what better retains it. For example, one can forget what all details about the cicada and the ant, but do not forget that one was spending time while the other worked hard to store food.

Second, and closely related to the above, is the **usefulness of stories to teach new things** . Precisely because it is easier to recall the main story, and its importance as a link, the story allows easy access to other details. In fact, the stories have always been used to transmit ideas and knowledge, starting from Bible and Jesus of Nazareth, whose parables were a way to educate in a very practical style. I can still remember the case of a classmate at school who always got bad marks, which surprised everyone with an excellent note on a review of the history of the First World War precisely because he had been seeing a couple of films on the subject ...



But in addition to being powerful tools of education and teaching, **stories customized just before Sleeping allow to establish a strong link with the kids** . To be creative and original every day, we must devote all our ability and attention, if only during that time, and that is something that children, accustomed to be the focus of

their parents' events, but no of their mind attention (too many parents have so many "brain noise" to park their concerns entirely, if only for a while) perceive with great gratitude and enthusiasm. And to customize a story (I always let them choose the main characters of the story), parents are forced to listen and take care for their children, so children feel really special. That emotional link is so strong that it is another important factor that facilitates memorization and assimilation as taught in these stories. I myself have discovered many times how my children were surprisingly recalling many low level details of stories I had told them long time ago, and never ever talking again about them. Finally, telling stories without books nor pictures, with the room in darkness and children lying on their beds, as I like to do, **is a very effective way to help counteract the lack of attention that many children are suffering nowadays**, caused by the fact of living in a world with so many visual stimuli. Using an out of the room light, and with the reassuring presence of their parents, children are prepared to open their ears to the world carried by the story, and without even realizing it, they are learning to focus their attention; but not only that, they do also use heard as a primary sense, quite the opposite of what will happen during daylight. I usually take advantage of this situation to further stimulate their visual sense, but in a creative way, as too many stimuli so perfectly constructed may do not help develop properly. So I flood stories and characters of bright colors, forcing them to imagine each part of the story.

I wouldn't want to end without stressing advantages of personalizing stories (for those who think this seems too difficult to do it every day, check for our article about how to create stories in the main menu). A **cusotm story is an incredibly effective tool to "analyze" children's behaviors during the day**. Taking advantage of the proximity in time and the freshness of their memories about what happened, through the story, we can praise what they have done well, or censor and try to change what they did not do so well. In this very emotional moment, children are so accessible, that a story that exemplifies clearly the attitude we like is much more effective than several hours of sermons and good words.

(primary school.edu)

Task 2

1.Read the text.

2.Translate the text.

3.Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Motivating pupils

As adults, we are all motivated in different ways and the same is true for children.

Some children are highly motivated and take great pleasure in their own success. Others are highly competitive and enjoy gaining greater success than their classmates. Most pupils wish to please the teacher so it is the job of the teacher to encourage all pupils to be proud of their own achievements and to raise self-esteem, so that the pupil continues to give maximum effort and increase personal success.



If a pupil displays a negative attitude to school this could be due to variety of factors both in and out of school. The pupil may have a history of failure and have just 'given up'. Most teachers can recognise and reward success. Failure is more difficult.

It is important that children recognise that making mistakes, is part of the learning process and by developing strategies to rectify their mistakes they will be able to solve them in future.

- A pupil who constantly fails needs additional support, otherwise his/her self-esteem will be damaged so much that s/he may give up trying.
- It is important to differentiate between the success of the individual, and comparisons with other children of the same age.
- A pupil may be a difficult home life, which leaves no energy for schoolwork, or the family may have a negative attitude towards school.

It is vital that the teacher is sensitive to the needs of this pupil and by gentle persuasion and encouragement gradually encourages the pupil to reengage with academic activity.

Task 3

1. Read the text.

2. Translate the text.

3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Some strategies for motivating pupils

Good role model

Teachers who are fair and demonstrate a real concern for the pupils in their care are more likely to have a class, which responds in a positive way.

Enthusiasm

If a pupil displays a negative attitude to school, this could be due to variety of factors both in and out of school.

Children, like adults, are inspired by the enthusiasm of others. Teachers who show a true enthusiasm and interest in their subject are likely to inspire in their pupils a desire to learn the skills and attitudes which will allow them to enjoy

these subjects. Exposing pupils to other experts in the field will model these attributes so take them to:

- watch a drama production
- invite an author or artist to speak about their work
- attend a live sporting event.

Commitment to the job

Concern for the children and getting to know them well as individuals will demonstrate your commitment to know and understanding them:

- make time to talk to them about their individual interests
- find out more about their social and cultural backgrounds
- widening your professional role within the school by taking on responsibilities outside the classroom shows your commitment to the school
- run an after-school club
- volunteer to help with extra curricula activities
- organise a science/arts week.

Task 4

1.Read the text.

2.Translate the text.

3.Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Physical environment

It is important to motivate pupils by providing a stimulating and safe environment. This means providing exciting displays, which change regularly, reflect the interests of the pupils and celebrate their work. Try interactive displays which pose questions and inspire children to find out more.

The classroom should be a place where the pupils feel safe to suggest and try out new ideas knowing that their opinions will be valued. So:

- give children time to think of high-quality answers rather than take the first 'hands-up'
- value all children's responses.

Planning to motivate pupils

Selecting and designing tasks involves not only a sound understanding of the material to be taught but also matching the level of work to that of the pupils. It is also vital that the subject matter is appropriate for the individuals in the class. So:

- provide opportunities for pupils to reflect on and share their personal experiences and their feelings about the topic being studied (this reassures the pupils and allows the teacher an opportunity to plan appropriate tasks)
- draw on what pupils already know and can do to stimulate their interest and imagination
- select tasks that are challenging and achievable.

For effective learning to take place, learners need to understand what they are trying to achieve, and want to achieve it. Understanding and commitment follows when the pupils have some part in deciding goals and identifying criteria for assessment.

These criteria should be discussed with the pupils, providing examples of how the criteria can be met and engaging the pupils in peer and self-assessment.

Task 5

1. Read the text.

2. Translate the text.

3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Teaching styles

Children learn in different ways so when planning lessons, use a variety of strategies to cater for different learning styles.

Feedback

The way in which a teacher gives feedback on a pupil's work has an enormous impact on their motivation. There has been a great deal of research into the impact of feedback on children's learning and one of the most important findings is that children only focus on marks and ignore the comments that accompany them. Therefore, if the teacher wants the pupil to improve learning s/he should:

- pinpoint the learner's strengths and advise how to develop them
- be clear and constructive about any weaknesses and how they might be addresses
- provide opportunities for learners to improve upon their work and with a clear understanding of what to do next
- adjust teaching to take account of the results of assessment.

So, in order to motivate pupils to learn effectively teachers must provide a safe and stimulating environment. Within this setting, the teacher must provide a curriculum which is relevant to them, takes into account their learning needs and builds on their prior knowledge and experience.

Recommended further reading

- Black, P.J. & Wiliam D. (1998b) *Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards Through Classroom Assessment*, School of Education, Kings College, London
- Hayes, D. (2004) *Foundations of Primary Teaching*, David Fulton, London
- Fontana, D (1995) *Psychology for Teachers*, Macmillan Press, London
- Smith A. (2001) *Accelerated Learning In Practice* Network Educational Press Ltd, Stafford

Useful websites

- <http://www.everychildmatters.gov.uk>

(The Guardian)

Task 6

1. Read the text.
2. Translate the text.
3. Write down the summary in Ukrainian.

Translate it and write the summary in Ukrainian

Meeting the individual needs of each child

Meeting the individual needs of each child is a challenge for all teachers and something that is high on the policy agenda under the current label of 'personalised learning'.

Personalised learning



Personalised learning has been defined by government ministers as that which takes place when there is an education system in which assessment, curriculum, teaching style and out-of-hours provision are all designed to discover and nurture the unique talents of every single pupil.

In fact, this ideal has long been at the heart of education for practitioners. So what does it mean for teachers within schools and classrooms?

The key thing to remember is that the term 'personalised learning' was not introduced and developed by teachers and education experts. It does not arise from academic research, from grass-roots practice, or from the larger education policy community.

In terms of practical application, a number of key processes and areas have been identified at national government level to support 'personalisation':

- assessment for learning
- a wide range of teaching techniques to promote a broad range of learning strategies, facilitated by high quality ICT that promotes individual and group learning as well as teaching
- curriculum choice, particularly from the age of 14, and the development of subject specialism
- the organisation of the school, including the structure of the day and of lessons, using workforce reform to enhance teaching and learning and to ensure consistency
- links to services beyond the classroom, involving the wider community and families, supported by the *Every Child Matters* agenda.

ATL's view

There are limits to how far any of these forms of personalised learning can be effective within a crowded curriculum and a high-stakes testing system. And if we are truly to 'personalise' education, surely we need to hear the voice of the pupil?

The current curriculum as taught, with due recognition of the real narrowing caused by excessive teaching to the test, is based on an inappropriate academic model. It lacks balance between the parts of personality which schools should be developing; not only thinking, but feeling, doing and making. As such, it lacks appeal to risk groups.

Only when teachers are able to focus on assessment for learning, rather than teaching to the frequent tests, within a flexible curriculum framework, will they feel empowered to move on from the repetition of the 'Strategies lesson' to a more creative and ultimately engaging pedagogy with active learners.

What is accelerated learning?

The concept of accelerated learning is based on relatively recent ideas about the brain, multiple intelligences and learning styles. It has become a popular term to describe a diverse collection of ideas about how human learning can be fostered.

Though it has its origins in the 1970s in Georgi Lozanov's techniques of 'Suggestopedia', accelerated learning is not a single, unified, coherent theory.

One of its strongest and most well-known advocates in the UK, Alistair Smith, describes accelerated learning as:

'an umbrella term for a series of practical approaches to learning which benefit from new knowledge about how the brain functions; motivation and self-belief; accessing different sorts of intelligence and retaining and recalling information.' (Alistair Smith, 1996, p9)

Let's have a look at a number of the more popular theories behind 'accelerated learning' which have had impact within education; brain-friendly schooling, multiple intelligences and learning styles.

Stuff on brains

Brains are often mentioned in relation to learning nowadays, with claims of how brain research informs the work of educators. We can buy packages which claim that, using findings from brain research, they can help us 'learn faster' and 'improve our memories'. Yet evidence on brain functioning shows that the brain is not a container but rather that it is engaged in continuous, very flexible processing. Memories are not stored: they are always being constructed, refreshed and reconstructed.

Popular views of brain research use simplifications which have been discredited by neuroscientists. For example, the popular 'left brain/right brain' distinction is too simple – the evidence is that anything meaningful uses parts of both sides. Some neuroscientists conclude that any model that assigns collections of mental processes, such as spatial reasoning, to one hemisphere or the other is too crude to be useful. Many neuroscientists and analysts conclude that current brain research has little to offer educational practice or policy. After all, we need to focus on meaning in learning: after all, memorisation is something we resort to when what we are learning does not make sense to us.

Multiple intelligences

The concepts of 'emotional' and 'multiple' intelligences have been particularly used and revived in the US. The hazard here is to encourage crude views of some learners being more 'intelligent' than others. The evidence does not support this: there is no connection between measured 'intelligence' (ie the ability to solve abstract problems that bear no relation to your goals under time pressure) and the higher-level skills and processes of an effective learner.

However, the strength of the idea of multiple intelligences is the idea of multiplicity rather than the idea of intelligence. Anything which helps us as educators see more of the diversity in learners and the diversity in successful learning is to be welcomed.

Learning styles

Sometimes in schools and colleges, there is a tendency to put young people into this category or that, but the effects are at times unfortunate. 'Style' is a fashionable label and it has become fashionable in some quarters to apply labels to learners. There are a number of different versions of 'learning style' being promulgated, and they have little in common. It therefore becomes important to ask: 'What view of learning is this based on?'

Some are about preferences for the 'intake of information', yet this notion of learning has long been seen as erroneous.

Other versions of 'learning style' are supposedly about consistent tendencies, rather like personality, but a person's approach to learning varies across situations – and it should, in order to be effective.

It has also become popular to say that learning is more effective when learners 'match' their style with the context, yet there is equal evidence to support the idea that learning is more effective where there is a mismatch.

If our aim is to support learners in becoming self-directed, then they need to be equipped with a full range of styles. A hazard in current times is when the notion of style leads learners to categorise themselves in a fixed language: for example, 'I'm a visual learner'. This could link to a less versatile approach to learning. But learners do vary – all of us do according to our purpose, or the context we are in, or other factors.

Concentrating on effective learning

Effective learners have learned how to become effective learners. This involves not just the acquisition of strategies but also the monitoring and reviewing of learning to see whether particular strategies are effective. No one strategy works for all goals and purposes, despite any claims it might make.

Learning is an activity of construction (making meaning), not one of reception. Learning is handled with others or in the context of others. Learning is driven by the intentions and choices of learners. To promote this type of learning involves action and reflection, collaboration, learner responsibility and learning about learning.

So what can I do to meet the individual needs of each child?

The job of the whole school, particularly under the *Every Child Matters* agenda is to ensure that each child is healthy, safe, enjoying and achieving, making a positive contribution and that they achieve economic well-being. As a teacher within the school, you will meet those needs within an educational, learning context. Rather than by utilising particular styles', the individual needs of each child can be met by enabling them to be effective and self-directed learners.

An umbrella term for a series of practical approaches to learning which benefit from new knowledge about how the brain functions; motivation and self-belief; accessing different sorts of intelligence and retaining and recalling information.

Is there any point in developing self-directed learners, especially when teachers have been landed with the responsibility for learners' performance? Yes, even in the pressures of current times, those pupils who plan and reflect get significantly better marks at GCSE, and they achieve this in collaborative classrooms. More long-term, if young people are to make the most of themselves in a fast-changing world, their competence in this area is vital.

In classrooms which promote self-directed learners, pupils are doing the following:

- they are making choices – of activities, within activities, when an activity is completed
- they are making goals their own
- they are involved in planning how they will proceed
- they are given encouragement to offer commentary on their learning – talking aloud

- they are supported in reviewing their experience – telling the story
- they are evaluating the end-product
- they are asking others for help
- they are motivated by internal incentives.

Proverbs and their meaning

A

absence is the mother of disillusion: A period of separation may enable you to consider people or things more objectively and see them in a truer but less favorable light:

absence makes the heart grow fonder: Your affection for those close to you—family and friends—increases when you are parted from them.

accidents will happen in the best-regulated families: No matter how careful you are, you may still do something by accident or mistake; often used to console somebody who has done such a thing.

accusing the times is but excusing ourselves: People who seek to blame the times or conditions they live in are really trying to avoid taking the blame themselves:

Proverb expressing similar meanings:
he who excuses himself accuses himself.

admiration is the daughter of ignorance: People often admire others about whom they only have incomplete knowledge:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
what the eye doesn't see, the heart doesn't grieve over.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:
prejudice is the daughter of ignorance.

adventures are to the adventurous: Those who are not bold, and who take no risks, will not have exciting lives or achieve spectacular things:

adversity makes strange bedfellows: In times of hardship or misfortune people often befriend or form alliances with those whose company they would normally avoid:

Variants of this proverb: misery makes strange bedfellows; poverty makes strange bedfellows.

alcohol will preserve anything but a secret: People have a tendency to talk too freely and become indiscreet when they are drunk.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:
drunkenness reveals what soberness conceals; there's truth in wine.

all animals are equal, but some are more equal than others: In a society or organization where all are supposedly equal, it is often the case that some have special privileges, or greater power than others.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

all men are created equal.

the age of miracles is past: Miracles no longer happen; used when some desirable occurrence seems highly unlikely.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning: wonders will never cease!

agree, for the law is costly: It is expensive to settle disputes in court because of the legal costs involved.

all arts are brothers, each is a light to the other: The arts should not be considered as separate entities but as parts of one whole, each complementing and leading to a better understanding and appreciation of the others.

all cats are gray in the dark: People have no distinguishing features, and their appearance becomes unimportant, in the dark; sometimes used with reference to a person's choice of sexual partner:

all good things must come to an end: Nothing lasts forever; often said resignedly when a pleasant experience or sequence of events finally ends.

all is fish that comes to the net: Everything, no matter how small or unpromising, can be put to use:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

all is grist that comes to the mill.

all fish are not caught with flies: In some circumstances different methods must be employed to achieve a desired end.

all's fair in love and war: Any action, however mean or unscrupulous, is permissible in certain situations; often used to justify cheating or deception.

all men are created equal: No person is born superior or inferior to another, so all should have equal rights.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

jack's as good as his master; all animals are equal, but some are more equal than others.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

equality begins in the grave.

all's for the best in the best of all possible worlds: Everything that happens does so for a good reason, and things in general cannot be any better; generally used to present an optimistic worldview.

all roads lead to Rome: There are many different ways to achieve the same result, or to come to the same conclusion:

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

there are more ways of killing
a cat than choking it with cream;
there's more than one way to skin
a cat.

all things are possible with God: Nothing is impossible to the divine will;
often used more generally to imply that anything might happen.

all words are pegs to hang ideas on: Words are simply tools for the formulation and communication of ideas.

always in a hurry, always behind: When you try to do things too quickly you work less efficiently and ultimately take longer.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

more haste, less speed; haste makes waste.

all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy: People who do not make time for leisure activities risk damaging their health, the quality of their work, or their personal relationships; often used to justify a break from work or to persuade somebody to take one.

always something new out of Africa: Africa is an endless source of novelty and interest.

any port in a storm: In desperate circumstances people will accept help from any source, including those they would normally shun.

any publicity is good publicity: Even bad publicity draws attention to a person or product and may therefore serve a useful purpose.

another day, another dollar: However hard or tedious paid work may be, at least there is some financial reward; often said with relief at the end of the working day or, more generally, in the hope of a better day tomorrow.

an ape's an ape, a varlet's a varlet, though they be clad in silk or scarlet: The true nature of a person or thing may be hidden by outside appearance but cannot be changed.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

clothes don't make the man.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

clothes make the man.

appetite comes with eating: Desire or enthusiasm for something often increases as you do it:

Variant of this proverb: the appetite grows on what it feeds on.

the apple never falls far from the tree: Children resemble their parents in character and nature.

The proverb is also sometimes used with reference to children who choose to live close to their parents or their place of birth,

Variant of this proverb: an apple doesn't roll far from the tree.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

like father, like son; like mother,
like daughter.

April showers bring May flowers: Something unpleasant often leads to something more desirable.

Variant of this proverb: March winds and April showers always bring May flowers.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

every cloud has a silver lining.

an army marches on its stomach: You must eat well if you want to work effectively or achieve great things.

as a tree falls, so shall it lie: People should not attempt to change their beliefs or opinions just because they are about to die.

as good be an addled egg as an idle bird: Somebody who tries and fails has achieved no less than somebody who does nothing at all; used as a reprimand for idleness or inaction.

ask me no questions and I'll tell you no lies: It is better not to ask questions that somebody is likely to be unwilling to answer truthfully; used in response to such a question or simply to discourage an inquisitive person.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

curiosity killed the cat

as Maine goes, so goes the nation: The members of a large group will follow the lead of an influential part of the group.

as the day lengthens, so the cold strengthens: The coldest part of the winter often occurs in the period following the shortest day, as the hours of daylight begin to grow longer.

as the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined: A child's early education and training are of great importance in determining the way he or she will grow up.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

nature passes nurture.

as you make your bed, so you must lie in it: You must put up with the unpleasant results of a foolish action or decision.

away goes the devil when he finds the door shut against him: Evil will never triumph if all temptations are rejected.

B

a bad excuse is better than none: It is better to give a poor or implausible excuse—which may, in fact, be believed—than to have no explanation or justification at all.

bad money drives out good: The existence or availability of something inferior or worthless—whether it be money, music, literature, or whatever—has a tendency to make things of better quality or greater value more scarce.

a bad penny always turns up: Undesirable people will always return; often used when somebody who has left in disgrace reappears after a long absence.

a bad workman quarrels with his tools: Workers who lack skill or competence blame their tools or equipment when things go wrong.

bear and forbear: Patience, tolerance, endurance, and forgiveness are valuable qualities in all walks of life.

beauty is in the eye of the beholder: The perception of beauty is subjective, and not everybody finds the same people or things attractive.

beauty draws with a single hair: A beautiful woman has great powers of attraction.

beauty is a good letter of introduction: Beautiful people make a better first impression on strangers than ugly people do.

beauty is only skin deep: Beauty is only a superficial quality, and may conceal an unpleasant character or nature.

beauty is but a blossom: Good looks do not last.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

a thing of beauty is a joy forever.

beauty is truth, truth beauty: The qualities of beauty and truth are, or should be, inseparable and interlinked; often used when real life falls short of this ideal:

be just before you're generous: You should make sure all your debts are paid and other obligations met before you start giving money away or living extravagantly.

a believer is a songless bird in a cage: Religious belief restricts a person's freedom of action and expression.

believing has a core of unbelieving: Belief and unbelief are closely related, and sometimes you need to start from a position of skepticism to arrive at the truth.

the best art conceals art: Artistic excellence lies in making something that is subtle or intricate in construction appear simple and streamlined.

a bellowing cow soon forgets her calf: The loudest laments or complaints are often the first to subside; used specifically of those whose mourning seems excessive.

the best is the enemy of the good: By constantly striving for the best we risk destroying, or failing to produce, something good.

the best of men are but men at best: Even the greatest people have their failings and limitations.

the best things in life are free: The most rewarding or satisfying experiences in life are often those that cost nothing; also used of the wonders of nature or of abstract qualities such as health and friendship.

the best things come in small packages: Size has no bearing on quality, and a small container may hold something of great value; often said by or to a short person.

be the day weary or be the day long, at last it ringeth to evensong: No matter how tiring or stressful a day you are having, you can console yourself with the fact that it will eventually be over; also used more generally to recommend perseverance or endurance in a trying situation.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

it's a long road that has no turning; the longest day must have an end.

better a good cow than a cow of a good : A person's character is of more importance than his or her family background.

better a big fish in a little pond than a little fish in a big pond: It is better to have a position of importance in a small organization than to be an unimportant member of a large group.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

better be the head of a dog than the tail of a lion.

better a little fire to warm us than a big one to burn us: Sometimes it is more desirable to have only a small amount of something.

better a dinner of herbs where love is than a stalled ox where hate is: It is better to be poor or dine badly in a loving environment than to eat well or have a wealthy lifestyle in an atmosphere of discord or hatred.

better the devil you know than the devil you don't know: It is often preferable to choose or stay with people or things you know, despite their faults, than to risk replacing them with somebody or something new but possibly less desirable.

better one house spoiled than two: It is a good thing for two bad, foolish, or otherwise undesirable people to become husband and wife and thus avoid causing trouble in two separate marriages.

beware of an oak, it draws the stroke; avoid an ash, it counts the flash; creep under the thorn, it can save you from harm: It is dangerous to shelter from lightning under the oak, ash, or other trees.

beware of Greeks bearing gifts: It is wise to be suspicious of offers or friendly gestures made by enemies or opponents.

a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush: Something you have for certain now is of more value than better you may get, especially if you risk losing what you have in order to get it.

birds in their little nests agree; People who live or work together should try to do so in harmony; often used to stop children from arguing.

birth is much but breeding more: A person's upbringing counts for more in the long run than the traits of character he or she was born with.

birds of a feather flock together: People tend to associate with those of similar character, interests, or opinions; often used with derogatory implications.

the biter is sometimes bit : Those who criticize or otherwise set about others are not immune from criticism or other attack themselves.

a bleating sheep loses a bite: Those who talk too much may miss an important opportunity.

a blind man's wife needs no Paint : Attempts to improve the appearance of somebody or something are superfluous when it is the true nature of the person or thing that is of value, or when the improvements will not be appreciated.

blood is thicker than water: Bonds of loyalty and affection between members of the same family are much stronger than any other relationship.

blessings brighten as they take their flight: People often fail to appreciate the good things that they have until they lose them.

blood will have blood: One act of violence provokes another, by way of revenge: blood will tell Inherited characteristics—whether good or bad—cannot be hidden forever.

boys will be boys: Boys must be forgiven for their bad or boisterous behavior; also used ironically when grown men behave in an irresponsible or childish manner.

burn not your house to scare away the mice: Do not try to solve a minor problem by taking action that will cause much greater harm.

a bribe will enter without knocking: The use of money enables access where it would otherwise be denied.

the busiest men have the most leisure: People who are industrious by nature always seem to have the most spare time, either because they accomplish their work more quickly and efficiently or because they cram so much into their busy lives.

busy folks are always meddling: It is in the nature of busy people to interfere in the affairs of others.

C

Caesar's wife must be above suspicion: Those in positions of importance—and their associates—must lead blameless lives and have spotless reputations.

call a spade a spade: Identify things by their real names; do not prevaricate about awkward truths; say what you mean.

calamity is the touchstone of a brave mind: It is at times of crisis that you find out who the truly strong, courageous, or great people are.

call a man a thief and he will steal: Give a person a bad reputation and he or she may start to justify it.

a cat can look at a king: Even the lowliest people have the right to look at, or show an interest in, those of higher status or prestige; often used by somebody accused of staring insolently.

care is no cure: Worrying about something does nothing to put it right.

catching's before hanging: Offenders can only be punished when or if they are caught.

catch not at the shadow and lose the substance: Do not allow yourself to be distracted from your main purpose by irrelevancies.

a cat in gloves catches no mice: It is sometimes necessary to be bold or ruthless, or to do unpleasant things, in order to achieve one's ends.

a chain is no stronger than its weakest link: A weak part or member will affect the success or effectiveness of the whole.

the cat would eat fish, but would not wet her feet: You must be prepared to put up with personal inconvenience, discomfort, or risk in order to get what you want; often used when somebody is hesitant about doing something for this reason.

a change is as good as a rest: Doing something different for a time can be just as refreshing as taking a break from work; also used more generally of any change in routine.

charity is not a bone you throw to a dog but a bone you share with a dog: There should be more to charity than simply giving money or other material goods—it is better to establish a relationship with those in need and to work with them for the benefit of all concerned.

children and fools speak the truth: Children and foolish people have a tendency to say what is true, because they have not learned that it may be advantageous or diplomatic to do otherwise.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

give me a child for the first seven years and he is mine for life.

the child is father of the man: A child's character is an indication of the type of adult he or she will become—human nature does not change from youth to maturity.

children are certain cares, but uncertain comforts: Children are bound to cause their parents anxiety, and may or may not also bring them joy.

circumstances alter cases: The same general principle cannot be applied to every individual case, and what is right, good, or appropriate in one set of circumstances may be wrong in another.

Christmas comes but once a year: Extravagance and self-indulgence at Christmas—or any other annual celebration—can be justified by the fact that it is a relatively infrequent occurrence.

the clock goes as it pleases the clerk: It is up to civil servants and other bureaucrats how time is governed and spent.

coming events cast their shadows before: Future events, especially those of some significance, can often be predicted from the warning signs that precede them.

common fame is seldom to blame: Rumors are rarely without substance, and if unpleasant things are being said about somebody, then that person has probably done something to deserve them.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

there's no smoke without fire; what everybody says must be true.

confess and be hanged: There is little incentive for confession when punishment is the inevitable result; used as justification for not owning up to wrongdoing.

the company makes the feast: You will enjoy a meal or celebration far more if you are among cheerful friendly people, and the quality of the food and drink—or of the surroundings—is of lesser importance.

conscience gets a lot of credit that belongs to cold feet : Something commended as an act of conscience may be simply due to cowardice or loss of nerve.

councils of war never fight: When a number of people get together to discuss something important, they rarely decide on a drastic course of action.

courage is fear that has said its prayers: A brave person is not necessarily fearless, but has drawn strength from religion or some other source.

courtesy is contagious: If you are polite to other people, then they will be polite to you.

the cowl does not make the monk: Do not judge a person's character by his or her outward appearance or behavior.

a creaking door hangs longest: Those who have many minor ailments and infirmities often outlive those who don't.

cream always comes to the top: People of great worth or quality will ultimately enjoy high achievement or public recognition.

crosses are ladders that lead to heaven: Suffering and misfortune often bring out the best in a person's character.

crime doesn't pay: Criminal activity may seem to be profitable, at least in the short term, but it ultimately leads to far greater loss—of liberty, or even of life; used as a deterrent slogan.

cross the stream where it is shallowest : Always take the easiest possible approach to doing something.

crime must be concealed by crime: One crime often leads to another, committed to avoid detection of the first.

curses, like chickens, come home to roost: Wrongdoers ultimately have to suffer the consequences of their bad deeds; also used when those who have wished evil on others are struck by misfortune themselves.

cut your coat according to your cloth: Match your actions to your resources, and do not try to live beyond your means.

D

the danger past and God forgotten: People are prone to calling on God in times of trouble, only to forget all about their newly found religious faith as soon as the crisis is past.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
man's extremity is god's opportunity

dead men don't bite: A dead person can no longer do others any harm; often used to justify murder.

dead men tell no tales: It may be expedient to kill somebody who could betray a secret or give information about the criminal activities of others.

death is the great leveler: People of all ranks and classes are equal in death, and nobody is exempt from dying.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
equality begins in the grave.

desert and reward seldom keep company :People are often not rewarded for their good deeds or meritorious behavior; conversely, those who do receive rewards have often done nothing to deserve them.

desperate diseases must have desperate remedies: Drastic action is called for—and justified—when you find yourself in a particularly difficult situation.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

killing no murder.

the devil dances in an empty pocket :The poor are easily tempted to do evil.

the devil finds work for idle hands to do:Idle people may find themselves tempted into wrongdoing.

the devil looks after his own: Bad or undeserving people often prosper and thrive; said in response to the success or good fortune of such a person.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

the devil's children have the devil's luck.Bad people often have good luck;usually said with envy rather than malice on hearing of somebody's good fortune:

the devil is in the details; The details of something are of paramount importance, and you should always examine or pay attention to them in any proposition you are considering or any project you undertake.

the devil is not as black as he is painted: People are rarely as bad as others say they are; often used in defense of a specific person.

the devil was sick, the devil a saint would be; the devil was well, the devil a saint was he: People often turn to religion or promise to reform when they are ill or in trouble, only to revert to their former ways as soon as the crisis is over.

the difficult is done at once, the impossible takes a little longer: Difficult tasks present no problem, and even those that seem impossible will ultimately be accomplished; used as a motto or policy statement, as in commerce.

diamond cuts diamond: The only match for a very sharp-witted or cunning person is somebody of equally sharp wit or great cunning.

discretion is the better part of valor: It is often wiser to avoid taking an unnecessary risk than to be recklessly courageous.

do as I say, not as I do: Do what somebody tells or advises you to do rather than what that person actually does himself or herself.

Proverbs expressing opposite meaning:

example is better than precept; a good example is the best sermon.

the dog always returns to his vomit: People always return to the scene of their crime or wrongdoing.

the dogs bark, but the caravan goes on; The warnings or protests of those in lowly positions are often ignored by those in power and are not allowed to stand in the way of progress.

a dog that will fetch a bone will carry a bone: Beware of people who bring you gossip about others, because they are equally likely to pass on gossip about you.

don't bite the hand that feeds you: do not behave unkindly or ungratefully toward those on whom you depend for financial or other support.

don't cry before you're hurt :There is no point in upsetting yourself about something bad that may or may not happen.

don't cut off your nose to spite your face: Do not take action to spite others that will harm you more than them.

don't get mad, get even :Take positive action to retaliate for a wrong that has been done to you, rather than wasting your time and energy in angry recriminations.

don't hide your light under a bushel: If you have special skills or talents, do not conceal them through modesty and prevent others from appreciating or benefiting from them.

don't let the fox guard the hen house: Do not put somebody in a position where he or she will be tempted to wrongdoing.

don't overload gratitude; if you do, she'll kick: When people are grateful to you, do not take excessive advantage of the situation, because any sense of obligation has its limits.

don't put the cart before the horse: It is important to do things in the right or natural order; also used when people confuse cause and effect:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

first things first.

don't shout until you are out of the woods :Avoid any show of triumph or relief until you are sure that a period of difficulty or danger is over.

don't take down a fence unless you are sure why it was put up: Most things were constructed or established for a purpose, and it is unwise to destroy or dismantle them unless you are certain that they are not longer required.

don't talk the talk if you can't walk the walk: Don't boast of something if you are unwilling or unable to back it up by your actions.

don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs: Do not presume to give advice or instruction to those who are older and more experienced than you.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

they that live longest see most.

don't wash your dirty linen in public: Do not discuss private disputes or family scandals in public.

don't wish too hard; you might just get what you wished for: Beware of wishing for something too much, because you might not like it when you get it.

don't throw good money after bad: If you have already spent money on a venture that seems likely to fail, do not waste any further money on it.

don't throw out the baby with the bathwater: Do not take the drastic step of abolishing or discarding something in its entirety when only part of it is unacceptable.

a dose of adversity is often as needful as a dose of medicine: Hardship and misfortune may be unpleasant, but they can sometimes have a beneficial effect on the character, especially when people fail to appreciate the good things they have.

dream of a funeral and you hear of a marriage: According to popular superstition, if you dream about a funeral you will shortly receive news that somebody of your acquaintance is to be married:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

dreams go by contraries.

a dripping June sets all in tune: A rainy June means there will be a good harvest of crops and flowers later in the summer:

drive gently over the stones: Take a cautious and delicate approach to any problems or difficulties you encounter in life.

a dwarf on a giant's shoulders sees further of the two: Those who build on the breakthroughs of their predecessors surpass their achievements.

E

easy come, easy go: Things that are easily acquired, especially money, are just as easily lost or spent.

East is East and West is West and never the twain shall meet: People who are very different in background or outlook are likely never to agree.

an empty sack cannot stand upright: People who are poor or hungry cannot survive, work effectively, or remain honest.

education doesn't come by bumping your head against the schoolhouse: Education can only be acquired by studying, and by listening and talking to teachers.

empty vessels make the most sound: Foolish people are the most talkative; often used as a put-down to somebody who chatters incessantly.

the end justifies the means: Any course of action, however immoral or unscrupulous, is justifiable if it achieves a worthy objective.

enough is as good as a feast: A moderate amount is sufficient; often said by somebody who does not want any more.

even a worm will turn: Even the most humble or submissive person will ultimately respond in anger to excessive harassment or exploitation.

everybody has his fifteen minutes of fame: Most people will find themselves briefly in the public eye at least once in their lives.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
every dog has his day.

even a blind pig occasionally picks up an acorn: An incompetent person or an unsystematic approach is bound to succeed every now and then by chance.

everybody's business is nobody's business: Matters that are of general concern, but are the responsibility of nobody in particular, tend to get neglected because everybody thinks that somebody else should deal with them.

everybody talks about the weather, but nobody does anything about it : People are always ready to complain about a problem but never willing to solve it.

everybody to whom much is given, of him will much be required: More is expected of those who have received more—that is, those who have had good fortune, are naturally gifted, or have been shown special favor.

everybody's queer but you and me, and even you are a little queer: There are times when it seems that you are the only normal or sane person in the world.

every bullet has its billet: In a life threatening situation, destiny decides who will die and who will survive.

every dog is allowed one bite: Somebody may be forgiven for a single misdemeanor, provided that it does not happen again

every herring must hang by its own gill; Everybody must take responsibility for his or her own actions.

every horse thinks its own pack heaviest: Everybody thinks that he or she has harder work, greater misfortune, or more problems than others.

every employee tends to rise to his level of incompetence :People in a hierarchical organization are promoted until they reach a position that is just beyond their capabilities; this cynical observation implies that nobody is fit to do the work he or she is employed to do.

every man for himself and the devil take the hindmost : In highly competitive or dangerous situations, you must guard or pursue your own interests with ruthless disregard for those who are falling behind or struggling to cope.

every man after his fashion; Every individual must follow his or her own inclination.

every man must skin his own skunk: People should be self-reliant and not depend on others to do things—especially unpleasant tasks—for them.

every man thinks his own geese swans: Everybody tends to rate his or her own children, possessions, or achievements more highly than others would do.

every picture tells a story: Meaning is often conveyed by people's actions, movements, gestures, or facial expressions without the need for words.

every soldier has the baton of a field marshal in his knapsack :A common soldier, or any other worker, may aspire to senior rank.

every tub must stand on its own bottom: People should be self-sufficient and not dependent on others, financially or otherwise.

evil communications corrupt good manners: Good people can be led astray by listening to bad ideas, associating with bad people, or following a bad example.

the exception proves the rule: The existence of an exception to a rule shows that the rule itself exists and is applicable in other cases; often used loosely to explain away any such inconsistency.

evil doers are evil dreaders: Criminals and other wrongdoers have a tendency to fear and suspect all those around them; sometimes used to imply that a distrustful person has something on his or her conscience.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
do right and fear no man.

extremes meet: People and things that seem to be diametrically opposed are often found to have a point of contact.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
opposites attract.

experience is the teacher of fools; It is foolish to learn—or to expect other people to learn—solely by making mistakes; also used with the implication that wise people learn from others' mistakes rather than their own.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
learn from the mistakes of others.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:
experience is the best teacher.

F

fact is stranger than fiction: Things that happen in real life are often far more unlikely than those dreamed up by writers.

fancy passes beauty: It is more important that a potential partner is likeable than good-looking.

fear lends wings: Fear inspires extra speed in those attempting to escape whatever threatens them.

a fat kitchen makes a lean will: Those who eat well all their lives will have little money left when they die.

feed a cold and starve a fever : You should eat well when you have a cold but fast when you have a fever:

the female of the species is deadlier than the male: Women often prove to be more dangerous than men, when roused to anger.

fields have eyes and woods have ears: There are very few places where you can do or say something without the risk of being seen or overheard.

fine words butter no parsnips: Promises or compliments are pleasant to hear but serve no practical purpose unless they are backed up by action.

first catch your hare: Do not act in anticipation of something that is yet to be achieved.

the first hundred years are the hardest: Life will always be difficult; said jocularly or ironically to those who complain about their problems, sometimes with the implication that things will improve eventually.

fish or cut bait : The time has come to choose between two courses of action—either get on with what you have to do, or go away and let somebody else do it:.

first try and then trust: Before relying upon something (or someone), it is best to test it first.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

trust not one night's ice.

a fish stinks from the head : A corrupting influence often spreads from a leader to the rest of the organization or group.

food without hospitality is medicine: It is hard to enjoy refreshments that are offered with ill grace, or without friendly companionship.

flattery, like perfume, should be smelled but not swallowed: There is no harm in taking pleasure from flattery, but do not make the mistake of believing it.

a fool at forty is a fool indeed: People who have not gained the wisdom of experience by the time they reach middle age are likely to remain fools for the rest of their lives:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

there's no fool like an old fool.

a foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds: A lack of flexibility in making judgments is regarded as a sign of petty narrow-mindedness.

fools and children should never see half done work: You should not judge the quality of a piece of work until it is complete, because it often appears unpromising in its unfinished form; sometimes said in response to criticism, or as a reason for not letting such work be seen.

a fool may give a wise man counsel: People are often able to give good advice to those who are considered to be intellectually superior; sometimes said apologetically by the giver of such advice, or used as a warning against disregarding it.

a fool's bolt is soon shot: Foolish people act hastily and thus waste their efforts.
Proverb expressing similar meaning:
hasty climbers have sudden falls.

footprints on the sands of time are not made by sitting down: People who idle their lives away will not make a lasting impression on history or be remembered for their great achievements; used as a spur to action and industry.

fools build houses and wise men live in them: The cost of building property is such that those who build houses cannot afford to live in them, and have to sell them to recoup their losses; also applied to other things that are expensive to produce

forbidden fruit is sweet : Things that you must not have or do are always the most desirable.

for want of a nail the shoe was lost, for want of a shoe the horse was lost, and for want of a horse the rider was lost: Do not neglect minor details that seem insignificant in themselves.

four eyes see more than two: Two people keeping watch, supervising, or searching have a better chance of noticing or finding something.

from the sweetest wine, the tartest vinegar: Great love may turn to the intense hatred; also used of other changes of feeling or nature from one extreme to the other.

G

garbage in, garbage out: A person or machine provided with inferior source material, faulty instructions, or erroneous information can produce only poor-quality work or rubbish.

the game is not worth the candle: It is not worth persisting in an enterprise that is unlikely to yield enough profit or benefit to compensate for the effort or expense involved, or that carries a risk, actual harm or loss.

gather ye rosebuds while ye may: Live life to the full while you are still young enough to enjoy it.

genius is an infinite capacity for taking pains: What appears to be a product

of superior intellectual power is often simply the result of great assiduity and meticulous attention to detail.

give a beggar a horse and he'll ride it to death: People who suddenly acquire wealth or power are likely to misuse it.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

set a beggar on horseback, and he'll ride to the devil.

give a loaf and beg a slice: People who are too generous risk having to beg themselves.

give and take is fair play: Exchanging like for like—whether it be a blow, an insult, a favor, or a pardon—is a fair and legitimate way to proceed.

give a man an inch and he'll take a mile: People are inclined to take excessive advantage of the tolerance or generosity of others; often used to warn against making even the smallest concession.

give a thing, and take a thing, to wear the devil's gold ring: It is wrong to take back a gift.

give a man enough rope and he'll hang himself: People who are given complete freedom of action will ultimately bring about their own downfall, for example by inadvertently revealing their guilt.

go abroad and you'll hear news of home : People often remain ignorant of matters concerning their family and friends, or events in their own neighborhood, until they go traveling, when they hear about them at second hand.

give the devil his due: People deserve recognition for their skills and contributions even if they are otherwise unworthy or unlikable.

God made the country and man made the town : The urban environment, constructed by human hands, is inferior to the natural countryside, which is the work of divine creation.

God never sends mouths but he sends meat: God can be relied upon to provide for everybody.

God sends meat, but the devil sends cooks : Good food can be ruined by a bad cook.

God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb: Weak or vulnerable people have divine protection from the worst misfortunes; also used when such people are treated with compassion by their fellow human beings.

the gods send nuts to those who have no teeth: Opportunities or good fortune often come too late in life for people to enjoy them or take full advantage of them; also applied more generally to people of any age who are unable to use or benefit from good things that come their way.

go farther and fare worse: If you reject something acceptable in the hope of finding something better, you may end up having to settle for something worse.

the golden age was never the present age: The past and the future always seem infinitely preferable to the present time.

a golden key can open any door: With money you can gain access to anything you want; used specifically of bribery, or more generally of the power and influence of wealth.

gold may be bought too dear: Wealth is not worth having if there is too great a risk or sacrifice involved in acquiring it.

a good face is a letter of recommendation: An honest demeanor may be interpreted as a sign of a person's integrity.

good fences make good neighbors: A good relationship between neighbors depends on each respecting the other's privacy and not entering his or her property uninvited; also used more broadly of international relations and the need to maintain trade barriers and border controls.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
a hedge between keeps friendship green.

a good dog deserves a good bone: A loyal servant or employee deserves his reward.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
the laborer is worthy of his hire.

a good horse cannot be of a bad color : Superficial appearances do not affect the essential worth of something.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:
appearances are deceiving; judge not according to appearances.

a good Jack makes a good Jill: People who live or work together should set a good example to each other—a good husband will have a good wife, a good master will have a good servant, and so on.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
a good husband makes a good wife.

a good name is better than precious ointment: Your good name should be your most cherished possession.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

a good reputation is more valuable than money.

a good tale is not the worse for being told twice: There is no harm in telling a good joke or anecdote—or a story with a moral—a second time; often used by way of apology or justification for such repetition.

good riddance to bad rubbish: We are better off without worthless people or things; usually said on the departure of such a person or the loss of such a thing.

gossip is the lifeblood of society: Social intercourse thrives on gossip—if people stopped talking about each other they might stop talking to each other.

good wine needs no bush: A good product does not need advertising.

grace will last, beauty will blast: A good character will outlive superficial physical attractiveness.

a goose quill is more dangerous than a lion's claw: Written words of criticism or defamation can do more harm or cause more pain than a physical attack.

a great city, a great solitude: People often feel more lonely in a large city, among thousands of strangers, than they would do if they were actually alone.

the gray mare is the better horse: A woman is often more competent or powerful than a man; used specifically of wives who have the upper hand over their husbands.

the greater the truth, the greater the libel: Some people will take greater offense at a true accusation of wrongdoing than at a false one.

great men have great faults: Remarkable people tend to have serious character flaws.

a great book is a great evil: A long book is a bad book—good writers know how to express themselves concisely.

great trees keep down little ones: The predominance of a particular person, company, nation, etc., results in lesser rivals being kept in the shade.

a growing youth has a wolf in his stomach: Adolescent boys are perpetually hungry.

H

half the truth is often a whole lie: Not telling the whole truth, or saying something that is only partly true, is tantamount to lying.

happy is the bride that the sun shines on: According to popular superstition, a woman who has a sunny wedding day will have a happy marriage.

the hand that rocks the cradle rules the world: Mothers have a powerful influence—if indirectly—on world affairs, because it is they who mold the characters of future leaders.

hanging and wiving go by destiny : Some people are fated to marry each other, just as some are fated to be hanged.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
marriages are made in heaven.

happy is the country that has no history: It is a happy or fortunate country that has no unpleasant events worth recording in its past.

hard cases make bad law: Cases that are complex or difficult to decide often cause the true meaning of the law to be distorted or obscured and sometimes lead to what is perceived as a miscarriage of justice.

hard words break no bones: Adverse criticism or verbal abuse may be unpleasant, but it does no physical harm.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
sticks and stones may break my bones, but words will never hurt me.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:
the tongue is not steel, but it cuts.

hawks will not pick out hawks' eyes: People who belong to the same group will not—or should not—harm one another.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:
dog does not eat dog; there's honor among thieves.

hear all, see all, say nowt: It is sometimes prudent to listen and watch carefully, but say nothing.

heads I win, tails you lose: In some situations it is impossible for one person not to be a winner—or impossible for another person not to be a loser—whatever the outcome.

he gives twice who gives quickly: A prompt response to a request for something, such as money or help, is of greater value than a more generous offering given late.

a heavy purse makes a light heart: Those who have plenty of money are happy and carefree.

he comes too early who brings bad news: People are never in a hurry to hear bad news.

hell hath no fury like a woman scorned: A woman who is rejected by the man she loves has an immense capacity for ferocious or malicious revenge.

he that complies against his will is of his own opinion still: By forcing somebody to do something, or to admit that something is true, you have not actually succeeded in changing that person's mind.

help you to salt, help you to sorrow : According to popular superstition, it is unlucky to add salt to another person's food at table.

he that has a full purse never wanted a friend: Wealthy people never lack friends—or those who claim to be their friends until their money runs out.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

a rich man's joke is always funny; wealth makes many friends.

he that is down need fear no fall; Those in lowly positions, or who have already fallen from lofty positions, have no need to worry about failure.

he that is too secure is not safe: Beware of complacency—you must remain alert and watchful if you want to avoid danger:

he that lives in hope dances to an ill tune: It is unwise to let your future happiness or well-being depend on expectations that may not be realized.

he that will not when he may, when he will he may have nay: Take advantage of an opportunity when it presents itself, even if you do not want or need it at the time, because it may no longer be available when you do.

he that lives on hope will die fasting: do not pin all your hopes on something you may not attain, because you could end up with nothing.

he that will thrive must first ask his wife: A married man's financial situation, his success or failure in business, and the like often depend on the behavior and disposition of his wife.

he that touches pitch shall be defiled: If you get involved with wicked people or illegal activities, you cannot avoid becoming corrupted yourself.

he that would go to sea for pleasure would go to hell for a pastime: A sailor's life can be so unpleasant and dangerous, it seems that those who choose spend their leisure hours at sea must be either masochistic or insane.

he that would hang his dog gives out first that he is mad: Those who are planning some action that might attract criticism first seek to justify it in advance.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

give a dog a bad name and hang him.

he that would have eggs must endure the cackling of hens: You must be prepared to put up with something unpleasant or annoying in order to get what you want; also used of an undesirable aspect or drawback that accompanies something.

he who fights and runs away may live to fight another day: It is wiser to withdraw from a situation that you cannot win than to go on fighting and lose—by a strategic retreat you can return to the battle or argument with renewed energy at a later date.

he who laughs last, laughs longest: Minor successes or failures along the way are of no significance—the person who is ultimately triumphant is the only real winner; often used when somebody turns the tables with a final act of retaliation.

he who sups with the devil should have a long spoon: Those who have dealings with wicked, dangerous, or dishonest people should remain on their guard and try not to become too intimately involved.

he who pays the piper calls the tune: The person who pays for a service or finances a project has the right to say how it should be done.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

whose bread i eat, his song i sing.

he who wills the end, wills the means: Those who are determined to achieve something are equally determined to find a way of achieving it.

he who rides a tiger is afraid to dismount: When you are in a dangerous situation, or have embarked on a dangerous course of action, it is often safer to continue than to try to stop or withdraw.

he who would write and can't write can surely review: People who become critics are those who lack the talent to be novelists, dramatists, or other kinds of artists in their own right; used in response to a bad review.

the highest branch is not the safest roost: Those in the highest positions of power or authority are, in some respects, the most vulnerable, because there will always be plenty of others eager to take their place or cause their downfall.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

the post of honor is the post of danger; uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

better be first in a village than second at rome.

the higher the monkey climbs the more he shows his tail: People's faults and shortcomings become increasingly obvious as they advance to positions of high office.

history is a fable agreed upon: History represents the traditionally accepted interpretation of what actually happened in the past.

history repeats itself: Similar events tend to recur in different periods of history—for example, when rulers or governments fail to learn from the mistakes of those who have gone before; also used when some more trivial or personal incident recurs.

the hole calls the thief: Criminals and other wrong-doers will go where opportunity presents itself.

home is home, be it ever so homely: However simple or lowly a person's abode may be, it is still his or her home and therefore the best place to be.

hitch your wagon to a star: You must be ambitious, and aim to achieve the highest possible goal; also used as advice to cultivate the acquaintance of powerful, successful, or influential people who can help to advance your interests.

honest men marry quickly, wise men not at all: Honest men marry without hesitation, seeing no threat in a wife, but wise men know better.

Homer sometimes nods: Even the greatest minds have lapses of attention, leading to mistakes; often used as an excuse for error:

honors change manners :People who improve their status in society all too often become arrogant.

horses for courses: Different people have different strengths and talents, and each person should be assigned to the task or job that is best suited to that particular individual.

hope is a good breakfast but a bad supper: There is no harm in being optimistic at the beginning of something, but beware of being left with nothing but unrealized expectations at the end.

hope springs eternal in the human breast: It is human nature to remain optimistic—even after a setback, or despite evidence to the contrary.

an hour in the morning is worth two in the evening: People are at their most efficient early in the day, when they are refreshed by sleep.

a horse can't pull while kicking: People engaged in acts of insubordination or protest cannot work efficiently or productively.

hunger drives the wolf out of the wood :People in dire need are forced to do things that would be unwise or undesirable in other circumstances.

hunger is the best sauce: Hunger makes all food taste good, regardless of its quality or the way it is served.

the house shows the owner: A person's character is revealed by the state of his or her house.

a house without books is like a room without windows: Books brighten and enlighten our daily lives in the same way that windows brighten and illuminate a room.

humble hearts have humble desires: People with timid characters tend to have modest ambitions.

a hungry stomach has no ears: There is no point in talking to or reasoning with hungry people, or those who are greedily devouring their food.

hurry no man's cattle: Do not try to make others hurry or rush because you are impatient.

I

if and an spoils many a good charter: Excellent plans may be doomed to failure because of the conditions that come with them.

if it looks like a duck, walks like a duck, and quacks like a duck, it's a duck :It is usually safe to identify somebody as a particular type of person when his or her appearance, behavior, and words all point to the same conclusion.

if one sheep leaps over the ditch, all the rest will follow :Where one person sets an example by doing something risky or dangerous others are likely to follow.

if two ride on a horse, one must ride behind: When two people undertake a joint activity or enterprise, one of them invariably takes the lead and the other has to be content with a more subordinate role; also used of a fight argument, where only one can win and the other must lose or surrender.

if the shoe fits, wear it: If it seems that a critical remark applies to you, then you must accept it; often said when somebody's response to a general remark suggests that it is appropriate to that particular person.

if the sky falls, we shall catch larks: Do not make plans based on things that cannot possibly happen.

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

if a pig had wings, it might fly; if ifs and ans were pots and pans, there'd be no work for tinkers; if wishes were horses, beggars would ride.

if wishes were horses, beggars would ride :There is no point in indulging in wishful thinking.

if you can't run with the big dogs, stay under the porch: If you lack the strength, courage, skill, or experience to compete with the major players—in politics, business, or any other field—then it is better not to try at all.

if you can't bite, never show your teeth: Do not make empty threats; also used to warn against making a show of aggression when you unable to defend yourself.

if you don't like it, you can lump it :Whether or not you like what is offered or approve of what is proposed, you will have to put up with it.

if you pay peanuts, you get monkeys: Competent and highly qualified people will not work for derisory fees or wages.

if you've got it, flaunt it: Those who have wealth, beauty, or talent should not be ashamed to show it off; used as an excuse for ostentation.

if you want peace, prepare for war :A nation that is seen to be ready and able to defend itself—for example, with strong armed forces and powerful weapons—is less likely to be attacked.

ignorance is a voluntary misfortune: Everybody has the opportunity to acquire knowledge, so you have only yourself to blame if you remain ignorant.

ill weeds grow apace: Worthless people or evil things have a tendency to flourish where better ones fail.

in for a penny, in for a pound: Once you have committed yourself to something, you might as well do it wholeheartedly and see it through to the end.

in politics a man must learn to rise above principle: A successful politician cannot afford to have too many scruples; a cynical observation.

in war there is no substitute for victory: A war is only truly won by total defeat of the enemy, not by diplomatic negotiations or compromise.

it never rains but it pours: One setback, misfortune, or other undesirable occurrence is inevitably followed by many more; also occasionally used of pleasant things, such as a run of good luck.

it's a foolish sheep that makes the wolf his confessor : Do not confide in somebody unless you are certain that he or she can be trusted.

it's all in a day's work: Unpleasant things have to be accepted as part of the daily routine; also used to play down a major achievement or a heroic act by implying that it is just part of your job.

it's an ill bird that fouls its own nest: You should not say or do anything that will bring discredit or harm to your own family or country.

it's a poor dog that's not worth whistling for: Everybody has some value, or some redeeming feature.

it's better to be happy than wise: Happiness is more important than wisdom, knowledge, or learning.

it's better to be right than in the majority; Do not follow or side with the majority, just for the sake of conformity, if you believe them to be wrong.

it's better to lose the battle and win the war: It is sometimes prudent or expedient to concede a minor point in an argument or dispute in order to gain the overall victory.

it's easy to find a stick to beat a dog: It is easy to find some reason or excuse to justify a critical attack or a harsh punishment.

it's dogged as does it: Anything can be done with determination and perseverance.

it's good to make a bridge of gold to a flying enemy: Retreating enemies will kill or destroy anybody or anything that stands in their way, so it is advisable to give them free passage.

it's ill speaking between a full man and a fasting: Hungry people are not on the best of terms with those who have eaten their fill.

it's idle to swallow the cow and choke on the tail: Once you have completed the major part of an enterprise or undertaking, it is foolish not to see it through to the end.

it's ill waiting for dead men's shoes: It is not good to be impatiently awaiting somebody's death or retirement to get what you want, such as an inheritance or promotion.

it's ill jesting with edged tools: Do not trifle with dangerous things or people.

it's ill sitting at Rome and striving with the Pope: It is foolish or pointless to quarrel or fight with somebody who has supreme power in the place where you are.

it's not the end of the world: Things are not as disastrous as they seem; said in recurrence, such as after a minor mishap.

it's the last straw that breaks the camel's back: When somebody is close to his or her limit of patience or endurance, it takes only one little extra thing to make the whole load too much to bear.

it takes a village to raise a child: The whole community plays a part in the upbringing of the children that live there.

it takes one to know one: Only those with similar flaws are capable of spotting them in others.

it takes two to tango: In a situation involving cooperation or joint action, both participants must work together and share the responsibility for what happens.

J

a jackass can kick a barn door down, but it takes a carpenter to build one: Something that has taken time, skill, and effort to put together can be quickly ruined or destroyed by a foolish person.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
it's easier to tear down than to build up.

jam tomorrow and jam yesterday, but never jam today: Good times always seem to belong to the past or to the future, but never to the present.

a jack of all trades is master of none: Somebody who has a very wide range of abilities or skills usually does not excel at any of them.

jesters do oft prove prophets: A prediction made in jest often comes true.

Jove but laughs at lovers' perjury: The breaking of oaths and promises made by lovers is so commonplace that it is not regarded as a serious matter:

justice is blind: Justice must be dispensed with objectivity and without regard to irrelevant details or circumstances.

K

keep a thing seven years and you'll find a use for it: An object that seems useless now may be just what you need at some future time, so do not discard it.

keep your eyes wide open before marriage, half shut afterward : You should choose your husband or wife with care, but be prepared to overlook his or her faults after the wedding day.

killing no murder: Sometimes circumstances make extreme actions forgivable.

kings have long arms: Few people, places, or things are beyond the reach of those in authority, and it is not easy for an offender to escape capture or punishment.

kissing goes by favor: People often bestow honors and privileges on those they like, rather than on those who are most worthy of them.

the king can do no wrong: People in authority are not bound by the rules and regulations that apply to others; specifically, a monarch is above the law.

knowledge and timber shouldn't be much used until they are seasoned: Knowledge is not useful until it is tempered by experience.

L

the laborer is worthy of his hire: Those who work for others are entitled to be paid for their efforts.

the last drop makes the cup run over: One final additional thing may push a person beyond his or her limit of tolerance or endurance.

late children, early orphans: Children to older parents run a greater risk of being orphaned before they reach adulthood

least said, soonest mended : The less you say, the less likely you are to cause trouble; often used to discourage somebody from complaining, apologizing, arguing, or making excuses.

lend your money and lose your friend: You risk losing your friends by lending them money, either because they fail to repay the loan or because they resent being asked to repay it.

length begets loathing: Nobody likes a long-winded speaker or writer.

leave well enough alone: Do not try to change or improve something that is satisfactory as it stands.

less is more: A work of art, piece of writing, or other creative endeavor can be made more elegant or effective by reducing ornamentation and avoiding excess.

let the cobbler stick to his last: People should not offer advice, make criticisms, or otherwise interfere in matters outside their own area of knowledge or expertise.

let them laugh that win : Do not rejoice until you are certain of victory or success.

let your head save your heels: You can avoid wasted journeys on foot by careful planning or forethought, such as by combining errands.

let the dead bury the dead: Do not concern yourself with things that are past and gone.

a lie can go around the world and back again while the truth is lacing up its boots: False rumors travel with alarming speed.

a liar is worse than a thief: People who lie are even less trustworthy than people who steal.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

show me a liar and i will show you
a thief.

life is hard by the yard, but by the inch life's a cinch: Life is less overwhelming if you take it one step at a time.

liberty is not licence [license]: Freedom does not mean that a person can do whatever he or she wants.

light gains make heavy purses: It is possible to become rich by making small profits.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

take care of the pennies and the dollars will take care of themselves.

lightning never strikes twice in the same place: The same unpleasant or unexpected phenomenon will not recur in the same place or circumstances, or happen to the same person again; a superstition that often leads to a false sense of security.

like people, like priest: The quality of a spiritual leader can be judged by the behavior of his or her followers.

the lion is not so fierce as he is painted: Some people have reputations that far exceed their real characters.

listeners never hear any good of themselves: People: who eavesdrop on the conversations of others risk hearing unfavorable comments about themselves; used as a warning or reprimand.

a little absence does much good: A short period of absence can have a surprisingly beneficial effect.

little birds that can sing and won't sing must be made to sing: Those who refuse to tell what they know must be forced to do so; also interpreted more literally.

little fish are sweet: The smallest things are sometimes the most desirable or acceptable; used specifically of something received, bought, or otherwise acquired.

a little pot is soon hot: Small people are reputed to be more easily angered than others.

little strokes fell great oaks: Great things can be achieved in small stages, or with persistent effort.

little thieves are hanged, but great ones escape: It is often the case that petty criminals are brought to justice, while those involved in more serious crimes succeed in evading capture and punishment.

little pitchers have big ears: Children miss little of what is said in their hearing; often used as a warning.

little things please little minds: Foolish people are easily pleased; said contemptuously to or of somebody who is amused by something childish or trivial.

the longest way around is the shortest way home: It is best to do things carefully and thoroughly rather than trying to cut corners.

long foretold, long last; short notice, soon past : A change in the weather that is predicted well in advance lasts longer than one that arrives with little warning.

lookers-on see most of the game: An objective observer with an overall view of a situation is often more knowledgeable, or better placed to make a judgment,

than somebody who is actively involved, and whose attention is therefore focused on individual details.

lose an hour in the morning, chase it all day: Time lost in the morning is impossible to make up later in the day.

love is free: People tend to fall in love regardless of the suitability of the match or other obstacles.

love laughs at locksmiths: Nothing and nobody can keep lovers apart.

love me, love my dog: If you love somebody, you must be prepared to accept or tolerate everything and everybody connected with that person—his or her failings, idiosyncrasies, friends, relatives, and so on.

love your enemy, but don't put a gun in his hand: Treat your enemies with respect and humanity, but also with caution—do not give them the opportunity to repay your kindness with an act of aggression.

love me little, love me long: Warm affection lasts longer than burning passion.

M

make a virtue of necessity: The best way to handle an undesirable situation is to turn it to your advantage.

make haste slowly: Do not rush—you will achieve your end more quickly if you proceed with care.

a man can only die once: Death can only happen once in a lifetime.

a man is a lion in his own cause: People tend to exceed expectations when they have a personal interest in something.

man is the measure of all things: Human beings are capable of rising to any challenge:

a man's got to do what a man's got to do: You must do what needs to be done, or what you feel ought to be done, however unpleasant it may be; sometimes used facetiously.

a man's home is his castle: People have the right to privacy and freedom of action in their own home.

a man's word is as good as his bond Honorable people do not break their promises:

a man wrapped up in himself makes a very small bundle: Self-centeredness is not a quality that is associated with greatness.

the man who is born in a stable is not a horse A person does not necessarily have the stereotypical characteristics of the place where he or she was born.

many a little makes a mickle: Small amounts accumulate to form a large quantity; often used of small sums of money saved over a long period.

a man who is his own lawyer has a fool for his client: It is not wise to act as your own attorney in a court of law, or in some other legal process; also used in other fields of activity requiring professional expertise or objectivity.

many are called, but few are chosen :Not everybody who wants to do something is selected or permitted to do it; used in any elitist situation.

many a true word is spoken in jest: Something said jokingly often proves to be true.

many kiss the hand they wish to see cut off; A person's true feelings or intentions may be concealed by the mask of politeness or hypocrisy; used to warn against being deceived by such a show.

many go out for wool and come home shorn: Many people who set out to make their fortune, or to achieve some other aim, end up in a worse state than before.

marriage is a lottery Whether a marriage succeeds or fails is all a matter of luck; also applied to the choice of a marriage partner.

May chickens come cheeping: Children born in the month of May are weak and delicate.

meat and mass never hindered man You can always find time to eat and to go to church; said to somebody who claims to be too busy, or in too much of a hurry, for one or both of these.

marry in haste, repent at leisure ;Those who rush into marriage, and subsequently discover that they have made a mistake, may have to live with the unpleasant consequences for a long time.

the meek shall inherit the earth; Humility will ultimately be rewarded.

men are from Mars, women are from Venus: Men and women have essentially dissimilar nature

a mind is a terrible thing to waste Everybody should make best use of the intellectual capacity they have:

the mills of God grind slowly, yet they grind exceedingly small Retribution may be a long time in coming, but it cannot be avoided; also loosely applied to any slow or painstaking process:

misery loves company When you are unhappy, it is good to be with others who have suffered in a similar way, or simply with people who will listen to your woes and offer sympathy; also used to imply that everybody around them to be in the same situation.

a miss is as good as a mile If you fail, the margin of failure is irrelevant:

money burns a hole in the pocket People are often too eager to spend their money.

money has no smell Money that comes from unsavory or questionable sources is no different from—and no less acceptable than—money that comes from anywhere else

money talks Wealthy people have great influence:

money makes the mare go Money enables things to be done, and things are done faster or more readily for those who are willing and able to pay well:

monkey see, monkey do Foolish people mindlessly copy others:

more die of food than famine Excessive indulgence in the wrong type of food is a bigger killer than famine:

the more you stir it, the worse it stinks The more you investigate an unsavory or dubious affair, the more unpleasant details you discover:

the mother of mischief is no bigger than a midge's wing A great quarrel, or other major trouble, is often caused by something trivial:

a mouse may help a lion Small or lowly people can sometimes give valuable assistance to those who are greater or more powerful than themselves:

the mouse that has but one hole is quickly taken Do not be dependent on one thing alone, or on a single possible course of action, but have other options in reserve:

much would have more People are never satisfied with what they have:

much cry and little wool Those who make the most noise, the loudest boasts, or the greatest promises often have the least to offer, are the least productive, or simply fail to deliver the goods:

much water goes by the mill that the miller knows not of Many things are stolen or go astray without the knowledge of the person affected:

N

nature abhors a vacuum There are no deficiencies in nature—whenever a gap or vacancy occurs, something or somebody will come along to fill it:

nature will have its course There is no denying natural processes or impulses:
Proverbs expressing similar meaning:
nature passes nurture; you can drive out nature with a pitchfork
but she keeps on coming back.

the nearer the bone, the sweeter the flesh Thin people are more attractive or desirable; also used literally of meat:

nature passes nurture A person's inborn character, or inherited characteristics, cannot be changed by his or her upbringing:

the nearer the church, the farther from God People who are active members or officials of a church are often the least godly in their daily lives; also applied to those who live close to a church:

necessity sharpens industry Need makes people work harder:

near is my shirt, but nearer is my skin A person's own best interests take precedence over those of his or her friends and family:

need makes the old wife trot Necessity provides a sense of urgency:

needs must when the devil drives There are times when people are forced to do things that they would not do under normal circumstances:

ne'er cast a clout till May be out Do not stop wearing any item of warm winter clothing before the end of May:

Nero fiddled while Rome burned People in positions of authority sometimes behave irresponsibly during a crisis:

neglect will kill an injury sooner than revenge Insults and other malicious acts are forgotten most quickly when the victim chooses to ignore them:
Proverb expressing similar meaning:
forgive and forget; let bygones be bygones.

never ask pardon before you are accused If nobody knows that you have done something wrong, do not apologize and reveal your guilt—you may get away with it:

never choose your women or linen by candlelight Soft or inadequate lighting can give people and things a deceptively attractive appearance, or hide their faults and flaws:

never do evil that good may come of it A wicked or immoral course of action cannot be vindicated by a worthy objective:

Proverb expressing opposite meaning:

the end justifies the means.

never is a long time Think carefully before you use the word never, which implies a certainty about the future that you cannot possess:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

never say never.

never let the sun go down on your anger If you have quarreled or lost your temper with somebody, make your peace before the end of the day:

never give a sucker an even break Foolish or gullible people are easily exploited and do not deserve a fair chance; used to justify taking advantage of such a person:

never let your education interfere with your intelligence There are times when never do evil that good may come of it you must trust your intuition or native wit rather than what you have been taught or what you have read:

never look a gift horse in the mouth When you are offered something for nothing, accept it with gratitude and do not find fault with it:

never marry for money, but marry where money is It is good to marry somebody with sufficient means for a comfortable life, but wealth should not be your sole criterion in choosing a marriage partner:

never say die Do not surrender, stop trying, or give up hope:

never speak of rope in the house of a man who has been hanged Be tactful and steer clear of sensitive subjects in the company of people who might be upset or offended by them:

never send a boy to do a man's job Do not assign a difficult task to somebody who lacks the strength, experience, or qualifications to do it properly; also used of inanimate objects, such as an inadequate piece of equipment or a low card that fails to win a trick:

never tell tales out of school Do not pass on confidential information, secrets, or gossip to others, especially to outsiders:

new lords, new laws When a new ruler or government comes to power—or when a new person takes control of a situation—changes are made and different rules apply:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
a new broom sweeps clean.

never work with children or animals The unpredictability of children and animals make them unreliable as fellow-workers (a favorite maxim of actors and other entertainers but also used in many other contexts):

night brings counsel If you have a difficult problem to solve or an important decision to make, a good night's sleep will work wonders:

nine tailors make a man A well-dressed person does not buy all his or her clothes from the same source:

nobody is indispensable Nobody is so important or well qualified that he or she cannot be replaced by another:

a nod's as good as a wink to a blind horse In certain circumstances only the smallest hint is needed to make yourself understood; also used to imply that any kind of hint is wasted on somebody who is determined not to take it:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
a word to the wise is sufficient.

nobody is infallible Nobody can claim to be always right and never to have made a mistake:

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:
homer sometimes nods; to err is human, to forgive divine.

no good deed goes unpunished When you do something kind or helpful you often get something unpleasant in return; a cynical observation:

no man is an island Nobody can function in total isolation from the rest of society:

no man is a hero to his valet The better you know somebody, with all his or her faults and weaknesses, the less likely you are to regard that person with awe or veneration:

no names, no pack-drill If no names are mentioned, nobody can be punished or held responsible for something:

none but the brave deserve the fair Those who lack boldness or courage do not deserve to achieve great things; also used more literally, of men courting women—or vice versa:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

faint heart never won fair lady.

no news is good news It is probably

nothing is certain but the unforeseen The one thing that is sure to happen is the thing that nobody expects or is prepared for; also used to imply that nothing can be predicted:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

the unexpected always happens.

nothing should be done in haste but gripping a flea There are very few things that need to be done quickly; said by somebody urged to hurry up:

nothing ventured, nothing gained You will not achieve anything unless you are prepared to make an attempt or take a risk:

nothing so bad but it might have been worse Try to take a positive view of misfortune—things are never as bad as they could be:

nothing so bold as a blind mare Those who are ignorant or unaware of danger proceed without fear or caution:

nought is never in danger Persons or things of no value are at no risk of being stolen:

nothing succeeds like success Successful people go on to ever greater things; also used to imply that people are more respected or accepted after they succeed:

O

obey orders, if you break owners Do as you are commanded, even if this means doing something you know to be foolish or wrong:

the obvious choice is usually a quick regret Think carefully before you make a selection or decision:

an old fox is not easily snared A person with years of experience is unlikely to be easily fooled:

oil and water do not mix Some people or things are incompatible by nature:

old sins cast long shadows The passage of time often has the effect of making past wrongdoing seem greater or more significant than it actually was:

old soldiers never die Those who have served in the armed forces and survived warfare often live so long that they seem indestructible:

an old poacher makes the best gamekeeper A reformed wrongdoer is good at preventing others from committing the same crime or offense, because he or she can understand their thinking and anticipate their actions:

once bitten, twice shy Somebody who has had a bad experience is reluctant to do the same thing again:

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

once burned, twice shy; a burnt child dreads the fire.

once a priest, always a priest People cannot change their vocation; also used to imply that people continue to behave in accordance with the habits and training of their trade or profession even after they have left it:

one cannot love and be wise People often show a lack of common sense or good judgment when they are in love:

one for the mouse, one for the crow, one to rot, one to grow It is advisable not to expect a yield of more than 25 percent when sowing seed:

one courageous thought will put to flight a host of troubles A strong and positive mental attitude is the best defense against anxiety or adversity:

one funeral makes many **Standing around a grave** on a cold or rainy day is not good for the health, and can prove fatal for those attending a funeral:

one enemy is too much Having even a single enemy in the world is dangerous:

one hand washes the other People cooperate and help one another, and expect favors to be reciprocated:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

you scratch my back and i'll scratch yours.

one half of the world doesn't know how the other half lives People have no conception or understanding of the problems and pleasures of everyday life for those in other social classes, occupations, or countries; chiefly used of the contrast between rich and poor:

one hour's sleep before midnight is worth two after Those who go to bed early have a more refreshing night's sleep than those who rise late in the morning:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

one hand for yourself and one for the ship Do not neglect your own safety, security, or well-being for the sake of your work or your employers; also used literally as a safety maxim for those working at sea:

one law for the rich and another for the poor It sometimes seems that rich people are treated more leniently by the legal system than poor people:

one man's trash is another man's treasure Many people prize things that others would not give houseroom to:

one might as well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb If you are going to suffer or be punished for something, you might as well get the maximum pleasure or benefit from it:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

in for a penny, in for a pound.

one man's loss is another man's gain People profit from the misfortunes of others; also used more literally:

one nail drives out another One thing replaces another, or new ideas or customs cause old ones to fall into disuse:

one man's meat is another man's poison What one person likes, another person dislikes

one of these days is none of these days Somebody who says he or she will do something "one of these days"—that is, at some unspecified future time—will probably never do it; said in response to such a person:

one picture is worth ten thousand words Visual images are often the most concise and effective means of expression:

one swallow does not make a summer You cannot generalize from a single occurrence:

one sword keeps another in its scabbard Showing that you are ready and able to defend yourself is a good way of discouraging others from attacking you:

one thief robs another People who are dishonest will not scruple to steal from each other.

one story is good till another is told People are happy to accept one idea until a new idea comes along to replace it:

the only thing a heated argument ever produced is coolness An angry exchange of words resolves nothing and leads to a breakdown of friendly relations:

one year's seeding makes seven years' weeding If you allow weeds to seed themselves, it will take a long time to get rid of all the new plants they produce; also used figuratively of the need to eradicate something undesirable before it has a chance to spread, or to warn people that their actions can have lasting repercussions:

an open door may tempt a saint It is best not to put temptation in anybody's way—even the most honest and upright person might find it hard to resist:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
opportunity makes a thief.

the opera ain't over till the fat lady sings Wait until something finally comes to an end before you give up hope, celebrate your success, abandon your efforts, or make a judgment:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
it's not over till it's over.

opportunities look for you when you are worth finding Those who have good fortune are often those who best deserve it:

an ounce of common sense is worth a pound of theory A practical commonsense approach is often far more effective than abstract theorizing:

an ounce of discretion is worth a pound of wit Good judgment is often more valuable than knowledge or learning; also interpreted more literally as a warning to tactfully refrain from making jokes at another's expense:

other times, other manners Customs and conventions change over the years, and we should not judge people or things of the past by modern standards, or vice versa; sometimes said to those who mock or criticize the behavior of members of a different generation:

out of the fullness of the heart the mouth speaks People cannot avoid talking about what is on their mind; also used to imply that a person's true thoughts and feelings are revealed by what he or she says:

P

parents are patterns Parents are role models for their children and should set a good example:

paper bleeds little It is easy to do something in writing, without taking account of the human factors involved:

past cure, past care It is futile worrying about something when it is too late to do anything about it.

paper does not blush It is possible to express in writing what you would be too ashamed or embarrassed to say:

pay as you go and nothing you'll owe It is best to pay for everything when you receive it and not to get into debt:

pay beforehand was never well served People who are paid in advance for their services have little incentive to work hard or well

peace makes plenty Peace brings prosperity:

patriotism is the last refuge of a scoundrel Those who have no better argument resort to appeals to patriotic sentiment:

people are more easily led than driven It is better to guide people by example than to force them to do as they are told:

physician, heal thyself Do not reproach another person for something that you are equally guilty of; also used to imply that you should solve your own problems before you try to deal with those of other people:

the pitcher will go to the well once too often Nothing can continue or be repeated indefinitely—a run of good fortune or success must come to an end, persistent cheats or swindlers will ultimately be caught out:

pity is akin to love Pity and love are related emotions:

pigs are pigs All bad people or things are equally undesirable, regardless of where they come from:

please your eye and plague your heart Those who choose their husbands, wives, or lovers on the basis of good looks alone may suffer for their choice:

possession is nine points of the law A person who actually has something in his or her possession is in a strong position for claiming legal ownership of or entitlement to it:

a postern door makes a thief It is all too easy to rob a house that has a rear entrance through which people can slip in and out unnoticed:

politics makes strange bedfellows Politics tends to bring together those who would normally avoid each other's company, and unlikely alliances may be forged for political reasons:

the post of honor is the post of danger The most perilous positions in an administration or organization are those that have the highest prestige:

the pot calls the kettle black People criticize others for faults that they have themselves, or make accusations that are equally applicable to themselves:

power corrupts, and absolute power corrupts absolutely Power has an adverse effect on the integrity of those in authority, and the more power they have, the worse they become:

poverty comes from God, but not dirt Some people cannot avoid being poor, but nobody has any excuse for being dirty or for failing to keep his or her house clean:

prejudice is being down on what we are not up on People automatically dislike or distrust anything they have no understanding of or familiarity with:

praise no man till he is dead Final judgments on a person's qualities can only become reliable after he or she is dead:

praise the bridge that carries you over Do not criticize people or things that have helped you:

pride goes before a fall Arrogance and overconfidence often lead to humiliation or disaster; often used as a warning:

the price of liberty is eternal vigilance Freedom can only be preserved by keeping a watch on any threat to it:

procrastination is the thief of time If you constantly put off doing things, you will only waste the time in which they could have been done and will ultimately run out of time in which to do them:

pride feels no pain People are able to endure or ignore the physical discomfort caused by smart or fashionable clothes, shoes, or jewelry; also used in other situations where people tolerate physical suffering in order not to lose face:

promises, like piecrust, are made to be broken People cannot be depended upon to keep their word:

prosperity discovers vice; adversity, virtue Wealth or good fortune often brings out the worst in a person, whereas hardship or misfortune brings out the best:

the proof of the pudding is in the eating Nothing can be properly judged until it is put to the test:

providence is always on the side of the big battalions Those with the greatest strength, power, or influence always seem to have luck on their side and inevitably win the day:

a prophet is not without honor, save in his own country People who give words of warning or wisdom are not heeded or appreciated by those closest to them:

put your best foot forward Always make the most of your strengths and abilities; also used to urge people to make their best effort or be on their best behavior:

put your trust in God, and keep your powder dry Do not pin all your hopes on divine assistance or intervention—always be prepared to take action yourself if necessary:

punctuality is the politeness of kings It is discourteous to be late, regardless of your rank or status:

Q

quit while you are ahead Give up doing something when you are in a good position rather than risk what you have already gained:

quickly come, quickly go Something that arises suddenly is likely to disappear just as suddenly; also used of something that is rapidly gained and lost:

R

the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong Speed and power do not guarantee success—those who are slower and weaker may win through perseverance or tactics:

rats desert a sinking ship People tend to leave an organization, pull out of a project, or abandon a cause when they become aware that it is heading for disaster; often used to imply disloyalty, or to predict the imminent failure of something:

rain before seven, fine before eleven Rain early in the morning often heralds a fine day; occasionally applied to other things that start in an unpromising way:

render unto Caesar that which is Caesar's Give what you have to give to those who have a better claim to them:

a reed before the wind lives on, while mighty oaks do fall Those who are flexible and relatively insignificant can survive crises that bring down more prominent people who are unable or unwilling to yield or adapt:

revenge is a dish best eaten cold Vengeance is often more satisfying if it is exacted some time after the original offense; said when a wrong cannot be immediately avenged, or used to discourage somebody from retaliating in the heat of the moment:

the rich man has his ice in the summer and the poor man gets his in the winter It may seem that everybody, rich or poor, has an equal share of good fortune in life, but this is not so:

revolutions are not made with rose water It is not possible to bring about drastic changes by pleasant, easy, or peaceful means, or without causing damage or suffering:

riches have wings Money is soon gone.

a rising tide lifts all boats Everybody benefits from an upward trend in a nation's prosperity or quality of life:

Robin Hood could brave all weathers but a thaw wind Of all kinds of weather, a raw wind after frost or snow is the most penetrating.

a rolling stone gathers no moss People who spend their lives traveling or moving around tend to accumulate few responsibilities or personal attachments:

the road to hell is paved with good intentions Good intentions are of no value unless they are translated into action; also used when something done with good intentions has an undesirable or harmful effect:

a rose is a rose is a rose is a rose Things and people are what they are—you cannot define them in any other way, or change their essential nature by giving them a different name:

S

safe bind, safe find If you fasten things securely before you leave, or lock somebody or something away, they will still be there when you return:

save something for a rainy day It is sensible to put money aside in case it is needed in the future:

save us from our friends Our friends can cause us far more harm or trouble than our enemies; usually—but not exclusively—applied to false, treacherous, or disloyal friends:

second thoughts are best Do not act on impulse:

seize the day Live for the present, and take full advantage of every moment:

seldom seen, soon forgotten Persons or things rarely seen or mentioned are quickly forgotten:

self-deceit is the easiest of any It is easy to convince yourself of something that you want to believe:

self-interest is the rule, self-sacrifice the exception People are far more concerned with looking after their own interests than with sacrificing their needs for the sake of others:

send a fool to market and a fool he'll return It is unrealistic to expect a fool to change into anything but a fool:

shit happens Sometimes you must resign yourself to the inevitability of bad things happening:

the shoe is on the other foot The situation has been reversed:

the sharper the storm, the sooner it's over The more unpleasant something is, the less time it lasts:

the shoemaker's child always goes barefoot People often fail to benefit from the professional skills of those closest to them:

the show must go on Things must continue as if nothing had happened; used when events or circumstances threaten to disrupt something planned:

a short horse is soon curried A small task is soon done:

short reckonings make long friends If you want to keep your friends, and retain goodwill in business, always pay your debts and settle your accounts promptly:

shrouds have no pockets Wealth and possessions are of no use to you after you are dead; often used to justify extravagant spending:

a shut mouth catches no flies It is often safest or wisest to say nothing:

silence gives consent Those who do not reply to a request or accusation, or who raise no objection to something said or done, are assumed to have acquiesced:

sing before breakfast, cry before night Those who wake up feeling happy and carefree often encounter sorrow or trouble before the end of the day:

six hours' sleep for a man, seven for a woman, and eight for a fool Women need more sleep than men, but only fools sleep for eight hours or more:

a slice off a cut loaf isn't missed You can get away with wrongdoing, such as adultery or petty theft, if you are not the first person to do it, or if the offended party is unlikely to notice the result:

small choice in rotten apples When faced with two or more equally undesirable options, it matters little which one you choose:

soft and fair goes far Much can be achieved by adopting a calm and gentle approach:

a small gift usually gets small thanks If you give people less than they expect, they may be less grateful than you would like:

some folks speak from experience; others, from experience, don't speak People often learn from experience that there are times when it is better to say nothing:

something is rotten in the state of Denmark There is something wrong, or something suspicious going on, in a place, organization, or system; often used to imply corruption:

soon ripe, soon rotten Precocious talent or premature success is often short lived:

a son is a son till he gets him a wife, a daughter's a daughter all of her life Men tend to neglect or lose contact with their parents after marriage, whereas women maintain the bonds of filial affection and loyalty throughout their lives:

spare at the spigot, and let out the bung hole Those who are reluctant to part with small sums of money are often careless or extravagant in their spending on other things; also used to warn against false economy:

spare and have is better than spend and crave It is better to use your money wisely, keeping some in reserve, than to spend it all and find yourself in need:

spare well and have to spend If you do not waste money you will always be able to afford the things you need:

speak softly and carry a big stick Do not threaten violence or provoke aggression, but be prepared to use great force if the need arises:

step on a crack, break your mother's back It is unlucky to walk on the cracks between paving slabs on the sidewalk; a childish superstition, or used in a children's game:

a stern chase is a long chase It takes a long time to catch up with something or somebody moving ahead of you in the same direction:

the squeaky wheel gets the grease Those who complain the most loudly or persistently, or who make the most fuss, get what they want:

sticks and stones may break my bones, but names will never hurt me Verbal abuse, malicious remarks, or defamatory statements do no physical harm; often said by children to those who call them names:

stolen waters are sweet Illicit pleasures are often all the more enjoyable for this reason; also used of the pleasure derived from stolen goods or ill-gotten gains:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

forbidden fruit is sweet.

stone-dead hath no fellow There is nothing so final as death; used by those in favor of capital punishment:

stone walls do not a prison make The mind and spirit are not imprisoned by merely physical restraints:

straws show which way the wind blows Small things, such as apparently trivial details or insignificant events, can be useful indicators of what is going to happen in the future:

the sun loses nothing by shining into a puddle Those who are truly great cannot be corrupted by association with foul or wicked things or people:

sue a beggar and catch a louse There is nothing to be gained by seeking legal redress from those who cannot afford to pay:

sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof There is quite enough to worry about at the present time, without anticipating future problems and troubles:

T

take care of number one Put your own interests before those of everybody else:

take the will for the deed We must always give people credit for their good intentions, even if they fail to carry them through:

a tale never loses in the telling People are inclined to exaggerate, and anecdotes, gossip, or lies are embroidered by the teller each time they are retold:

take things as they come Sometimes it is best to deal with possible problems only as they arise:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

don't cross the bridge till you come to it; don't meet troubles halfway; sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof.

tell not all you know, nor do all you can It is good policy not to reveal the full extent of your knowledge or capabilities:

that government is best which governs least The best form of government is one that allows people the greatest freedom:

there are other fish in the sea Plenty more people, things, opportunities, or options are available; often used to console somebody whose relationship with a boyfriend or girlfriend has ended:

there'll be sleeping enough in the grave Life is too short to waste time having more sleep than you need:

there are tricks in every trade People in every occupation have their own special—and often secret ways of doing things that enable them to save time, effort, or money; often implying cleverness, craftiness, or deception:

there's a black sheep in every flock In every family, community, organization, or profession there is at least one member who brings disgrace on the rest:

there are two sides to every question Any issue can be looked at from two opposing viewpoints, both of which merit consideration:

there's always room at the top Those who excel, or who are truly ambitious, will always succeed:

there's a sin of omission as well as of commission There are times when failure to do what you should is as bad as doing what you should not do:

there's a skeleton in every closet Every person, family, or organization has a shameful secret:

there's a pot of gold at the end of the rainbow Some things can never be achieved; used when people chase after ideals or ambitions that constantly elude them:

there's honor among thieves Criminals will not hurt or betray their fellow criminals, thus treating one another with more respect than their victims:

there's luck in leisure It is better not to act in haste; sometimes used to justify procrastination:

there's many a good tune played on an old fiddle Old people should not be dismissed as incapable:

there's many a slip between cup and lip Many things can go wrong in the process of putting a plan into action; often used to warn against overconfidence or overoptimism:

there's many a good cock come out of a tattered bag Do not be misled by external appearances—it is what is inside or what emerges from something that counts; also used to imply that people should not be judged by their parents, clothes, or background

there's measure in all things Everything should be done in moderation:

there's no disputing about tastes There is no point in arguing about what is good or bad, since everybody likes different things:

there's no fool like an old fool Foolish behavior in old people is often worse than that in the young:

there's no such thing as a free lunch Everything must be paid for, sooner or later, directly or indirectly:

there's no royal road to learning Knowledge and skills can only be acquired by hard work—there are no short cuts:

there's no such thing as bad weather, only the wrong clothes Any weather is tolerable if you are suitably dressed for it:

there's no smoke without fire Rumors usually have a factual basis, although they may present a misleading or exaggerated version of the truth:

there's nowt so queer as folk People are uniquely unpredictable:

there's nothing new under the sun What is thought to be a novelty is often shown to be nothing more than a revival or reintroduction of an old idea; also used as a comment on the changeless nature of things:

a thing you don't want is dear at any price Do not be tempted to buy something you do not need just because it is cheap:

there's nothing so good for the inside of a man as the outside of a horse

Riding is a healthy pastime:

they also serve who only stand and wait You can be often be helpful without actively doing anything; also used to commend or encourage patience and endurance:

“

they that dance must pay the piper Those who gain pleasure or benefit from something must be prepared to bear the costs or suffer the consequences:

they that sow the wind shall reap the whirlwind People who provoke trouble or violence—or behave in a reckless manner—will suffer far worse consequences:

a thing of beauty is a joy forever Beautiful things bring lasting pleasure; often used to imply that the memory of something beautiful stays with you for a long time afterward:

things come in threes According to popular superstition, two similar occurrences—bad or good—are inevitably followed by a third:

things past cannot be recalled It is too late for regret after something is done; sometimes used to advise caution:

thinking is very far from knowing Opinion and conjecture are not the same as knowledge and certainty:

think much, speak little, and write less It is best to think long and hard about something before expressing any thoughts about it.

those who can, do; those who can't, teach People who are incapable of putting their knowledge and skills to practical use go into education:

those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it Those who forget, are ignorant of, or fail to learn from the mistakes of earlier generations are likely to make the same mistakes themselves:

this, too, shall pass Do not despair—an unpleasant situation or a difficult period will not last forever:

those who hide can find The person who finds something is often the person who hid it in the first place:

those who know don't speak; those who speak don't know Those who talk the most volubly are usually those who know the least about the subject in question:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

who knows most, speaks least.

the thread breaks where it is weakest A weak point in a thread or anything else is likely to be the point where the whole thing fails:

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

a chain is no stronger than its weakest link.

threatened men live long Threats are often not carried out, and people who have been warned are on their guard and therefore in less danger than others; sometimes said in defiant response to a threat or warning:

those who play at bowls must look out for rubbers It is foolish to embark on or participate in an enterprise without being aware of or taking account of the problems you may encounter:

thought is free Anybody may think whatever he or she likes:

three may keep a secret, if two of them are dead It is impossible for two or more people to keep a secret:

throw dirt enough, and some will stick A reputation that is constantly attacked cannot remain undamaged—if false accusations or defamatory remarks are repeated often enough, people will begin to believe them:

throw out a sprat to catch a mackerel It is worth making a small sacrifice to gain something of much greater value:

thrift is a great revenue Saving and frugality lead to financial gain:

time hangs heavy on idle hands Time seems to pass more slowly when we have little or nothing to do:

time and tide wait for no man Nobody can afford to delay or be delayed:

time is a great healer Grief, shock, wounded feelings, and so on will fade with time:

Proverbs expressing similar meaning:

patience is a remedy for every sorrow; time works wonders.

time is the rider that breaks youth Young people become less wild and more sensible with age:

times change, and we with time Customs, values, and circumstances are constantly changing, and we must adapt ourselves accordingly:

today is yesterday's tomorrow You cannot go on putting things off, because the future becomes the present:

today you, tomorrow me What happens to one person one day could happen to another person the next day:

to each his own Everybody has his or her own tastes and idiosyncrasies:

tomorrow is another day Don't worry about what has happened today—things may improve tomorrow; also used with reference to making a fresh start:

too many chiefs and not enough Indians There are too many people giving orders and not enough following them, or too many people in charge and not enough to do the work:

too many cooks spoil the broth :Too many people trying to help can be a hindrance; also used of too many people working on the same project, often pulling in different directions.

the tongue always returns to the sore tooth: People cannot help thinking or talking about what is bothering them most at a particular time.

toot your own horn lest the same be never tooted :Sing your own praises, in case nobody else does.

trade follows the flag One nation may colonize another for commercial purposes.

to the pure all things are pure :Virtuous people tend to be unaware of the wickedness or evil that is around them; sometimes used to imply naivety.

travel broadens the mind: People become more broad-minded and knowledgeable by visiting other countries and learning about the customs, culture, and lifestyle of those who live there.

to the victor belong the spoils :The winner of a contest or battle gets everything that goes with victory:
touch wood If nothing goes wrong, everything will turn out satisfactorily.

a traveler may lie with authority: People who have traveled may boast of their experiences without fear of contradiction.

the tree is known by its fruit :People should be judged by what they do or produce—specifically, by their children—rather than by first impressions or outward appearance.

true blue will never stain: Persons of real integrity can never be corrupted.

trust everybody, but cut the cards: Have faith in the honesty and integrity of those around you, but remain on your guard and take precautions in case you are wrong.

trifles make perfection, and perfection is no trifle Perfection is a great thing, but not easy to achieve, and attention to detail is of the utmost importance.

trust not a new friend nor an old enemy :It is foolish to trust either a friend of short standing or someone else who may harbor hostile feelings.

truth is the first casualty of war: When war breaks out, the truth quickly succumbs to propaganda and rumor.

trust not one night's ice: Do not rely upon something that has yet to be tried and tested.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:
first try and then trust.

truth is truth to the end of the reckoning:The truth can never be changed:

truth lies at the bottom of a well: It is often very difficult to discover the truth.

truth is stranger than fiction: The truth is often far more unlikely than anything that can be dreamed up by the imagination.

two of a trade never agree Members of the same trade or profession often do not get on with one another, because of rivalry.

two boys are half a boy, and three boys are no boy at all: When two or more boys work together, they distract each other and do less work between them than a single boy working alone.

U

uneasy lies the head that wears a crown: Those in power are weighed down by responsibilities, feelings of insecurity, or fears of losing their position and can never rest easy.

use legs and have legs The body, among other things, will continue to work properly only if kept in regular use.

the used key is always bright :Activity, work, and exercise keep the mind and body in good form.

V

variety is the spice of life: Change and difference make life interesting.

virtue is its own reward : The satisfaction of knowing you have done the right thing is all that is needed.

the voice of the people is the voice of God The will of the people must be obeyed; also used to imply that the people are always right.

the vicar of Bray will be vicar of Bray still Some people doggedly cling to office or other privileges however much circumstances might change around them.

W

walnuts and pears you plant for your heirs: Walnut trees and pear trees take a long time to produce fruit.

wanton kittens make sober cats People who live wildly or extravagantly in their youth usually develop into sensible and responsible adults.

war is too important to be left to the generals: Those in authority cannot be relied on to do their job properly; applied to warfare, diplomacy, or government.

war will cease when men refuse to fight: There will always be war while there are people who are prepared to serve in the armed forces; a pacifist slogan.

water seeks its own level People tend to be drawn toward, or to end up with, others of the same background, class, intelligence, or experience.

waste not, want not: If you make full and careful use of your resources, you will never be in need; applied to everything from the eating up of leftover food to domestic and industrial recycling.

a watched pot never boils: It seems that things take longer to happen when you watch or wait with impatience.

the weakest go to the wall: In any conflict or struggle, the weakest will always lose, be defeated, fail, or be ruined.

water is the only drink for a wise man Wise people avoid drinking alcohol.

wear your learning like your watch, in a private pocket: Do not make a show of your knowledge or education.

we all have our cross to bear: Nobody is exempt from suffering—we all have our own problems and afflictions.

wedlock is a padlock: Marriage brings with it many restrictions on personal freedom.

wealth makes many friends: Many people want to be the friend of a rich person.

Proverb expressing similar meaning:

he that has a full purse never wanted a friend.

the wearer best knows where the shoe pinches: Nobody can fully understand another person's hardship or suffering.

welcome is the best cheer: Welcoming your guests with friendly hospitality is more important than giving them fine food.

a wet May brings plenty of hay: Wet weather in May means the hay harvest will be good later in the year.

what a tangled web we weave when first we practice to deceive: Once you have told one lie, you find yourself supporting it with other related lies, constructing an elaborate network of deceit from which it is not easy to escape.

we must eat a peck of dirt before we die: Everybody must suffer a certain amount of unpleasantness during his or her lifetime; also used literally, as when eating unwashed food.

what can't be cured must be endured: If something cannot be put right, we must learn to put up with it.

we must learn to walk before we can run: It is necessary to learn the basics before progressing to more advanced things.

what can you expect from a pig but a grunt? Boorish or uncouth people cannot be expected to behave in any other way; used as an insult when such a person says or does something rude.

whatever man has done, man may do: If one person has succeeded in doing something, it should not be impossible for another person to do it too.

what goes up must come down: The law of gravity must be obeyed; also used figuratively of any rise and fall.

what has happened once can happen again: Something that has a precedent cannot be dismissed as impossible, and may recur.

what goes around, comes around: Those who say or do bad things to other people are likely to find themselves on the receiving end of similar criticism or treatment in the future; also used to imply that everybody eventually gets his or her just deserts.

what's bred in the bone will come out in the flesh: Inherited characteristics become evident in each new generation.

what's good for General Motors is good for America: Anything that benefits business and commerce is of benefit to the country as a whole.

what's got over the devil's back is spent under his belly : Money that is acquired by illicit or immoral means is spent in a similar manner.

what's yours is mine, and what's mine is my own: People often expect free use of what belongs to others while refusing to share their own property.

what's new cannot be true: People are always skeptical about new ideas.

what the eye doesn't see, the heart doesn't grieve over: Nobody can be upset by something that he or she is unaware of.

what's past is prologue: Everything that has gone before is just the introduction to what is still to come.

what's sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander: What is appropriate for one person is equally appropriate for another person in a similar situation.

what the soldier said isn't evidence: Gossip, hearsay, and rumor are not reliable sources of the truth:

what will be, will be: What is destined to happen cannot be prevented.

what you see is what you get: Things or people are exactly as they seem; used to imply honesty, straightforwardness, etc.

what you don't know can't hurt you: It is often better to remain in ignorance of things that could distress you.

what you've never had you never miss: People do not feel the lack of something they have never possessed or enjoyed.

what you lose on the swings you gain on the roundabouts: Gains and losses tend to balance one another overall.

the wheel comes full circle: Things eventually reach a situation resembling that from which they began.

when a dog bites a man, that is not news; but when a man bites a dog, that is news: The media are only interested in unusual or outrageous stories.

the wheel of fortune is forever in motion: People's fortunes are constantly changing—somebody who has good luck one year may have bad luck the next, and vice versa.

when all fruit fails, welcome haws: We must accept with gratitude whatever is available, even if it is not exactly what we want or need.

when Adam delved and Eve span, who was then the gentleman? The class system has not always existed and is therefore invalid or irrelevant.

when all you have is a hammer, everything looks like a nail People with a restricted range of knowledge or options often try to apply the same solution to every problem.

when Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war: A contest or struggle between equally matched opponents is a long and fierce battle.

when in Rome, do as the Romans do You should always follow the customs, rules, and laws of the place where you are.

when house and land are gone and spent, then learning is most excellent: It is important to have a good education to fall back on if you lose or use up all your money and material assets.

when poverty comes in at the door, love flies out of the window Financial problems can cause the breakdown of a marriage or other loving relationship.

when in doubt, do nothing: If you are unsure what to do, it is best to do nothing at all.

when the cat's away, the mice will play: People do as they please in the absence of those in authority.

when the going gets tough, the tough get going: In times of crisis, those who are most resilient and determined take action and prove their worth.

when thieves fall out, honest men come by their own: A dispute between criminals is to the advantage of their victims, either because they betray one another and reveal the truth, or because they are too busy arguing to commit the crime in the first place.

when you go to dance, take heed whom you take by the hand: Beware of getting involved with dishonest or unscrupulous people.

where bees are, there is honey: Wherever there are industrious people, wealth is produced; also used of other types of people whose presence is indicative or suggestive of something.

when you are in a hole, stop digging: When you have landed yourself in trouble, such as through a foolish remark or action, do not say or do anything to make the situation worse.

where God builds a church, the devil will build a chapel Any force for good, such as progress or reform, is inevitably accompanied—or closely followed—by something bad; not exclusively used in religious contexts.

when you argue with a fool, make sure he isn't similarly engaged do not assume that you are more intelligent or knowledgeable than the person you are arguing with.

where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered: People are drawn together, or to a particular place, when they think they will gain something to their advantage.

where there's no vision, the people perish: People need hopes and dreams to sustain them.

which came first, the chicken or the egg? It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between cause and effect.

while the grass grows, the steed starves: If somebody has to wait a long time for something, it may arrive too late to be of use.

whiskey and gasoline don't mix do not drive an automobile after drinking alcohol.

while two dogs are fighting for a bone, a third runs away with it : When two parties are engaged in a dispute, their attention is distracted from what is going on around them, and both may end up as losers.

who has land has war: There will always be disputes over the ownership of land.

whom the gods would destroy, they first make mad: Those who commit acts of great folly are heading for disaster, the implication being that such people lose their sanity or good sense because they are destined for this end.

who repairs not his gutters repairs his whole house Those who neglect small repairs will find they have to make much bigger ones later.

who says A must say B If you say or do one thing, you must be prepared to say or do what logically follows.

whose bread I eat, his song I sing: People show loyalty to, or comply with the demands of, those who employ, pay, or feed them.

Y

you can't put an old head on young shoulders: It is unreasonable to expect young people to be as sensible or knowledgeable as their elders.

you can't make bricks without straw : You cannot produce anything without the necessary materials or resources.

you can't put a square peg in a round hole: Do not give somebody a job for which he or she is unsuited or unqualified; also used of other situations in which a person is a misfit.

you can't put new wine in old bottles: The introduction of new methods, ideas, items, or components into something old and well established—or old and decrepit—can have disastrous consequences.

you can't shift an old tree without it dying: Relocation is not good for old people.

you can't step twice into the same river : Things are constantly changing.

you can't run with the hare and hunt with the hounds: You cannot support two opposing parties at the same time.

you can't take it with you: You might as well spend your money while you are alive, because it can't be carried with you into the next world.

you can't serve God and mammon : A devout or virtuous way of life is incompatible with the pursuit of material wealth and possessions.

you can't teach an old dog new tricks: Old people are often unwilling or unable to learn new skills or adopt new methods.

you can't unscramble eggs: Damage cannot be undone, and changes cannot be reversed.

you can't win 'em all: Nobody: can hope to succeed every time.

you have to take the rough with the smooth: Everything has pleasant and unpleasant—or difficult and easy—aspects

you never know what you can do until you try: People are often surprised to discover what they are capable of when they make an effort.

a young man married is a young man marred: It is not good to marry too young.

a young barber and an old physician: Youth is fine in a barber but undesirable in a doctor.

young men may die, but old men must die: Death is a possibility at any age, but a certainty in old age.

the young cock crows as he heard the old one: The young learn by the example of their elders.

young folks think old folks to be fools, but old folks know young folks to be fools: Young people think they are wiser than their elders, but the opposite is true.

young saint, old devil: Those who behave best when they are young are often those who behave worst when they are old.

you pays your money and you takes your choice: It is up to you which item, course of action, or theory you choose; used when there is an element of chance involved, or when there is little difference between the options available.

you should know a man seven years before you stir his fire: You should not be too familiar with people, or interfere in their domestic affairs, until you have known them for some time.

you snooze, you lose Those who fail to keep alert will lose out.

you scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours: Favors will be reciprocated; often used to imply corruption, or a covert arrangement between the parties concerned.

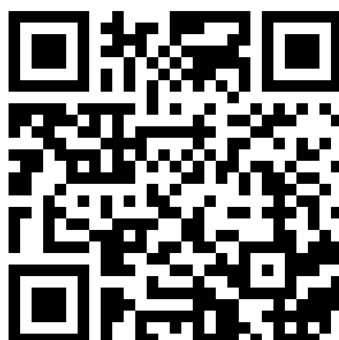
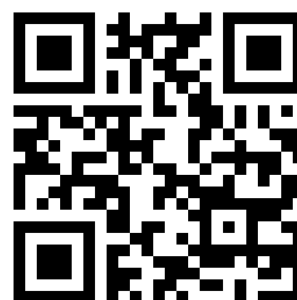
youth must be served: Young people should be allowed to have their own way, helped, or treated with forbearance.

youth will have its fling: Young people should be forgiven for their excesses or improprieties.

Z

zeal without knowledge is a runaway horse: Uninformed enthusiasm will only lead to disaster.











https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=twCpijr_GeQ

Рекомендована література
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