

3 An Analysis of Translation Procedures in the Non-Literary and Literary Text Corpus

The present chapter aims to investigate translation procedures as occurring in a comparable non-literary and literary text corpus consisting of a selected EU institutional-legal document and an excerpt from William P. Young's best-selling novel *The Shack* against a background of the English-Slovak language pair. The chapter sets as its goal to classify, compare and subsequently find out the characteristics of translation procedures as employed in the textual genres under study.

First, existing terminological and conceptual confusions concerning translation procedures will be reviewed. Second, the selected translation procedures models by the Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995), Newmark (1981, 1988) and Schreiber (1993, 1998) will be presented, thus preparing the ground for the ensuing corpus text analysis.

3.1 Lead-in: Getting to Grips with the Terminological Cul-de-sac

Before delving into the problem area of translation procedures it might seem fitting to elucidate what actually translation as such is. In general, seen purely from a teleological angle, translation is an act of expressing a meaning which is communicated in the source language (SL) into the target language (TL) as according to the meaning contained in the source language. Accordingly, Newmark (1981: 7) defines translation as “a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language.” In a similar vein, Catford (1965: 20) argues that translation lies in “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).” In addition, Nida (qtd. in: Zakhir, 2008: 3) states that translation consists in “reproducing in the receptor language the natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style.”

When analysing translations of any sort, be it literary or non-literary texts, there are certain categories that allow us to examine how the target text (TT) functions in relation to the source text (ST). These categories are widely known as ‘translation procedures’ or ‘translation techniques’. It should be highlighted at this stage, though, that considerable terminological disagreement looms large among translation studies

scholars regarding the proper label to be used in this connection (cf. Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002: 498-499; Ordudari, 2007: 2; Gibová, 2010: 116 ff). For this thesis' sake, however, the author holds on to the former terminological designation.²

Let us now shed some light on translation procedures from a conceptual point of view and let us try to draw a sharp line of demarcation between translation procedures and other closely related translational notions (translation methods and translation strategies, in particular) with which they are more often than not unjustly confused.³ Translation procedures may be understood as a tool of textual analysis that represents a process of searching for notable semantic and formal relations arising between the original and the target text. Besides, translation procedures commonly originate under textual comparing the original and its pertinent translation and in the long run they have a bearing on a text's microstylistics, *i.e.* they influence lower levels of a text's structure, notably its sentences and parts thereof. In light of the above, since translation procedures enable us to analyse and classify how translation equivalence works, the following quintessential characteristics can be ascribed to them (cf. Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002: 509):

- they affect the result of translation
- they are classified by comparison with the original

² As it follows from Molina and Hurtado Albir's seminal article (2002), they consider *translation procedure* to be largely synonymous with *translation technique*. However, there are translation studies scholars who have voiced an opinion that such distinction is not very precise and call for a more rigorous treatment of the problem under scrutiny. Nowadays, there is a tendency to use the term *translation procedure* as "a general category referring to particular steps undertaken by the translator" while the term *translation technique* seems to be singled out to "name an act of selecting target-language units, *i.e.* an actual operation or manipulation with linguistic material" (Hrehovčík, 2006: 44). All in all, one of the greatest credits of Molina and Hurtado Albir's article rests in their ubiquitous drawing attention to terminological-conceptual discrepancies between translation method, translation procedure (or technique) and translation strategy.

³ This translation procedure-related designation confusion goes as far back as Vinay and Darbelnet's *Comparative Stylistics of French and English* (1958/1995), the first comparative study of its kind in translation studies ever, wherein they introduced the perplexity by dividing the translation procedures following the traditional dichotomy between literal and free translation. As they worked with isolated language units they did not distinguish between categories that affect the whole text and categories that refer to small units. Furthermore, the subtitle of their pioneering book, *A Methodology for Translation*, stirred up even more uncertainties. In our view, a distinction should be made between translation method, that is part of the process, a global choice that affects the whole translation, and translation techniques that describe the outcome and affect smaller sections of the translation. Moreover, another downside of Vinay and Darbelnet's proposed translation procedures model was a fine line between language and text problems. Their work was based on comparative linguistics and all the examples used to illustrate their procedures were decontextualized. In addition, since they gave a single translation for each linguistic item, the result was pairs of fixed equivalences. This led to a confusion between comparative linguistic phenomena and phenomena related to translating texts. Therefore, translation techniques as put forward by the French Comparative School of Stylistics are confined to the classification of differences between language systems, not to textual solutions needed for translation (cf. Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002: 506-507 for more detail).

- they affect micro-units of texts
- they are by nature discursive and contextual
- they are functional.

When opting for appropriate translation procedures, the translator should not refrain from keeping their eye on the translation method he/she had chosen initially. Indeed, translation procedures are contingent upon the choice of translation method, which is a global choice of a translator on a large scale. For instance, if the aim of a translator is to produce an exoticising translation which should respect all the particularities of a source culture, they are to opt for a foreignizing translation method and in tune with this the translation procedure of borrowing should rightly be expected to be the most frequent. For this reason, one may unanimously agree with Newmark (1988: 81) that “while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language.”

However, translation procedures and translation methods are not to be muddled with translation strategies which refer to the procedures that translators themselves activate when dealing with translation problems: when they unscramble semantic relations among words, when they distinguish between core and less important ideas or when they reformulate some information. All in all, translation strategies form a firm part of a translator’s competence and they open up ways for finding an appropriate translation solution on the basis of a suitable translation procedure chosen. Thus, translation strategies and translation procedures occupy different places in problem solving. While the former are part of the process, the latter affect rather the result. (loosely based on Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002: 508). Moreover, Krings (qtd. in: Ordudari, 2007: 2) looks upon translation strategies as “translator’s potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task.” As it is stated in the given definition, the notion of consciousness appears to be of paramount importance for telling strategies apart from all the other above-discussed translation-related categories, so commonly jumbled.

3.2 Selected Translation Procedures Models

3.2.1 Jean-Paul Vinay & Jean Darbelnet

Vinay and Darbelnet, pre-eminent representatives of the French Comparative School of Stylistics, were among the first to have identified direct and oblique translation procedures in their seminal monograph (1958/1995). It should not pass unnoticed that their now-traditional distinction harks back to a well-known ‘literal vs. free’ translation dichotomy (see Table 1).

The authors draw on the idea that in some translation tasks it may be possible to transpose the source language message element into the target language, because it is based on either parallel categories (structural parallelism) or on parallel concepts, which are the upshot of metalinguistic parallelisms. This is the case of so-called direct translation procedures which occur when there is an exact structural, lexical or even morphological equivalence between the languages. Thus, these are based on a minimum source structure modification.

However, the harsh reality is that translators must many a time grapple with certain gaps, or ‘lacunae’, to put it in Vinay and Darbelnet’s term, in the target language (TL) which must be filled by corresponding elements in such a manner so that there is an impression that the resulting text’s message is the same. Due to structural or metalinguistic dissimilarities between the languages entering the translation process the translator must face situations where certain SL stylistic effects cannot be transposed in the TL without upsetting its syntactic order or even lexis. From the above-mentioned it follows that translators many a time need to have recourse to more complex, *i.e.* oblique translation procedures. If translation were always only the instance of the application of direct translation procedures, it would not require any special stylistic skills on the part of the translator. In addition, translation would miss out on a certain intellectual challenge for it would be relegated to an unambiguous transfer from the SL into the TL (based on Venuti, 2000: 84 and Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 31-34). Oblique translation procedures are employed when a literal translation is unacceptable, when structural or conceptual asymmetries arising between the SL and TL are incommensurable. This pertains, in Vinay and Darbelnet’s view, to cases when the message, when translated literary (*ibid.*: 34-35)

- gives another meaning, or
- has no meaning, or
- is structurally impossible, or
- does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL, or
- has a corresponding expression, but not within the same register.

Table 1 below gives a classification of translation procedures as propounded by Vinay and Darbelnet (see 1958/1995: 31-34 for more detail)⁴.

Table 1 Vinay & Darbelnet’s model of translation procedures

<i>Direct translation procedures</i>	Borrowing
	Calque
	Literal Translation
<i>Oblique translation procedures</i>	Transposition
	Modulation
	Equivalence
	Adaptation

When assessing Vinay and Darbelnet’s model in its entirety one can hardly overlook two fundamental translation methods that are mirrored in it, notably exotization and naturalization. While the former is grounded on an undisturbed approach towards the TT and retains elements of the source language (culture) environment, the latter rests on the substitution principle underscoring the TT’s potential and its culture. Since in the institutional habitat it is first and foremost the source text and its structure which make for crucial factors having a bearing on the translation method choice on the basis of which the EU translator approaches the translation process, an overall exoticizing approach to the studied non-literary text may

⁴ A detailed explanation of the adduced translation procedures one by one will be postponed until the later sections of this thesis (cf. 3.3.1 onwards). It should be clarified at this stage, though, that some Vinay and Darbelnet’s procedures, especially those of equivalence and adaptation are expected to be conspicuously absent from the non-literary text under investigation due to its legal nature as these are much more typical for a metaphorical and fictitious literary text. By way of definition, equivalence within Vinay and Darbelnet’s conception is used to refer to cases where “languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means” (qtd. in: Munday, 2001: 58), which pertains to translating idioms and proverbs, in particular. As it is evident from this quotation, Vinay and Darbelnet’s understanding of equivalence is not to be confused with its general perception in translation studies where it refers to a relationship between ST and TT which enables us to call the final product translation. On the other hand, adaptation “involves changing the cultural reference when a situation in the source culture does not exist in the target culture”(ibid.).

rightfully be expected, as opposed to the naturalizing approach which should occur to a considerably lesser extent. However, these assumptions for the selected EU non-literary text are contrary to those concerning the literary text under scrutiny where a naturalizing approach to translation is expected to be prevalent. In other words, the use of oblique translation procedures in the literary text is presupposed to surpass the direct translation procedures.

Furthermore, when appraising the outstanding merits of the French School of Comparative Stylistics one should not leave unmentioned that Vinay and Darbelnet were among the first to categorize the translation process in terms of “small linguistic changes occurring in translation of ST into TT,”(qtd. in: Munday, 2001: 55) which later started to be dubbed as ‘shifts’⁵. A further crucial parameter taken into consideration by them was that of servitude and option. While the former is inexorably bound up with mandatory transpositions and modulations due to dissimilarities between the two language codes, the latter refers to non-obligatory changes in TL due to the translator’s own style and personal preferences.

Notwithstanding the above-said merits of the distinguishing personalities of the French Comparative School of Stylistics their work cannot escape certain points of criticism with the lapse of time, though. These being first and foremost, hazy boundaries between their suggested taxonomy categories, confining of their language unit analysis down to lower discourse levels and differences between language systems as such, not to text solutions as wholes. For this reason, in order to map out translation procedures in the studied literary and non-literary texts with all their abundance of lexico-stylistic language resources it was vital to enhance my theoretical framework by other models, as outlined below.

⁵ Indeed, the term “shift“ originated in Catford’s highly influential work *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* where he views translation shifts as “departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from SL into TL”(1965: 73). Of supreme importance for translation theory were Catford’s level and category shifts, encompassing structural, class, unit (rank) and intra-system shifts (see Catford, 1965: 73-82 for more detail). However, Catford was dealing with shifts at the linguistic level only. It was not until Popovič (1975), however unexpected this might seem, that the notion of shift has been enhanced by another culture-oriented and interpretation facets.

3.2.2 Peter Newmark

Another relevant translation procedures model underpinning the corpus text analysis of this dissertation was elaborated by a British translation studies scholar Peter Newmark at Cambridge at the outset of the 1980's on the basis of comparing English and German translations. In his book *Approaches to Translation* (1981: 30-31), Newmark presents us with miscellaneous translation procedures, which are cogently summarised in Table 2.

Table 2 Newmark's model of translation procedures

<i>Procedure</i>	<i>Alternative Terminological Label</i>	<i>Example/Explanatory Note</i>
Transcription	'Loanword'/Adoption/ Transfer/Transference/ Emprunt	<i>détente; coup d'état</i>
Literal translation	One-to-one translation	<i>la maison ~ the house</i>
Calque	Through-translation/ 'Loan translation'	<i>People's Chamber ~ Volkskammer</i>
Lexical synonymy		<i>ein Greis ~ a very aged man</i>
Componential analysis		Comparison of a SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning by means of common and different semantic components (semes)
Transposition		<i>according to my friend ~ mein Freund meinte</i>
Modulation		<i>Lebensgefahr ~ danger de mort</i>
Compensation		Loss of meaning or sound effect or metaphor in one part of sentence is compensated in another part
Cultural equivalence		<i>baccalauréat ~ A-level</i>
Translation label		An approximate equivalent, sometimes proposed as a collocation in inverted commas, which may later be accepted: <i>promotion sociale ~ 'social advancement'</i>
Definition		Descriptive noun-phrase or adjectival clause
Paraphrase		An amplification or free rendering of the meaning of a sentence
Expansion		<i>belebend ~ life-giving</i>
Contraction	Reduction	<i>science anatomique ~ anatomy</i>
Recasting sentences		Splitting of SL complex sentences into two or more TL sentences
Rearrangement/ Improvement		Removing mistakes, misprints, idiolect or clumsy writing in defect texts
Translation couplet		Transcription of a term followed by its translation: <i>Gemeinde (German unit of local government)</i>

It should be pointed out that the translation procedures model given in Table 2 was partially enhanced in Newmark's follow-up publication *A Textbook of Translation* (1988: 81-93) where he basically added some extra terminological labels for selected translation procedures (*reduction/contraction* or *transcription/transference/loanword*, in particular) or he pinpointed their meaning with greater accuracy. Among the newly emerged translation procedures within his suggested up-dated taxonomy there was e.g. 'naturalisation' in the field of literary translation, referring to a procedure "succeeding

transference and adapting the SL word first to the normal pronunciation and then to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL” (ibid.: 82), which can be exemplified for instance by words such as *Performanz*, *attraktiv* when taken over from English into German. On the other hand, ‘recognised translation’ made for a brand-new procedure in the ambit of non-literary translation, which referred, in the author’s own words, to “the official or generally accepted translation of any institutional term” (ibid.: 89), e.g. *Rechtsstaat ~ constitutional state*.

In the same way as with Vinay and Darbelnet’s model, certain Newmark’s procedures had to be ruled out from the corpus analysis of the studied non-literary text, such as lexical synonymy, componential analysis, compensation, paraphrase, rearrangements/improvements or translation couplets. Some of these, however, could be particularly useful for the analysed literary text.

3.2.3 Michael Schreiber

In order to round off the theoretical framework underlying the corpus analysis of the present thesis, Schreiber’s model of translation procedures has been chosen as the third, more or less subsidiary, back-up system. The model was first presented in Schreiber’s monograph *Übersetzung und Bearbeitung* (1993) and was published later in its abridged version in *Handbuch Translation* (1998: 151-154) by a Vienna-based English scholar Mary Snell-Hornby.

When putting his translation procedures system together, Schreiber admittedly drew on earlier models available, those by Vinay and Darbelnet and Malblanc, in particular. In his own words, the author himself views translation procedures as “solution variants for translation problems” (Schreiber, 1998: 153, translation by author). Since the individual procedures’ definitions relate to selected areas only, translations or smaller text parts can be best described only by means of a combination of various procedures. Compared to the previously quoted models of Vinay and Darbelnet and Newmark, Schreiber’s model shows transparent structuring which was greatly missed with the other two authors since Schreiber plainly splits his procedures into lexical, grammatical and semantic (see Table 3 below).

Table 3 Schreiber’s model of translation procedures

	<i>Procedure</i>	<i>Note/Explanation</i>
Lexical	Lexical borrowing	Taking-over of a lexical unit
	Lexical substitution	Substitution of a SL lexical unit by a TL lexical unit (trivial case)
	Change of a lexical unit structure	Change in the realm of word-formation
Grammatical	Word-for-word translation	with word-count, word-class and word position retained
	Permutation	Re-location of sentence constituents
	Expansion	Increase in word-count
	Reduction	Decrease in word-count
	Intracategorical change	Change of grammatical function within a word
	Transposition	Change of word-class
	Transformation	Change of syntactic construction
Semantic	Semantic borrowing	Verbalization of the same content features, e.g. with turns of phrases or idioms
	Modulation	Change of the point of view
	Explication	Increase in the degree of explication
	Implication	Decrease in the degree of explication
	Mutation	Change of the denotative content for other invariant’s sake under the rhyme constraint in translating poetry

Judging by the information in Table 3 one can easily draw the conclusion that certain translation procedures such as e.g. lexical substitution, intracategorical change or mutation will have to be excluded from my analyses due to obvious non-applicability of the said procedures to the scrutinized texts arising from their genre characteristics.

Overall, by mutually comparing the translation procedures models as put forward by Vinay and Darbelnet, Newmark and Schreiber respectively, it has been ascertained that all the presented models partially overlap as well as differ with respect to the terminology used. The terminological labels for the pertinent translation procedures and their corresponding definitions as occurring in Vinay and Darbelnet’s and Newmark’s systems tend to be pithier than those in Schreiber’s model. Sometimes, on the other hand, quite the contrary is true about some translation procedures in Schreiber’s system compared to the previous two models. Precisely these subtle differences in terminology as well as in the overall scope of the individual procedures, among other things, will be touched upon in the thesis’ next chapter.

3.3 Quantitative Corpus Text Analysis

3.3.1 Transposition

Beyond a shadow of a doubt, the comparison of originals with translations reveals that more often than not two languages make use of grammatically dissimilar means when conveying the same message. This may be attributed to insurmountable structural-typological differences, or ‘lacunae’, in Vinay and Darbelnet’s words, between the language codes.

Transposition, or shift, as Catford calls it, will be used in this dissertation in the sense as it is commonly interpreted within translation studies; as an intentional and often unavoidable grammatical change that occurs in translation from SL into TL (cf. Bareš, 1977: 110; Dokulil, 1982: 260; Newmark, 1988: 85; Venuti, 2000: 88; Zakhir, 2008: 2). In a narrow sense, transposition will be apprehended as replacement of one word-class or syntactic category with another without altering the semantics of the message, thus keeping the (non-)literary text’s information invariant. First, our principal translation studies scholars’ definitions of transpositions will be presented and compared. Next, a quantitative corpus text analysis zeroing in on formal and functional transpositions with an ensuing discussion of results gained will follow.

Newmark, in agreement with Schreiber and Vinay and Darbelnet, looks at transposition as a change of the grammatical category in TL in comparison with that in SL. In addition, he emphasizes that transposition may be used when “literal translation is grammatically possible but may not be in accord with natural usage in the TL” (Newmark, 1988: 86). Newmark’s main contribution lies in the observation that shifts illustrate “frequent tension between grammar and stress” (ibid.: 88). Nevertheless, from the point of view of the present study his last remark seems particularly enticing:

Transposition is the only translation procedure concerned with grammar, and most translators make transpositions intuitively. However, it is likely that comparative linguistics research, and analysis of text corpuses and their translations, will uncover a further number of serviceable transpositions for us (ibid.).

Furthermore, transpositions have been brought to notice by Schreiber, too. He defines them in a very straightforward way as a change of word-class in translation (Schreiber, 1993: 223). He argues that transpositions may be mandatory, when they are caused by grammar or optional, when they are triggered off by stylistic needs.

Schreiber seems fully aware of the omnipresence of transpositions in translations for he admits that they are fairly often employed in partnership with other translation procedures.

When dealing with transposition within Vinay and Darbelnet's model, it should be mentioned that their clarification of the term under discussion seems to be the most comprehensive. In their view, transposition encompasses not only change of parts of speech but also syntactic transformations. Apart from these, a special understanding of transposition relates to *chassé-croisé*, i.e. 'change of positions', which, however, corresponds more with permutation, as propounded by Schreiber (cf. 3.3.4). In the same way as Schreiber, the authors from the French Comparative School of Stylistics, split transpositions into obligatory and optional. All in all, Vinay and Darbelnet's approach to transpositions is oriented more towards practical translating without analyzing the circumstances and motivations of the shift. Precisely this was the criticism levelled at their translation procedures by Delisle who argued that their procedures did not describe the process through which equivalents appear but only the upshots thereof (Klégr, 1996: 18). What is more, since Vinay and Darbelnet's time attention has shifted due to new developments in linguistics from 'microprocedures' to text as a whole as a unit of translation (see Neubert and Shreve, 1992).

Generally-speaking, transpositions commonly split into word-class and sentence-member transpositions depending on whether word-classes or sentence-member categories are liable to alter in translation into TL. In this connection, the Czech scholar Klégr (1996: 129) speaks of formal and functional transpositions, respectively. Since word-class (or formal) transpositions, as already their name betrays, are grounded on the change of word-classes between SL and TL, they would most likely correspond to class shifts and unit (rank) shifts within Catford's classification of category shifts.⁶

Tables 4 and 5 below give an overview of the most common word-class transposition types present in the studied non-literary and literary text that have been revealed by means of a contrastive corpus text analysis.

⁶ Catford's class shifts comprise shifts from one part of speech to another. On the other hand, unit (or rank) shifts take place where the translation equivalent in the TL is at a different rank to the SL. 'Rank' here refers to the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme (Munday, 2001: 61).

Table 4 An Overview of word-class transpositions in the non-literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>WC Type</i>	<i>Abbr.</i>	<i>%</i>
The authority of a Member State with responsibility for the entry and residence of students	Orgán členského štátu zodpovedný za vstup a pobyt študentov	N → Adj	{a}	10.71
Member States may require the period of validity of the travel document to cover at least the duration of the planned stay.	Členské štáty môžu požadovať, aby bol cestovný doklad platný aspoň počas trvania predpokladaného pobytu.	N → V	{b}	10.71
laws, regulations, and administrative provisions necessary to comply with this Directive	zákony, iné právne predpisy a správne opatrenia potrebné na dosiahnutie súladu s touto smernicou	V → N	{c}	73.21
Where necessary , the Member States shall grant students and/or employers prior authorization.	V prípade potreby udelia členské štáty študentom a/alebo zamestnancom predbežné povolenie.	Adj → N	{d}	1.78
The Member States may withdraw or refuse to renew a residence permit issued on the basis of this Directive when it has been issued fraudulently .	Členské štáty môžu odobrať povolenie alebo odmietnuť predĺžiť povolenie na pobyt vydané na základe tejto smernice, ak bolo získané podvodom .	Adv → N	{e}	1.78
Migration [...] does not depend on the labour market situation.	Migrácia [...] nie je závislá na situácii na trhu práce.	V → Adj		1.78

Table 5 An Overview of word-class transpositions in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>SM Type</i>	<i>Abbr.</i>	<i>%</i>
The icy rain pellets stung his cheeks and hands as he carefully worked his way up and down the slight undulations of the driveway.	Broky ľadového dažďa sa mu lepili na tvár a ruky, keď opatrne kráčal hore a dole po mierne zvlnenej ceste.	N → Adj	{a}	10.53
About that time and almost for two years our hanging out stopped, as if by some unspoken mutual agreement .	V tom čase sme sa takmer na dva roky, akoby sme sa na tom bez rečí dohodli , prestali spoločne potulovať.	N → V	{b}	19.30
Somehow each person feels like the master of his or her own world, simply because those little droplets of water freeze as they hit the ground.	Každý akosi nadobudne pocit , že je pánom vlastného sveta, a to len preto, že kvapôčky vody pri dopade na zem zamrzajú.	V → N	{c}	33.33
I confess to you that I desperately want everything Mack has told me to be true .	Priznávam, že zúfalo chcem, aby všetko, čo Mack povedal, bola pravda .	Adj → N	{d}	12.28
The world went momentarily black , or so it seemed.	Svet na chvíľu sčernal , alebo sa to aspoň zdalo.	Adj → V		5.26
His father was a closet drinker.	Jeho otec potajomky popíjal.	N → Adv		3.51
He decided to leave the drizzly bloodstained mess right where he doffed it in the entryway and retreated painfully to the bathroom to examine his wounds.	Rozhodol sa nechať premočený a zakrvavený neporiadok tam, kde ho zo seba zhodil, pri vstupných dverách, a ubolený vkročil do kúpeľne, aby preskúmal svoje rany.	Adv → Adj		5.26
As you'll see, these are not easy things to talk about.	Ako uvidíte, sú to veci, o ktorých sa nehovorí ľahko .	Adj → Adv		7.02
Some companies lose money—meaning there are those who find no joy when everything shuts down temporarily .	Zatiaľ čo si niektoré spoločnosti zarobia čosi navyše, iné prídu o peniaze – čo znamená, že sú aj takí, ktorým nerobí radosť, keď musia na čas zavrieť.	Adv → N	{e}	1.75
Mack bundled up and headed outdoors to struggle the hundred or so yards down the long driveway to the mailbox.	Mack sa zababušil, vyšiel z dvier a namáhavo kráčal asi sto metrov po dlhej príjazdovej ceste k poštovej schránke.	V → Adv		1.75

Judging by the information in Tables 4 and 5, respectively, one may conclude that both text genres exhibit common formal transposition types, notably $N \rightarrow \text{Adj}$, $N \rightarrow V$, $V \rightarrow N$, $\text{Adj} \rightarrow N$ and $\text{Adv} \rightarrow N$, which have been tagged in the Tables by {a} - {e}, accordingly. In both texts, the word-class transposition of a verbal SL element into a nominal TL element is numerous. While in the non-literary text, the $V \rightarrow N$ word-class transposition accounts for 73.21% of all identified transpositions, in the literary text it reaches the value of 33.33%. Similarly, in both texts, a considerable number of $V \rightarrow N$ occurrences is made up by gerunds, e. g. *Fellowships may be taken into account in assessing the availability of sufficient resources* ~ *Pri posudzovaní dostupnosti dostatočných zdrojov by sa mohli brať do úvahy štipendiá* (non-literary text); *Raising a family kept her from pursuing dreams of becoming a doctor* ~ *Starostlivosť o rodinu jej zabránila uskutočniť sen stať sa lekárkou* (literary text). These gerundial forms (with a total of 19.51% of all $V \rightarrow N$ transpositions in the non-literary text and that of 21.05% in the literary text) have been classified as essentially verbal forms⁷ in their nature, hence fulfilling the transposition's prerequisite for the change of the grammatical category in the TL in comparison with the SL.

On the whole, the comparison of the results gained in Tables 4 and 5 reveals that the examined literary text shows a considerably greater typological variation of word-class transpositions. This ostentatiously richer variety of formal transpositions might be ascribed to the more manifold nature of the literary text's lexico-stylistic language resources in comparison to the non-literary text. With respect to the literary text, interestingly enough, there are more frequent reverse-order transpositions ($N \rightarrow \text{Adj}/\text{Adj} \rightarrow N$; $N \rightarrow V/V \rightarrow N$; $N \rightarrow \text{Adv}/\text{Adv} \rightarrow N$; $\text{Adv} \rightarrow \text{Adj}/\text{Adj} \rightarrow \text{Adv}$), which goes,

⁷ It goes without saying that gerund as a specific non-finite form ranks among archetypical features of English syntax and as a grammatical category is quite uncommon to the Slovak language system. Several authors (Dušková, 1994; Quirk, 1999; Biber, 2000) approach gerund as a form which displays a number of verbal as well as nominal features, which makes it from both a morphological as well as syntactic point of view truly special. Nominal features of gerund are evident in the fact that it can occur in all syntactic functions of a noun phrase: it can be determined by a possessive pronoun or common or adnominal case. On the other hand, distinction between the active and passive voice, temporal differentiation (simultaneousness or anteriority of verbal action, or its ability to fulfil the principal syntactic function of verb, that said to express the verbal component of the predicate (object, adverb, complement) reveal a whole lot about its verbal characteristics (see Petrlíková, 2007: 78). Thus, it seems apparent that due to this unique character of the English gerund one cannot determine hard-and-fast rules which would make it a solely nominal or verbal form. Since the excerpted gerunds in the present corpus show mostly object complementation (e.g. *the purpose of granting further rights*), they have been classified as primarily verbal forms for this thesis' sake despite their boundary status between nominal and verbal form.

however, hand in hand with the above-mentioned abundance of the lexico-stylistic means employed.

In this connection, it is vital to underscore that the N → Adj word-class transposition has been carefully kept apart from what has been dubbed in this publication as N→ Adj ‘constituent transposition’. While the former has been mostly envisaged as part of a noun phrase which is, as a rule, embedded into another, structurally more complex or superordinate phrase, the latter rests on recategorization of noun⁸ as part of noun phrase only into adjective in TL (e.g. *immigration policy* ~ *prist'ahovalecká politika*; *sales meetings* ~ *obchodné stretnutia*).

In quantitative terms, constituent transposition, with a total of 94 occurrences is much more preponderant in the non-literary text, compared to 8 occurrences in the literary text. This almost twelve times higher incidence of constituent transpositions in the non-literary text, however, is bound up with its much lower type-token ratio (reaching the value of 25.53%), due to a template-like nature of the lexical repository of the institutional-legal document. In terms of transpositions of other word-classes, though, the frequency of their occurrence in the non-literary text (56x) is almost tantamount to that in the literary text (57x). On the whole, there are a total of 150 word-class transpositions in the non-literary text as opposed to 65 word-class transposition in the literary text. Even if in case of the latter, the overall number of formal transpositions may seem a little bit distorted due to the non-literary text’s lower type-token ratio, one can argue that word-class transposition in general, regardless of the text genre in which it occurs, represents a powerful translation procedure serving as a proof of considerable structural dissimilarities between the English and Slovak languages.

Moving onwards, another identified group of transpositions in the text corpus is that of sentence-member transpositions. On a terminological note, it is noteworthy that it is not uncommon to refer to it as functional transposition (Klégr, 1996: 129), too, since it affects the syntactic function of the TL element as against that of the SL element. As regards Catford’s classification of shifts, structural shifts concur with it.

⁸ To avoid misunderstanding, it should be pointed out that what has been labelled as ‘constituent transposition’ in this thesis represents a modification amalgamation of two nouns taking the structural form of N + N (*noun* + *noun*). Even though the pre-modification of a noun by another noun in English commonly contributes to its adjectival nature (e.g. *language training*), the first noun in structures like this has been treated in this dissertation, from a purely morphological angle, as a noun which causes in the TL a shift into another word class, thus fulfilling an essential condition for transposition to take place. The same interpretation of the first constituent in modification amalgamation of two nouns (in both compounds and free word groups) is advocated by Dušková (1994: 27-28) and Biber (2000: 588-591).

The shift in the syntactic function of the SL element, however, is not accompanied by the lexical content alteration which remains intact. This view has also been supported by Alcaraz and Hughes (2002: 181) when they argue that both SL and TL constituents “may be fairly said to possess the same semantic weight or equivalent semantic density.” When juxtaposing formal and functional transpositions, it should be pointed out that precisely this intactness of the semantic content is what they share in common.

In both analysed texts, the sentence-member transposition between subject and object can be encountered very frequently (see Tables 6 and 7): *Access to economic activities for the first year of residence may be restricted by the host Member State ~ Hostiteľský členský štát môže obmedziť prístup k zárobkovej činnosti počas prvého roku pobytu* (non-literary text); *Arms flailing wildly in the hopes of maintaining the potential for balance, Mack found himself careening directly toward the only tree of any substantial size bordering the driveway ~ Mack divo mával rukami v nádeji, že mu to akosi umožní nadobudnúť rovnováhu, no zistil, že mieri k jedinému mohutnejšiemu stromu pri príjazdovej ceste* (literary text). The overview of identified functional transpositions in the examined texts is given in Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6 An Overview of sentence-member transpositions in the non-literary text

EN	SK	SM Type	%
Third country nationals who fall into the categories of unremunerated trainees and volunteers [...] are not covered by this Directive.	Na štátnych príslušníkov tretej krajiny , ktorí spadajú do kategórie neplatených stážistov a dobrovoľníkov [...] sa táto smernica nevzťahuje.	Subj → Obj	25.64
Member States may require students to report, in advance or otherwise, to an authority designated by the Member State concerned .	Členské štáty môžu vyžadovať, aby študenti nahlásili orgánu, ktorý určí dotknutý členský štát , vopred alebo iným spôsobom.	Obj → Subj	35.89
Fellowships may be taken into account in assessing the availability of sufficient resources .	Pri posudzovaní dostupnosti dostatočných zdrojov by sa mohli brať do úvahy štipendiá.	Obj → Att N	33.33
The notification shall specify the possible redress procedures available.	V oznámení sa uvedú dostupné možnosti preskúmania rozhodnutia.	Subj → Adv of Place	2.56
When the Member States adopt these measures , they shall contain a reference to this Directive.	Členské štáty uvedú priamo v prijatých opatreniach odkaz na túto smernicu.	Obj → Adv of Place	2.56

Table 7 An Overview of sentence-member transpositions in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>SM Type</i>	<i>%</i>
Cold was creeping quickly through his coat and sweater and Mack knew the ice rain that was both melting and freezing beneath him would soon become a major discomfort.	Pod kabát a sveter Mackovi rýchlo prenikal chlad, a on vedel, že ľadový dážď, ktorý sa pod ním roztápa i mrzne zároveň, čoskoro môže spôsobiť veľký problém.	Subj → Obj	30.0
Raising a family kept her from pursuing dreams of becoming a doctor.	Starostlivosť o rodinu jej zabránila uskutočniť sen stať sa lekárkou.	Obj → Att N	15.0
He is [...] slightly overweight , balding, short white guy	Je to [...] chlapík s miernou nadváhou , plešivejúci nižší beloch	Compl → Att N	5.0
In all the time I have known him he has been a rather gentle and kind soul .	Po celý čas, čo ho poznám, má veľmi jemnú a láskavú dušu .	Compl → Obj	10.0
Mack is not comfortable with his writing skills—something that he knows I am passionate about.	Nie je si istý pri písomnom vyjadrovaní – a vie, že ja sa týmto veciam venujem vášnivo rád.	Compl → Adv of Manner	10.0
March unleashed a torrent of rainfall after an abnormally dry winter.	V marci sa po nenormálne suchej zime rozpútal prudké dažde.	Subj → Adv of Time	5.0
“Hey, Mack, is that you? Recognized your voice .”	„To ste vy, Mack? Spoznala som vás po hlase .”	Obj → Adv of Manner	5.0
His face loses emotion like tide going out.	Z jeho tváre sa vytratia emócie ako pri odlive.	Subj → Adv of Place	10.0
With rough ice and sharp gravel gouging his hands and knees , Mack half crawled and half slid until he eventually made it to a level part of the driveway.	Do dlaní a kolien sa mu vrývali ľad a ostré kamienky. Mack spolu liezol a spolu sa kĺzal, kým sa napokon nedostal na spodnú úroveň príjazdovej cesty.	Obj → Adv of Place	5.0
He would have to wait until Nan made it home before he would get any real medical attention .	Na skutočnú zdravotnícku starostlivosť bude musieť počkať, kým sa nevráti Nan.	Adv → Obj	5.0

When interpreting the results of the sentence-member transposition analysis, one can draw from the frequency distribution provided by the tables above that transpositions between Subj and Obj make for major shifts in both analysed texts. The occurrence of the most frequent Obj → Subj transpositions with a total of 35.89% in the non-literary text, is however, entirely absent from the literary text genre. This can be interpreted by a striking genre incidence of the passive in the EU institutional-legal text where it represents a quintessential stylistic feature of legalese (see Crystal and Davy 1986; Alcaraz and Hughes 2002; Caliendo, Di Martino and Venuti 2005), in stark contrast to the literary text. Moreover, in both texts the Obj → Att N transposition assumes a fairly prominent placement. Both results in Tables 6 and 7 put this functional transposition type second in terms of the frequency of occurrence. In addition to these, minor functional transpositions such as those between Subj → Adv of Place and Obj → Adv of Place stand for the common intersection points between the two texts. On the whole, similarly to the word-class transposition analysis carried out, in case of the sentence-member transposition analysis, too, it has been found out that the literary text exhibits a much greater variation (compare Tables 6 and 7), which can be attributed yet

again to the more manifold lexico-stylistic language resources used, having a bearing on the text's level of functional units.

An intriguing finding within the performed corpus analysis is that word-class and sentence-member transposition cannot be separated too strictly from each other for the change of a word-class fairly often leads to a concomitant change of the syntactic function of the TL constituent, as amply demonstrated by the following examples: *Fellowships may be taken into account in assessing the availability of sufficient resources* ~ *Pri posudzovaní dostatočných zdrojov by sa mohli brať do úvahy štipendiá* (non-literary text) or *He swallowed a couple over-the-counter painkillers to dull the throbbing and limped toward the front entry* ~ *Zobral z police dve tabletky na utíšenie pulzujúcej bolesti, prehltol ich a odkrival k predným dverám* (literary text). As the excerpted corpus examples intimate, in both texts the formal $\forall \rightarrow N$ transposition is commonly accompanied by the functional $\text{Obj} \rightarrow \text{Att N}$ transposition when comparing originals against their pertinent translations, resulting in what could be labelled as 'transposition merger'.

On balance, quantitatively-speaking there are 39 sentence-member transpositions that have been identified in the non-literary text, as opposed to 20 sentence-member transpositions in the literary text. Thus, the ratio of the occurrence of sentence-member transpositions is almost 1.95 times higher in the analyzed non-literary text, which suggests that sentence-member transposition turned out to be more recurrent in the said text genre.

In short, based on the carried out corpus text analysis it can be strongly argued that by transpositions in general terms are meant interlingual shifts in the grammatical structure, status or function of TL units. When using transpositions, SL and TL syntagmatic or syntactic structures possess the identical meaning, however, they do not match in terms of their formal or functional facet. Given the significant linguistic-structural differences between the English and Slovak language codes, transpositions of the discussed twofold nature are quite plentiful in the corpus since they offer translators possibilities that help them eliminate the problem of untranslatability. In case of the word-class transposition, $V \rightarrow N$ transposition is prevalent in both texts, followed by the $N \rightarrow V$ and $\text{Adj} \rightarrow N$ types as regards the literary text. The sentence-member transpositions between Subj and Obj followed by those between Obj and Att N were preponderant in both texts. On the whole, the studied literary text exhibits a much wider typological variety of the examined transpositions compared to the non-literary text.

Besides, translators mostly make use of transpositions intuitively when seeking ways to transfer the ST into the TT. A whole array of factors of objective as well as subjective nature seems to influence the employment of transposition, ranging from irrefutable structural differences between the two languages entering the translation process up to subjective preferences of translator.

3.3.2 Modulation

This oblique translation procedure entails a “variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view” (Venuti, 2000: 89). This suggests that this semantic-pragmatic procedure rests on a shift of cognitive categories between two languages for it alters “the category of thought, the focus, the point of view and the whole conceptualization” of a described phenomenon (Hardin and Picot qtd. in Zakhir, 2008: 3). This shift seems to be justified in cases when a literal or even transposed translation results in a grammatically correct utterance but is still, however, considered somewhat unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 36).

Of all translation procedures, modulation appears to be the most thoroughgoing: whereas transposition puts the translator’s, first and foremost, grammatical abilities to the test, modulation is said to be a real touchstone for a competent translator. The cause for this is to be sought in the very nature of modulation. While transposition affects grammatical function of TL units only, modulation, on the other hand, involves alteration of semantic categories or the processes by which thoughts are conveyed. For illustration consider the following examples from the text corpus: *legal challenge ~ opravný prostriedok, third-party insurance policy ~ poistenie zodpovednosti za škodu spôsobenú pri výkone činnosti, possible redress procedures ~ možnosti preskúmania rozhodnutia* (non-literary text); *the late arrival ~ najmladší prírastok v rodine, One can almost hear a unified sigh rise from the nearby city ~ Človek takmer počuje jednotný výdych stúpajúci z neďalekého mesta* (literary text).

Vinay and Darbelnet (ibid.) see modulation as a change in point of view that allows us to express the same phenomenon in two languages in a different way. In all probability, they themselves were truly aware of the rather sweeping nature of their proposed definition for they dealt with it in several places of their monograph,

attempting to illustrate the procedure in question by vivid examples. Overall, they postulated 11 types thereof (ibid.: 89-90), grounded on the following substitutions: (a) abstract and concrete; (b) cause and effect; (c) means and result; (d) the part for the whole; (e) the whole for a part; (f) reversal of the point of view; (g) intervals and limits (or duration and date; distance and destination); (h) sense modulation; (i) form, aspect, usage; (j) geographical modulation; (k) change of comparison or symbol.

Moreover, as with transpositions, they distinguished between obligatory (or fixed) and optional (or free) modulations. As to the former, they are caused by an objectively dissimilar structure and usage of two languages. As regards the latter, cases of free modulation stand for single instances not yet fixed and sanctioned by usage, so that the procedure must be performed anew each time. As soon as a recipient when reading a translation where a free modulation has been used instantly feels the naturalness of expression, free modulation tends to a unique solution, which is necessary rather than optional. It is therefore evident that between fixed and free modulation there is but a difference of a degree and as soon as a free modulation is employed often enough, or is felt to offer the only solution, it may become fixed (ibid.: 37). In this connection it is noteworthy that the Czech scholar Bareš (1974: 8) reached a similar conclusion in his article where he equally splits modulations into mandatory and free.

As far as Newmark's and Schreiber's apprehension of modulation is concerned, they both draw on the French School of Comparative Stylistics' terminology. In the same manner as Vinay and Darbelnet, Newmark (1988: 88) understands by modulation "a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought." Surprisingly enough, even if he finds Vinay and Darbelnet's categorisation of modulation somewhat unconvincing, he does admit that their abundant examples are always thought-provoking. Therefore, Newmark treats individual modulation types in compliance with Vinay and Darbelnet and splits them into the change of the abstract for concrete, cause for effect, *pars pro toto*, *totum pro parte*, reversal of terms or active for passive and so forth. Overall, Newmark sheds a critical light on some Vinay and Darbelnet's modulations. In his view, the 'negated contrary' should be superseded by 'positive for double negative' (or 'double negative for positive'). Similarly, 'part for the whole' seems equally misleading and prefers to call it 'familiar alternatives' instead.

Finally, Schreiber's interpretation (1993: 226, translation by author) of modulation ranks it among semantic procedures as "a change of perspective by means of verbalization of other content features without altering sense". In addition to this, Schreiber remarks that the sense is only expressed by other symbols in two languages. At the same time, when using modulation in some cases the denotative equivalence can only be achieved when assuming the same knowledge of the referential content with SL and TL recipients.

In order to paint yet a richer picture of possible interpretations of modulation, it is vital to take into account some more recent theories. In this respect, a radically different view of modulation in comparison with the previously quoted approaches has been put forward by relevance theory, as expounded by Sperber and Wilson in 1995 and applied to translation by Gutt. The relevance theory suggests that when one reads a text he/she constructs a mental representation in the aftermath of the interpretative process. Accordingly, "a translator's goal is to produce a text in the TL which, in the right context, will enable the reader to construct a mental representation that resembles the one constructed by the reader of the ST" (Salkie, 2001: 439). Given the assumptions above, modulation may be construed as a relation between two texts that yield the same mental representation but via a different process of interpretation (*ibid.*).

Besides, another novel perspective on modulation is courtesy of van Hoof who elucidates it as "a type of transposition at the global level, applying to categories of thought, not to grammatical categories" (*qtd. in ibid.*: 434). Granted, the mention of the application of modulation to 'categories of thought' is nothing trail-blazing, however, the inter-link with transposition makes it stimulating. Van Hoof's approach immediately foregrounds the crux of the matter in analysing modulation, that said, an inter-lingual juxtaposition of various conceptual categories being applied to the same situation:

Whereas with transposition the translator's primary concern is the grammatical resources available in the TT, with modulation the principal consideration is the events or states of affairs that the words refer to. In the case of transposition, the guiding question is 'how would the target language naturally express it?'; with modulation the question is 'how would a speaker of the target language naturally conceive of it?' (Salkie, 2001: 437).

As it follows from the lines above, a translator who deals with modulation is obliged to take into account an extra dimension which transposition does not entail: not the words only but what they refer to, too.

Moving onwards, after bringing out some crucial insights into the term *modulation*, looking at the range of selected scholars' interpretations, it seems proper to pay heed to the actual text corpus analysis of modulation now. The in-depth corpus analysis has uncovered that modulation may be encountered both in lexis as well as in syntactic structures in both analysed texts. Modulation of the former sort has been labelled as the so-called 'modulation of expression' while modulation of the latter type has been given the designation 'pure modulation', in tune with Newmark (1988: 89).

Turning our attention to the modulation of expression first, it is essential to underscore that in the non-literary text 37.5% of modulations of this sort are terminology-oriented, which can be exemplified by the following: *academic record ~ priebeh štúdia na vysokej škole* or *possible redress procedures ~ možnosti preskúmania rozhodnutia*. Besides, another group of the revealed modulations of expressions with 34.38% pertains to language schemata (also known as language clichés or templates). These serve to demonstrate that modulation as a translation procedure is not confined to specialized terms only, but operates at higher discourse levels such as parts of sentences, too, as evinced by e.g. *This Directive shall be will without prejudice to more favourable provisions ~ Táto smernica sa nedotýka výhodnejších ustanovení or Subject to Article 3, a third-country national [...], shall ~ Pokiaľ článok 3 neustanoví inak, príslušník tretej krajiny [...] musí Apart from the terminology-oriented modulations and modulations of language schemata, the last ascertained group within modulations of expressions with an almost equal frequency distribution (28.13%) compared to the previous two are modulations which all congruently convey a dissimilar temporal point of view, or "a change in the point of view of interval/limit", to put it in Vinay and Darbelnet's terms. For instance, the interlingual juxtaposition such as *a third-country national [...] shall not be below the minimum age nor above the maxim age set by the Member State concerned* ~ *štátny príslušník tretej krajiny [...] musí dosiahnuť minimálny vek a nesmie prekročiť maximálny vek, ako je stanovený dotknutým členským štátom* evinces that both languages, English and Slovak face the same situation, however, with a certain divergence in the usage of formal means as far as the expression of a temporal perspective is concerned.*

For the sake of comparison, within the literary text, there are no modulations of language schemata present due to their common incidence in the EU institutional-legal text only. However, terminologically-oriented modulations occur in the examined text, too, even if to a much lesser extent, *e.g. Overtaken by the conviction of the moment, Mack confessed in tears that he hadn't done anything ~ V tej pôsobivej chvíli sa Mack so slzami v očiach priznal, že neurobil nič or You sense he has strong convictions ~ Cítite jeho vyhranené názory.* Unlike the non-literary text, the remaining modulations of expressions are dispersed among multifarious typological groups, ranging from 'interval and limit', 'reversal of the point of view' via 'negation of the opposite' up to 'abstract for concrete' and 'change of comparison'. Pertinent examples for the above-said categories in the examined literary text are summarised in Table 8.

Table 8 An Overview of modulations of expressions in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>Modulation Type</i>
"Sorry, I was busy for a second there."	„Prepáčte, bol som na chvíľu zaneprázdnený."	interval and limit
"Idiot," he grunted, thinking about Tony the mailman; an overly friendly Italian with a big heart but little tact.	„Idiot," zašomral, mysliac na poštára Tonyho, prehnane priateľského Taliana s veľkým srdcom, no nedostatkom taktu.	reversal of the point of view
Mack would like you to know that if you happen upon this story and hate it, he says, "Sorry."	Mack by chcel, aby ste vedeli, že ak si prečítate tento príbeh a nebude sa vám páčiť , odkazuje: „Prepáčte."	negation of the opposite
He hit hard, back of the head first, and skidded to a heap at the base of the shimmering tree.	Tvrdo dopadol, najprv zadnou časťou hlavy, a sklzol sa na hromádku pri koreňoch ligotavého stromu.	abstract for concrete
Then there is the late arrival, Melissa - or Missy, as we were fond of calling her.	Potom je tu najmladší prírastok , Melissa - alebo Missy, ako sme ju radi volali.	change of comparison
But instead, he spent the better part of the morning telecommuting into his downtown desktop.	Namiesto toho však väčšiu časť predpoludnia strávil pracovnými telefonátmi pre svoju v meste sídliacu firmu.	interval and limit plus terminology-oriented (notional) modulation

As it can be seen from Table 8, some excerpted corpus text examples amply demonstrate that literary modulation partially overlaps with some literary figures of speech such as metaphor or litotes. What these have in common with some examples from the table above is the change of abstract for concrete and negation of the opposite. The crucial difference, however, between the rhetorical devices adduced and literary modulations in general is that with the former the change in point of view may take place within one language, too, while with the latter the change in point of view, as a rule, happens between two languages.

As mentioned earlier, apart from the analysed modulations of expressions, the other distinctive modulations in the corpus are made up by the so-called pure modulations. In stark contrast to modulations of expressions, pure modulations are syntax-oriented and they subsume the cases which lead to the formation of the SL sentence equivalent in the TL by means of the change of perspective based on the substitution of the passive voice for the active. While some translation scholars unanimously view this translation procedure as a specific kind of modulation (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 252; Newmark, 1988: 89; Škrlantová, 2005: 50), every now and again there appear voices which approach the procedure under discussion as a mere transposition (see Alcaraz and Hughes, 2002: 182).

For illustration, consider the following corpus examples: *The methods of making such reference shall be laid down by the Member States* ~ *Podrobnosti o odkaze upravia členské štáty* (non-literary text); *Routine choices become adventures and are often experienced with a sense of heightened clarity* ~ *Rutinné rozhodnutia sa menia na dobrodružstvá a často ich prežívame s pocitom zvýšenej jasnosti* (literary text). It is a well-established fact that English is much more given to use of the passive voice than many other European languages including Slovak. As long as the translator desires to achieve naturalness of expression in the TL, transposition from one mode into another comes as a handy, if not necessary, ploy. Moreover, a consequential finding resulting from the corpus analyses is that pure modulation, as Newmark dubs it, is closely intertwined with sentence-member transposition because the change of the point of view goes hand in hand with the shift in the sentence-member categories.

Furthermore, in quantitative terms, modulations of expressions in the non-literary text (32 occurrences in total) turned out to be more abundant than in the literary text (21 occurrences). This finding runs counter to Alcaraz and Hughes' hypothesis that modulation, though extremely frequent in literary translation, will be much less so in the non-literary text (see 2002: 185 for more). On the other hand, however coincidental it may seem, the frequency distribution of pure modulations is the same in both texts (13 occurrences per each text). This suggests that when translating from whatever English text, it is crucial to eschew passive constructions, so endemic to the analysed SL, which would sound cumbersome in the TL.

To sum up, even if modulation in comparison to other translation procedures in the corpus is definitely not the leading procedure, its overall importance cannot be underestimated. In both texts it has been regarded as a semantic-pragmatic procedure

resting on a change in the point of view that enables us to convey the same phenomenon in two languages in a different way. Modulation has been encountered in the analysed texts both at the lexical (modulation of expression) as well as syntactic level (pure modulation). As to the former, in case of the literary text it has shown a greater typological scale ranging from ‘interval and limit’, ‘reversal of the point of view’ via ‘negation of the opposite’ up to ‘abstract for concrete’ and ‘change of comparison’. Overall, the use of modulation in the corpus has been influenced by the differences resulting from varying views of the extra-linguistic realities, cultures and language structure between English and Slovak.

3.3.3 Expansion and Reduction

Putting modulation-oriented matters to rest, it now seems fitting to continue in mapping out of translation procedures by paying heed to complementary techniques such as expansion and reduction. Similarly to the procedures outlined above, their place and scope within the selected translational systems (enhanced by other scholars’ insights as well) and pertinent terminological intricacies will be presented and juxtaposed before their actual contrastive corpus analysis.

Out of the chosen underlying theoretical frameworks, Schreiber (1993: 221; 1998: 152) is the only author who zeroes in on grammatical expansion as a translation procedure resting on the increase in word/sentence member count in TL. While Vinay and Darbelnet themselves do not adduce any procedure that would be explicitly labelled as expansion within their basic proposed model, Newmark touches upon it only very tangentially (cf. 1988: 90). It seems that the term with a much wider currency within translation studies with a largely synonymous referential content over the past two decades is that of explicitation. In this respect, it is noteworthy that the concept of explicitation was first introduced by Vinay and Darbelnet (however surprising that might seem despite its conspicuous absence within their basic model) in whose glossary of translation techniques explicitation is presented as “the process of introducing information into the TL which is present only implicitly in the SL, but which can be derived from the context or the situation” (Klaudy qtd. in: Baker, 2001: 81; Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 342). As such, the process at hand could concern any kind of textual material whatsoever, be it a literary or non-literary text.

Similarly, Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997: 55) see explicitation as “the phenomenon which frequently leads to TT stating ST information in a more explicit form than the original.” This implies that the translator may include additional explanatory phrases, spell out implicatures and add connectives so as to help the flow of text and increase its readability. Moreover, one of the newer definitions of explicitation says that it is “a technique of resolving ambiguity, improving and increasing cohesiveness of the [source text] and also of adding linguistic and extralinguistic information” (Pápai qtd. in Becher, 2010: 6).

One way or another, explicitation (and implicitation) strategies are customarily discussed with addition (and omission) strategies. What makes the situation even more knotty at a terminological level is that some scholars (e.g. Nida, 1964) regard addition as the more generic and explicitation as the more specific concept, while others (Séguinot, 1988; Schjoldager, 1995) interpret explicitation as the broader concept which encompasses the more specific concept of addition (Klaudy qtd. in Baker 2001: 81). However, in marked contrast to the approaches above stands Englund-Dimitrova (2003), who handles the terms ‘addition - explicitation’ and ‘omission - implicitation’ synonymously along with Alcaraz and Hughes (2002: 183-185), taking the same stance in case of the former.

“Since emerging as one of the first potential translation universals⁹ towards the end of the 1980’s, explicitation has continued to haunt translation studies as an elusive and yet almost omnipresent concept” (Kamenická, 2007: 118). In a seminal paper by Blum-Kulka in 1986, the so-called explicitation hypothesis was proposed, which posits that translations are generally more explicit than their respective source texts,¹⁰ *i.e.*

⁹ It should be noted that there have recently appeared translation studies scholars who, contrary to Blum-Kulka and Baker and other researchers, deny the alleged status of explicitation as a universal feature of translation. House (2004: 193), for instance, advances a “competing” hypothesis that “differences in linguistic-stylistic conventions between SL and TL texts” account for translational explicitation rather than a universal tendency of translators to explicate. Recently, Becher (2010:1) has voiced in his thought-provoking article the opinion that he has become convinced throughout his research-in-progress that the explicitation hypothesis is “problematic and should not be investigated anymore, since it is unmotivated, unparsimonious and vaguely formulated.” He acknowledges that all the authors delving into explicitation so far have not taken sufficient care in operationalizing the phenomenon of translation-inherent explicitation and/or in singling it out from related phenomena. Indeed, the concept of explicitation has always been surrounded by much conceptual vagueness, much depending on the kinds of things one accepts as explicitation, as admitted by Pym already (2005:2).

¹⁰ For a full wording of the explicitation hypothesis and its ensuing discussion see Pym (2005: 2-3) and Klaudy (qtd. in: Baker, 2001: 82). See also Chesterman’s *Memes of Translation* (1997), who views explicitation as “translation law” for translators are always bound to produce translations which will be more explicit than their originals (Laudani, 2007: 260).

“explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation” (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 21). According to the stated explicitation hypothesis, it is the translation process itself, rather than any specific differences between particular languages, which carries the major part of the responsibility for explicitation. That said, explicitation results from translation situation itself rather than interlingual contact.

Thus, it seems that explicitation takes place not only when something is expressed in the TT, which was not in the ST, but also in cases where something which was indicated or understood through presupposition in the ST is overtly expressed in TT, or an element in ST is given greater importance in the translation through lexical choice or emphasis. Bearing this in mind, some scholars appear to have been so keen on pushing the uttermost bounds of explicitation in such a manner that they interpret it, covering a wide range of possibilities at many language levels, as follows:

Explicitation takes place, for example, when a SL [source-language] unit of a more general meaning is replaced by a TL [target-language] unit of a more special meaning; the complex meaning of a SL word is distributed over several words in the TL; new meaningful elements appear in the TL text; one sentence in the SL is divided into two or several sentences in the TL; or, when SL phrases are extended or “elevated” into clauses in the TL, etc. (Klaudy and Károly qtd. in Pym, 2005: 3).

In the non-literary text, several typological variations of expansions, which are cogently summarised in Table 9, have been revealed by the corpus analysis. Many a time the identified expansions have been used because of the translator’s need to introduce precise semantic details into the TT, either for clarification or because of the constraints of the TL: while some of these expansions seem to be linked with cohesion markers knitting the TT together, others show an addition of lexical units in the TL due to explaining a potential information deficit on the part of the translator. Aside from these, other expansions are clearly a consequence of the legal context (*e.g.* explicitation of typically legal abbreviations) or are connected with an addition of a recurrent specialized term. In case of the legal abbreviation expansion, an intriguing phenomenon occurred in the analysed non-literary text in Article 2 paragraph (g) thereof where its Slovak language version contained a marked explication of the legal information missing from the English text whatsoever (cf. Table 9). A possible explanation for this is that an EU translator might have consulted either another language version of the document containing this bit of information (which is a common practice in the EU

setting), or they may have searched for it on their own due to the need of achieving some sort of legal precision.

Table 9 Expansion variation and its frequency distribution in the non-literary text

<i>Expansion variation</i>	<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Cohesive explicitness</i>	The approximation of the Member States' national legislation on conditions of entry and residence	Aproximácia vnútroštátnych právnych predpisov členských štátov týkajúcich sa vstupu a pobytu	19.64
<i>Lexical unit addition</i>	discrimination on the basis of colour [...], religion or belief	diskriminácia založená na farbe pleti [...], náboženskom vyznaní alebo viere	51.79
<i>Recurrent specialized term addition</i>	for the purposes of studies, pupil exchange, unremunerated training	na účely štúdia, výmen žiakov, neplateného odborného vzdelávania	12.5
<i>Legal abbreviation expansion</i>	in accordance with Article 1(2)(a) of Regulation (EC) No 1030/2002	v súlade s článkom 1 ods. 2 písm. a) nariadenia Rady (ES) 1030/2002, ktorým sa stanovuje jednotný formát povolení na pobyt pre štátnych príslušníkov tretích štátov	16.07

By contrast, cohesive explicitness occurs in the literary text, too, with 18.46% of occurrences almost tantamount to those in the non-literary text. However, by way of comparison, cohesive explicitness in the literary text is far and away more poetically-coloured (e.g. *He purposely thought about the shack as little as possible and even when he did his thoughts were neither kind nor good ~ Zámerne uvažoval o chatrči čo najmenej, a ak si ju pripomenul, jeho myšlienky neboli láskavé ani dobré*) or is connected with making pronominal/deictic reference more explicit in TL (e.g. *When he does speak you wonder if he isn't some sort of alien who sees the landscape of human ideas and experiences differently than everybody else ~ Keď prehovorí, človek uvažuje, či Mack nie je mimozemšťanom, ktorý vníma krajinu ľudských myšlienok a skúseností inak ako ktokoľvek iný*).

Furthermore, the expansion variation dubbed as 'lexical unit addition' turns out to be evidently preponderant in the literary text with 81.54%. In comparison to the non-literary text, these expansions, however, seem to be more influenced by the preceding context in some cases and they are in no way imposed on the TT by virtue of terminology (e.g. *minimum monthly resources ~ suma minimálnych mesačných zdrojov*). Compare the following: *Mack has been married to Nan for just more than thirty-three mostly happy years. [...] For some reason, beyond understanding, she seems to love him now more than ever, even though I get the sense that he hurt her something fierce in the early years ~ Mack prežil v manželstve s Nan už viac ako*

tridsaťtri zväčša šťastných rokov. [...]Z akéhosi nepochopiteľného dôvodu sa zdá, že ho teraz ľúbi viac ako kedykoľvek predtým, i keď mám pocit, že jej v prvých rokoch manželstva kruto ublížil.

Besides, in strong contrast to the non-literary text, lexical expansions based on unscrambling the implicitness of on-first-acquaintance-hard-to-resolve quotational compounds in the ST have also been singled out in the literary text (in this case coupled with recasting of sentences, too), e.g. *From the few stories Mack has told me, I know his daddy was not a fall-asleep-happy kind of alcoholic but a vicious mean beat-your-wife-and-then-ask-God-for-forgiveness drunk ~ Podľa niekoľkých príhod, ktoré mi Mack porozprával, viem, že jeho otec nepatril k pohodovým alkoholikom, ktorí rýchlo zaspia. Bol to zlý darebák, čo bil manželku a potom prosil Boha o odpustenie.* The presence of quotational compounds is related to the nature of the literary text which permits far and away a greater degree of lexical creativity on the part of its author which should be subsequently reflected in its translation. On the whole, the expansion variation in the literary text is smaller compared to the non-literary text due to the marked absence of ‘recurrent specialized term addition’ and ‘legal abbreviation expansion’.

For the sake of consolidation of the results gained as far as the expansion frequency distribution in the examined literary text is concerned, see Table 10 below for exemplifying instances.

Table 10 Expansion variation and its frequency distribution in the literary text

<i>Expansion variation</i>	<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Cohesive explicitness</i>	By gingerly probing around the soggy gash he succeeded in picking out the biggest pieces of debris, until it hurt too much to continue.	Opatrne ohmatával krvavú ranu a podarilo sa mu z nej vytiahnuť najväčšie kamienky a nečistotu, no napokon to bolelo priveľmi na to, aby v tom pokračoval.	18.46
<i>Lexical unit addition</i>	While Mack has struggled in a world with many shades of gray, hers is mostly black and white.	Zatiaľ čo Mack zápasí vo svete s mnohými odtieňmi sivej, jej farbami sú väčšinou čierna a biela.	81.54

Overall, in quantitative terms, 65 expansions were counted in the literary text as opposed to 56 expansions in the non-literary text, which means that expansion as such, triggered off by stylistic norms of the TL and communicative conventions, has been utilized in both texts to a similar degree. Therefore, expansion appears to be an inherent

translation universal regardless of the text type in which it occurs, contrary to what was suggested by Baumgarten, Meyer and Özçetin (2008: 198f) recently.

In short, it seems that in neither text the application of expansion led to creating any undesired redundancy in the TT in the sense of any unnecessary repetition of something that is already there, or overinterpreting the ST. Moreover, the choice of expansion seems to have been influenced by a whole range of factors: the translator's view of the appropriate relationship between the proto- and metatext, their notions of what is a good text in the TL, the admissible degree of freedom in translation and last but not far from least, the intrinsic translation process. In this regard, it has been put forward that the frequency of expansion/explicitation (or whatever we call it) is related to the degree of the translator's experience. The theories advanced have, however, been contradictory. While Levý (1965) assumes that explicitation is a hallmark of translator's style with limited experience, Blum Kulka (1986) gives evidence of explicitation from professional translators as well (Englund-Dimitrova 2003: 22), which offers a breeding ground for further research, falling outside this thesis' remit, though.

Turning our attention to reduction now, being the very antithesis or rather "stepbrother" of expansion, it would not be an overstatement to argue that the body of secondary literature on expansion/explicitation far exceeds that on reduction/implication. This marginal status of reduction can be traced back as far as the beginnings of translation studies when Nida introduces in his 1964 book the section on 'subtractions' as one of techniques of adjustment to the TT as follows: "Though, in translating, subtractions are neither so numerous nor varied as additions, they are nevertheless highly important in the process of adjustment" (qtd. in: Klaudy and Károly, 2005: 14). Moreover, the research of the relationship between explicitation and implication belongs to the study of translation universals, *i.e.* the universal characteristics of translated texts independent of language pairs and directions of translation (*ibid.*).

Schreiber interprets reduction as a grammatical procedure resting on reduction in the number of elements from the SL text, which is in striking contrast with expansion. Newmark, similarly to Schreiber, works with reduction, too, but he also mentions an alternative terminological designation for the procedure at hand, *i.e.* 'contraction'. It should be noted, too, that reduction is seen more or less synonymous with implication, drawing on Englund-Dimitrova (2003). In this respect, in the

glossary of terms of their publication, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 344) define implicitation as “a stylistic translation technique which consists of making what is explicit in the SL implicit in the TL, relying on the context or the situation for conveying the meaning.” Klaudy and Károly still take the meaning of implicitation further and subsequently enhance its reference frame. According to them, implicitation occurs, for instance,

when a SL unit of a more specific meaning is replaced by a TL unit of a more general meaning; **translators draw together the meaning of several words, and thus SL units consisting of two or more words are replaced by a TL unit consisting of one word; meaningful lexical elements of the SL text are dropped [emphasis added];** two or more sentences in the SL are conjoined into one sentence in the TL; or, when SL clauses are reduced to phrases in the TL, etc. (Klaudy and Károly, qtd. in: Pym, 2005: 3).

From the definition given above, it follows that out of standard lexico-grammatical transfer operations, implicitation may encompass lexical generalization, lexical contraction and omission, grammatical downgrading of translation units or grammatical omission.

Out of these, lexical contractions (*e.g. to carry out specialisation studies in the field of medicine ~ študovať špecializáciu v medicínskom odbore*) and especially grammatical omissions occurred in the analysed non-literary text. As to the latter, usually *-ing* and *-ed* non-finite verbal forms have been reduced in the TL, *e.g. the rules concerning the procedures for admitting third-country nationals ~ pravidlá o postupoch prijímania štátnych príslušníkov tretích krajín; the limits imposed on access to economic activities ~ obmedzenia prístupu k zárobkovej činnosti*. These above-said reductions result from essentially incommensurable grammatical structures of English and Slovak, respectively, where in case of the former there is a tendency to insert a collocation-induced non-finite verbal element in the SL which is naturally implicitated in the TL. However, all reductions in the non-literary text abide by the principle of relevance, that is, the translator made sure so that no crucial information is dropped in translation (see Zakhir, 2008: 3). Seen from a quantitative angle, reductions with 17 counts unequivocally make for only a minor translation procedure in the analysed text. This flagrantly low occurrence of the said translation procedure speaks volumes about the nature of translation work in the institutional habitat: the translator, tightly bound by the original and varied institutional rules connected with preserving language policy

of the EU, cannot take the liberty of taking away information from the ST (which could lead to legal sanctioning in the worst case of scenario) and in this vein ‘underinterpret’ the text.

By way of juxtaposition, as far as the studied literary text is concerned, lexical omissions outweigh grammatical ones, so abundant in the non-literary text, e.g. *It was a glorious world and for a brief moment its blazing splendor almost lifted, even if only for a few seconds, the Great Sadness from Mack’s shoulders.* ~ *Bol to nádherný svet a na krátku chvíľu jeho žiarivá krása takmer zdvihla z Mackových pliec Veľký smútok.* In some cases, in strong contrast to the non-literary text, the literary reductions are much more palpable, especially in the case of slang expression reduction, e.g. *Don’t you be goin’ and tryin’ to kid a kidder* ~ *Nevtipkujte.* Interestingly enough, the issue of ‘the loss and gain,’ which is often interpreted as something that is ‘lost’ from the SL context and may be replaced in the TL context (see Bassnett, 2002: 38), comes to expression in this text type, too. Compare the following: *When he does speak you wonder if he isn’t some sort of alien who sees the landscape of human ideas and experiences differently than everybody else* ~ *Keď prehovorí, človek uvažuje, či Mack nie je mimozemšťanom, ktorý vníma krajinu ľudských myšlienok a skúseností inak ako ktokoľvek iný.* As it can be seen, the TL sentence has been explicated by means of specifying the literary character’s proper name instead of using the pronominal reference in the ST. Thus, this gain has been counterbalanced by the loss of the lexical element ‘some sort of’ in its pre-modifier function, which is otherwise a very common practice in literary translation as such.

Even if the translator of the literary text on balance respected the principle of (semantic) relevance, too, unlike the non-literary text, there were some instances, where the omission of the lexical information in the TL could be interpreted as a negative semantic shift resulting in non-adhering to the principle of translation equivalence, ultimately leading to the stylistic impoverishment of the TT. Compare the following: *Rain was now freezing on impact with the frigid ground outside the house; enough reason for Mack to snuggle up with a book and a hot cider and wrap up in the warmth of a crackling fire* ~ *Dážď pri dotyku so studenou pôdou okolo domu mrzol, čo by mohol byť pre Macka dostatočný dôvod, aby sa s knihou [sic!] stúlil do blízkosti kozuba a zahalil sa do tepla, vychádzajúceho z praskotajúceho ohníka,* where the omission of the noun phrase ‘a horúcim muštom’ in the TL goes to the detriment of the information conveyed. Similarly, one could slightly object to the translation of the

sentence *Although he communicates well enough verbally, Mack is not comfortable with his writing skills – something that he knows I am passionate about. So he asked if I would ghostwrite this story as *Hoci Mack ústne dobre komunikuje, nie je si istý pri písomnom vyjadrovaní – a vie, že ja sa týmto veciam venujem vášnivo rád. A tak ma požiadal, aby som [sic!] napísal tento príbeh.* In my view, the translation of the lexeme ‘to ghostwrite’ has not been done justice enough by the Slovak translator; employing cohesive explicitness in the form of the personal pronoun ‘za ňho’ in the TT would have been much welcome.*

Last but not least, quantitatively-speaking, reductions in the examined literary texts with 51 counts occurred three times more compared to the non-literary text, which testifies to a prominent place of this translation procedure within the literary discourse.

3.3.4 Permutation

When comparing English and Slovak (non-)literary texts, apparent positional divergences of lexico-syntactic TL elements from their original positions in the ST cannot be passed unnoticed. This interlingual phenomenon has been treated as ‘permutation’ within our model. In light of the above said observation it becomes evident that this translation procedure is bound up with differences in a linear sentence organisation when comparing source texts and their pertinent translations.

Turning our attention to Schreiber, by whom our apprehension of the translation procedure under study has been inspired to a considerable extent, it ought to be highlighted that by permutation, originating in its special sense in generative-transformational grammar first, he understands “a change of the sentence constituent order” (1993: 220, translation by author), that said, an alteration of the organisation of lexical/syntactic units, or words/sentence stretches. As far as Schreiber’s treatment of permutations is concerned, he splits them somewhat customarily, as expected in translation studies, into obligatory and optional. Whereas the former are very often brought about by “linguistic distances [...] between two codes,” as expressed by Nida’s words (qtd. in *ibid.*: 227), the latter rest mostly on stylistic inversions of sentence segments whose primary role is to resume the natural succession of thematic structure in TL.

As to the other underlying theoretical frameworks of this dissertation, it should be made clear that while in Newmark’s translation procedures model there is no

(similar) translation procedure corresponding to Schreiber's interpretation of permutation (cf. Table 2), Vinay and Darbelnet subsume Schreiber's permutation under their transpositions when describing a procedure fulfilling a comparable function. As noted earlier in 3.3.1, transposition is understood with the French School of Comparative Stylistics representatives in a much wider sense; their special *chassé-croisé*, i.e. "change of positions" largely overlaps with the above-said Schreiber's designation. Furthermore, in the context of literary translation, this Vinay and Darbelnet's fairly specific grasp of transposition is curiously reminiscent of Popovič's *inversion* (1975: 123), who views it as a position alteration of means of expressions in translating.

As to the corpus text analysis performed, interlingual comparing of the non-literary and literary text has revealed apparent differences in a linear sentence organisation arising between the ST and TT. Depending on the extent of positional divergences between the SL and TL, it is possible to speak about minimum, median or maximum permutation, respectively. Our examined word-order inversions between the SL and TL have been inspired by Kendall's correlation coefficient τ , varying between $\langle -1, +1 \rangle$ wherein the value -1 stands for the very opposite word-order and that of +1 for the absolutely identical one (cf. Krupa 1980: 135 and http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kendall's_tau). However, to put the record straight, the original Kendall's interpretation has been somewhat re-fashioned for the purposes of this publication. Our minimum permutations have been marked with the value +1 to stand for relatively minor differences in the linear sentence organization when comparing the ST and TT. In case of maximum permutations, on the other hand, Kendall's concept of "oppositeness" of word-order has been treated as a signal for sizeable word-order differences, i.e. the replacement of sentence stretches from the middle section of a paragraph to the initial position thereof and so forth.

As regards the non-literary text under scrutiny, the most frequent permutation with 77.5% is the so-called 'minimum permutation' which is grounded on the minimum relocation of a string of words or phrase within a sentence under interlingual comparing the ST and TT. Similarly to other permutations in the corpus, it is applied by the translator so as to achieve a greater degree of naturalness in the TL. This, by a long way, most recurrent sort of permutation in the studied non-literary text testifies to the EU translators' efforts to keep the same ordering of sentence constituents in the Slovak translation as in its English original in order to achieve a parallel conceptualization of

the English text in its Slovak version. However, this approach taken by EU translators is in no way coincidental as they are bound by numerous restrictions imposed on them in the form of institutional guidelines, especially in the *Joint Practical Guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission* (see Chapter 4 thereof, in particular¹¹), which makes their translation in the TL strictly respect the SL's structure and its sentence segmentation. Apart from legal interpretation-related and purely practical reasons for such an approach on the part of translators, there are also EU-policy-related reasons according to which all EU citizens in the Member States regardless of their origin should be given the same information in any EU official language, equally presented in the same manner in terms of linguistic means.

Table 11 Permutations in the non-literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>Permutation Type</i>	<i>τ-interval</i>	<i>%</i>
Periodically, and for the first time by 12 January 2010, the Commission shall report to the European Parliament and the Council on the application of this Directive in the Member States and propose amendments if appropriate.	Pravidelne a po prvýkrát najneskôr do 12. januára 2010 <u>predloží</u> Komisia Európskemu parlamentu a Rade správu o uplatňovaní tejto smernice v členských štátoch <u>a v prípade potreby</u> navrhne zmeny a doplnenia.	minimum	<+1>	77.5
Fellowships may be taken into account in assessing the availability of sufficient resources.	<u>Pri posudzovaní dostupnosti</u> dostatočných zdrojov by sa mohli brať do úvahy štipendiá.	median	<-1, +1>	7.5
An agreement on the establishment of a fast-track admission procedure allowing residence permits or visas to be issued in the name of the third-country national concerned may be concluded between the authority of a Member State with responsibility for the entry and residence of students or school pupils who are third country nationals and an establishment of higher education or an organisation operating pupil exchange schemes which has been recognised for this purpose by the Member State concerned in accordance with its national legislation or administrative practice	Orgán členského štátu zodpovedný za vstup a pobyt študentov alebo žiakov, ktorí sú štátnymi príslušníkmi tretích krajín, <u>a zariadenie vyššieho vzdelávania alebo organizácia, ktorá vedie výmenný program žiakov a ktorá bola na tento účel uznaná dotknutým členským štátom v súlade s jeho vnútroštátnymi právnymi predpismi alebo správnu praxou</u> , môžu uzavrieť dohodu o zrýchlenom postupe pre vydávanie povolení na pobyt alebo víz pre dotknutého štátneho príslušníka tretej krajiny	maximum	<-1>	15.0

As results from Table 11 indicate, there are also such permutations that are grounded on such relocations of lexical units/syntactic phrases that are connected with functional syntax and many a time they are accompanied with sentence-member transposition. In comparison to the minimum permutation, the extent of lexico-syntactic element relocation in the TL is somewhat greater in terms of the change of the overall

¹¹ Consult <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/en/techleg/pdf/en.pdf> for more detail.

sentence perspective, thus this permutation has been dubbed as ‘median permutation’. Even if it generally holds true that the sequence of events and motifs in translation should not be changed, translators must take into account the fact that a linear organisation of the TL sentence has to comply with certain rules and the need for naturalness of the TL.

In order to round off the triad of the identified permutations in the non-literary text, the ‘maximum permutation’ has to be added. As already its given name suggests, and as elucidated earlier, it refers to such relocations of TL elements whose word-order is a far cry from that in the SL. In the analysed non-literary text, maximum permutation accounts for 15% of all permutations, which makes it the second most frequent permutation type. Maximum permutation, however, is strikingly absent from the dissected literary-text, as results given in Table 12 show.

Within the literary text, only minimum and median permutations have been revealed. In marked contrast to the non-literary text, though, these are sometimes intermingled within one sentence, e.g. *He crept back into the house and slipped a note under his mama’s pillow while his father lay snoring off another binge* ~ *Potom sa vkradol späť do domu, a zatiaľ čo otec s chrápaním vyspával ďalšiu opicu, vsunul pod mamin vankúš odkaz*. In addition, permutations in the literary text may be employed in liaison with other translation procedures, compare the following: *He swallowed a couple over-the-counter painkillers to dull the throbbing and limped toward the front entry* ~ *Zobral z police dve tabletky na utíšenie pulzujúcej bolesti, prehltol ich a odkrival k predným dverám* where the median transposition is accompanied by word-class transposition as well as expansion or *Overtaken by the conviction of the moment, Mack confessed in tears that he hadn’t done anything to help his mama as he witnessed, on more than one occasion, his drunken dad beat her unconscious.* ~ *V tejto pôsobivej chvíli sa Mack so slzami v očiach priznal, že neurobil nič, aby pomohol mame, keď pri viacerých príležitostiach videl, ako ju jeho opitý otec zbil do bezvedomia* where besides minimum permutation also lexical modulation as well as expansion and transposition can be found.

Table 12 Permutations in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>Permutation Type</i>	<i>τ-interval</i>	<i>%</i>
He's become one of those rare people who are totally at home in their own skin. And I feel at home around him like I do with nobody else.	Stal sa jedným z tých vzácnych ľudí, čo <u>sú vo svojej koži</u> dokonale v pohode. Aj ja sa <u>pri ňom</u> cítim v pohode ako pri nikom inom.	minimum	<+1>	65.88
Little barbs of sarcasm occasionally spill through the cracks in his reserve like piercing darts dipped in poison from a well deep inside.	Cez praskliny jeho uzavretosti občas preniknú <u>drobné ostne sarkazmu</u> ako bodavé šipy nasiaknuté jedom zo studne hlboko vnútri.	median	<-1, +1>	34.12

In short and sum, in terms of frequency distribution in the corpus it can be said that even if maximum permutations are markedly absent from the literary text, results in Table 12 put minimum permutation quite extraordinarily first, making up 65.88% of all permutations, similarly to the non-literary text. Overall, even if the permutation distribution shows a somewhat wider variation in the non-literary text, the occurrence of permutations in the literary text outnumbers those in the non-literary text almost 2.1 times by 85 to 40. This might be interpreted in light of the fact that translating literary texts demands due to their motley nature of lexico-stylistic resources employed a considerably more frequent application of the translation procedure at hand in order to guarantee a natural and smooth TL text flow.

3.3.5 Calque

The translation procedure of calquing ranks among direct translation procedures, in compliance with the theory put forward by *Stylistique Comparée* (cf. 3.2.1). In contrast with oblique translation procedures, applied predominantly in cases of significant structural, conceptual and/or stylistic differences between the SL and TL when dealing with equivalence asymmetries, direct translation procedures are based on a relatively minimum ST structure modification.

Adherents of the French Comparative School of Stylistics J. P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet were among the first scholars to put calque on the map of translation techniques. Within their proposed model, calque is conceived of as a particular kind of *emprunt* (i.e. borrowing): when translating a given expression a syntactic 'emprunt' is used and literal rendering of its individual parts is taking place. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 32) distinguish, on the one hand, between a lexical calque (*Compliments of*

the Season! ~ *Compliments de la saison!*), respecting the syntactic structure of the TL, whilst introducing a new mode of expression, and on the other hand, a structural calque (*science-fiction* ~ *science-fiction*) which introduces a new construction into the language. What might come as a surprise within Vinay and Darbelnet's account of calque, though, is their conspicuous exhortation aimed at translators not to bend TL patterns in order to mimic SL models but rather coin new words instead and in this way avoid painful calques. To go as far as encouraging the translator to neologise, when the whole idea was historically repulsive to the French, shows how unsusceptible to calque Vinay and Darbelnet were. Only recent studies on calques (Sewell, 2001; Garnier, 2009) tend to be more positive-minded and underscore "the neologising power of the calque mechanism as a way of both conveying new concepts to new target audiences and of enriching the vocabulary of the receptor language" (Sewell, 2001: 608).

A different view of the essence of calquing is offered by the German translation studies scholar Schreiber. He himself does not use the term 'calque', though. Among his varied lexical procedures the so-called 'change of the lexical unit structure' (*Lexikalischer Strukturwechsel*) is drawing near the essence of calque. Schreiber describes it as a change in word-formation, conditioned by a different structure of respective languages, or stylistic requirements (1998: 152). Calque as a translation procedure thus overlaps, at least partially, with the 'change of the lexical unit structure', the latter having a broader meaning.

Nor does Newmark call for the designation label 'calque' in an explicit way. In his own words, he prefers to use a "more transparent term", that of 'through-translation', which is, according to the author, possibly the closest translation of an SL term into the TL while respecting its syntactic functions at the same time (Newmark, 1981: 76). The author further stresses the importance of using this procedure when rendering the names of international organisations, often consisting of 'universal words' with a fairly transparent structure, e.g. *European Parliament* ~ *Európsky parlament*, *European Economic and Social Committee* ~ *Európsky hospodársky a sociálny výbor*, *EC* ~ *ES* etc.

In addition, Newmark uses for such official and generally accepted renderings of institutional terms such as those adduced above a specific designation, notably that of 'recognised translation' (ibid.: 76; 1988: 89). In order to shed some more light on recognised translation, it should be underscored that it may be taken for an already resolved issue, while calque as such may still be in its infancy of usage because terms

that are being taken over as neologisms are more often than not haphazardly calqued and only with the lapse of time their established designation, *i.e.* recognised translation starts to be employed. As indicated in the examples above, it would make no sense anymore to muse on potential translation variants of the said expressions; any other translations proposed would lead to an incorrect translation. In the analysed non-literary text recognised translation occurrences make up cca. 7.51% out of all calques identified as opposed to the literary text where such a procedure was absent due to non-legal nature of the text.

Furthermore, another translation procedure employed by Newmark, notably ‘translation label’ partially overlaps with calque, too. Translation label serves as “a provisional translation, usually of a new institutional term, which should be made in inverted commas, which can later be discreetly withdrawn” (Newmark, 1988: 90). However, no translation labels have been revealed by the corpus text analysis performed.

Having dealt with calques and related translational terms in the crucial frameworks underlying this publication, it seems appropriate to pose a question at this point as to what calque actually is. It has to be admitted that translation theory tends to, more often than not, obscure this problem at hand rather than provide an unequivocal answer to it. It therefore seems of paramount importance to clarify which TL units in the corpus are taken for translation calques, which criteria were applied when identifying them and in this manner arrive at an operational calque definition in the text corpus. In the corpus calques are perceived as literal translations of names from the SL into the TL, as literal borrowings of transparent designations from the SL which have their respective literal equivalents in the TL. This means that apart from the already mentioned names of international organisations and institutional terms comprising semantically transparent ‘universal words’ in the non-literary text, the following are also taken for calques:

- literal rendering of common collocations (*voluntary service ~ dobrovoľná služba, Member States ~ členské štáty, translucent mantles ~ priehľadné plášte, final destination ~ konečná destinácia*);
- translation of word-formation syntagmas (*bilateral or multilateral agreements ~ dvojstranné alebo viacstranné dohody, crystalline rain ~*

krištáľový dážď) or phrases (*Community exchange programme ~ výmenný program Spoločenstva, icy rain pellets ~ broky ľadového dažďa*).

Corpus examples such as those above signpost that calque is a word/phrase that morphematically and semantically mimicks a foreign word/phrase in the TL. Thus, a certain imitation of the SL form, or mimesis is strived for on the part of the translator. In fact, this is the core of difference between calque and borrowing, since the latter rests on tranfering the whole word (see 3.3.6 for more detail). On the basis of the textual analysis performed, a conclusion has been reached that in both analysed texts either semantic (*preparatory course ~ prípravný kurz, home office ~ domáca kancelária*) or word-formation calques have been found (*subparagraph of Article ~ pododsek článku, long-lost friend ~ dávno stratený priateľ*). Calquing represents a unique manner of taking over lexical units for it is not syntagmas or phrases that are being taken over but rather their motivation, either of semantic or word-formation nature, which forms the basis of the calque distinction adduced above. In sum, semantic calques prevail in both analysed texts almost in absolute majority (97.65% in the non-literary vs. 95.35% in the literary text).

In the non-literary text, calques make up the most frequent translation procedure with a total of 213 occurrences. This clearly confirms that current EU document translation tendencies are heading towards a distinct usage of the direct translation procedure of calquing. In the EU-setting it is the elements of the ST that make for the determining factors which influence the translator's strategy selection on the basis of which they approach the process of translation. In this respect, EU documents embody an independent supra-national textual unit. Therefore, it is not the translator's task to adapt these documents to national legislation texts, but keep them in the unchanged form, striving for the most faithful expressions appearing in the ST. By comparison, calques in the literary text with a total of 43 counts occur almost 4.95 times less, which suggests that their place in the analysed text is not outstanding because literary text translation is not a mere "interlingual text reproduction" (Kjaer, 2007: 48) but, to a great extent, a translator's wholly new text composition.

3.3.6 Borrowing

Undoubtedly, lexis is a part of language which is liable to swift changes in multifarious areas under the influence of the dynamic development of society. Notably, lexis of each and every language must be sensitively responsive to new ideas, concepts, objects and inventions of the extra-linguistic reality, which all contribute to its ever altering dynamic nature. This can be observed especially on the lexical facet of the analysed non-literary text in whose vocabulary it is apparent that no official language of the EU develops in isolation from the extra-linguistic reality, but quite on the contrary, it is being moulded and shaped by other languages and cultures in contact. This explains why a great many words in the analysed non-literary text, with international words,¹² in particular, are common for more languages, serving as an instrument and reflection of a common (legal) culture.

Turning our attention to the translational models in comparison, the adherents of *Stylistique Comparée* Vinay and Darbelnet label the procedure of taking over an expression from SL into TL as ‘emprunt’. Assigning it to direct translation procedures, they regard it as the simplest of all translation procedures which is used to overcome a lacuna, usually a metalinguistic one (*e.g.* a new technical process or an unknown concept). Occasionally, borrowing is used in order to induce a stylistic effect, to introduce the flavour of the SL culture into translation by means of foreign terms (*a little bottle that contained about an ounce of Ma Griffe ~ fláštička asi s uncou Ma Griffe*). While there are some well-established, older borrowings that are no longer regarded as such since they have become a part of the respective TL lexicon (in English words as “menu”, “dèjà vu”, “enfant terrible” are no longer considered as borrowings), in any language there are some novel borrowings, too, which are much more enticing from a translator’s point of view (Venuti, 2000: 85).

¹² An international word (or internationalism) is a loanword, predominantly of Latin or Greek extraction, that occurs in several languages with the same or at least similar meaning and etymology. These words exist in several different languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from the ultimate source. Pronunciation and orthography are similar so that the word is understandable between the different languages. It is debated how many languages are required so that a word is taken for an internationalism, even if some authors (see Mistrík qtd. in: Schwarzová, 2003: 131) mention the necessity of international words occurring in at least three languages. It should be pointed out that the term “internationalism” is rather uncommon in English linguistics, although English has contributed a considerable number of words to world languages, *e.g.* the sport terms such as: *football*, *baseball*, *cricket*, and *golf* (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internationalism_linguistics).

As far as Schreiber's model of translation procedures is concerned, he works with the term 'lexical borrowing' (*Lexikalische Entlehnung*) when he describes an SL word which is transferred directly to a TL. Schreiber (1993: 215 ff) takes the view that it remains debatable if lexical borrowing is a translation procedure at all because no significant structural change is taking place in TL, only orthography of a transferred word is adapted at its best. On the other hand, no other translation procedure seems fitting for describing the phenomenon when a translator opts for borrowing an SL expression for introducing a veneer of local colour.

Moreover, Newmark employs the terms 'transference' and 'transcription', respectively instead of borrowing. He emphasizes the need of having recourse to transference when translating

names of all living [...] and most dead people; geographical and topographical names [...]; names of periodicals and newspapers; titles of as yet untranslated literary works, plays, films; names of private companies and institutions; names of public or nationalized institutions, unless they have recognized translations; street names, addresses, etc. (Newmark, 1988: 82).

At the same time, the English translation studies scholar speaks of the need to translate the-to-be-imported names of SL objects, inventions, devices and processes into the TL creatively, preferably 'authoritatively', if they are neologisms, even though brand names have to be transferred (ibid.: 81). It should be pointed out that when taking over foreign expressions, a term may be taken over either in its original wording (*Acquis*), or with an adaptation of a denomination to the norms of the TT both on phonetic and morphological levels (*subsidiarity* ~ *subsidiarita*; *baseball card* ~ *bejzbalová karta*). Drawing on Newmark's terminology, the former should be called 'transference' (*i.e.* direct borrowings from an SL) and the latter 'transcription' (*i.e.* naturalized borrowings conforming to the rules of grammar and pronunciation of the TL). The argument in favour of using transference is that it conveys respect for the SL country's culture. On the downside, though, is that the translator's job is to translate, to explain (ibid.: 82).

It is further noteworthy that when taking over a word from SL into TL, with borrowing the transfer of both its formal as well as semantic facet is taking place at the same time. Precisely in this borrowing differs from calquing where only the semantic

facet of a given word is transferred for “the translator imitates in his translation the structure or manner of expression of the ST” (Zakhir, 2008: 2).

Bearing the temporal dimension in mind, there are borrowings which still sound fairly novel or ‘exoticising’ for the Slovak recipient’s ear (e.g. *subsidiarity* in the non-literary text, which refers to one of the governing principles of the EU) as opposed to those ones which have been domesticated in the TL environment and slowly but surely with the lapse of time have become fully-fledged member of the TL inventory, losing their veneer of novelty (e.g. *approximation* ~ *aproximácia*, *mobility* ~ *mobilita*, *baseball card* ~ *bejzbalová karta*).

In the non-literary text domesticated borrowings were clearly prevalent, the vast majority of them being international words functioning as what has been labelled by the Czech legal expert Tomášek (1998: 120) as so-called “xenoterms”, *i.e.* lexical borrowings of legal terms. The use of international words in this text type under scrutiny pursues a certain pragmatic aim, notably to facilitate specialized communication and make it more effective. Besides, international words in the non-literary text are endowed with the much needed dose of precision and definiteness of meaning. Regardless of this, all the non-literary borrowings could be dubbed transcriptions, leaning on Newmark’s terminology, as clarified above.

By contrast, in the literary text, surprisingly enough, only two transcriptions have been identified, both of them conforming in a ‘naturalized’ manner to the phonetic and grammatical rules of the TT; compare the following excerpt:

He then unearthed from next to the outhouse the small tin box housing all his earthly treasures: one photograph of the family with everybody squinting as they looked into the sun (his daddy standing off to one side), a 1950 Luke Easter rookie **baseball card**, a little bottle that contained about **an ounce of Ma Griffe** (the only perfume his mama had ever worn) ... (Pg. 8) ~

Odniesol do prístrešku pri dome malú plechovú škatuľku, do ktorej dal všetky svoje svetské poklady: rodinnú fotografiu, na ktorej všetci škúľili, pretože pozerali do slnka (otec stál bokom), zberateľskú **bejzbalovú kartu** s fotkou Lukea Eastera z roku 1950, fľaštičku s asi **uncou Ma Griffe** (jediného parfumu, ktorý jeho mama používala) ... (Pg. 8).

Here, the translator’s decision to borrow the English unit for measuring liquids introduces an element of local colour into the TL which is simultaneously coupled to a transference of the perfume’s name. Yet, the conversion of the said English unit of

measurement into its approximate Slovak equivalent of millilitres would have been certainly more welcome for the Slovak recipient because it would enable them to imagine its volume much easier. In the realized Slovak translation, though, the extent of the English unit of measurement remains somewhat vague in the TL recipient's consciousness. By comparison, the almost 5.6 times higher ratio of borrowing occurrence in the non-literary text could be explained by the tendencies manifesting themselves in the EU institutions which are geared towards harmonizing certain EU legal terms so that in each official language of the EU, with Slovak being one of them, their respective borrowings are likely to appear.

3.3.7 Translation Procedures Occurring in the Literary Text Only

The following thesis' section will give an overview of distinctive translation procedures which are endemic to the literary text only. They comprise recasting of sentences, naturalization, adaptation and paraphrase. Each and every procedure will now be dissected in detail and supported with pertinent textual examples.

3.3.7.1 Recasting sentences

Recasting sentences can be looked upon as a grammatical translation procedure functioning at a syntactic level, based on altering sentence structure during translation process in such a manner so that SL complex sentences are recast as TL co-ordinate (or compound) sentences or SL complex sentences are rendered as two or more TL sentences (cf. Newmark, 1981: 30).

It is inevitable to note that the translation procedure at hand is touched upon only very tangentially across translation studies-oriented literature. Except for Newmark (ibid.), who devotes to it no more than a succinct explanation in his work *Approaches to Translation*, the translation procedure does not merit Vinay and Darbelnet's attention, either. Terminologically-speaking, recasting sentences may be compared with Schreiber's 'transformation' (see Table 3) and on a broader level, with Klaudy and Károly's explicitation (see 3.3.3).

Table 13 Recasting sentences in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>EN/SK Pg.</i>
I suppose that since most of our hurts come through relationships so will our healing, and I know that grace rarely makes sense for those looking in from the outside.	Predpokladám, že keďže väčšina našej bolesti pramení zo vzťahov, pramení z nich aj naše uzdravovanie. Viem aj, že odpustenie zvyčajne len ťažko chápu tí, čo naň pozerajú zvonka.	11/10
I will tell you honestly that being a part of this story has affected me deep inside, in places I had never been before and didn't even know existed; I confess to you that I desperately want everything Mack has told me to be true.	Úprimne vám poviem, že to, že som súčasťou tohto príbehu, ma hlboko vnútorne ovplyvnilo v tom, čo som nikdy predtým nepocítil a ani som netušil, že to existuje. Priznávam, že zúfalo chcem, aby všetko, čo mi Mack povedal, bola pravda.	12/11

As it can be inferred from Table 13, recasting sentences works as an example of converting English compound-complex sentences into two independent sentences in Slovak; via copulative conjunction *and* in the first pair of sentences and via semi-colon in the second pair of sentences. This splitting of sentences into two in the TL is of paramount importance with respect to upholding the dynamics of the language. The reverse case of recasting sentences, *i.e.* combining two independent SL sentences into one TL sentence has not been revealed by the literary text analysis. Overall, 10 occurrences of recasting sentences have been identified. The total absence of recasting sentences in the scrutinized non-literary text can be attributed to official prescriptions imposed on EU translators, anchored in the *Joint Practical Guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission* (especially Chapter 4 thereof), which preclude them from splitting sentences for the sake of easier intelligibility due to legal and purely practical reasons (see Gibová, 2010: 70).

3.3.7.2 Naturalization

According to Newmark (1988: 82), naturalization as a translation procedure succeeds borrowing (or transference) and “adapts the SL word to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL.” Thus, naturalization rests on adapting an SL word to the grammatical rules of the TL, *e.g. a 1950 Luke Easter rookie baseball card ~ zberateľská karta s fotkou Lukea Eastera z roku 1950; Mack [...] moved out to Oregon where he met and married Nannette A. Samuelson ~ [...] Mack sa presťahoval do Oregonu, kde spoznal Nannette A. Samuelsonovú a oženil sa s ňou.* Here, the English proper names must be adapted to Slovak morphological conventions; in case of the former the inflectional endings in the

TL serve as a proof of Slovak being a synthetic language (as opposed to the analytical nature of English) while in case of the latter the *-ová* suffix reflects the common Slovak norm of marking female surnames. Intriguingly enough, naturalization of proper names overlaps with ‘transliteration’, which is in tune with Hervey and Higgins one of the possible strategies for translating personal names, when “the [SL] name is shifted to conform to the phonic and graphic rules of the TL”¹³ (qtd. in Pour, 2009: 9), thus creating absolute equivalence.

Moreover, the use of naturalization on the part of translator testifies to the idea that translation puts into contact two different cultures. This is why the translator has to decide to what extent he allows the TL reader to be confronted with features of a foreign environment whose meaning and stylistic value must be quite clear in the target environment. Drawing on Lotman’s theory, this tension between different cultures can be expressed by the basic opposition between “we” and “them” (Vilikovský, 1982: 131). In other words, the features that the target reader readily identifies as their own, bound up with the domestic culture and ambience, are apprehended as an expression of the cultural “we”, while the foreign features connected with the original culture are customarily identified with the notion “them.” An illuminating example of this can be found in the literary text under focus: *Mack bundled up and headed outdoors to struggle the hundred or so yards down the long driveway to the mailbox ~ Mack sa zababušil, vyšiel z dvier a namáhavo kráčal asi sto metrov po dlhej príjazdovej ceste k poštovej schránke*. Here, if the English unit of measurement were transferred directly into the Slovak language, it would maximize the foreignness of the ST and emphasize the English colour, however its communicative message in the TL would certainly be hampered, imposing greater demands on the TL recipient’s imagination. For this reason, the rendering of such culture-specific words such units of measurement is fairly frequently resolved by means of naturalization in Slovak.

In summary, naturalization represents only a minor translation procedure with a total of three counts, which could have been caused by the nature of the literary text under focus which was not so heavily culture-loaded.

¹³ Apart from transliteration, the other common strategies for rendering personal names are ‘exoticism’ and ‘cultural transplantation’. In case of the former, the name should remain unchanged from the SL into the TL. As for the latter, the SL name is replaced by the TL name that has the same cultural connotation as the original one (see Pour, 2009: 9 for more). Within the Slovak tradition of translation studies, these phenomena are discussed within so-called exotization vs. naturalization strategies (see Vilikovský, 1982: 130 ff), while in the context of Anglo-American translation culture, the terms foreignization vs. domestication, as propounded by Venuti, are preferred (see Mizani, 2010: 7).

3.3.7.3 Adaptation

With adaptation, the extreme limit of translation may be achieved. According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 39) adaptation ranks as an oblique translation procedure which is used “in those cases where the type of situation referred to by the SL message is unknown in the TL culture”. In such cases translators have to create a new situation that can be regarded as being equivalent. Adaptation can therefore be looked upon as a special kind of equivalence between ST and TT, a situational equivalence, which is natural for the receiver (ibid.).

In adaptation, the translator strives to alter the content and form of the ST in a way which conforms to the rules of language and culture in the TL community. In general, this procedure is employed as an effective way to attend to culturally-bound words/expressions, metaphors and images in translation (Zakhir, 2008: 4). Thus, when comparing Vinay and Darbelnet’s and Zakhir’s definitions, it becomes apparent that bridging a cultural gap between two languages is a central issue in adaptation.

Newmark (1988: 91) holds the same opinion, drawing on Vinay and Darbelnet, that adaptation is based on “the use of a recognized equivalent between two situations, this [being] a matter of cultural equivalence.” What is more, he regards adaptation (along with equivalence used in translation of idioms, phrases, clichés and proverbs) as a procedure which is not very “usable” (ibid.) Instead, Newmark proposes to have recourse to ‘cultural equivalent’ within his model, *i.e.* “an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word”; thus *Abitur (Matura)* as ‘the German/Austrian) “A” level’. In order to give a complete survey of possibilities of dealing with culturally-loaded lexis, another common procedure applied to cultural words entails the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term, which neutralizes or generalizes the SL word, e.g. *baccalauréat* ~ ‘*French secondary school leaving exam*’. This procedure, based on deculturalising an SL cultural word, is referred to by Newmark as ‘functional equivalent’. Last but not least, the triad of possibilities is rounded off by the so-called ‘descriptive equivalent’, which is used to describe an SL expression, sometimes to the detriment of its function, e.g. *machete* ~ *Latin American broad, heavy instrument* (Newmark, 1988: 82-84).

As results of the literary text analysis in Table 14 show, the excerpted adaptations evince mostly functional and cultural equivalents, to put it in Newmark’s terms, except for one case of Herman Melville’s book title, which is supportive of

Vinay and Darbelnet's observation (1958/1995: 39 and Venuti, 2000: 91) that adaptation also occurs with translation thereof. The adaptations below imply the translator's awareness of the cultural differences of the ST, which result in a new cultural transplantation in the TT, and an effort to restrain the SL ethnocentricity of translation.

Table 14 Adaptations (cultural & functional equivalents) in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>EN/SK Pg.</i>
Since then he and I have been, as the kids say these days, hangin' out, sharing a coffee— or for me a chai tea , extra hot with soy.	Odvtedy sa, ako dnes vravia decká, spolu potlkáme, popijame kávu –alebo, pokiaľ ide o mňa, mimoriadne korenistý čaj so sójou .	7/7
You probably wouldn't notice him in a crowd or feel uncomfortable sitting next to him while he snoozes on the MAX (metro-transit) .	Pravdepodobne by ste si ho nevšimli v dave, ani by ste sa necítili nepríjemne, ak by driemal vedľa vás na sedadle v autobuse .	10/9
Tyler, a recent college grad , is off at school working on a master's degree.	Tyler, ktorý nedávno absolvoval vyššiu odbornú školu , teraz študuje na univerzite.	11/10
Glancing at himself in the mirror, he thought he looked a little like some rough sailor out of Moby Dick .	Pozrel na seba v zrkadle a pomyslel si, že vyzerá ako nejaký drsný námorník z Bielej veľryby .	19/16

Interpreting the gained results in broader terms, it must be acknowledged that each language community is endowed with its own culturally specific features. As Vermeer contends, “language is part of a culture” (qtd. in: Mizani, 2010: 3), which implies that language and culture may be seen as closely entwined and intermingled, and both aspects must be carefully considered for translation. As early as 1964 Nida concluded that differences between cultures may cause even more severe complications for the translator than linguistic differences. Notably, a truly competent translator ought to be heedful of the complexities connected with bridging the gap between different cultures. Therefore, cultural presuppositions about the reality of the SL community should form a firm part of translator's competence, as called for by Vermeer (1989), Hermans (1999), Hervey and Higgins (2002) and ke Ping (2004); (ibid., 8-10).

3.3.7.4 Paraphrase

In common usage as a term for loose rewording, expressing something in one's own words, paraphrase (sometimes known as periphrasis) is best known in translation theory from John Dryden's 1680 preface to his translation of Ovid's *Epistles*. Therein, he introduced the concepts of metaphrase and imitation as well as ‘a means betwixt

them’, paraphrase. For him, metaphrase as word-for-word translation and imitation were ‘too extremes which ought to be avoided’ and paraphrase as the mode of translation avoiding these dangers combined their virtues of fidelity to the original (metaphrase) and TL fluency (imitation). Moreover, paraphrase in accord with Dryden typified “translation with latitude, where the author was kept in view by the translator, so as never to be lost, but his words were not so strictly followed as his sense; and that too was admitted to be amplified, but not altered” (qtd. in: Baker, 2001: 166).

However ancient this closer presentation of paraphrase may seem, the crucial ideas of artistic latitude, amplification and freer rendering of the meaning of the sentence still constitute its core. Moreover, they significantly influenced Newmark (1981: 31; 1988: 90) in his apprehension of paraphrase, who thinks of it in agreement as “an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text”. He also speaks of paraphrase as the translator’s last resort in anonymous texts which are poorly written, or have important implications and omissions.

A noteworthy treatment of paraphrase, however rare across translation studies generally, is provided by Baker (1992: 38-40). She considers paraphrase a useful strategy used by professional translators for dealing with non-equivalence between two languages. If the concept expressed by the SL item is not lexicalised in the TL, the paraphrase strategy based on modifying or unpacking the meaning of the source item may be employed. Its main advantage is that it is instrumental in achieving a high level of precision in specifying propositional meaning of some semantically complex SL words, in particular. The demerit of using paraphrase, though, is that it might be cumbersome and awkward for it might involve filling a one-item lexical slot with a lengthier explanation comprising several items.

The theoretical explanatory statements depicting the essence of paraphrase given above can now be backed up by some textual examples cogently summarized in Table 15.

Table 15 Paraphrases in the literary text

<i>EN</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>EN/SK Pg.</i>
The thing is, he usually makes uncomfortable sense in a world where most folks would rather just hear what they are used to hearing, which is often not much of anything.	Ide o to, že zvyčajne navodzuje nepríjemný pocit vo svete, kde by väčšina ľudí radšej počula to, na čo sú zvyknutí, a väčšinou sú to bezvýznamné malichernosti.	9/9
He says that he had a way of pointing out people’s faults and humiliating them while maintaining his own sense of false power and control. Not too endearing.	Hovorí, že poukazoval na chyby iných a ponižoval ich, zatiaľ čo si udržoval falošný pocit vlastnej moci a prevahy. Neveľmi príjemná povahová črta.	9/9

His eyes light up and he gets this smile that curls at the corners of his lips [...] and he becomes ageless and hardly able to contain himself.	Oči sa mu rozžiaria, kútky úst sa zdvihnú do úsmevu [...], celý omladne a akoby presahoval samého seba.	10/9
Two roads diverged in the middle of my life, I heard a wise man say I took the road less traveled by.	Dve cesty delili sa v strede môjho života, a poslúchol som mudrcove slová, nech vydám sa tou menej prešliapanou .	13/11
The trees in the neighbor's field had all donned translucent mantles and each now stood unique but unified in their presentation.	Stromy v susedovom sade mali priehľadné plášte, každý z nich bol jedinečný, no pritom vytvárali jednotný dojem .	16/14

As can be seen, all illustrative examples clearly manifest what is in unison claimed by the above-said scholars that the meaning of some sentence segments is by paraphrase rendered rather freely, which is very frequently the case in literary translation. Notably, paraphrase rests on a creative re-composition of the SL message which re-codes its communicative value in an artistic and unrestrained fashion, where the limits of interpretation are to be sensitively handled. On the whole, with a total of 50 occurrences paraphrase takes up a fairly prominent place among literary translation procedures.

3.3.8 Summary and Comparison of Results

What is notable to underscore after the empirical contrastive text analysis is that translation procedures can be considered a universal feature of any text under interlingual comparing given the linguistic and cultural dissimilarities between ST and TT.

Based on the overall results gained it can be argued that the ratio of oblique translation (234 counts) and direct translation procedures (230 counts) in the non-literary text is almost tantamount to each other. By contrast, in the literary text oblique translation procedures with a total of 124 occurrences by far outweigh the employment of direct procedures (46 counts). This can be interpreted in light of the far more imaginative nature of the literary text and its pertinent lexico-stylistic multifacedness which requires intellectually a more stimulating transfer of SL features into the TT when overcoming structural-conceptual and cultural asymmetries or 'lacunas'. Thus, my initial assumption regarding the preponderance of oblique translation procedures in the literary text has been corroborated (cf. 3.2.1). As to the non-literary text, the somewhat surprisingly identical frequency distribution of oblique and direct procedures challenges on balance its expectedly foreignizing character, which remains unsurpassed only in terms of the flagrant calque prevalence, as indicated in Chart 1.

The high degree of incidence of calques in the non-literary text can be explained by the EU language policy and its institutional guidelines which prompt EU translators to adhere to ST slavishly and consequently induce them to imitate its language structures. Needless to say, in this connection, the ratio of borrowings in the non-literary text is also almost 5.6 times higher than that in the literary text.

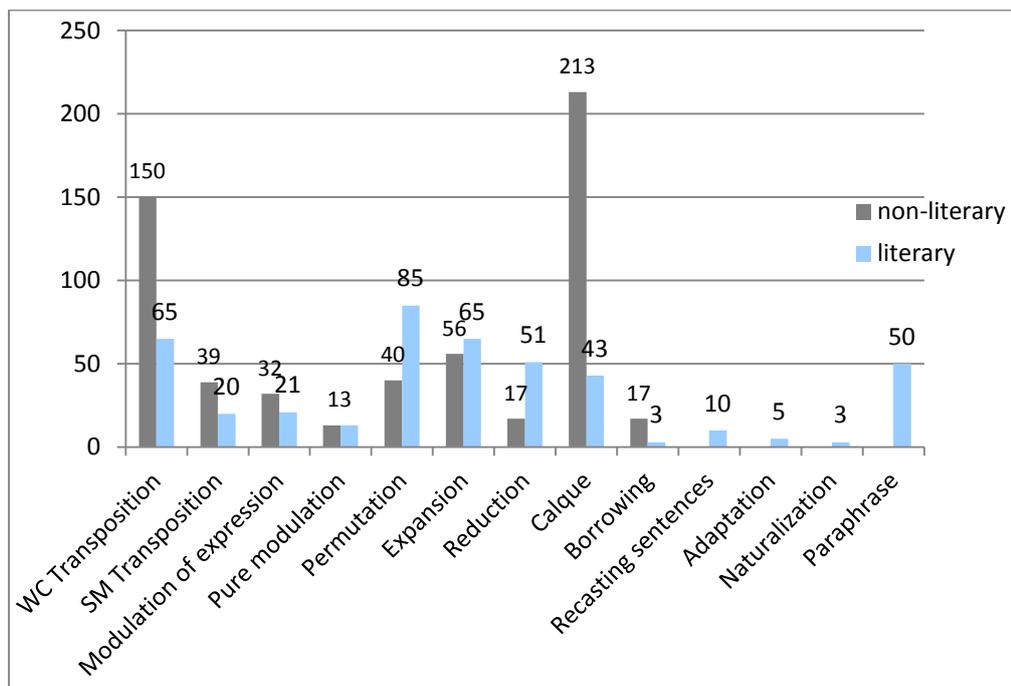


Chart 1 Frequency distribution of examined translation procedures across the non-literary & literary text

As can be inferred from the frequency distribution of translation procedures in Chart 1, in the non-literary text apart from calques, a prominent place is given to the procedures of transposition, expansion, modulation and permutation. Similarly, in the literary text permutation, transposition and expansion (followed by reduction and paraphrase) take up a significant place, too.

Both examined texts evince an abundant occurrence of transpositions, which can be interpreted as evidence of a significant linguistic-structural distance between the English and Slovak codes regardless of the text type, even if in the case of the literary text they manifest a much greater typological scale. The roughly similar values of expansions in both texts can be ascribed to a considerable degree to an intrinsic nature of translation process per se and the tendency of explicitation as a translation universal. The results in Chart 1 put permutation (along with word-class and sentence-member transposition) first as regards the literary text. The use of permutation in this text type

outnumbers that in the non-literary text by almost 2.1 times. These divergences of lexico-syntactic literary TL elements from their original SL positions, even if typologically less multifarious, are very often taking place so as to keep and/or uphold a smooth and natural text flow in the TL. Compared to the non-literary text, their occurrence was much more expected, even though it should be accentuated that permutations could not be absent from the non-literary text, either, because their non-applicability would transform the text under investigation into a purely robot-like machine translation lacking any coherence.

Interestingly enough, a significant difference between the two analysed texts lies in their treatment of reduction. In the non-literary text reduction constitutes a background procedure, which is in compliance with the strictness of the EU language work compelling the translator to render TTs without omitting the SL inventory items, as well as overall function of institutional-legal texts. Therefore, a complete absence of recasting sentences in the non-literary text does not come as a surprise, either. In the literary text, however, reduction quite extraordinarily comes as the fourth most frequent translation procedure. Furthermore, another point of difference between the two texts concerns the use of modulation. Even though modulation at the syntactic level (so-called pure modulation) occurs in both texts to the same degree, modulation in the lexicon is more plentiful (however typologically less varied) in the non-literary text, which runs counter to expectations about the nature of literary modulation in general and Alcaraz and Hughes' hypothesis (2002: 185), in particular.

Last but far from least, the literary text disposes of translation procedures such as recasting sentences, adaptation, naturalization and paraphrase, reflecting a whole gamut of phenomena that are absent from the non-literary text. Of these, the frequent use of paraphrase testifies to the incommensurably freer translational character of the literary text in comparison with its non-literary counterpart. The relatively low incidence of adaptation, naturalization (of foreign units of measurement, especially) and borrowing implies that the literary text under focus is not heavily culturally-loaded and the translator did not need to minimize foreignness of the ST very frequently for the recipient's sake. The amazing absence of equivalence, an unfortunately named translation procedure accounting for the same situation rendered by two texts using completely different stylistic and structural means (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 38), referring to phrases, idioms and proverbs signposts the lack of these maverick language units in the analysed literary text sample.