

Дрогобицький державний педагогічний університет
імені Івана Франка
кафедра англійської мови та перекладу

Сливка Любов

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Рецензенти:

Яскевич О.К., кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри англійської мови та перекладу факультету української та іноземної філології Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка;

Соболь Л.І., кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови і методики її навчання Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка.

Відповідальний за випуск:

Талалай Ю.О., кандидат педагогічних наук, доцент, завідувач кафедри англійської мови та перекладу факультету української та іноземної філології Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка.

Сливка Л.

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Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University
Department of English Language and Translation

Slyvka Liubov

**FUNDAMENTALS OF TRANSLATION
OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL LITERATURE**

Textbook

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Reviewers:

Yaskevych O.K., Candidate of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor at the Department of English Language and Translation Faculty of Ukrainian and Foreign Philology Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University;

Sobol L.I., Candidate of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor at the Department of English language practice and Teaching Methods Faculty of Ukrainian and Foreign Philology Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University.

Responsible for the publication:

Talalay Yu.O., Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences, Associate Professor at the Department of English Language and Translation Faculty of Ukrainian and Foreign Philology Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University.

Slyvka L.

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The textbook “**Fundamentals of Translation of Scientific and Technical Literature**” is intended for students of educational-qualifying level “Bachelor”, specialty 035 “Philology (The German languages and Literatures (translation included), English major)” field of knowledge 03 “Humanities”. The content of the textbook is based on professionally oriented material, taking into account the program requirements for the content of the theoretical course.

ЗМІСТ

Передмова	7
Конспекти лекцій	11
Лекція 1. Поняття науково-технічної літератури	11
Лекція 2. Види перекладу	20
Лекція 3. Граматичні особливості науково-технічних текстів	34
Лекція 4. Лексичні особливості перекладу науково-технічних текстів	64
Лекція 5. Фразеологізми та безеквівалентна лексика в науково-технічних текстах	76
Лекція 6. Інтернаціоналізми, псевдоінтернаціоналізми, неологізми, терміни і способи їх перекладу	88
Лекція 7. Політкоректна лексика в перекладі та прагматика перекладу науковотехнічних текстів	112
Лекція 8. Жанрово-стилістичні проблеми науково-технічного перекладу	121
Література	127
Примітки	129

CONTENTS

Introduction	9
Lecture note sketches	11
Lecture 1. The concept of scientific and technical literature	11
Lecture 2. Types of translation	20
Lecture 3. Grammatical peculiarities of scientific and technical texts translation	34
Lecture 4. Lexical features of the scientific and technical texts translation	64
Lecture 5. Phraseological units and non-equivalent lexis in scientific and technical texts	76
Lecture 6. Internationalisms, pseudo-internationalisms, neologisms, terms and methods of their translation	88
Lecture 7. Politically correct vocabulary in translation and pragmatics of scientific and technical texts translation	112
Lecture 8. Genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical translation	121
References	127
Note space	129

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Переклад є одним із найважливіших шляхів взаємодії національних культур, це спосіб міжкультурної комунікації. Правильний переклад передає зміст оригіналу, його стиль, при цьому відповідає всім нормам літературної мови. Процес перекладу – це не лише заміна одиниць однієї мови одиницями іншої мови, це складний процес з низкою труднощів, які необхідно подолати фахівцю для того, щоби правильно перекласти тексти документів.

Навчальний посібник “Основи перекладу науково-технічної літератури = Fundamentals of Translation of Scientific and Technical Literature” розроблено для студентів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти за спеціальністю 035 “Філологія (германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська)” галузі знань 03 “Гуманітарні науки”. Мета навчального посібника – ознайомити студентів з основними принципами та особливостями перекладу науково-технічної літератури. Під час перекладу наукових текстів неправильно добирають українські еквіваленти загальноживаних лексем української мови, перекладають дослівно усталені словосполучення, а постійне тиражування одних і тих самих помилок у наукових текстах зумовлює розхитування мовної норми. У сучасних науково-технічних та фахових текстах широко вживають синтаксичні конструкції, не властиві українській мові. Контент навчального посібника містить як загальні тлумачення явищ перекладу науково-технічної літератури, так і різні точки зору на певні дискусійні питання, вивчення яких супроводжується аргументованим коментарем. Навчальний матеріал, представлений у посібнику, активізує процес формування таких компетентностей: визначати лексико-граматичні та жанрово-стилістичні особливості перекладу науково-технічної літератури; аналізувати основні соціолінгвістичні аспекти науково-технічного спілкування; оперувати стратегіями та прийомами перекладу науково-технічного спілкування; виявляти стандартні й нестандартні перекладацькі проблеми й обирати способи їхнього вирішення, що відповідають кожному

конкретному акту перекладу; виконувати якісні усні та письмові переклади за рахунок адекватної передачі жанрово-стилістичних та референційно-комунікативних особливостей англійських текстів науково-технічної тематики; інтегрувати та використовувати систематизовані теоретичні та практичні знання з суміжних теоретичних та практичних філологічних дисциплін з метою комплексного вивчення особливостей науково-технічного перекладу; декодувати явища англійського науково-технічного перекладу у порівнянні з аналогічними явищами в українській мові; самостійно опрацьовувати науково-методичну літературу за тематикою матеріалу, що вивчається, висувати аргументовані судження, ставити та вирішувати наукові завдання.

За своєю структурою навчальний посібник складається з передмови (Introduction), восьми лекцій (Lecture note sketches) та списку рекомендованої літератури (References). Тематичний матеріал представлено такими лекціями: Lecture 1. The concept of scientific and technical literature; Lecture 2. Types of translation; Lecture 3. Grammatical peculiarities of scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 4. Lexical features of the scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 5. Phraseological units and non-equivalent lexis in scientific and technical texts; Lecture 6. Internationalisms, pseudo-internationalisms, neologisms, terms and methods of their translation; Lecture 7. Politically correct vocabulary in translation and pragmatics of scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 8. Genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical translation. До кожної лекції включено список рекомендованої літератури для поглибленого вивчення тематичного матеріалу.

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

INTRODUCTION

Translation is one of the most important ways of national cultures interaction, it is a way of intercultural communication. A correct translation conveys the content of the original, its style, meeting all the norms of the literary language. The translation process is not only the replacement of units of one language with units of another language, it is a complex process with a number of difficulties that a specialist must overcome in order to translate documents correctly.

The textbook “Fundamentals of Translation of Scientific and Technical Literature” is intended for students of educational-qualifying level “Bachelor”, specialty 035 “Philology (The German languages and Literatures (translation included), English major)” field of knowledge 03 “Humanities”. The purpose of the textbook is to acquaint students with the basic principles and peculiarities of translating scientific and technical literature. During the translation of scientific texts, the Ukrainian equivalents of common used lexemes of the Ukrainian language are incorrectly chosen, established phrases are translated literally, and the constant replication of the same mistakes in scientific texts leads to loosening of the language norm. Syntactic constructions that are not peculiar to the Ukrainian language are widely used in modern scientific and technical texts. The content of the textbook contains both general interpretations of the phenomena of translation of scientific and technical literature, and different points of view on certain controversial issues, the study of which is accompanied by a reasoned commentary. The educational material presented in the textbook activates the process of forming the following competencies: to determine the lexical-grammatical and genre-stylistic features of the translation of scientific and technical literature; to analyze the main sociolinguistic aspects of scientific and technical communication; to operate with strategies and methods of translation of scientific and technical communication; to identify standard and non-standard translation problems and choose ways to solve them that correspond to each specific act of translation; to perform high-quality oral and written translations due to the adequate

rendering of genre-stylistic and referential-communicative features of English-language texts on scientific and technical topics; to integrate and use systematized theoretical and practical knowledge from related theoretical and practical philological disciplines in order to comprehensive study the peculiarities of scientific and technical translation; to decode the phenomena of English scientific and technical translation in comparison with similar phenomena in the Ukrainian language; to study independently scientific and methodical literature on the topic, to put forward reasoned judgments, to set and solve scientific tasks. According to its structure, the textbook consists of a preface (Introduction), eight lectures (Lecture note sketches) and a list of recommended literature (References). Thematic material is presented in the following lectures: Lecture 1. The concept of scientific and technical literature; Lecture 2. Types of translation; Lecture 3. Grammatical peculiarities of scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 4. Lexical features of the scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 5. Phraseological units and non-equivalent lexis in scientific and technical texts; Lecture 6. Internationalisms, pseudo-internationalisms, neologisms, terms and methods of their translation; Lecture 7. Politically correct vocabulary in translation and pragmatics of scientific and technical texts translation; Lecture 8. Genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical translation. Each lecture includes a list of recommended literature for in-depth study of the thematic material.

The publication pursues primarily educational goals aimed at solving the problem of theoretical and practical training of future philologists. The textbook is aimed at increasing students' interest in translating scientific and technical texts, cultivating their personal need to master knowledge in this discipline, which is a certain component of the formation of professional competence of future specialists.

LECTURE NOTE SKETCHES

Lecture 1

THE CONCEPT OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL LITERATURE

1. The concept of scientific and technical literature
2. Types and translation of scientific and technical literature
3. Advertising and its translation
4. Title and its translation
5. Patent and its translation

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1. The concept of scientific and technical literature

Scientific and technical literature includes the following types of texts:

- scientific and technical literature itself, that is, monographs, collections and articles on various problems of science and technology;
- educational scientific and technical literature (textbooks, reference books, etc.);
- scientific and popular literature from various fields of technology;
- technical and accompanying documentation;
- technical advertising, patents, etc.

The language of scientific and technical literature has its own peculiarities: grammatical, lexical, phraseological, abbreviations.

The grammatical structure of the sentence of scientific and technical texts has a number of features:

1. The presence of long sentences that include large number of secondary and homogeneous clauses. At the same time, words dependent on the subject and predicate often stand at a distance from the word they define. e.g. *This approach possesses the advantage over the experimental method of greater flexibility.*

2. The use of multi-component attributive phrases. e.g. *Pulse microwave radar station; airfield surface movement indicator; etc.*

3. The use of definitions (meanings) formed by joining whole syntactic groups. e.g. *Temperature dependent* instead of *dependent on temperature*. *Circulation induced effects* instead of *effects induced by circulation*.

4. The use of syntactic constructions, passive constructions, infinitive constructions (Objective with the Infinitive, Nominative with the Infinitive). e.g. *The application of electronics has changed our life.*

5. The presence of omissions of some function words (articles, auxiliary verbs) especially in tables, graphs, specifications [2, p. 15].

The most typical lexical feature of scientific and technical literature is the richness of the text which is achieved by special terms, terminological phrases. Terms (words or word combinations) have linguistic properties like other units of vocabulary. The difference between a term and an ordinary word depends, first of all, on its meaning. The terms express scientifically processed concepts and are specific only to a specific field of science and technology. In the linguistic aspect, terms, like other words of the language, have the phenomenon of polysemy. In some cases, the same term has different meanings within different sciences. For example, in mechanical engineering *valve* is клапан, and in radio engineering *valve* is електронна лампа. Special difficulties for translation are caused by cases when the same term has a different meaning depending on the device or equipment. For example, the term *key* is ключ, шпилька, кнопка, перемикач, and others. The context is decisive when translating a polysemous term.

Neologisms are the greatest difficulty for translation. These terms are not reflected in dictionaries. There are many neologisms among brand names (the names of certain products produced by the company). In addition to terms, stereotypical words and phrases (clichés) take a special place in technical texts. Clichés include idioms, collocations, set expressions.

In addition to terms, technical texts are characterized by the use of special technical phraseology. This also includes cases when a common word acquires a terminological meaning in certain word combinations. For example, *electric eye* – фотоелемент, *atmospheric disturbance* – атмосферні перешкоди.

A characteristic feature of modern scientific and technical literature is the wide use of various abbreviations and acronyms. It should be remembered that the accepted abbreviations are official, generally accepted and cannot be arbitrarily changed or replaced. For example, A.S. – alternating current, H.P – horse power.

Patent literature is significantly unique among other genres of scientific and technical literature. Its originality lies in the canonical form of patent description. The language of the description of inventions contains the features of two styles: scientific and technical and official, therefore the translation of patents causes certain difficulties.

The main function of scientific and technical literature is to inform. This determines the informative function of the language of scientific and technical literature.

2. Types and translation of scientific and technical literature

Scientific and technical literature includes the following types of texts:

- a) scientific and technical literature itself (monographs, collections and articles from various fields of science);
- b) educational literature on technical sciences (textbooks, manuals, reference books, etc.);
- c) popular scientific literature from various fields of technology;
- d) technical and accompanying documentation;
- e) technical advertising

The translation of technical documentation and advertising plays an important role in scientific and technical literature. Technical documentation includes the following types of documents:

- a) patents, passports, forms, technical descriptions, operating and repair instructions, etc;
- b) commodity accompanying documentation: invoices, packing slips, packing lists, etc;
- c) project documentation: projects, calculations, drawings, etc;
- d) advertising and semi-advertising materials: advertisements, company catalogs, etc.

3. Advertising and its translation

A characteristic feature of advertising materials is brevity, lack of detailed explanations. When translating such materials, you may find terms that are not related to the context. Most often, this phenomenon

can be observed in advertising. Sometimes advertising words – names are borrowed from the vocabulary of the common language.

Advertising (French *reclame*, from Latin *reclame* – вигукую, кличу) – information about the consumer properties of goods, various types of services for the purpose of their implementation, creating demand for them with the help of the press, radio, television, posters, light stands, announcements etc.

Advertising occupies a significant place in mass media. In anyone's life new unforeseen situations and phenomena constantly arise in society, and with them the need for their linguistic description. The description of something new can be achieved either by creating new words, or by using old ones, but already in new meanings. Therefore, it is inevitable to violate the established normativity of the language by using some words. Now, if we take into consideration that our language largely consists of clichés and set expressions, then some violation of grammar rules, an unusual structure of a phrase – all this attracts attention, and the very novelty of such words or phrases promotes the language dissemination. New words in advertising are formed, first of all, due to the formation of advertising names for products. Some words are so successful that they quickly get into the vocabulary of the language: cellophane – целофан; nylon – нейлон; thermos – термос. Mythology is also one of the sources of advertising names: Apollo – “Аполон” (космічний корабель); Blue Scout – “Блу Скаут” (ракета-носій).

Many brand names, which are used in the language of American advertising, were specially invented so that the name itself gave a description of the features of the advertised product: Cools – ментолові сигарети (the name itself conveys the idea of coolness).

The language of advertising consists of many abbreviated words-names: instead of the full name Coca-cola (drink “Coca-cola”) Americans say Coke; instead of Lucky Strikes (cigarettes) – Luckies. Grammatical features of the language of advertising are quite peculiar. The grammar of advertising language is not the main thing in the sentence structure, because the main thing in advertising is to achieve

semantic and emotional effect. Very often in advertising the superlative is used. The epithet “the-best” (найкращий) is always present in advertisements. Sometimes the sentence structure itself is changed. For example: *Buy the now car – Купляйте сучасний (модний) автомобіль. You've got the now look! – У вас модний вигляд!* In this case, the adverb “now” is used instead of the adjective “modern”. When creating advertising texts, slogans, headlines, repetitions, much attention is paid to the reader's imagination of the appropriate image of the brand name of a product.

Translation of advertising headlines causes certain difficulties. Let's consider some examples: “*Step into the new Millennium on your Persian carpet!*” *Алма*.

It is clear that we are talking about Persian carpets, but to convey the content of the advertisement we do not translate literally: “*Увійдіть у нове тисячоліття на персидському килимі!*” *Фірма Алма*. The translation is “*Нове тисячоліття з персидським килимом!*” *Фірма Алма*.

Or: “*Astron Building systems. Fast, efficient solution throughout in Eastern Europe*” *Contact Astron Construction International Division Tel., fax, E-mail*. The translation is: “*Системи будівництва фірми Астрон. Швидко, кваліфіковані рішення в Східній Європі*” *Зверта-тися: Відділення міжнародного будівництва фірми Астрон. Тел.: Факс: Е-пошта [5, p. 24]*.

4. Headings and their translation

The translation of headings is of great importance. The heading in a short form conveys the content of the text or defines the most important thing in it. Headings may consist of a general heading and one or more subheadings. If the general heading does not fully reveal the content of the text, you should refer to the subheadings or read the entire text and then return to the translation of the heading. Thus, context plays an important role in the translation of headings.

Difficulties in translation are caused by the widespread use of attributive groups in headings. To translate such a heading, it is

necessary to analyze the semantic relations of the attributive phrase and determine the semantic groups within this phrase. Having analyzed the semantic relations, the phrase is translated from right to left, starting from the base word.

One of the characteristic features of headings is a variety of abbreviations that can be identified in the context itself or with the help of a dictionary. A list of the most commonly used abbreviations can be found in almost every dictionary. Sometimes it is necessary to refer to special dictionaries of abbreviations.

There may be difficulties in translation if the heading contains the omission of a verb – a predicate, an auxiliary verb, an article. Difficulties in translation are caused by headings in which there is no subject, and the verb predicate is in the personal form.

For example, “From Confidence To Pressure”, to make a literal translation of this heading is impossible. Often such headings have subheadings “Debts as a component of Ukrainian-Russian relationship still to be settled”, (newspaper “The day” 27.03.2001 p.).

You should carefully read the heading and sometimes the whole text to translate the headings correctly.

In modern English and mainly American scientific and technical literature there may be the following types of headings:

- Headings in the form of a question. e.g.

a) *WHAT'S COMING FOR LIGHT WEIGHT CLAY BLOCKS?* – *Які перспективи розвитку легких керамічних блоків?* [5, p. 27].

b) *WHY WASH AGGREGATES?* – *Питання промивки агрегатів?* [5, p. 27].

c) *MODERNIZE?* – *Чи варто проводити реконструкцію (будівлі)?* [5, p. 27].

- Headings in the form of an application

a) *EXHIBITION HALLS GO UNDERGROUND* – *Спорудження підземних залів для виставки*[5, p.27]

b) *WE GIVE OLD SWIMMING POOL NEW IDEALS* – *Реконструкція старого плавального басейну* [5, p. 27].

- Heading in the form of an exclamatory sentence

a) *HERE'S A SIMPLE WAY TO INTERPRET DATA!* – *Знайдено простий спосіб розшифровки даних!* [5, p. 27].

b) *RAIN OFF THE ROOF!* – *Відведення дощової води з даху!* [5, p. 27].

5. Patent and its translation

Technical translation is a translation that is used for the process of exchanging scientific and technical information. The main form of exchange of scientific and technical information is carried out with the help of officially registered patents.

Patent (from the Latin *paten* – *відкритий, очевидний*) is a document certifying the authorship of an invention and the exclusive right to use it during the term. The description of the patent has a traditional form, its own style, so there are difficulties in translation.

The patent consists of:

- a) bibliographic part of the invention description;
- b) the name of the field of technology to which the invention relates, analysis of the state of this field, analysis of the prerequisites for the creation of the invention;
- c) the purpose of the invention, a brief formulation of the essence of the invention;
- d) full description of the invention, description of illustrations, examples of implementation of the invention;
- e) patent formula.

The bibliographic part includes: patent number, title of the patent, name of the country that granted the patent, date of filing, date of grant, classification indices, name of the patent owner and his address, name of the inventor.

The title of the patent is often translated after the translation of the entire patent. The translation of the title has its own specific rules. On the basis of titles, catalogs are compiled for specialists in a particular field of science and technology, where they find inventions that interest them.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Speak on the concept of scientific and technical literature.
2. Describe the types and translation of scientific and technical literature.
3. Speak on translation of advertising.
4. Speak on Patent and its translation.

Lecture 2

TYPES OF TRANSLATION

1. Types of translation. Rules for full written translation
2. General requirements for an adequate translation and its preparation
3. Referential translation
4. Annotated translation
5. Consultative translation and translation of the “express information” type

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1. Types of translation. Rules for full written translation

There are several types of scientific and technical translation. For example, free translation – understanding and conveying the general meaning of the text. This type of translation is used in the form of translation – synopsis, abstract, annotation, etc. In addition to knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, it needs a certain amount of knowledge in science and technology [3, p. 257].

A literal translation reveals the meaning of each sentence and helps to understand it correctly. In literal translation, the translated sentence has the same structure and word order as the corresponding English sentence. But a literal translation cannot be an adequate translation [3, p. 258].

An adequate translation conveys the exact meaning of the text with all the nuances and peculiarities of the style in accordance with the norms of the native language. Scientific and technical texts are characterized by a special style that distinguishes them from other types of texts. When translating such texts, this feature creates additional difficulties and problems.

Among the lexical difficulties of scientific and technical translation, it is possible to single out the ambiguity of words (terms) and the choice of an adequate dictionary counterpart or translation variant of a word (term), the peculiarities of the use of common words in scientific and technical texts, the correct application of one or another method of translating vocabulary, determining the limit of admissibility of translation lexical transformations, translation of neologism terms, abbreviations, such “false friends” of the translator as pseudo-internationalisms. Lexicalized plural forms of nouns and homonymous

terms, ethno-specific vocabulary and ethno-national variants of terms, foreign words and terms in English scientific and technical texts, various proper names and titles (firms, institutions and organizations), etc. [3, p. 258]. Grammatical differences include features of the grammatical structure of the language, the form and tradition of written scientific communication. Passive forms and impersonal forms of verbs, participle inflections and specific syntactic constructions, personal pronouns of the first person singular and one-member infinitive and nominative sentences are used in English professional texts much more often than in Ukrainian ones, etc.

Rules for full written translation

Of all types of technical translation, written translation is the main form. It depends on many factors. Practically all scientific and technical information (for example, foreign patent, instructions, equipment documentation, etc.) is translated into the native language in the form of a full written translation.

All other types of technical translation are derived forms of written translation, its abbreviated versions. Work on a full written translation consists of successive stages, the content of which is the rules of a full written translation.

The translation process consists of three stages:

I – perception (reading or listening) in one language;

II – understanding;

III – reproduction in the native language.

Rules for full written translation.

- Reading the text, getting to know the general content without going into details. In the process of initial familiarization with the content of the text, some analytical work is not excluded.

- The next stage of working with the text is analytical understanding: understanding of individual words, identification of grammatical forms, complex constructions, lexical turns, identification of slang terms. For this purpose, repeated slow reading of the text with its analysis is carried out.

• Before starting to reproduce (translate) the text into a native language, one should remember typical mistakes, in particular:

a) attempts to translate all elements of the sentence in the sequence in which they are presented in the text in a foreign language;

b) ignoring the context as a means of determining the meaning of a word, looking up the meaning of each unclear word in the dictionary;

c) incorrect choice of word meaning according to the dictionary; looking up a word in the dictionary before the entire text has been read;

d) underestimation of the role of language guessing, trying to translate sentences to understand the general content of the text.

Special attention should be paid to the ability to find the correct meaning of words based on context and external features, work with a dictionary, and conduct morphological and syntactic analysis. Appropriate:

a) determine the place of the subject and predicate group in the sentence;

b) determine the place of designation;

c) start the analysis of the sentence from the predicate in the sentence (according to its auxiliary or modal verb, grammatical ending, adverb of indefinite tense, presence of a direct object, etc.);

d) determine the difficulties of lexical order (verb control, lack of morphological signs, large number of words).

After clarifying the relationship between the words and the meaning of the sentence, proceed to its literal translation, which conveys the meaning of what is being read, but often does not correspond to the norms of the native language.

A certain literary treatment of the material is necessary, but it is not mandatory; sometimes you can limit yourself to an adequate translation, knowing the peculiarities of technical translation.

The translation of the heading (title) can be separated into a separate stage to emphasize the importance and unique nature of this work.

In the field of fiction, the title does not always carry enough information about the content of the work. In scientific and technical literature, the purpose of headings is completely different. The main

features of the headings (titles) of technical articles are a special style, their bright form. Often the title is translated after reading the text.

During the initial familiarization with the original, it is desirable first to mark the text, which is of practical importance when working with the text.

Sequence of work on the original text:

- Reading the original text.
- Text markup:
 - a) detection of complex terms;
 - b) identification of grammatical constructions;
 - c) detection of complex lexical phrases;
 - d) detection of slang terms.
- Using a dictionary: finding unfamiliar or incomprehensible terms in general, general technical, special dictionaries.
- Use of reference books and special literature

2. General requirements for an adequate translation and its preparation

- Accurate transmission of the original text.
- Clarity of presentation of the opinion with maximum brevity and form, which is characteristic of Ukrainian scientific and technical literature. When translating, specific features of English language should not be transferred into Ukrainian language. This is especially important because it is necessary to formulate an opinion in the native language in such a way that it corresponds to modern practice.

• The translation must fully comply with generally accepted norms of the Ukrainian literary language. This must be remembered when translating syntactic constructions that are absent in the Ukrainian language, but characteristic of the English language.

In addition, it is necessary to remember that the semantic saturation of the sentence in English weakens at the end of the sentence, and in Ukrainian – vice versa. This difference is explained by the structure of the English sentence.

• The translation must be subjected to scientific and literary editing in accordance with uniform terminology and standard designations and abbreviations. The translation must be clear, accompanied by appropriate illustrations to the text. When translating, it should be remembered that many terms of scientific and technical literature have multiple meanings in different fields of science and technology and, even within the same field, can have different meanings. In this regard, the context must be taken into account when choosing a translation equivalent.

E.g. quide – гід, екскурсовод (coll.) cross
– розвідник (militar.) – хрест (coll.)
– напрямний пристрій (tech.) – хрестовина (tech.)
– хвилевід (rad.) – схрещування (biolog.)
[9, p. 117–119]

It is necessary to remember that scientific and technical terminology is constantly developing and even common terms can acquire new meanings. If in the original text there is a term that is not in the dictionaries of this field, then one needs to find a (translated) equivalent, using reference books or special literature of this field.

One can create a new equivalent according to existing models of term formation, or translate this term descriptively, and write it in parentheses in the original language at the first mention.

• The translation should consist of the following parts:

- a) title page;
- b) content of the text;
- c) illustrative material, graphics, tables, etc.

The cover letter should cover:

- the name of the organization that issued the translation;
- translation number;
- author's last name (transcription in native language);
- the name of the translated material (in the native language and the original language);
- author's last name (in the original language);
- the name of the source (in the original language);
- number of pages and illustrations;

- surname and initials of the translator, editor;
- date (month and year);
- place of translation release;
- summary (abstract).

On the first page of the text, after the name of the translation, a brief summary of the translation (5–10 lines) is given, with such a calculation that it can be used when compiling a catalog (file index of translations).

Illustrative material:

- pictures (photos, drawings, graphs) must be clear and placed in appropriate places or at the end of the text;
- formulas must be written clearly;
- all illustrative material must have a single numbering that corresponds to the numbering of the original.

The translation must be subject to scientific and literary editing with the observance of uniform terminology and standard designations and abbreviations.

Cover letter sample

Translation no.
 Роберт Стілман, В. Грейс
 Економічний аналіз використання газороздільних мембран
 Robert Spillman, W. Grace
 Economics of Gas Separation Membranes
АНОТАЦІЯ. Використання мембран – нова технологія, де постійно з'являються нові процеси і вироби. В статті викладено як використання мембран впливає на економіку системи газорозділення
Abstract. The use of membranes is a new technology, where new processes and products are constantly appearing. The article describes how the use of membranes affects the economy of the gas separation system
 Chemical Engineering Progress No. 1, 1990, P. 41–61
 Number of pages
 Number of illustrations
 Translator
 Execution date

3. Referential translation

Before talking about the features and rules of abstract translation, it is necessary to remind once again that the main type of technical translation is a full written translation. All other types of technical translation are its derivatives, that is, its shortened versions. One such abbreviated version of a full written translation is an abstract translation.

The name “referential translation” comes from the word “abstract”. But the means of briefly stating the essence of the issue can be different. In the field of technical translation, three forms of writing an essay have been identified, which correspond to three independent types of technical translation:

1. Referential translation.
2. Translation of the “express information” type.
3. Signal translation of patent abstracts.

Referential translation – a complete written translation of previously defined parts of the original. As a rule, the abstract translation should be much shorter than the original.

The work on abstract translation consists of the following stages:

- a) initial acquaintance with the original text, familiarization with the given area and terminology, careful reading;
- b) text marking using square brackets to exclude its secondary parts and repetitions;
- c) reading other parts of the original, without brackets;
- d) a written translation of the original text, which remains behind the brackets.

If there are drawings in the original text, then you need to choose the most important ones and explain them in the translation.

An example of abstract translation

<u>SOLAR ENERGY</u>	<u>СОЛЯЧНА ЕНЕРГІЯ</u>
Shortage of energy is a major world problem and experts! predict that the present rate of increase in energy can exhaust the; supply of fossil fuels in the	Нестача енергії – важлива світова проблема і фахівці передбачають, що сучасний темп зростання потреб в енергії може вичерпати запас горючих

twenty-first century; What the world needs is a source of perpetual energy. Potentially, we have a source of perpetual energy shining down on us. The sun. [On clear day in the tropics, the intensity of solar energy can be more than a kilowatt per square metre at mid-day. That amount of energy falling on an area of sixty-four square kilometres is about as much as the whole of the British electricity generating system produces. There is no charge for the energy that flows so freely from the sun.] Unfortunately its collection and storage can be both difficult and expensive. [Some form of storage is necessary because the sun's rays do not reach us on cloudy days or at night]. Nevertheless, solar energy is now an economic and practicable solution. It is possible to convert solar energy directly to electricity by the use of photoelectric cells but for most practicable purposes this is too expensive. Today's solar energy systems are of two types, based on the flat plate collector and the focussing collector. [The flat plate collector, is simpler and cheaper. In its simplest form, the sun's rays

копалин в ХХІ столітті. Світ має потребу в джерелі вічної енергії.

Потенціально у нас є джерело вічної енергії. Це – сонце.

На жаль, уловлювання і зберігання сонячної енергії може бути складним і дорогим. Проте, зараз використання сонячної енергії є екологічним і реальним рішенням.

Використовуючи фотоелементи можна перетворити сонячну енергію безпосередньо в електрику. Нині існують два типи систем сонячної енергії, які базуються на плоскому колекторі і фокусуючому колекторі.

Фокусуючі системи можуть уловлювати значно більше сонячної енергії, а також створювати значно високі температури.

fall onto a panel carrying water pipes. The sun heats the water which is then available for use.] Focussing systems can trap a much higher proportion, of the sun's energy and also produce much higher temperatures. [People have known this principle for a long time. As far back as 212 B. C. Archimedes, using focussing mirrors, set fire on the Roman fleet.]	
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4. Annotated translation

Annotated translation is a type of technical translation, which consists in compiling an annotation of the original text in another language.

The word annotation comes from the Latin *annotatio* – a note. An abstract is a short, concise description of the content and a list of the main issues of a book, article, manuscript, etc. Therefore, the abstract should give the reader an idea of the character, its structure and purpose of the original.

In order to make an annotated translation, you need to read a book or an article, make a plan, then formulate the main points, make a list of the main questions. The style of the annotated translation of a book or an article is distinguished by free translation, the main thing is to give a brief description of the original text.

Certain requirements must be set when writing annotations for printed works:

- Annotations should be composed so that their content is accessible for assimilation when reading and at the same time they should reflect the most important points of the primary source.

- Annotations should be scientifically literate, i.e. (that is) not have an assessment of the quality of the primary source and not reflect the subjective views of the author.

- Abstracts should be written in a concise, precise and at the same time simple language, without using complex syntactic structures.

When writing annotations, it is necessary to take into account:

- The abstract should reveal, and not repeat in its own words, the title of the information source;

- The scope of the annotation depends on the importance of the annotated material, its features and purpose.

The structure of the annotation is characterized by constituent parts.

1. The introductory part includes:

- heading (title) of the article;
- surname and first name of the author in Ukrainian;
- heading (title) of the article, surname and first name in the source language;

language;

- name of the journal or book, publisher in the source language;
- year, month, date, number of the periodical;
- the number of pages.

2. Descriptive part, which consists of a list of the main points of the original text and a very concise description of the material.

3. The final part, which summarizes the presentation of the author of the original source, references to the bibliography and the number of drawings are given.

An example of annotated translation

RADIATION DANGERS	Анотація
<p>Radioactivity is dangerous. It may cause skin burns and it may destroy good tissues, as it destroys the diseased ones. It may cause illness that could be passed to our children and grandchildren. It cases of severe exposure it may even cause death.</p>	<p>Ця стаття розглядає радіаційну небезпеку. Викладені загальні поняття про радіоактивність, яка небезпечна для</p>
<p>In the early days of radioactivity scientists were not aware of those dangers. Marie and,</p>	<p>людей; засоби захисту від радіації в сучасних</p>

Pierre Curie, after having, worked for a while with radioactive materials, noticed that their fingers were reddened and swollen, and that the skin was peeling off. Becquerel carried a small tube with radium in it in his waistcoat pocket and was surprised to find a burn on his chest. Other early workers also reported burns and injuries of various kinds.

The strange fact about radiation is that it can harm without causing pain, which is the warning signal we expect from injuries. Pain makes us pull back our hands from flame or a very hot object but a person handling radioactive materials has no way of telling whether he is touching something too “hot” for safety. Besides, the burns or other injuries that radioactivity produces may not appear for weeks.

Today scientists are aware of these dangers. They are steadily finding new means of protecting themselves and others from radioactivity. It may well be that in the race between production of radioactivity and production of means of protection, the second will be the winner.

Our modern atomic laboratories are built for safety. Their walls are very thick. The rooms in which radioactivity is handled are separated from others by heavy lead doors. Large signs reading. “Danger – Radiation” indicate the unsafe parts of the buildings. Counters and other instruments are continuously measuring the radiation, and give off special signals when it becomes too

атомних лабораторіях; умови: роботи з радіоізотопами та їх перевезення. Стаття розрахована на широке коло читачів, які цікавляться радіацією.

strong. Each worker carries a special badge that shows the amount of radiation he has been exposed to.

In the room in which radioisotopes are separated and handled, workers may wear plastic clothes that look like divers suits. They may handle the material under water with long tools; water is known to stop the radiation and protect the workers.

All radioisotopes are prepared by some method of remote control. They are placed inside heavy lead containers through which the radiation cannot pass, and shipped to where they are to be used.

5. Consultative translation and translation of the “express information” type

Consultative translation is a type of technical oral translation that includes oral annotation, oral abstracting, selective translation, and oral translation of headings performed by a translation consultant. Such work can be performed only by an experienced translator who must know the language, the patent case and be well versed in one or another field of science and technology.

Translation of the “express information” type is a type of written technical translation, which consists in writing an abstract of a foreign scientific and technical article or patent in Ukrainian without shortening the original.

An essay of the “express information” type is composed differently: you need to study the original text in detail, and then present the essence from your point of view, according to your own plan, in any sequence, but you cannot express your own attitude or give an assessment of the original.

Translation of patent abstracts is a type of technical translation intended for processing signal patent information, as a result of which an abstract is created in the native language.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Speak on the types of translation. Discuss rules for full written translation.
2. Name general requirements for an adequate translation and its preparation.
3. What is called a referential translation?
4. What is called an annotated translation?
5. Speak on consultative translation and translation of the “express information” type.

Lecture 3

GRAMMATICAL PECULIARITIES OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TEXTS TRANSLATION

1. General regularities of correlation and correspondence of grammatical forms and constructions of the source and target languages
2. Grammatical difficulties of translation
3. Word order and sentence structure in translation
4. Partioning and combination of sentences in translation
5. Grammatical comparisons in the translation process
6. Translation of constructions which do not have formal equivalents in Ukrainian
 - a) translation of passive constructions
 - b) translation of syntax complexes – infinitive, participial, gerundial
 - c) translation of absolute constructions

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1. General regularities of correlation and correspondence of grammatical forms and constructions of the source and translation languages

The division of complex cases of translation into grammatical and lexical phenomena is quite conditional because the grammatical phenomenon is closely related to the lexical one in every language, and the method of transmission in translation of grammatical forms and constructions often depends on their lexical content. The same grammatical phenomenon, depending on the specific lexical expression, can be translated in different ways.

However, there are certain general regularities of the relationship and correspondence of grammatical forms and constructions of the source and target languages, therefore a detailed description of such relationships, focused on translation, seems not only expedient but also necessary in order to clearly imagine what opportunities the translator has at his disposal for adequate rendering in translation of grammatical phenomena of the source. The language of scientific and technical literature differs from colloquial language or the language of fiction in

certain lexical, grammatical and stylistic features. If lexical differences are noticeable even to a non-specialist (and this is primarily due to the presence of special vocabulary and terms), then in terms of grammar they are much less expressive, but no less diverse.

It should be emphasized that this is not about inventory differences, that is, differences in the composition of syntactic structures or morphological forms (which are almost absent between texts of different written styles), but about differences in the functioning of grammatical elements. One of the most noticeable grammatical features of scientific and technical texts is a large number of various types of common complex (primarily complex) sentences that are used to convey logical relationships between objects, actions, events and facts that are typical for a scientific presentation.

There are also significant grammatical differences between scientific and technical texts written in different languages due to the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of the language, norms and traditions of written scientific speech. Thus, in English professional texts much more often than in Ukrainian ones, passive forms and impersonal forms of verbs, adverbial inflections and specific syntactic constructions, personal pronouns of the first person singular and one-member infinitive and nominative sentences are used, etc. However, most of the grammatical differences between English and Ukrainian scientific and technical texts are of an inventory nature caused by the peculiarities of the construction of these languages. Thus, the Ukrainian language lacks indefinite and definite articles, which are used in English not only as definite designations, but also signal the peculiarities of the distribution of information in an English sentence [3, p. 276].

A prerequisite for adequate translation is the ability to correctly analyze the grammatical structure of foreign language sentences, correctly identify grammatical translation difficulties, and construct sentences in the translation in accordance with the norms of the language and genre of translation. It is clear that the translator must be well acquainted with the grammatical features of the source and target languages, the basics of translation theory in general and scientific and

technical translation in particular, as well as translation counterparts in the field of grammar and vocabulary, translation transformations, methods of translation of various linguistic and speech phenomena. All this is part of the translator's general competence, which is much broader than what we have defined.

2. Grammatical difficulties of translation

Knowledge of the subject of translation is especially important for a translator of scientific and technical literature – he/she must orientate himself/herself in the subject area to which the text intended for translation belongs. It is necessary to understand correctly the content of the sentences, the semantic relations between the sentences and the meaning of the metatextual elements involved in the organization of the text during translation. It is natural that the largest complex of grammatical problems of translation is related to understanding the syntactic structure and morphological structure of sentences as language elements that are direct carriers of subject information.

As it is known, English and Ukrainian languages belong not only to different branches of the Indo-European family of languages (the first language is in Germanic family, the second one is in Slavic family), but also to different structural types of languages: English is mainly an analytical language, where grammatical relations in a sentence are transmitted free grammatical morphemes, and Ukrainian is an inflectional language, where grammatical meanings and relations are conveyed by means of bound grammatical morphemes – inflections. There are differences in the structure of languages, in the set of their grammatical categories, forms and constructions that constitute the first large group of grammatical translation difficulties. Thus, in the Ukrainian language there are no articles, gerunds, Continuous and Perfect verb tenses, complex subject and additional infinitive constructions, and in the English language – adverbs, gender categories of nouns and adjectives, etc. There are certain differences in the construction of the sentence: unlike the Ukrainian language, where the subject group can often be contained after the predicate group, the order of the main members of the sentence

in the English language is much more fixed, which may require restructuring the sentence during translation.

The second group of grammatical translation difficulties is related to the different amount of content of similar forms and constructions in the two languages. Thus, the present tense form of the predicate verb in the Ukrainian language corresponds in its content to the corresponding English forms Present Indefinite, Present Continuous and partially Present Perfect, and the genitive form of the Ukrainian noun can correspond in its grammatical meaning to the English prepositional-noun construction “of + N” or the form of the common case of a noun in a preposition to another noun.

The third group of grammatical translation difficulties consists of those grammatical phenomena of the source text language that have different functional characteristics from the corresponding grammatical phenomena of the language of translation, for example, the singular and plural forms of a noun are available in both Ukrainian and English languages, but the forms of specific nouns may not coincide (English *evidence* is used only in the singular, but can be translated in both singular and plural form).

Another group of grammatical translation difficulties consists of those grammatical phenomena that have different frequency characteristics in English and Ukrainian scientific and technical literature. The frequency of forms of the passive state of the verb-predicate in English is much higher than in Ukrainian, therefore, in translation, such forms often have to be replaced by forms of the active state. Such difficulties are caused by differences in linguistic and stylistic norms of texts in the source and translated languages.

Certain difficulties for beginner translators are grammatical homonyms – formally identical grammatical forms or constructions that have a different grammatical phenomenon (for example, the verb to do can be used as an auxiliary verb in negative and interrogative sentences, a verb representative of the previous verb and as a meaningful verb).

Another group of grammatical translation difficulties is related to the peculiarities of the expression of sentence members in two

languages, primarily the subject and the predicate. For example, the English language has the so-called “formal subject” and “formal object”, which are impossible in the structure of the Ukrainian sentence. Only a small proportion of English and Ukrainian expressions have an identical syntactic structure and order of components, and only in this case English expressions can be translated into corresponding Ukrainian expressions without applying grammatical transformations. Such translation is called “literal”. It should be distinguished from a grammatically literal translation, which is a literal translation of a grammatical form or syntactic structure that violates the grammatical norms of the target language and/or the genre-stylistic norms of scientific and technical literature. Grammatical literalism leads not only to the violation of the norms of translation language but also to various distortions in the transmission of the meaning of the original. For example, in the grammatically literal translation of the sentence “*A new element will be discovered sooner or later*” / “*Новий елемент буде відкрито раніше чи пізніше*” there is a violation of the norms of the functioning of comparative forms of adverbs: in Ukrainian, in such cases, the form of the positive degree is used, not the comparative degree (“sooner or later”). And the following literal translation distorts the meaning of the original and violates some grammatical norms of the Ukrainian language, according to which, in particular, the participle inflection cannot be introduced by a conjunction, and the anaphoric possessive pronoun must have the form “own”, not “his”: *While taking part in the discussion he advanced his own famous theory.* / *Коли, беручи участь у дискусії, він висунув його відому теорію* (The correct translation is: “*Саме під час цієї дискусії він висунув свою знану тепер теорію*”).

Literal translation occurs sequentially from the first word of the sentence to the last one. It does not exclude the removal of articles and certain lexical transformations, if, as a result of their application, the structure and order of the members of the translated sentence do not change: *This is the phenomenon of diffraction. Це – явище дифракції. It is one of the basic questions of any science. – Це є одним з головних питань будь-якої науки* [5, p. 3].

Precisely in order to avoid an inadequate literal translation (grammatical literalism), translational grammatical transformations must be applied, as a result of which the literal translation adapts to the norms of the target language and becomes adequate.

Grammatical transformations are caused by various factors. In particular, the reasons for such transformations are:

1) The difference in the ways of conveying information in English and Ukrainian sentences: what is conveyed by lexical means in one language can be expressed by grammatical means in another language. So, for example, the antecedence of one action to another in the past in the English language is indicated by the Past Perfect form of the predicate verb, and in the Ukrainian language by words or phrases (“earlier”, “before this”, “before that”, etc.).

2) Absence of certain grammatical phenomena, forms or constructions in one of the languages. For example, in the Ukrainian language, articles, the gerundial form of the verb, the formal suffix (“it”), and in the English language – the generic forms of nouns and adjectives, the case forms of numerals.

3) It is not necessary to express grammatical information in one of the languages (for example, in the Ukrainian language, the information that the action in the present tense is happening at the moment of speaking (English verb form Present Continuous) is not grammatically expressed.

4) The difference in the presentation of the content of the sentence by the surface structure (for example, in the English language, complex information in the application can be expressed in the form of a complex application Objective Infinitive).

5) Peculiarities of conjugation and functioning of words in phrases and sentences (for example, due to the peculiarities of conjugation of the adjective administrative, the phrase *administrative efficiency* cannot be translated as *адміністративна ефективність* and should be translated as *ефективне управління*).

Grammatical translation transformation means a change in the grammatical characteristics of a word, phrase or sentence in translation.

There are **five main types of grammatical transformations: permutation, substitution, addition, omission, and complex transformation.** Permutation is a grammatical transformation that changes the order of words in a phrase or sentence. For example, in a Ukrainian sentence, the conjunction *однак* usually appears at the beginning of the sentence, while in English, its equivalent *however* can be used in the middle and at the end of the sentence; the meaning noun in the English language can be in a preposition, before the signified noun (theory construction), while in the Ukrainian language the signifier noun usually stands after the signified noun.

Permutations are often accompanied by another grammatical transformation – substitution, as a result of which the grammatical features of word forms change (for example, instead of the singular form in the translation, the plural form is used), parts of speech (for example, the infinitive is transformed into a noun in the translation), members of the sentence (for example, the adverb is transformed during translation into a subject) and a sentence (for example, a simple sentence turns into a complex one or vice versa): *Much work has been done on the problem.* – *З цієї проблеми написано багато праць.* *Brakes must be applied to stop a car.* – *Щоб зупинити автомобіль, необхідно застосувати гальма.* *This year has seen many great disco veries.* – *У цьому році відбулось багато великих відкриттів* [5, p. 2].

In addition, when translating, we can also replace a word with a phrase, a phrase with a sentence, a series of sentences with one complex sentence, and vice versa: *I shall discuss those points in greater detail.* – *Я розгляну ці положення докладніше.* *This is true also for the language used in the scientific area of culture.* – *Це вірно також і для мови, яка використовується в науковому дослідженні культури.* *This is what makes them meaningful.* – *Саме це й робить їх значущими.* *Einstein, too, confessed the same admiration for ancient geometry.* – *Ейнштейн також зізнався, що й він теж був захоплений геометрією древніх.* *The conference was a veritable summit meeting. Only Bohr was conspicuously absent.* – *Ця конференція була справжньою зустріччю у верхах, і лише Бора там явно бракувало.* *Kepler set out to unify the*

classical picture of the world, one which was split into celestial and terrestrial regions, though the concept of a universal physical force, but when this problem did not yield to physical analysis, he readily returned to the devices of a unifying image, namely, the central sun ruling the world, and of a unifying principle, that of allpervading mathematical harmonies. – Кеплер намагався зробити єдиною класичну картину світу, який до цього був розділений на небесну і земну сфери. Для цього він використав поняття загальної фізичної сили. Та коли ця проблема не піддалася фізичному аналізу, він невдовзі повернувся до механізмів об'єднуючого образу, в центрі якого – сонце, що панує над всім світом, та об'єднуючого принципу всюдисущих математичних гармоній [6, р. 117].

Addition is a grammatical transformation, as a result of which the number of words, word forms or sentence members increase in the translation. For example, in the following translations, the word forms applications and introduces are translated by combining two words: *There are many different applications of this material.* – Цей матеріал застосовується у багатьох різних галузях. *The mutual effect introduces a complex change.* – Перехресний вплив призводить до появи комплексних поправок [6, р. 143].

Addition is used when translating nouns (*intricacies* “складні проблеми та заплутані питання”), adjectives (*recurrent* “що періодично повторюється”), verbs (*to solve* “знаходити вирішення”), adverbs (*theoretically* “у теоретичному плані”), substantive adjectives (*the intracellular* “внутрішньоклітинне середовище”), words of other parts of speech and phrases (*data rates* “швидкість передачі даних”).

Omission is such a grammatical transformation, as a result of which a certain linguistic element is removed in the translation (often it is a pleonastic word, word form, article or part of a sentence): *The explosion was terrible while it lasted.* – Вибух був жахливий. *This is a very difficult problem to tackle.* – Це дуже складна проблема [6, р. 145].

A complex grammatical transformation includes two or more simple grammatical transformations, for example, when transposition and addition are simultaneously carried out during translation: *The motor*

was found to stop within 2 seconds. – Виявилося, що електромотор зупиняється протягом двох секунд. Since grammar is closely related to vocabulary, a significant number of translation transformations have a mixed character, that is, lexical and grammatical changes occur simultaneously during translation. Such lexical-grammatical transformations are called mixed and consist of the grammatical transformations discussed above and various types of lexical transformations (generalization, specification, contextual substitution, etc.). For example, in the following translation, the grammatical transformations of replacing the gerund with a noun and the singular form of the noun research with the plural form “дослідження” and the lexical transformations of the contextual replacement of the adverb heavily with “широко”, the pronoun in with the pronoun “при” and the pronoun I with the pronoun “ми” are applied: *In identifying these features / relied heavily on previous research. – При визначенні цих ознак ми широко використовували попередні дослідження.*

The skills and abilities of translation transformations are an essential component of a translator's competence, and therefore their development and correct application should be given due attention. The application of transformations in translation should be aimed at adequately conveying the meaning of the original and take into account the norms of the language of translation. Transformations must be used when translating English grammatical phenomena that are absent in the Ukrainian language. The main problems of translation are presented, which are related to the differences in the structures of the English and Ukrainian languages and the peculiarities of the transmission of passive constructions.

The analysis of the methods of translation of various grammatical forms and constructions is carried out in the context of a sentence, since, on the one hand, the sentence itself is the language object that is still subjected to systematic consideration, and, on the other hand, it is precisely in it that the absolute majority of grammatical phenomena are reflected. Only in those cases where it is necessary, the translation is considered on the material of sentence combinations.

3. Word order and sentence structure in translation

From the translator's point of view, it would be more correct to talk not about the order of words, but about the order of arrangement of sentence members or semantic groups, since in the process of translation it is important to determine the best order of them for a given sentence structure. As is known, in the English language, word order, as a rule, serves as a grammatical means of establishing the function of a word in a sentence. Therefore, the English sentence differs in a much stricter and more constant order of words than in the Ukrainian language.

In the Ukrainian language, compared to English, the order of words is freer. But it is necessary to keep in mind that the freedom of arrangement of sentence members in the Ukrainian language is relative. The order of words always obeys certain norms and always performs certain grammatical, semantic or stylistic functions.

It is enough to compare the simple English sentence “*He can do it*” with the possible Ukrainian versions of its translation to understand the limitless possibilities of word arrangement hidden in Ukrainian syntax. Undoubtedly, there may be cases when, instead of the elementary *Він може зробити це*, a variant will be necessary, in which the subject or application is logically emphasized: *Це зробити може він*. In short, all 24 possible variants in the Ukrainian translation can be implemented depending on the tasks of the utterance dictated by the context. But in English we have a single fixed standard of the narrative sentence *He can do it* and no other word order is possible (except for the very rare *Do it he can.*)

It follows from the above that the optimal order of words in the Ukrainian language cannot be established in a separate, isolated sentence, taken out of context. It is necessary to solve the question of word order at least within the paragraph, taking into account the interaction of the sentences included in it. However, some regularities in the placement of words when translating from English are revealed already when considering the translation of individual sentences. Consider, for example, a few typical short messages in their structure: *Los Angeles law firm Lewis, D'Amato, Brisbois and Bisgaard has*

recently opened its office in Ulan Bator. Three Welsh Language Society members were arrested at the National Eisteddfod yesterday. In these examples, we are dealing with the typical structure of a short message in English: the subject group comes first, followed by the predicate group. The main thing, the center of the message, comes first. Details are reported at the end of the sentence.

The same order of words is preserved in messages indicating the source: *The US Air Force is planning to have 131 wings – more than 23,000 planes and 975,000 men by mid-1956, Mr. Charles Wilson, Secretary of Defense, announced in Washington yesterday in a House of Representatives Committee.*

When translated into Ukrainian, the word order will be reversed. In the Ukrainian sentence, the secondary part – an adverbial modifier will appear in the first place, in the second place – the predicate, and in the last place – the subject. This arrangement of words is usual for a Ukrainian narrative sentence, which contains a message, all elements of which are new to the reader. The transfer of an adverbial modifier of place and time to the first place is explained by the fact that their postposition in relation to the predicate leads to a greater semantic selection of adverbial modifiers. Therefore, in a Ukrainian sentence, adverbial modifiers are often brought to the fore, if no semantic emphasis is placed on them.

Let's consider a more complicated example: *United States and Chinese negotiators held the fifth session of their talks on the problem of civilian repatriation at the UN Office in Geneva today.* – *Сьогодні у Відділенні ООН в Женеві відбулося п'яте засідання представників США і Китаю з питання репатріації цивільних осіб.*

The translation of this sentence requires a radical restructuring of its structure:

- all three adverbial modifiers of time and place (at UN Office in Geneva today) are placed at the beginning of the sentence;
- the subject of the English sentence with its definition (United States and Chinese negotiators) is rendered by the definition in the genitive

case, which refers to the subject: a meeting of representatives of the United States and China;

- direct application the fifth session of their talks became the subject;
- the predicate, as in previous cases, stands before the subject;
- the meaning of the word *talks* (*on the problem of civilian repatriation*) had to be translated as *репатріація цивільних осіб*, since the English adjective *civilian* in Ukrainian corresponds to the combination of the noun and the adjective *цивільна особа*.

However, it should be remembered that even in the simplest short messages, the choice of word order is closely related to the structure of the sentence. The English language is characterized by the centralization of the structure of a simple sentence, which is expressed in the construction of a sentence around a single organizing center – the subject. Such centralization makes it possible to include in one simple sentence two (and sometimes more) equally important messages, which are usually separated in translation.

The Democratic Party is defeated in the US Congress elections.

If the message about the elections to the American Congress and their results is limited to this single phrase, then in the translation it is logical to divide it into two sentences:

У США відбулися вибори до Конгресу. Демократична партія зазнала поразки.

A literal version of the translation is also possible:

На виборах до Конгресу США Демократична партія зазнала поразки.

However, the first option has the advantage that it emphasizes the relevance of the message: there is no doubt about the fact that it is about the elections that have just taken place.

It is not a single word that is subjected to logical selection in translation, but, as a rule, a whole semantic group:

A surprise for the coming session is being prepared at the Wednesday gatherings of a young hostess not a hundred miles from Westminster (J. Galsworthy).

The center of the message in this sentence is the subject *group a surprise for the coming session*. This group, as a rule, takes the first place in an English sentence. In second place is the predicate *is being confectioned*. And, finally, the last place is occupied by the adverbial modifiers of place and time. In the translation, there will be a diametrically opposite order of words: in the first place – the adverbial modifiers, then – a predicate, and finally the center of the message – the subject:

В будинку одної молоді леді, недалеко від Вестмінстерського абатства по середах відбуваються збори, на яких готується сюрприз для наступної парламентської сесії.

It should be noted, however, that the stylistic norms of the language into which the translation is being made are crucial for determining the order of words within the paragraph. The most important considerations when comparing the order of words in English and Ukrainian, paragraphs, is the impossibility of a monotonous construction of a period in the Ukrainian language, while in an English paragraph several sentences in a row can have the same structure.

When translating, it is necessary to diversify the order of words so that there are not four sentences in a row with a subject-personal pronoun at the beginning. It should also be mentioned one more specific case of the need for permutation during translation. In English, in a subordinate clause preceding the main one, the subject is often expressed by a pronoun, and in the main one by a noun. In the Ukrainian language, such an order is logically impossible:

When she entered the room, the teacher saw the students writing. – Коли викладач зайшла в аудиторію, вона побачила, що студенти пишуть [6, p. 143].

If the translation preserves a pronoun to express the subject in the first sentence, and a noun in the second, it will give the impression that it is about two different persons: *Коли вона зайшла в аудиторію, викладач побачила, що ...* This order is explained by the fact that the English language is dominated by a syntactic principle: when the logical subject is shared, the subject of the subordinate clause is expressed by a

pronoun, and the main subject by a noun. In Ukrainian, a noun expresses the subject of the sentence that comes first, regardless of whether it is the main sentence or a subordinate clause.

4. Partitioning and combination of sentences in translation

In the previous section, important questions about the division of English sentences during translation were already considered, mainly for reasons of different sentence structure. It is necessary to distinguish external and internal partitioning. With external partitioning, one sentence of the original text is transformed into two or more sentences in the translation. A simple sentence of the source text is replaced by a complex one during internal dissection. When translating from English, it is much more common to resort to partitioning than to combining sentences. This is explained by the centrality of the structure of English sentences.

The internal partitioning of sentences is necessary when translating syntactic complexes (infinitive, adverbial, gerundial) that are translated by complex sentences: e.g. *The danger of flooding is believed to be over.* – *Є підстави вважати, що небезпека повені минула.* *They saw the whole town shattered to a heap of ruins.* – *Вони бачили, як ціле місто перетворилося у руїни.* *Your having been ill makes no difference.* – *Те, що ви були хворі, нічого не міняє.*

As for internal dissection, its necessity is often dictated by the weakness of semantic connections between the parts of an English sentence, which is explained by the tendency of English syntax to combine not entirely homogeneous thoughts in one sentence.

Sometimes preserving the structure of a sentence is complicated by the variety of thoughts contained in it, especially when messages relating to different times are combined in one sentence: e.g. *And here at times, when his mother's father's financial difficulties were great, they would be found thinking, or as Asa Griffith was wont helplessly to say at times, praying their way out, a rather ineffectual way, as Clyde began to think later.* (*Th. Dreiser, An American Tragedy*) – *І тут же в періоду найбільших фінансових труднощів батько й мати сиділи і роздумували, або як деколи безпомічно говорила Ейса Гріфітс,*

молили бога вказати їм вихід із положення. Пізніше Клайд зрозумів, що це їм мало допомагало [6, p. 155].

The construction of sentences around some element, which is a kind of its semantic center, is a characteristic feature of the short messages style and the English press correspondence. The authors of such messages try to include as many details as possible in one sentence: e.g. *Thousands of Algerians tonight fled from the “dead city” of Orleansville after a twelvesecond earthquake had ripped through Central Algeria, killing an estimated one thousand onehundred people* [7, p. 13].

The semantic center of this sentence is the subject of the subordinate clause (*earthquake*), not the subject of the main clause (*thousands of Algerians*). All other elements of the sentence are grouped around this semantic center – where the earthquake occurred, how long it lasted, how many people died. When translating, it is better to break this sentence into two or even three independent sentences: *Сьогодні вночі тисячі алжирців втекли від землетрусу із “мертвого міста” Орлеансвіля. Землетрус, який тривав дванадцять секунд, охопив центральні райони Алжиру. Як вважають, загинули тисяча сто чоловік* [6, p. 143].

The practice of combining two or more sentences of the original text into one sentence during translation is used both to clarify the content and for stylistic purposes. Most often, it has to be resorted to when the connection between neighboring sentences is so close that their formal union is dictated by the construction of the Ukrainian phrase.

Combining sentences during translation may be appropriate when none of them contains a complete thought: e.g. *The Chartists had not planned to assemble in arms on Kennington Common. Or march thence to the Houses of Parliament.* – *Чартисти ї не думали про те, щоб прийти у Кеннінгтонський парк із зброєю в руках і організувати похід до парламенту.* In this case, there is no reason to leave logically closely connected thoughts separated. Another example: *We were overjoyed – there was about a week to go – until we saw the “premises”. Our faces fell, our hearts sank.* – *Ми раділи, адже залишався ще*

майже тиждень, але коли ми побачили приміщення, обличчя у всіх витягнулися, настрій упав.

Transferring the introductory sentence in the translation with an introductory sentence is undesirable, as this would break the semantic connection. Therefore, the sentence “*but when we saw the premises*” is better to combine with the second sentence.

In some cases, the need to combine sentences is dictated by the stylistic tasks of the statement. The emphasis of the opposition in the following example is strengthened by combining two sentences that carry this meaning: e.g. *Once again the choice opens before the people. But it is no longer 1918. Nor is it 1938. The whole balance of forces is profoundly changed.* – *Народ знову стоїть перед вибором. Але тепер уже не 1918 рік і навіть не 1938. Розстановка сил докорінно змінилася.*

Partitioning and unification of sentences during translation are closely related to the choice of syntactic constructions.

5. Grammatical comparisons in the translation process

Even when thinking in native language, the speaker, and even more so the one who writes, chooses the most appropriate syntactic structure not immediately, but after some reflection and comparison of syntactic options. The most important is the search and selection of grammatical forms during translation. This especially applies to those cases when the foreign language form has some other specifics and it is difficult or impossible to find formal equivalents in the Ukrainian language. Then it is important to know which grammatical means can best convey the thought expressed by a foreign grammatical form or syntactic construction.

E.g. *I wanted to have done it myself.*

He hoped to have succeeded.

She promised to have come.

What is the grammatical meaning of the perfect infinitive in the given examples? And how to express this meaning in translation? The grammatical meaning in all three cases is the same: the meaning of an

unrealized action expressed by a predicate verb. Accordingly, these sentences could be translated:

Я хотів зробити це сам, але не зробив.

Він сподівався на успіх, але не мав його.

Вона обіцяла прийти раніше, але не прийшла.

However, such translation would be unfair to the Ukrainian language. After all, in the Ukrainian language you can find a way to express the idea of an unrealized action as briefly as possible. To do this, one only needs to move away from copying the form of the English construction:

Я хотів було зробити це сам.

Він марно сподівався на успіх.

Вона тільки пообіцяла прийти раніше.

In the first case, i.e. for English verbs expressing desire, intention, aspiration in the past tense with the perfect infinitive, the form of the so-called “invalid mode” (A.A. Shakhmatov's term) can be used for translation into Ukrainian. In other cases, rendering of the value of an unrealized action is possible only by lexical means. The replacement of grammatical means by lexical ones and, on the contrary, lexical means by grammatical ones is a completely natural and very common phenomenon in translation. Between grammatical forms and syntactic constructions of different languages, it is impossible to establish correspondences that do not depend on their lexical meaning. Only functional counterparts based on the transmission of the same (or approximately the same) grammatical meanings can be mapped. When determining grammatical counterparts, it is necessary to take into account the lexical content and stylistic function of the construction. Only such comparisons are meaningful for the theory and practice of translation.

When choosing grammatical options in the translation process, it is important to take into account the main lines of disagreement between the grammatical structure of the English and Ukrainian languages. One of the most important differences is the centrality of the structure of a simple sentence in the English language, which is expressed in the

construction of a sentence around a single organizing center – the subject. For this, the English language uses the following means:

1. combining the passive voice with the active one in homogeneous predicates – members;
2. syntactic complexes;
3. dual government (rection);
4. prepositional constructions.

The first, second and fourth means will be considered separately. As for dual government (rection), this characteristic feature of the English language requires a mandatory change of construction (its decentralization) during translation. In a Ukrainian sentence, two predicate verbs cannot govern the same object, if for one of the verbs this object is prepositional, and for the other – without a preposition: e.g. *President Roosevelt summoned and was joined by Harry Hopkins in the afternoon.* In the translation of this sentence, an internal partitioning should be made: *Президент Рузвельт викликав до себе Гаррі Гопкінса, який приїхав до нього в той же день.*

In the same way, in the Ukrainian language, a construction with two verbal predicates that control the same object, but with different prepositions, is impossible: e.g. *They are not represented in but handled by the British Foreign Office (Th. Dreiser This is Churchill's Democracy).* – *Міністерство закордонних справ Великобританії їх не представляє, але воно розпоряджається ними на власний розсуд.*

As can be seen from the examples, when translating constructions with dual government (rection), the restructuring of the sentence structure is mandatory.

Another important feature of the English grammatical structure is the existence of constructions, the grammatical meaning of which is revealed outside the construction itself. Such constructions include complex object, complex subject, absolute constructions and some types of modal constructions. They will be considered separately.

6. Translation of constructions which do not have formal equivalents in Ukrainian

The translation of constructions should be understood as a conditional term, which means choosing the most appropriate type of a sentence, its structure and articulation. When translating from English into Ukrainian, it is more often necessary to observe the differences between the grammatical forms and syntactic constructions of these languages than their similarities. In addition, it is necessary to take into account that even with external, formal similarity of constructions and forms, their stylistic means may be different in different languages.

a) translation of passive constructions

Passive constructions are much more common in English than in Ukrainian. This is due to a number of features, the main of which is that in English it is possible to turn a sentence with a verb in the active voice into a passive construction with a direct or prepositional object, which is impossible in Ukrainian. Passive constructions in sentences like: “*He was told the news. This state of things cannot be put up with.*”, when translated, are replaced by active: “*Йому повідомили новину. Не можна миритися з таким станом речей.*”

The following typical cases may occur with such transformations:

- an English verb that requires an indirect or prepositional object corresponds to a transitive verb in Ukrainian. In such cases, the passive construction can also remain passive in translation: e.g. *The Sherman Anti-Trust Law is being interefered with.* – *Закон Шермана, спрямований проти монополій, постійно порушується. These statements relative to the advocacy of violence were testified to only by stool-pigeons.* – *Покази про те, що вони проповідують насильство, давались тільки поліцейськими агентами* [6, p. 122]

- an intransitive verb corresponds to an English verb that requires an indirect or prepositional object in Ukrainian. In such cases, it is necessary to replace the passive construction with an active one: e.g. *The bed was not slept in.* – *У ліжку ніхто не спав.*

• the forms of the verb in the two languages seem to match, but the stylistic factor does not allow leaving the passive construction in the translation: e.g. *He was the sort of person more at ease being asked than asking.* The forms of *being asked* or *being asked*, which exist in the Ukrainian language, have a book character. Therefore, it is better to replace the construction when translating: *Він належав до тих людей, які з більшою охотою відповідають на питання, ніж ставлять їх іншим.*

In many cases, English passive constructions are translated by Ukrainian verbs with the suffix *-ся*: e.g. *This method is considered the best.* – *Цей метод вважається найкращим.* *Much fish is caught here.* – *Тут ловиться багато риби.* *Lectures on various subjects are given here.* – *Тут читаються лекції на різні теми.* [6, p.123]

When translating into Ukrainian, you can either keep the passive form or replace it with an active one, it is important to know what exactly determines the use of the passive form in the English original text. Analysis of a large number of examples shows that the passive construction in English is preferred mainly in the following cases:

1) when it is impossible or undesirable to indicate the performer of the action: e.g. *“He will be well taken care of,” said Loomis.* – *“Про Торна потурбуються”, сказав Луміс.*

2) when there is a need to put a logical emphasis on the object, and not on the subject of the action: e.g. *The problem has been studied by many English scientists.* – *Проблема вивчалася багатьма англійським вченими.* *The amendment was rejected by the majority of the Security Council.* – *Поправка була відхилена більшістю голосів членів Ради безпеки* [6, p. 122].

Sometimes passive constructions simultaneously serve the two specified purposes: to put the object of an action in the center of the statement, and so that it is possible not to indicate the subject of the action.

3) when it is necessary to preserve the integrity of the subject in the sentence: e.g. *He rose to speak and was warmly greeted by the audience.* – *Він встав, щоб взяти слово, і присутні тепло привітали його.*

When translating into Ukrainian, there is neither the possibility nor the need to try to preserve a single subject in this example of dual government (rection). It should be noted that the use of the passive with dual government (rection) is a very characteristic and common phenomenon in the English language. This is not allowed in the Ukrainian language. E.g. *This conspiracy against peace was hatched in and directed from London and Washington.* – *Ця змова проти миру, виношена в Лондоні та Вашингтоні, здійснювалася під їх керівництвом.*

4) in phraseological units, that is, set expressions, and in stable free phrases. In the English language, there are a number of phrasemes with verbs in passive voice, for example: *He was wined and dined.* – *Його тепло приймали.* *More sinned against than sinning.* – *Скоріше жертва, ніж злочинець.*

When translating verbs in the passive voice, in many cases it is necessary to take into account the need for species differentiation: e.g. *Sixty years ago Oklahoma was called Indian territory. The context suggests that the correct translation would be.* – *Шістдесят років тому Оклахома називалась індіанською територією.* or *Шістдесят років тому Оклахому називали індіанською територією* but not *була названа.*

Terminative verbs in the passive voice are often translated into Ukrainian by the perfect verb, but species differentiation in many cases is possible only taking into account the broad context. So, when describing the crisis of 1929–1932 in the USA, the sentence “*Thousands of thousands of tons of food were burned, hundreds of thousands of gallons of milk were poured into rivers*” can be translated in two ways: 1) Мільйони тон харчових продуктів були спалені, сотні тисяч галонів молока вилиті в річки. 2) Мільйони тон харчових продуктів спалювалися, сотні тисяч галонів молока виливалися в річки depending on whether the broader context is about the result or the process.

Thus, the translation of passive constructions once again proves the need for functional, not formal accuracy in translation.

b) translation of syntax complexes – infinitive, participial, gerundial

When translating syntactic complexes, one of the most characteristic features of English syntax is especially clearly manifested, which is that the grammatical meaning of the construction is revealed outside the complex itself.

An illustrative example can be the translation of the sentences we considered earlier:

I wanted to have done it myself.

He hoped to have succeeded.

She promised to have come earlier.

(Perfect infinitive with predicate verb expressing desire, intention, promise, expectation).

The translation of infinitive complexes, a complex object and a complex subject are considered in normative grammars, but there are no indications on the specifics of techniques used in translation.

When rendering a complex with complex object (Objective with the Infinitive, Complex Object), it is important to keep in mind that a special connecting link is often necessary between the predicate verb and the parts of the complex in the translation: *I, for my part, have known a five-pound note to interpose and knock up a half century's attachment between two brothers. (W. Thackeray, Vanity Fair)* This sentence cannot be translated as: *Я знав п'ятифунтову банкноту ...* because W. Thackeray did not want to say that he personally saw that banknote or held it in his hands. Correct translation is: *Що стосується мене, то я знав випадок, коли п'ятифунтова банкнота стала між двома братами і зруйнувала піввікову дружбу між ними.*

Another example: *“I've known Dog Soldiers to ...”* “*Я знаю випадки, коли шайєни проходили по сто двадцять миль за день*”, сказав Уїнт [6, p. 122].

The syntactic complex with complex subject (Subjective with the infinitive, Complex Subject) can almost always be translated in two ways:

1. subordinate clause

2. the main clause with the transformation of the predicate verb into an introductory word e.g. *The treaty is reported to have been signed by all participants.* – *Повідомляють, що договір підписаний всіма учасниками. Як повідомляється, договір підписаний всіма учасниками.*

Certain difficulties arise when translating the infinitive complex introduced by the preposition *for*. When translating it, it must be taken into account that this complex indicates that the action expressed by the infinitive is performed not by the subject, but by another doer. When transferring this construction in translation, one often has to resort to restructuring the structure of the sentence.

E.g. *I have closed the window for you not to catch cold.* – *Я закрив вікно, щоб ви не застудилися.*

The infinitive complex is rendered by a subordinate clause. E.g. *It was unusual for him to go out in the afternoon.* – *Він звичайно не виходив на вулицю після обіду.*

The infinitive construction is rendered by a verb in the personal form. E.g. *But after Darwin's death, when his greatness was acknowledged by all, it was possible for the Victorian piety to build up a myth that he was essentially a religious.* – *Але після смерті Дарвіна, коли його велич була визнана всіма, побожні вікторіанці змогли створити міф про те, що він був по суті релігійною людиною [6, p. 132].*

The infinitive is rendered by the infinitive, but the entire sentence is rearranged during translation.

Despite the fact that in the Ukrainian language the forms of the participle and adverb are more diverse than in English, the Ukrainian participle and adverb is used less often than in English, because it has a more bookish character. In addition, the Ukrainian participle and adverb can express only a simultaneous or previous action in relation to the action indicated by the predicate verb. Therefore, even the simple form of the present participle does not always have formal counterparts in the form of a participle in the Ukrainian language. E.g. *He liked always to keep a little nest egg for himself. This he kept in a bag in his room,*

oftencounting it and always sleeping with it under his pillow. In this example, none of the participles can be translated as a participle, since they express actions that differ in time and in a variety of ways, equal in meaning to the action of a predicate verb: *Він любив ховати гроші для власних потреб. Зберігав їх він у себе в кімнаті в мішечку, часто перераховував свій скарб і на ніч завжди клав його під подушку.*

In English, a participle can also express the result marked by a predicate: e.g. *That was how Gideon spoke for the first time in the Convention hall, carrying a motion* (H. Fast, *Freedom Road*).

It is impossible to save the verb construction in the translation, it is necessary to separate the result into a separate sentence, or to convey it by means of coordination: *Ось як Гідеон виступив вперше в Конвенції, і його пропозицію було прийнято.*

The participle with the conjunction *while* is often expressed by a verb in the personal form or by a participle. It should be noted that *while* can express both temporal and permissive relations. In such cases, it is translated into Ukrainian in the appropriate forms:

E.g. *While claiming that miners' wages had been raised by five shillings during that period, he admitted that they were still lagging behind rising prices.*

This sentence can be translated in two ways:

1. *Хоча він заявив, що заробітна плата шахтарів підвищилася на 5 шилінгів за цей період, він тим не менше визнав, що вона все ще відстає від росту зарплати.*

2. *Стверджуючи, що зарплата шахтарів підвищилася на 5 шилінгів за цей період, він тим не менше визнав, що вона все ще відстає від росту цін* [6, p. 122].

From this example, it can be seen that participial constructions with the conjunction *while* are conveyed by both personal and impersonal forms of the verb.

Elliptical constructions with the past participle and the conjunctions *when* or *if* are usually expressed in full subordinate clauses, since the complex with the adverb *being* is archaic and bookish: e.g. *When asked about the situation in North Africa, he answered that the government*

were considering it. – Коли його запитали про становище у Північній Африці, він відповів, що уряд розглядає це питання. *Mr Nelson (Labour) said if elected he would support the workers' wage demand.* – Лейборист Нельсон заявив, що якщо його оберуть, він буде підтримувати вимоги робітників про підвищення заробітної плати.

In the following examples, a complete syntactic reconstruction of a similar participial construction is required during translation: *When shot, Mrs Doran was apparently taking a walk.* – Місіс Доран була вбита, очевидно, підчас прогулянки.

When asked, he said he was planning to visit the USA. – На поставлене запитання він відповів, що збирається відвідати США.

The following example of an elliptical construction with a past participle is interesting. E.g. *The tribunal's decisions, when arrived at, reflected the opinions of the members.* In translation, this construction can be rendered with a participial phrase: *Рішення, прийняті трибуналом, відобразили думку його членів.*

Such participial phrases can also be unconjugated: e.g. *Questioned about his reaction to the announcement, he replied ...* – Коли його запитали, що він думає про цю заяву, він відповів ...

Elliptical constructions with a participle can often be found in headings: e.g. *Textile Pay Rise Asked.* Such headlines are usually rendered in accordance with the peculiarities of Ukrainian newspaper headlines and the content of the article: *Вимоги текстильників про підвищення заробітної плати.*

Thus, elliptical participial phrases can be expressed in different ways: by subordinate clauses, by a verb in the personal form with a complete reconstruction of the clause of the sentence, or by a noun with a preposition.

In the English language, sentences with the complexes (infinitive and participle) are also used after the verbs *to have* and *to get* as a predicate expressing an action performed by someone at the request of the person marked by the subject or to encourage another person to act:

1. *I had my hair cut.* – Мені зробили зачіску.

I have a new coat made. – Мені шиють нове пальто.

2. *I'll have him call you up. – Я скажу йому, щоб він Вам подзвонив [6, p. 132].*

Causative constructions of the first type are conveyed by indefinite-personal sentences.

Constructions of the second type are subordinate clauses, and the verb to have is translated depending on the context: e.g. *As soon as I heard that your boys had left you, I had them told to be back at their place at dawn.* *W.S. Maugham The Outstation – Як тільки я почув, що Ваші слуги залишили Вас, я наказав передати їм, щоб вони насвітанку повернулися на свої місця.*

Definitions expressed by complex adjectives, the second element of which is the past participle, are very characteristic of the modern English language. Such definitions coincide with Ukrainian definitions expressed by compound words or two lexical units in some cases: e.g. *The long-expected reform. – Довгоочікувана реформа. Much-advertised policy. – Широко розрекламована політика.* In other cases, such definitions have to be translated in other ways: *Tory-directed policy. – Політика, яку направляють консерватори. A State Department controlled minority. – Меншість, яка знаходиться під контролем Державного департаменту.*

The methods of translating the gerund and gerundial constructions reflect the dual nature of the gerund: it combines verb and noun characteristics.

A gerund in the function of a subject or an object is translated mainly by a verbal noun, a gerund in various adverbial modifier functions – by various forms of a verb (in particular, participle) or a subordinate clause.

However, it should be noted that the decisive importance when translating a gerund is often not its function in a sentence but its lexical meaning and the convenience of using this or that Ukrainian grammatical form. Thus, in the meaning function, one gerund can be translated by a noun: e.g. *the habit of speaking in public – звичка до*

публічних виступів, and another by the infinitive – *the habit of smoking* – *звичка курити*.

In some cases, the gerund is translated by an adverb: e.g. *Judy Gringham, the British champion, put her own best time in breaking the old record.* – *Чемпіонка Великобританії Джуді Грінгем показала найкращий результат, покращивши свій власний рекорд.*

Gerundial complexes are also rendered into Ukrainian by subordinate clauses: e.g. *He insists on the contract being signed immediately.* – *Він наполягає на тому, щоб договір був підписаний негайно.* *He objected to the ships leaving the port in such bad weather.* – *Він заперечує проти того, щоб кораблі виходили з порту в таку бурю* [6, p. 122].

The use of the subject (doer) of the gerund complex in common case instead of the possessive in connection with the coincidence of the gerund form with the form of the present participle sometimes creates the possibility of an ambiguous understanding of the text, as in the following example: *He used to bombard the Foreign Office with messages protesting against Russians getting visas (R. Parker Conspiracy Against Peace).*

The form *getting* can formally be considered in this case both as a gerund and as a participle. However, the context does not allow us to consider the *ing*-form as a participle, because then the translation results in nonsense: *протестуючи проти росіян, які отримували візи*. The correct translation is: *протестуючи проти того, щоб росіянам видавали візи* or *протестуючи проти видачі віз росіянам*.

Thus, even the recognition of a grammatical form, not to mention the choice of means of its translation, is in some cases conditioned by the context.

c) translation of absolute constructions

Since the translation of a construction should be understood as the choice of grammatical means for the most complete rendering of its content, the translation of absolute constructions depends mainly on the nature of the syntactic and semantic connection of this phrase with the

main part of the sentence. This connection can be circumstantial, meaningful, explanatory and connecting.

The specific meaning of absolute constructions in the English language lies in the conjugation of actions, that is, in the complex expression of connections and relations between the phenomena of reality, which is manifested in the combination in one form of the causal meaning with the temporal, the conditional with the temporal, the meaning of the accompanying circumstances with the circumstance of the mode of action etc. When translating such constructions, the semantic relations between the absolute construction and the main part of the sentence are not formally differentiated. Means of expression of such undifferentiated connections in the Ukrainian language are adverbial phrase, order and independent clause.

E.g. *General strike spirit began to run like wildfire, one local union after another endorsing the proposal of a complete tie-up.*

The absolute participial construction in this case reveals, explains and clarifies the general position described in the main part of the sentence. Differentiation of connection during translation is unnecessary here: *Заклик до загального страйку поширився як лісова пожежа по всій країні: одна профспілка за іншою приєднувалися до рішення про повне припинення роботи.*

Since the grammatical meaning of absolute constructions consists in conjugation of multi-subject actions, during translation it is important to establish whether this construction has not only different grammatical but also logical subjects. With the unity of the logical subject (that is, the executor of the action) in both parts of the sentence in the translation, it is possible to use the participle: e.g. *He stood, his head bent.* – *Він стояв, опустивши голову.* *He stood, his eyes fixed on his friend.* – *Він стояв, втупившись поглядом у свого товариша.* *The dance broke up, the couples hurrying to their seats.* – *Музика припинилася, і танцюючі пари кинулися до своїх місць.*

Sometimes the absolute construction is used to add a new thought which is equal in meaning to the content of the main part of the sentence. Such constructions can be called constructions with a conjunctive value:

e.g. *The lamp was quickly and widely adopted, Davy himself refusing to take any royalties for what he regarded as his gift to humanity.* – Лампа швидко завоювала широке визнання, але сам Дейві відмовлявся приймати будь-які почесні, вважаючи її своїм подарунком людству [2, p. 12].

Absolute constructions, which have turned into phraseological units, have the most permanent character. These are phrases like *sword in hand, cap in hand, hat in hand, tongue in cheek, cheek by jowl*.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Discuss general regularities of correlation and correspondence of grammatical forms and constructions of the source and target languages.
2. Name and discuss grammatical difficulties of translation.
3. Speak on word order and sentence structure in translation.
4. Speak on partitioning and combination of sentences in translation.
5. Analyze grammatical comparisons in the translation process.
6. Discuss translation of constructions which do not have formal equivalents in Ukrainian.
7. Discuss translation of passive constructions.
8. Discuss translation of syntax complexes – infinitive, participial, gerundial.
9. Discuss translation of absolute constructions.

Lecture 4

LEXICAL FEATURES OF THE SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TEXTS TRANSLATION

1. The lexical difficulties of scientific and technical translation
2. Contextual substitutions in translation
 - a) differentiation and specification of concepts;
 - b) generalization of concepts;
 - c) logical development of concepts during translation;
 - d) antonymic translation;
 - e) compensation for translation losses.

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1. The lexical difficulties of scientific and technical translation

Scientific and technical texts are characterized by a special style that distinguishes them from other types of texts. When translating such texts, this feature creates additional difficulties and problems [1, p. 281].

Among the lexical difficulties of scientific and technical translation, V.I. Karaban singles out “multiple meanings of words (terms) and the choice of an adequate dictionary counterpart or translation variant of a word (term), the peculiarities of the use of common words in scientific and technical texts, the correct application of one or another method of vocabulary translation. Determination of the limit of admissibility of translation lexical transformations, translation of neologism terms, abbreviations, such “false friends” of the translator as pseudo-internationalism lexicalized plural forms of nouns and homonymous terms, ethno-specific vocabulary and ethnonational variants of terms, foreign words and terms in English scientific and technical texts of various kind of proper names and titles (firms, institutions, and organizations), etc.” [part II, p. 12–13]. The author attributes to grammatical differences the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of the language, the form, and the tradition of written scientific communication. “Yes, in English specialist texts passive forms and impersonal forms of the verb are used more often than in Ukrainian, participial constructions and special syntactic constructions, personal pronouns of the first person singular and one-member infinitive and nominative sentences, etc.” [Part I, p. 14].

The main difficulty of translating scientific and technical texts, namely the translation of terms, is revealed in the disclosure and transmission of foreign realias by means of the Ukrainian language. It would be wrong to talk about the translation of terms as such. A prerequisite for a complete translation of any special text, especially a scientific and technical one, is its full understanding by the translator. A

mechanical study of terms, without penetrating into their essence, without knowledge of the very phenomena, processes, and mechanisms referred to in the original, can lead to gross errors in translation. The translator must study in detail the field of science and technology in which he works. Only then he can safely use the appropriate terminological dictionaries [1, p. 282].

However, in a special text, there is often an element of novelty, which is particularly interesting for the reader but is connected with the use of new terms not yet recorded in dictionaries. It is clear that such cases can create serious problems for the translator. The main condition for overcoming this difficulty is a detailed analysis of the described phenomenon and its rendering in terms that are already established in science. Current scientific problems, the latest technological inventions, and discoveries are covered in printed publications and, above all, in periodicals, to which the translator should refer. Consulting a specialist in this field can be of great help here. First, it is necessary to establish exactly what the problem described in the foreign language translation is and what the problems of its presentation in the translation are. As already indicated, the problem may lie in the description of new processes or the latest equipment. The translator must carefully compare all cases of the use of new terms or places that are difficult to convey by the means of the Ukrainian language in order to get a clear idea of the described problem from the general content of the text.

Any scientific text is characterized by a certain repetition of terms. Therefore, in order to convey the meaning correctly of an unfamiliar term or terminological combination that is absent in dictionaries, it is very important to take into account and compare all cases of its use in this text and only after that try to clarify the meaning of the term by familiarizing yourself with special literature on this issue. Translators can really help already existing translated literature on this issue, especially if it is possible to compare the original text and the translation [1, p. 290].

2. Contextual substitutions in translation

While working with the text, the translator often has to face cases when “in order to correctly convey this or that image or phrase in the translation, it is necessary to completely change” (V.G. Belinsky). What is the essence of these changes?

First of all, it should be noted that when we use the term contextual substitution, we mean the use in translation of another word or phrase (or image) instead of the one that in the target language formally corresponds to the word or phrase of the original text. Therefore, when there are no formal equivalents in the translation language to the original word or phrase, it would be incorrect to speak of a replacement. Simplifying the issue a bit, we can say that contextual substitution involves abandoning the use of existing equivalents or analogs.

What can cause such a refusal? From the very term contextual substitution, it is already clear that its cause is the peculiarities of the context, more precisely, the unusual use of a word or phrase in a certain context. Consider the following example: *The ridiculous letters the Liberals sent to Mr. Churchill declaring that Tories must not use the word Liberal in describing their policies, for electoral reasons, are a bad joke* [1, p. 290]. How to translate the phrase a bad joke in this context? In most cases, it will be a bad joke. But here, obviously, there is a different meaning: if the liberals went for such humiliation, they are not joking. Logically continuing the thought, we come to the following version of the translation: *Не від хорошого життя направили ліберали це сміховинне послання, в якому вони заявляли, що консерватори не повинні користуватися словом “ліберальний” для викладення своєї політики підчас передвиборної кампанії* [1, p. 290]. The found version of the translation *a bad joke – не від хорошого життя* is contextual and will not be suitable in every case. This is a good example of contextual substitution.

Contextual substitutions can be divided into 5 independent translation methods:

- a) differentiation and specification of concepts;
- b) generalization of concepts;

- c) logical development of concepts during translation;
- d) antonymic translation;
- e) compensation for translation losses.

a) differentiation and specification of concepts

The translator has to deal with the phenomenon of ambiguity of English words at every step. But along with words that have several separate, partial meanings, there are also those that have one undifferentiated meaning, which, when translated, breaks down into a number of partial ones. For example, the noun *meal* has the meaning *прийняття їжі; їда, харчування*, but it can also mean *сніданок, обід, вечеря*. The noun *mount* generally means *тварина під сідлом*, but in a specific text, it is either *кінь, верблюд, мул, etc.*

These words are especially extended in the field of abstract concepts. Such words as *mind, spirit, attitude*, and a number of their similar ones do not have the same common meaning in the Ukrainian language's undifferentiated counterparts, and the translator has to choose one of the partial meanings that the author of the English text does not think to use the same concept.

In addition, without examples, it is clear that when translating the word *Attitude*, it is difficult to find a general word in the Ukrainian language that would cover all four main meanings of this word: attitude, behavior, position, and policy (*відношення, поведінка, позиція, політика*).

Of course, the above does not mean that there are no words in the Ukrainian language that express broad generalizations. Even the English words listed above can be found similarly undifferentiated counterparts: *mind – інтелект, spirit – дух, feeling – відчуття, attitude – реакція на щось* [2, p. 29]. But these counterparts are not equivalents, since the given Ukrainian words do not fully correspond to English words either in terms of meaning or expressive and stylistic and it is unlikely that they will be appropriate in the translation of any (for example, household) text.

It is enough to analyze the main meanings of the word-concept *feeling* in order to see that a large number of close meanings intersect in English abstract word concepts and how difficult and responsible the translator's task is when differentiating them:

e.g. *feeling*, 1) відчуття, почуття, чуття; усвідомлення; 2) чутливість; 3) емоція, почуття; 4) звич. рl чуття, переживання; 5) співчуття, симпатія; доброта; 6) хвилювання, збудження; 7) думка, враження; сприйняття; розуміння (мистецтва тощо); 8) емоційна атмосфера; настрій; 9) передчуття

Differentiation is significant in both narrow and broad contexts. Sometimes it is possible to even within a word combination, and in other cases, it is necessary involving the context of a sentence, paragraph, or the entire material being translated.

E.g. The modern American trade union movement, arising out of the big industrial expansion and labor struggles ... was organized nationally the same year I was born, the American Federation of Labor having been organized in Pittsburgh on November 15, 1881 (W.Foster The Twilight of World Capitalism) – Сучасний американський профспілковий рух, що розгорнувся в результаті великого промислового піднесення і безперервного загострення боротьби робітничого класу ... оформився у загальнонаціональному масштабі у рік мого народження: 15 листопада 1881 року у м. Піттсбургу була створена Американська федерація праці.

If in the second case, the meaning of the word *labor* is already revealed within the phraseology of the American Federation of Labor, then the differentiation of the meaning of labor in the phrase *labor struggles* is possible only by taking into account the content of the entire sentence.

To correctly differentiate the meaning of a word, it is necessary to know the phenomenon of concrete reality behind it. This is especially important when alongside differentiation concretization of abstract concepts also occurs. So, the noun *board*, the generic concept of which is expressed by *колегіальний орган управління (the collegial governing body)*, is differentiated and specified as *правління, президія, бюро,*

рада, міністерство, колегія, департамент (a board, presidium, bureau, council, ministry, board, department), etc. The word combination *public school* (Great Britain) can be specified only if it is known which of the private schools it is referring to (Eton, Winchester, or Harrow).

b) generalization of concepts

Much less often, when translating from English into Ukrainian, the reverse phenomenon is observed: the replacement of a concrete, specific concept by a more abstract, generic one. Sometimes this is required by the logic of constructing an opinion.

So much so that today (money still in control in all lands of the press, the radio, the moving picture, the telephone, the officials of state, their banks and means of transportation, their police and hired agents), you have a never-ending downpour of lies concerning this vast program ... (Th. Dreiser Essays and Letters) In the translation of the introductory sentence – *money still in control in all lands of the press, the radio, the moving picture, the telephone, the officials of state, their banks and means of transportation, their police and hired agents* (оскільки у всіх країнах гроші ще контролюють пресу, радіо, кіно, державний апарат, банки і транспорт) – the word *телефон* (*telephone*) would be inappropriate. It is necessary to replace it with a broader concept of means of communication, which is logically included in the above list.

It should be noted that since the use of generalization can lead to a certain loss (accuracy) of information, it should be used with caution in cases where the use in translation of the dictionary counterpart to be translated, may lead to violation of grammatical or stylistic norms of the target language.

c) logical development of concepts during translation

This type of contextual substitution consists in the fact that in the absence or inapplicability of a Ukrainian word concept, another closely related to it is used as a concept that logically flows from it. So, for example, the headline of a newspaper article: *Women Man Ships* – the

best translation is – *Жінки ведуть кораблі* although the verb *to man* has a dictionary counterpart – *комплектувати особовим складом*.

Time's up, Joe. – says a London clerk to a friend in a bar during a lunch break, and the translator quite correctly avoids the direct object – *Наш час закінчився або Перерва закінчилася* because these expressions, especially the first one, are not conversational enough. In this case, it is best to translate – *Час йти, Джо*.

Basically, we are dealing here with replacing a phenomenon with its cause or effect. E.g. *The direct contrary is the truth. – cannot be translated literally – Прямо протилежне є істиною* because it does not correspond to the spirit of the Ukrainian language. Replacing the phenomenon itself with its cause, let's translate – *Насправді все зовсім навпаки. Ор Це зовсім не відповідає дійсності*.

Translating the phrase *The statement has been overtaken by time* – it is necessary to abandon the literal version – *Час перегнав це твердження* as from nonsense and convey the consequence: – *Це твердження відстало від життя*.

By logically unfolding the action, quality, and feature of the subject, we arrive at such a translation that corresponds to the norms of conjugation of words in the Ukrainian language. Adopting a logical development of thought is often absolutely necessary in translation for accurate expression of the content of the statement. For example, in the article for the 100th anniversary of the Chartist movement, the author writes: *The Tenth of April indicated with unmistakable clarity just how the capitalist class, with its hangers-on, will always contemplate the prospect of the triumph of the working class (Daily Worker)* [1, p. 290]. The verb *to contemplate* has the following dictionary equivalents: 1) споглядати; пильно розглядати; 2) міркувати, обмірковувати; 3) мати намір, збиратися; 4) очікувати, розраховувати. It is obvious that the author of this article in a communist newspaper does not mean to say that the capitalist class is passively waiting for the victory of the working class, on the contrary, he shows how the capitalists are actively preparing for the struggle. Therefore, it will be logical to develop the concept of *contemplate* in the translation: *Десяте квітня із усією*

ясністю показало, як капіталісти та їх приспівники мобілізують свої сили, щоб не допустити перемоги робітничого класу. або ... готуються дати відсіч переможному наступу робітничого класу.

An extreme case of the logical development of concepts during translation is the reception of translation “from the reverse” or antonymous translation.

d) antonymous translation

The reception of antonymous translation consists in transferring the concept to the opposite, often with a negation, that is, the antonym of the Ukrainian counterpart of the given word. Antonymous translation is often, if not the only, then the most convenient method of conveying the semantic and stylistic means of many expressions. This is evidenced by at least a number of examples from the English-Ukrainian dictionary:

Take your time. – *Не поспішай.*

Take it easy. – *Не утруднюйте себе./ Не хвилюйтеся./ Не беріть до серця.*

Mind your own business. – *Не твоє діло!/ Не втручайся в чужі справи!*

to keep one's head. – *не розгубитися*

to have clean hands in the matter – *не мати (ніякого) відношення до якоїсь справи.*

Antonymous translation is in most cases one of the possible options, but in the given examples it is clearly the best, and sometimes the only one.

When the English word or expression conveyed by the method of antonymic translation is used in the original in a negative form, the translation will have an affirmative form: *Don't sit up, I'll be late.* – *Не чекайте на мене, лягайте спати.*

It is especially important to be able to apply the technique of antonymic translation in those cases when there is no exact dictionary equivalent of the English word in the Ukrainian language and when, for stylistic reasons, it is undesirable to resort to descriptive translation. For example, when translating the following phrases Field statute of Great

Britain army this necessity arises due to the lack of a formal counterpart to the noun inferiority: *The adoption of the defensive does not necessarily imply weakness or inferiority*. By replacing the concept of inferiority with its antonym superiority, we can easily give an exact semantic and stylistic equivalent of the original: *Перехід до оборони не обов'язково означає слабкість тих, хто обороняється чи перевагу сил противника*. Another example: *They nodded to each other by way of breaking the ice of unacquaintance* (Th. Hardy, *The Three Strangers*) [1, p. 295]. The meaning of the noun *unacquaintance* can only be expressed descriptively: *той факт, що вони були незнайомі*. But such a detailed translation is not at all suitable for artistic translation. The best way out will be an antonymous translation: *Вони поклонилися один одному щоб зав'язати знайомство*.

But antonymic translation sometimes gives the best solution even with the full possibility of direct translation. E.g. *The police were on show discreetly, but undercover was every able-bodied man of the force*. For this sentence, a direct translation is possible by concretization: *Поліцейські показувалися/ з'являлися лиш невеликими групами ...* but the antonymous translation conveys the meaning of the statement much better: *Поліція трималася в тіні*.

Especially often, antonymous translation is used when translating phraseological units. There are many such phraseological units in the English language, the meaning of which can be conveyed (without loss of idiomaticity) only by the opposite concept with negation.

E.g. *He has a ready tongue*. – *Він за словом у кишеню не лізе*.

No time like the present. – *Лови момент*.

To be weighed and found wanting. – *Не витримати випробування./ Не виправдати надій*.

As can be seen from the examples, the antonymous translation – contextual in the full meaning of the word – is one of the most flexible ways of conveying shades of the original text.

e) compensation for translation losses

The reception of compensation for losses consists in the transmission of a semantic or stylistic shade not where it is expressed in the original. Very often, one stylistic device is replaced by another when compensating for losses. The need for compensation arises due to the fact that in a number of cases it is impossible to find a complete counterpart (that is, semantically and expressively, and stylistically) for the translation of a separate element of the original.

If it is necessary to sacrifice either the stylistic coloring or the expressive intensity of the word during translation, then one should first of all try to preserve expressive orientation. This means that when translating, for example, any slang (jargon) word, the translator must first of all ensure the accuracy of the transfer of the semantic and expressive meaning of the word, sacrificing, in the extreme case, its genre and stylistic coloring. But if this color is of fundamental importance for the style of the original, it must be transferred to translation, albeit in a different sentence, which is what the reception of loss compensation is for.

Ch. Dickens *Martin Chuzzlewit* contains an allegory that has been lost in many translations:

The education of Mr. Jonas had been conducted on the strictest principles of the main chance. The very first word he learned to spell was gain, and the second (when he got into two syllables), money.

Виховання містера Джонаса було найсуворішим і з колиски мало на увазі головним чином корисливість. Перше слово, яке він навчився складати, було "гроші", а друге (коли він дістався до трискладових слів) – "нажива". (переклад Н. Дарузес).

In the original, it is not about the strictness of upbringing itself, but about strict adherence to the principle that the main thing in life is profit (Ch. Dickens delicately calls it the main chance – головний шанс). The author's critical attitude to such education is also emphasized by the fact that he marks its goal with a hypocritical allegory, which, on sorry, is not translated.

But the translator tries to compensate for this loss, enhancing the shades of irony in the further exposition. Let us also pay attention to the fact that the translation of the words gain and money is also a kind of compensation: after all, according to Dickens the first word that Jonas learned to write was *нажива*, and the second – *гроши*. But in Ukrainian, due to the different number of syllables, these words will naturally be rearranged.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Discuss the lexical difficulties of scientific and technical translation.
2. Speak on contextual substitutions in translation:
 - a) differentiation and specification of concepts;
 - b) generalization of concepts;
 - c) logical development of concepts during translation;
 - d) antonymic translation;
 - e) compensation for translation losses.

Lecture 5

PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS AND NON-EQUIVALENT LEXIS IN SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TEXTS

1. Translation of phraselogical units
2. Proper names and geographical names rendering in translation
3. Translation of words that mean specific realias

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1. Translation of phraseological units

One of the main features of phraseological units, which distinguishes them from free phrases, is idiomaticity. It is because of this characteristic that the overall meaning of phraseology is not equal to the total value of its components, often this meaning has nothing to do with the meanings of the words included in it: e.g. *to show white feather* – *бути боягузом*.

Many idioms arose on the basis of some historical fact: e.g. *to dine with Duke Humphrey* – *залушитися без обіду* (*at one time debtors in London hid from their creditors in St. Paul's Cathedral, where, among others, is the tomb of Duke Humphrey; when asked where he would dine, the debtor replied that he would dine with the duke, that is, nowhere*).

Idioms often contain a metaphorical element. They cannot be translated literally. In many cases, they have a clearly expressed national color. All this and a number of other factors lead to the fact that phraseological units often do not have absolute counterparts in another language. The difficulty of translating idioms is that the translator must be able to recognize them and find the appropriate Ukrainian version.

From the translations point of view, phraseological units – sayings and proverbs – are conveniently divided into 3 groups.

The first group includes proverbs and sayings that are completely identical to Ukrainian ones – both in meaning and in form:

e.g. All that glitters is not gold. – Не все те золото, що блищить.

As a man sows, so shall he reap. – Як посієш, так і пожнеш.

New brooms sweep clean. – Нова мітла по-новому мете. (The grammatical number mismatch in the Ukrainian and English proverb in the last example is not significant, so we include it in the first group) [4, p. 39].

Such sayings and proverbs, which are completely identical in different languages, have as their source a common prototype and are often a copy from Greek or Latin, less often from other languages.

The second group includes proverbs and sayings that match in content, but do not match in the image underlying them:

e.g. Too many cooks will spoil the broth. – У семи няньок дитя без носа.

As well be hanged for a sheep, as for a lamb. – Сім бід – один одвіт. Сім смертям не бути, а одної не минути. Раз козі смерть.

To buy a pig in a poke. – Купити kota в мішку.

When translating such phraseological units, it is recommended to use precisely such counterparts that have become established in the language, because when translating them, the translator must adhere to the principle of translating something familiar to the same familiar. Otherwise, a saying or a proverb will give the reader the impression of something unexpected and original. Therefore, the English proverb *At a snail's pace* – *Як на волах* cannot be translated *Із швидкістю равлика*.

The third group includes sayings and proverbs that have no counterparts in the Ukrainian language – neither in content nor in image. They are translated either descriptively or with the help of a saying created by the translator. E.g. *Little pitchers have long/ wide ears*. – *Діти люблять слухати розмови дорослих. В малих дітей великі вуха*.

Proverbs and sayings often have a clearly expressed national character, so they cannot be used in translation, despite the fact that they are completely identical in content. In such cases, it is necessary either to give a translation close to the original, to make a descriptive translation, or to translate this saying with a change of image: e.g. *to carry coal to Newcastle* – *Ніхто не возить вугілля в Ньюкасл. Робити щось безглузде/ недоцільне/ непотрібне. В ліс дрова возити. В криницю воду лити*.

From the translation point of view, figurative phraseological units built in the form of comparisons can be divided into the same three groups as proverbs and sayings. The first group includes phraseological

units that have complete figurative and substantive correspondence in the source language and in the target language: e.g. *cold as ice* – *холодний, як лід*; *sweet as honey* – *солодкий, як мед*.

The second group includes phraseological units that express the same idea, but use a different image: e.g. *as old as the hills* – *старий, як світ*; *as hungry as a hunter* – *голодний, як вовк/ собака/ пес*.

The third group includes the following comparative phraseological units that have no analogues in the Ukrainian language: e.g. *as brown as a berry* – *дуже темний/ дуже загорілий/ шоколадного кольору*.

As can be seen from the examples, the expressions of the first group do not create problems during translation. Expressions of the second group are usually translated by Ukrainian analogues. However, here the translator must be guided by the already mentioned principle – to translate something familiar to something equally familiar. The image associated with the word in such comparisons has grown so much with it that it is hardly perceived as an image, and in many cases is completely erased. It would be a mistake to preserve the word that is included in such a phrase, because in the translation this phraseological unit or phrase would sound artificial and unusual, which would introduce into the translation something that is not in the original text: brightness would be returned to the usual faded image, therefore the saying *to sleep like a log* should be translated as *спати як убитий/ спати без задніх ніг* but not as *спати як колода*.

Phraseological units included in the third group are usually translated descriptively, according to the content. Phraseological units also include sayings that are widely used in various types of speech and speech styles. Among them are various quotations – of a literary origin, biblical expressions, statements of historical figures, etc. When rendering them, the translator must be guided by the tradition that exists in the Ukrainian language, regardless of the dictionary meaning of the words that make up the expression. There is often a difference between the Ukrainian and English languages. One and the same word, which is a part of different expressions in the English language, may require translation with different words in connection with the tradition established in the

Ukrainian language. Let's compare, for example, such two expressions: *massacre of the innocent* and *massacre of Saint Bartholomew*.

In the first case, the word *massacre* is translated as *вбивство/ побиття немовлят*. In the second, it is not translated at all, since this historical event is known in the Ukrainian language as *Варфоломійська ніч*. Separately, we should dwell on the translation of biblical expressions. In the English-speaking tradition, they are very often used in various speech styles, including journalistic texts. Biblical expressions give the statement deep imagery. When translating, they often have to be deciphered, because their images, their figurative meaning, due to a number of reasons, are not always clear to the Ukrainian reader or listener: e.g. *Nine mocking years with the golden calf and three long years of scourge, ... nine crazy years at the ticker and three long years in the breadline!* (*F.D. Roosevelt about Harding – Coolidge – Hoover era, Safire's Political Dictionary by William Safire, 1978, p. 747*) *Дев'ять лихих грошових років і три довгих роки лиха, ... дев'ять років шалених удач на біржі і три довгих роки в чергах за хлібом* (Цит. за Т. Ключіною).

Another example. The expression *whited sepulchres* in the Bible is translated as *гроби побілені* (Gospel of Matthew 23:27–28). But under this expression, which may not be immediately clear to the average reader, there is a certain image, which is revealed in the original source: “Горе вам, книжники і фарисеї, лицеміри, що схожі на гроби побілені, які зверху гарними здаються, а всередині повні кісток мертвих та всякої нечистоти. Отак і ви: назовні здаєтесь людям справедливі, а всередині сповнені лицемірства і беззаконня.” Here is how this image is used in literature: e.g. *The revelation not only shocked Mary, but made her wonder how many more of her hitherto respected elders might be whited sepulchres* (Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English) – *Це відкриття не тільки шокувало Мері, а й змусило її замислитися – а скільки ще з досі шанованих нею людей старшого покоління є святенниками або лицемірами* (Цит. за Т. Ключіною).

Summarizing the above, let's present the main ways of translating phraseological units.

1. The best way is to convey phraseology by phraseology. This is possible when the English and Ukrainian languages have borrowed phraseological units from other languages (most often classical). E.g. *Strike while the iron is hot.* – *Куй залізо, поки гаряче.*

2. Translation by a phraseological analogue, that is, the use in the Ukrainian language of phraseological units that have the same meaning, but which are built on a different image. With such a translation, it should be taken into account that the Ukrainian image should be neutral in relation to the national coloring: e.g. *Can the leopard change his spots?* – *Природу не виправиш. Горбатого могила справить.*

3. Translation by calque, that is, an attempt to copy an English image and create its own phraseological unit. With this method, you should remember that:

- the image must be clear, the metaphorical, figurative meaning must come from the direct meaning: e.g. *Little pitchers have long ears.* – *У малих дітей великі вуха.*

- if there is realia in the translation, then it should be understandable to the Ukrainian reader: e.g. *To carry coal to Newcastle.* – *Ніхто не возить вугілля в Ньюкасл.*

- the translation should be given the form of a phraseology: e.g. *Rome was not built in a day.* – *Не зразу Рим будувався.*

4. Descriptive translation, refusal to translate by phraseology: e.g. *to cut off with a shilling* – *залишити без спадщини.*

2. Proper names and geographical names rendering in translation

The tendency to establish equivalents is most clearly manifested in rendering proper names and geographical names. There are three ways of rendering proper names in translation: transliteration, transcription or transcribing, and calque (loan translation). During transliteration, foreign proper names and geographical names are rendered using the letters of the Ukrainian alphabet without taking into account the peculiarities of pronunciation:

e.g. Hull – Гуль
Walter – Вальтер
Worcester – Ворчестер
Hudson – Гудзон [4, p. 50].

The rules of transliteration are established by special standards. The international standard ISO 9:1995 Information and documentation – Transliteration of Cyrillic characters into Latin characters – Slavic and non-Slavic languages, established by the International Organization for Standardization (International Organization for Standardization – ISO), establishes the rules for rendering proper names and geographical names of languages that use Cyrillic, Latin script.

However, it should be noted that in practical application, a deviation from this standard is often observed when transferring this or that name in a specific language. So, for example, the Ukrainian letters *ч, ш, щ* according to the ISO 9:1995 standard should be rendered by the letters *č, š,* and the letter combination *šč,* respectively:

e.g. Щаденко – Ščadenko
Шевченко – Ševčenko

But when rendering Ukrainian proper names in specific languages, the corresponding word combinations characteristic of these languages are more often used. Thus, in the catalog of the Library of Congress of the USA, along with the English transliteration of the surname of Т.Г. Шевченко – Shevchenko, the German variant – Schewtschenko, the French – Chevchenko and the Polish – Szewczenko are found.

The Commission of Ukrainian Legal Terminology of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine has developed a mandatory standard for transliteration of Ukrainian proper names and geographical names with letters and letter combinations of the Latin alphabet for use in legal and official texts. Various reference books can be of great help in translating foreign names and names into Ukrainian (see, for example, Bendzar B., Bobynets S.; Hylyarevsky R.S., Starostyn B.A.).

Transcription consists in the phonetic rendering of the name, that is, as it sounds in a foreign language: *Brighton – Брайтон, New York –*

Нью-Йорк. The two above-mentioned methods of translation are often combined under the single name of transcoding.

There are four types of transcoding:

- transcription or transcribing;
- transliteration;
- mixed transcoding (predominant use of transcription with elements of transliteration);
- adaptive transcoding (when the word form in the source language is somewhat adapted to the phonetic and/or grammatical structure of the target language) (V.I. Karaban, part 1, p. 21).

Translation by calque consists in literal translation of the parts of one's own name, and then joining these parts into a single whole:

e.g. *Cape of Good Hope* – *Мис Доброї Надії*

New South Wales – *Новий Південний Уельс*

Calque (loan translation) can be used only when the translation counterpart formed in this way does not violate the norms of usage and conjugation of words in the Ukrainian language. It should be noted that there is no single clear system of principles for rendering proper names and titles. Tradition is of great importance here. Only by trying to preserve the traditional spelling of names known to us since ancient times, we can explain the fact that along with the transcription of the names George (Джордж), Charles (Чарльз), William (Уїльям або Вільям), the transliterated names of the kings are preserved: Георг IV (George IV), Карл I (Charles I) or Вільгельм Завойовник (William the Conqueror). There is no unity in translation, for example, of the English letter w. We write Вальтер Скот (Walter Scott), but Уолл Стрит (Wall Street).

Recently, there has been a tendency to use transcription instead of transliteration, especially in geographical names translation. So, *Worcester*, along with the traditional *Ворчестер*, is often referred to *Вустер*, *Hull* – *Хелл* (traditional *Гуль*). However, *Texas* remains *Техас* by tradition. And this inconsistency goes so far that *New Hampshire* is rendered as *Нью-Гемпшир* (transcription) and *New Orleans* as *Новий Орлеан* (a combination of calque and transcription from the French

pronunciation). Inconsistency in the translation of surnames can often be noted. Yes, English surnames ending in *-ey* and *-ay* are rendered differently: *Теккерей* (*Thackeray*) but *Гакслі* (*Huxley*), *Прістлі* (*Priestley*).

Some geographical names have different forms in different languages. When translating, it is necessary to take as a basis the form that they have in their homeland:

e.g. нім. *Aachen* – фр. *Aix-la-Chapelle* – гол. *Aken* – укр. *Аахен*

пол. *Warszawa* – англ. *Warsaw* – укр. *Варшава*

итал. *Venezia* – англ. *Venice* – укр. *Венеція*

гол. *den Haag* – англ. *the Hague* – укр. *Гаага*

The names of newspapers and magazines are usually transcribed:

e.g. *Times* – *Таймс*

International Herald Tribune – *Інтернешенел Геральд Тріб'юн*

However, there is a traditional rendering of known historical editions that are done by calque:

e.g. “*L'Ami du Peuple*” – “*Друг народу*” (газета, яку видавав Ж.-П. Марат)

“*Rheinischen Zeitung*” – “*Рейнська газета*” (редактор – К. Маркс)

As a rule, transcoding (transcription or transliteration) is also used when rendering the names of scientific journals. However, calque is often used along with transcoding:

e.g. “*Chemical Abstracts*” – “*Кемікел ебсрєктс*” (“*Хімічний реферативний журнал*”)

“*Solid State Physics*” – “*Солід стейт фізікс*” (“*Фізика твердого тіла*”)

Names of scientific or technical institutions are translated:

e.g. *Institute of Biochemistry* – *Інститут біохімії*

Car Development Centre – *Центр проектування автомобілів*

If the name includes an anthroponym, then the word *імені* is added in the translation:

e.g. *M. Planck Institute* – *Інститут ім. М. Планка*

Bertran Russel Centre – *Центр імені Бертрана Расселла*

Company names are transcoded. Sometimes a common noun is added to the name, which defines the type of enterprise:

e.g. *Dow Chemical* – (концерн) *Доу Кемікал*

Coca-Cola – (компанія) *Кока-Кола*

Texasco – нафтодобувна компанія *Тексако*

If the common element is a part of the name (company, corporation), then it is not translated:

e.g. *Harris Paint Company* – *Гарріс Пейнт Компані*

Sony Corporation – *Соні Корпорейшн*

Abbreviations in company names are usually transcribed:

e.g. *LG* – *Компанія Ел-Джі*

CHC Ltd. – *Сі-Ейч-Сі Лімітед*

When translating the names of organizations, there is some ambiguity: as a rule, they are translated, but there are also cases of transcoding:

e.g. *Federal Bureau of Investigation* – *Федеральне бюро розслідувань*

Central Intelligence Agency – *Центральне розвідувальне управління*

but: *Scotland Yard* – *Скотланд Ярד*

3. Translation of words that mean specific realias

The translator must know not only the language, but also the life, daily life, history, geography, culture, state and political system of the countries from which the translation is being made. Ignorance of the real reality behind the words, misunderstanding of the realities often leads to gross mistakes in translation.

In a number of translations of U. Thackeray's novel “Vanity Fair”, mistakes were made in the transmission of some realities. So, in one of the chapters, the adult son of the priest Bute Crowley enters the living room through the window. In the original, however, we find that he entered through the parlor window. French windows – a pair of light doors made of glass in a frame, usually opening out on to a garden or balcony.

Elsewhere, in some translations, biblical expressions remain untranslated (by the way, biblical expressions are often found not only in the classics of the 19th century, but also in modern English-language

authors, including journalism). One of the heroes of the novel, old man Sedley, is unhappy that his son is embarrassed in front of girls:

e.g. I've no patience with Jos and his dendified modesty. It is out-Josephing Joseph.

The underlined phrase contains a reference to the biblical legend of Joseph the Fair (Genesis: 39). In literature, this image is used as the embodiment of a highly moral person who does not succumb to any temptations. In the mentioned translations, this allusion was usually omitted.

Another example. In the translation of A. Christy's story "Five Little Pigs" (Donetsk, "Donbas" publishing house, 1991) there is the following sentence: *They followed the path and ended up near a house – an old, but still beautiful, Georgian-style room* (Вони пішли стежкою і опинилися біля будинку – старого, але ще гарного, в грузинському стилі приміщення).

When working on the work, the translator did not think about the fact that in the English town where the story takes place, there could not be old buildings in the Georgian style.

It was about *Georgian style – георганський стиль*, that is, the style of the reign of King George.

When translating, it is necessary to take into account that the first floor in Great Britain is ground floor, in France it is *rez-de-chasse*, and in the United States of America it is *first floor*.

An expression

He pulled the window up / down,

Він відкрив / закрив вікно,

Він підняв / опустил вікно

Він відкрив / закрив вікно,

It is impossible to translate an exclamation during the speech of the speaker as, in the original text, it is not a call for attention, but an expression of full approval of what the speaker is saying.

E.g. He was whistled by the audience. – Публіка його освістала.

Every time the translator comes across a word which meaning he doubts, that is, when he does not understand what the real realia means,

he must clarify the meaning of this realia. If he does not find the answer in the dictionaries, then it is necessary to turn to reference books, to special literature, for the advice of specialists.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Speak on translation of phraselogical units
2. Discuss proper names and geographical names rendering in translation
3. Analyze translation of words that mean specific realias

Lecture 6

INTERNATIONALISMS, PSEUDO-INTERNATIONALISMS, NEOLOGISMS, TERMS AND METHODS OF THEIR TRANSLATION

1. Translation of internationalisms
2. Translation of neologisms
 - a) clarifying the meaning of a neologism from the context
 - b) analysis of the structure of a neologism to clarify the meaning of a neologism
 - c) analysis of neologisms creation in the sphere of the Internet and computer technologies for clarification of their meanings
 - d) ways of translating neologisms in the field of computer technologies and the Internet by means of the Ukrainian language
 - e) problems of the adequacy of the translation of neologisms in the field of economics, computer technologies and the Internet
3. Translation of English computer technology terms

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1. Translation of internationalisms

Internationalisms or international words are words or expressions that belong to the common foundation of a number of languages, close in origin or similar in their cultural development. They are usually either borrowed directly from some source or through another language.

From the translator's point of view, these words can be conditionally divided into two groups. The first is actually internationalisms that have the same meaning in the original and target languages, for example:

e.g. *eng. sport* – *ukr. спорт*

eng. football – *ukr. футбол*

These words have the same form and meaning, and there are equivalents for their translation in the target language. Considering this, the translation of internationalisms itself does not create any difficulties for the translator.

The second group – the so-called pseudo-internationalisms – in the Ukrainian language have:

1. completely different meaning than in other languages;
2. narrower meaning;

3. wider meaning.

Rendering the words of the first group causes certain difficulties. The translator naturally mentions, first of all, cognates, which, however, has a different meaning in the Ukrainian language.

E.g.: *rent* (the money that someone pays for the use of a room, a house etc. that belongs to someone else) – *рента* (вид прибутку з капіталу, землі, майна, що його власники регулярно одержують незалежно від заняття підприємницькою діяльністю); *complexion* (the natural colour or appearance of the skin on your face) – *комплексія* (будова тіла); *compositor* (someone who arranges letters, pictures etc. on a page before they are printed) – *композитор* (автор музичного твору); *decade* (a period of ten years) – *декада* (проміжок часу в десять днів, десятиденка); *ammunition* (bullets, shells etc. that are fired from guns) – *амуніція* (речі (крім одягу і зброї), які становлять спорядження військовослужбовця); *prospect* (a possibility that something you hope for will happen soon) – *проспект* (1) широка пряма вулиця в місті; 2) поширений виклад плану, зміст якої-небудь наукової праці, учбового посібника; 3) рекламна листівка або брошура з описом товару та умов торгівлі); *pathetic* (something or someone that is pathetic is so useless, unsuccessful or badly done that they annoy you) – *патетичний* (пристрасний, піднесений, пафосний, притаманний творам літератури, музики, кіно, театру тощо); *sympathetic* (willing to try to understand someone else's problems and give them any help they need) – *симпатичний* (який викликає почуття прихильності, доброзичливості); *trivial* (unimportant or of little value) – *тривіальний* (звичайний, заяложений, позбавлений оригінальності) [4, p. 290].

An example of the second group can be the word *meeting*, which does not always correspond to the Ukrainian word *мітинг*. The main meaning of the English word is *an event at which people meet to talk and decide things*. For example: *a meeting of old friends*. The meaning *політичні збори* is secondary. The Ukrainian word *агонія* has a narrow meaning – *останні, переважно рухові, прояви життєвих функцій, що передують смерті*. In English, except the meaning of *very severe*

pain, it has the meaning of *a very sad, difficult, or unpleasant situation*: e.g. *It was agony not knowing if she would live. She was in agony of tears.*

The words of this group are particularly dangerous for the translator because they are international only in one of its meanings. They include many words that mean profession, occupation:

e.g. 1) *director* – 1. one of the committee of top managers who control a company; 2. the person who gives instructions to the actors, cameraman in a film or a play; 3. someone who is in charge of a particular activity or organization – *директор* – керівник установи, підприємства чи навчального закладу

2) *engineer* – 1. someone who designs the way roads, bridges, machines etc. are built; 2. someone who controls the engines on a ship or aircraft; 3. BrE someone who repairs electrical or mechanical equipment; 4. soldier in the army who designs and builds roads, bridges etc; 5. AmE someone who drives a train – *інженер* – спеціаліст з вищою технічною освітою

3) *president* – 1. the official leader of a country that does not have a king or a queen; 2. the person in charge of a club, college, government department, etc; 3. AmE the head of a business, bank etc; 4. head of the meeting – *президент* – 1. виборний голова, керівник товариства, організації, установи тощо; 2. в ряді країн глава держави

4) *student* – 1. someone who is studying at a school, university etc; 2. be a student of sth – to be very interested in a particular subject – *студент* – учень вищого навчального закладу

From the examples given above, it is clear how carefully the translator needs to check the context and dictionary meaning of similar words.

As an example of the third subgroup can be the word *бригадир*, which, except the meaning *військове звання*, also has the meaning in the Ukrainian language *керівник виробничого підрозділу (бригади)*. In the English language, the single-rooted word *brigadier* has only one meaning – *a high military rank in the British army or the person who has this rank.*

Pseudo-international words of the second and third groups are often a problem for inexperienced translators. They are called translator's false friends. Meeting them, the translator involuntarily mentions an etymologically identical Ukrainian word and forgets that its meaning and usage do not coincide with the meaning and usage of the corresponding English word.

Some errors in the translation of pseudo-international words are firmly rooted in translation practice, for example, the word *dramatic* in the expression *a dramatic changes* has the meaning *sudden, striking, impressive*, but quite often this phrase is translated as *драматичні зміни*.

In some cases, internationalism itself cannot be used in translation due to different conjugations of words in different languages or due to reasons of a stylistic nature:

e.g. ... *he was strongly built, with curly hair that seemed to show all the vitality of a fine constitution*.

The word *constitution* in this example is used in the sense of *the ability of your body to fight disease and illness*. In Ukrainian, the word *конституція* also has this meaning (*комплекс функціональних та анатомічних особливостей організму людини, що визначає його реакцію на різні (в т.ч. й хвороботворні) впливи зовнішнього середовища*). However, in this sense, this word is a special medical term. And therefore it is impossible to use it in the given text: e.g. ... *він був міцної статури, а його кучеряве волосся, здавалося, говорило про життєздатність і здорову конституцію*. It will be correct to translate: *про життєздатність здорового організму*.

2. Translation of neologisms

Until now, there is no unambiguous solution to the question: how can the concept of neologism or innovation be established, and what are the criteria for classifying a particular vocabulary unit as a neologism.

When analyzing the definitions of the concept of “neologism” or “innovation” by various researchers, two points of view become obvious, which are that the term “neologism” is applied both to new

formations, i.e. to words newly formed on the material of the language, in full accordance with the word-formation models existing in the language, or phrases that mean a new, previously unknown, non-existent concept, subject, branch of science, type of occupation, profession, etc., for example, *reactor* – *ядерний реактор*, *biocide* – *біологічна війна*, etc., as well as to neologisms, namely to new formed synonyms to a word already existing in the language to define a known concept, but which has connotative shades, that is, accompanying semantic and stylistic shades of the meaning of the word, which are overlaid on its main meaning, as well as on words in a new meaning.

For example, the word *boffin* (*науковець, який займається засекреченими розробками, найчастіше у військових цілях*) is a close synonym of the word *scientist*, but has a different semantic shade of meaning, etc. There is also some heterogeneity in the composition of these lexical innovations due to the reasons for their emergence, according to their stability in the language, according to the frequency of use, according to their further fate, when some of them enter the language for a long time, while others are less stable and may go out of use due to some relatively short period of time.

“Often the emergence of new words is connected with the emergence of new associations, although concepts remain the same, as the language in general, the vocabulary in particular, doing its job the main function as a means of communication is rebuilt, differentiated and is clarified in order to more adequately reflect, reproduce and consolidate new concepts in the appropriate words and expressions” [1]. Having appeared on the periphery of the language system, neologisms are at its disposal for some time and only then gradually, not all, but those that most meet the structural requirements of the word of the language, move to the center of the language system, to the main vocabulary.

New words, in turn, if they appear on the periphery, much faster (and sometimes immediately) penetrate closer to the center, being in demand and irreplaceable, actively entering the vocabulary. Innovations

appear, as a rule, in the language of science, technology, culture, politics, while neologisms – in colloquial speech.

Based on the fact that it is impossible to determine the time criterion for the selection of new words and neologisms, it makes sense to use a subjective criterion: whether the collective (and personal) linguistic consciousness perceives this or that lexical unit as a new one.

Let's denote by the term "neologism" any word that has the qualities of both lexical new words and the qualities of neologisms in particular.

When translating neologisms in general, and neologisms in the field of economics, computer technologies, and the Internet in particular, the most difficult thing is to find out the meaning of the word. Actually, the translation of a neologism, the meaning of which is already known to the translator, is a relatively simple task, and it is solved using the means outlined below, depending on the type of words to which this neologism belongs. If the new word is missing in English-Ukrainian dictionary, then you should try to find it in the English-English dictionary. Many well-known dictionaries have sections called "New Words" (New Words Section). Many neologisms can be found in dictionaries and sections devoted to slang. It should be noted that small and medium-sized dictionaries are prepared and published due to the fact that these dictionaries have a limited vocabulary list, they cannot satisfy the needs of a professional. However, dictionaries, for objective reasons, cannot display words that appear again and again, if only because lexicographers are careful to include so-called "occasional" neologisms in dictionaries, that is, individual neologisms that are introduced by individual authors for a given case. Most often, such words turn out to be "unsustainable" and disappear as quickly as they appear.

a) clarifying the meaning of a neologism from the context

Based on the definition of the term "neologism", it can be assumed that the translator, meeting the actual neologism for the first time, naturally has no idea about the concept it denotes. Therefore, the

meaning of a neologism is most often determined from the context. In a written translation, the context is usually very informative.

In the process of translation, of course, two stages are distinguished:

- 1) clarification of the meaning of the word in the context;
- 2) rendering of this meaning by target language means.

In the translation of neologisms, as already mentioned above, the first stage has a decisive role, and the last one is only a purely technical issue, although it is important to solve it using the methods most appropriate for the language of translation.

A narrow context is distinguished within the general concept of context (microcontext) and broad context (macrocontext). Under a narrow context the context of the sentence is meant, that is, the linguistic units that make up the environment of this unit, which does not go beyond the boundaries of the sentence; the broad context is a set of linguistic units that surround the given unit outside the boundaries of one or another sentence, that is, in sentences adjacent to it. A broad context cannot be clearly defined – it can be the context of a group of sentences, a paragraph, a chapter, or even an entire work (such as a short story, article, or novel). It is important, when clarifying the meaning of a neologism, to take into account the macro context, because it can contain a “hint”.

Narrow context, in turn, can be divided into syntactic context and lexical. A syntactic context is a syntactic construction in which a given word, phrase or (subordinate) sentence is used. A lexical context is a set of specific lexical units, words or set expressions in which this unit occurs. Taking into account the syntactic context will allow the translator to find out whether a neologism belongs to one of the parts of the language, but when finding out the meaning of a neologism, it is decisive to take into account the lexical context.

b) analysis of the structure of a neologism to clarify the meaning of a neologism

New words, as a rule, arise on the basis of words and morphemes already existing in the language. Analysis of these words and

morphemes can greatly help the translator in clarifying the meaning of a neologism. For this, it is necessary to know well the means of word formation in the English language, such as:

- giving an already existing word another meaning
- word formation

One of the oldest, widespread means of word formation in the English language has word formation, which has not lost its activity until now: more than one third of all new formations in the modern English language are compound words.

The process of word formation is the union of two bases, as a rule, homonymous word forms. Since the norms of the English language allow the combination of words that have the same lexical-grammatical characteristics as the bases in word formation, determining in which cases the translator is dealing with a complex word-neologism, and in which – with a word combination, is a very difficult matter.

- formation of forms by analogy with those already existing in the language by means of addition to them various productive affixes
- conversion

Conversion is the functional transition of a word from one part of speech to another, that is, the use of the same word as different parts of speech. However, some scientists (A.I. Smirnytskyi, V.N. Yartseva) consider conversion to be an act of word formation, when the words that are formed are homonymous to their bases, but differ from them in paradigms.

- borrowings from other languages
- reverse derivation

Reverse derivation is the process of forming verbs by shortening the suffix from correlative nouns.

- fusion

Fusion is the union of either a truncated root of one word with a whole word, or the union of two truncated roots.

- abbreviation.

c) analysis of neologisms creation in the sphere of the Internet and computer technologies for clarification of their meanings

“Internetization” and the development of computer technologies is accompanied by a real explosion of innovations related to information technology. Thus, among the neologisms of 2000–2020, they make up more than a third of all innovations. The majority of such innovations are fixed at the same time in several spheres of material and spiritual life in connection with their computerization, informationalization. The analysis of “infoneologisms” gives, first of all, the opportunity to understand some trends in the development of the word-formative and lexical-semantic system of the language. The affix cyber- (part of the word cybernetics) until the end of the 80s of the 20th century functioned in the English language as part of a small number of words, mostly of a highly specialized nature. “Cyberneologisms” rushed into the English language in the 90s in connection with the role that the international informational computer network “Internet” began to play. Currently, the number of “cyberneologisms” cannot be accurately counted. The British linguist M. Quinion calls the explosion of such neologisms “cyberplague”. The element cyber- along with the general meaning “related to computer technology” is increasingly used in a narrower sense 'related to the Internet, carried out through the international information computer network'. It is on the basis of the element cyber- that the verb cyberize was recently created, which introduces the concept of “кібернезувати” with its various shades (to computerize, to actively use the Internet).

Suffixes also began to be considered at first parts of the addresses of Internet organizations (.com, .net), and later such elements as *dot-com*, *dot-net*, as well as approved new names (addresses) of Internet organizations, for example, *dot-biz*, *dot -info*, *dot-name*, *dot-pro*. The emergence of new “affixes” is connected with the need to “unload” the Internet, to create conditions for a faster search for the necessary information: at the end of 2000, 20 million Internet sites had the “dot-com” element in their addresses. If we really consider conventional signs of Internet addresses as new word-forming elements, then their number

will be quite significant, since new differentiating signs will continue to be approved. One well-known computer company, for example, submitted a request for 118 “suffixes”; among them such elements as dot-sex, dot-sucks, dot-shop.

Let’s note that in connection with the emergence (next to dot-com) of new addresses of Internet organizations (*dot-biz*, *dot-info*, *dot-name*, *dot-pro*), only their first part (*dot*) increasingly begins to perform the function of affixes (both suffixes and prefixes). At the same time, the dot element is only a graphic designation of a dot, so it can be said that the concept of affix in connection with the information revolution can also be transformed into a virtual concept.

The International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) also proposes to introduce new, purely “computer” prefixes *kibi-*, *mebi-*, *gibi-*, *tebi-*. This is due to the fact that in connection with the “binary” nature of calculations, memory size, disk capacity, etc were measured not by the number “1000”, but by “1024”. Until now, experts in the field of computer technology to denote the number “1024” used standard the metric prefix for “1000” is *kilo-*. However, it is believed that a certain misunderstanding, which arises as a result of the two meanings of the prefix *kilo-*, becomes a problem. That is why the number “1024” will be prefixed with *kibi-*, for example, *kibibites*. The prefixes *mebi-*, *gibi-*, *tebi-* will replace, respectively, the prefixes *mega-*, *giga-*, *tera-*. New prefixes are formed by using the first two letters of the “old” prefixes plus the element bi (short for binary). A number of lexical units not only became attached to information technology, but also turned into real centers of word and phrase formation. This primarily concerns the word *electronic*, which, in addition to the general meanings of '*electronic, computerized, related to computer technology*', is increasingly used in the sense of '*that which is carried out through the Internet computer network*'. In this sense, this word often functions in an abbreviated form (E). The element *e-* is even considered a new prefix. Recently, the base for a number of lexical and phraseological neologisms has become the dot-com neologism, which denotes a firm, a company that carries out its activities through the Internet. Among the key Internet units – centers

that attract numerous elements of the word-forming, phraseological and lexical-semantic paradigm – it is necessary to note several words that are actually semantic neologisms, born in the world of computer and other modern technology. Thus, since the 80s of the XX century, the word *digital* began to be used in the sense of ‘*connected with computers, computerized*’, and numerous innovations of the last decade are associated with them: *digitalia, digitalisation (digitalization), digiteer, digithead, digitocrat, digirati, digitopia, digital video, digital audio tape, digital videodisk, digital terrorism, digital media*. Recently, the word *digital* has acquired more of one, more specialized meaning ‘*related to a computer network Internet*’; this meaning is realized in a whole range of phrases. Numerous word combinations with the lexeme *virtual* have been spread in the modern language. The phrase *virtual reality* served as a model for such neologisms; it was formed at the end of the 80s to denote “віртуальної реальності” – a hypothetical world of images, pictures, situations created with the help of computer graphics and special programs, that is, this phraseological neologism became a synonym for the word *cyberspace*, which appeared in 1984. The word *virtual* acquires the meaning ‘*created with the help of computer systems, connected to the Internet computer network*’.

At the first sight, on the example of a semantic neologism *virtual*, reinterpretation is observed, which in fact can be considered antonymic (cf. “actual” – “hypothetical, unreal”), that is, as a result of the information revolution, the phenomenon of enantiosemy – intra-word antonymy – also arises. The new meaning seems to emphasize that it is “*cyberspace*”, the world of the Internet, that is becoming the “real” world for more and more people; functionally important one in modern communication conditions. On the other hand, one should also take into account the etymological meaning of the word *virtual* – a borrowing from the Latin language (lat. *virtualis* ‘possible’), the fact that the etymological inner-conceptual content has been preserved in cognate words of Roman languages. For example, French *virtuel*, Spanish *virtual*, Italian *virtuale* have the meaning ‘*potential, possible*’, so it is possible to establish a certain logical connection between pre-cybernetic

and cybernetic semantics, i.e. even if it is assumed that there was a reinterpretation of the given word in the English language, it does not seem so “opposite” from the point of view of etymology.

The word *virtual* increasingly acts as an almost complete equivalent of the element *cyber-*. Taking into account the fact that in a fairly wide range of contexts related to cyberspace, a number of linguistic units act as almost complete equivalents, the widespread phenomenon of synonymy among “Internet innovations” becomes quite understandable, for example: *cybercash – E-cash – electronic cash – digital cash; cybercommuter – telecommuter: cybermall –E-mall – digital mall; cybershopping – electronic shopping – Internet shopping; cybercolledge – virtual colledge; cybercommerce – e-commerce – e-trade – Internet commerce.*

The very word *Internet* has also become the base for a whole series of neologisms, especially phraseological ones (*Internet appliance, Internet host, Internet cafe*). The accelerated rate of development of the “Internet world” led, for example, to the emergence of the concepts of *Internet time (Net time), Internet year (Internet year)*. The concept of an *Internet year* arose by analogy with the concept of *a dog's age* (one dog year is equal to seven human years). Internet “gurus” believe that an Internet year is equal to three ordinary months. The word *Internet* also served as a model for such widespread innovations as *intranet, extranet, evernet*. It should also be noted that the innovation *outernet* arose to denote traditional pre-Internet media – press, literature, television, etc.

The shortened version of the word *Internet* – the *Net* became the basis for many neologisms, for example: *netangst, nethead, netiquette, netizen, net-fever, netmyth, netsavvy, netsurfing, netsploitation*. In this connection, we note the concentration of neologisms around the name of the international information computer network *Internet*. There are, for example, a number of expressively colored words and phrases that draw an analogy between the *Internet* and a high-speed highway, superhighway, etc.: *I-Bann, Info-bahn, Info Highway, I-Way, Information superhighway, electronic superhighway, e-Bahn*.

So we see that every year, with every new phase of technological development the language also develops, new and new neologisms, new word-formations are formed elements that are necessary for an adequate reflection of the new technological reality.

d) ways of translating neologisms in the field of computer technologies and the Internet by means of the Ukrainian language

In the process of interlingual communication, a number of techniques of rendering neologisms were developed:

- transcription, transliteration

These are the so-called quasi-translatable methods of rendering neologisms. They were named so because when using these methods, the act of translation is bypassed and replaced by the act of borrowing the sound (in transcription) or graphic (in transliteration) form of the word along with the meaning from the Source Language to the Target Language. However, the untranslatability of this technique is, in fact, only pretended: in fact, borrowing here is carried out precisely for the sake of translation, as a necessary prerequisite for its implementation. A borrowed word becomes a fact of Target Language and already in this capacity acts as an equivalent of a foreign word that is outwardly identical to it. As a matter of fact, this way is one of the oldest and most widespread at the stage of natural (pre-written) language interaction, however, it continues to play a significant role even now. But nowadays, the use of this technique is connected with a number of restrictions (language policy, stylistic norms, traditions of various sociolinguistic groups, etc.).

The method of transliteration consists in using Ukrainian letters to convey the letters of an English word, for example, *put* – Ukrainian. *'nym'*, (option), Nikkei – Ukrainian 'Ніккей', (index of securities rates on the Tokyo Stock Exchange), etc. Transliteration was widely used by translators until the end of the 19th century. For this, the translator did not have to know the pronunciation of the English word, he could use visual perception.

Much more widespread in modern translation practice is the method of transcription, which consists in rendering not the orthographic form of the word, but the phonetic one. Due to significant differences in the phonetic systems of the Ukrainian and English languages, such a rendering is always somewhat conditional and reproduces only the similarity of the English sound. In general, the translator should always keep in mind that when using the transcription method, there is always an element of transliteration.

The elements of transliteration during transcription are found in the following:

- transliteration of unpronounceable sounds
- transliteration of reduced vowels
- rendering of doubled consonants
- if there are several pronunciation options, choose the option closest to the graphic.

- calque (loan translation)

Among the proper means of translation, calque is a separate branch, which occupies an intermediate position between fully translatable and untranslatable means of rendering neologisms. The ‘untranslatability’ of calque is manifested in the preservation of an unchanged internal form. Calque assumes the existence of two-way cross-linguistic correspondences between elementary lexical units, which are used as ‘building material’ to reproduce the internal form of a borrowed or translated word.

Calque (loan translation) as a method of creating an equivalent is similar to a literal translation – the equivalent of the whole is created by simply adding the equivalents of its components. Therefore, only neologisms of a complex word can be calqued. For example, the word *multicurrency* is composed of *multi* and *currency*, both of which can be translated separately as ‘багато’ and ‘валюта’, when put together we get ‘багатовалютний’ (e.g. credit). The advantage of using calque is the brevity and simplicity of the word obtained using the equivalent and its unambiguous correlation with the original word, which reaches full reversibility of correspondence. Although calque paper equivalents

“suffer” from literalism, brevity and their potential terminology makes them quite attractive for use in newspaper-journalistic and social-scientific works.

- descriptive equivalents

Descriptive equivalents refer to non-calque means of rendering neologisms and fundamentally differ from calque in that in descriptive means of neologisms rendering the invariant of translation is the meaning of the foreign language unit regardless of the nature of its connection with the external structure of the word, while in calque the invariant of translation is the form units of the Source Language (though not sound or graphic, as in transcription or transliteration, but lexical or lexical-morphological), the content side remains, as if it were outside.

- calque descriptive equivalent

In other words, descriptive translation consists in conveying the meaning of an English word with the help of a more or less common explanation. This tool can be applied both to explain the meaning in the dictionary and when translating neologisms in a specific text.

Descriptive translation is carried out by various means. First, essential elements seem to be explained by the translated word. The explanatory translation is closer to interpretation of the word, but it still remains a translation.

Secondly, the reception of a descriptive translation can be carried out by a substitute means. Substitutional translation is a method of rendering a neologism, in which a word (or word combination) already existing in the target language is used as its equivalent, which is not a neologism in it, but has much common with the original word. In the ideal case, semantic congruence can be achieved here, i.e. the coincidence of denotative meanings (with inevitable differences in some connotative meanings).

Coincidence of meanings is a relatively rare case. Much more often a semantic transformation takes place when substituting, i.e. a word of the source language is rendered by a word of the target language, the meaning of which differs in its scope or content. Such a transformation can be either concentric or eliminated. In the first case, the meaning

narrows and expands when the word of the source language is replaced by the target language-equivalent. In the second case, there is an incomplete coincidence of the meanings of the correlating pair of words in terms of content.

Equivalents with an eliminated meaning are found among substitute equivalents quite often, and this is natural, since the substitution technique is used precisely when there are no congruent pairs of lexical equivalents in the compared languages. E.g. *exchange rate* – ‘курс обміну’ (дослівно – ‘рівень обміну’).

e) problems of the adequacy of the translation of neologisms in the field of economics, computer technologies and the Internet

Speaking about the problems of translation adequacy, first of all, the purpose and object of translation should be defined. The purpose of translation is how to best familiarize a reader or listener who is not fluent in a foreign language with a certain text or the content of oral speech.

Ya.I. Retzker gave the following definition of translation: “Translation is an exact reproduction of the original by means of another language preserving the unity of content and style. In this way, translation differs from retelling, in which you can convey the content of a foreign language original text, omitting secondary details and not following the style of the original. The unity of content and style is reproduced in the translation on a different linguistic basis and will therefore be a new unity that is unique only to the language of translation”.

The object of translation is a specific original text, based on which another translation text in another language is created. When translating, it is necessary to understand the meaning of the source text and to express the same meaning, or rather a system of meanings, by means of another language. At the same time, semantic losses are inevitable. It is necessary to ensure that these losses are minimal, that is, to ensure the maximum level of equivalence between the original text and the translated text.

So now we can define the concept of adequate translation. Adequate translation is a translation that provides the pragmatic tasks of the translation act at the maximum level of equivalence possible to achieve this goal, without allowing violations of the norms and usages of the target language, observing the genre and stylistic requirements for texts of a given type and the conventional norm of translation. In free use, an adequate translation is a correct translation.

In the theory and practice of translation, the following basic concepts are used: equivalence, adequacy and identity. Broadly equivalent is understood as something of equal value, equivalent to something, adequacy – as something sufficiently equal, and identity – as something that completely matches, is similar to something. The less categorical nature of the concept of equivalence has given it advantages and greater use in modern translation studies. Although, of course, the concepts of adequacy, identity, completeness and even analogy remain in the same semantic field as the term equivalence, and sometimes they duplicate each other.

That is, when we talk about adequacy, we mean the equivalence and identity of the translation with respect to the original, because the border between them almost does not exist. Given that the concept of equivalence has become the most widespread, we will consider it in more detail as equal to the concept of adequacy.

It can be argued in advance that any translation will not be absolutely identical to the original text. The equivalence of the translation with respect to the original is always a relative concept. But the level of relativity also varies. The degree of approximation to the original depends on many factors: the skill of the translator, the peculiarities of languages and cultures, the time of writing the original and the translation, the nature of the translated texts, etc.

The equivalence in translation theory should be understood as the preservation of relative equivalence of content, meaning, semantic, stylistic and functional and communicative information containing the original and the translation. It should be noted that the equivalence of the original and the translation is, first of all, a common understanding of the

information contained in the text, including that which affects not only the mind, but also the feelings of the recipient. We have not accidentally mentioned the information contained in the text, because the neologisms that we use and translate are found in a certain environment, that is, in the text and context, which directly affects the semantic nuances of the neologism, and therefore its translation equivalent. That is, when talking about the equivalence and adequacy of the translation of a neologism, we are also talking about the equivalence and adequacy of the text in which it was used.

It is known that translation is done in two forms, oral and written. Level equivalence and adequacy of oral and written translated texts varies significantly. First, let's consider the field of oral translation, which is usually divided into consecutive (paragraph-phrase inclusive) and synchronous. The most difficult to achieve equivalence is simultaneous translation. The very essence of this type of translation does not allow to achieve a high level of equivalence. After all, during simultaneous translation, the target language is born almost simultaneously with the reception of an oral message in the original language. It is the time factor that affects the reduction of the level of equivalence. The synchronist is late in rendering the meaning compared to the original language; the so-called "in-phase" occurs, that is, a phase shift. On the other hand, the translator is obliged to finish the translation in the same time period as orator. When translating neologisms used in the original, the task is complicated by the fact that even a professional translator may not know the meaning of one or another neologism, so he may assume the meaning of the neologism or omit it altogether. This, of course, is also an important factor that affects the level of equivalence. The inevitability of a phase shift and a time limiter forces the translator to look for opportunities for linear (horizontal) syntactic transformations, for verbal compression of the rendered information and reduction of semantic redundancy, if it is present in the speaker's message. By syntactic transformations, we understand, for example, the use of a word instead of a phraseological unit or verb inflection, a word that already exists in the target language, but has a narrower or broader meaning,

instead of a neologism. All this allows you to get the necessary reserve of time for translation.

Another type of interpretation is a consecutive one, which is done phrase by phrase or in detail. However, in all these types of oral translation, there is an incompleteness of equivalence similar to the actual simultaneous translation.

Regarding the equivalence of a written translation, it should be remembered, first of all, that unlike an oral translation, a written translation is made with constant reference to the original. If the translator is not very limited in time, he can use auxiliary means: various dictionaries, reference books, encyclopedias, etc. That is, he will definitely find out the meaning of the neologism and will use all possible means to preserve the meaning during translation. It is limited only by the obligation to translate a foreign language text with the greatest information accuracy. Written translation of the listed types of texts requires a high level of equivalence, accuracy, sometimes even literalism, accurate rendering of the meanings of linguistic units, because usually these are important documents or public statements, etc.

Therefore, the equivalence or adequacy of the translation of neologisms is a relative and theoretical concept, and, in fact, everything depends on the translator, his skills, knowledge in the field in which he works, and his conscience.

4. Translation of English computer technology terms

Computer vocabulary is used not only by computer scientists, but also people who have absolutely nothing to do with computers and as a phenomenon rather quickly flows into the life of modern society. “The process of acquiring a new vocabulary, most of which are local English words, gave rise first to borrowings, and then to the terms of a new subculture. And words understood by the majority, such as “юзер”, “вінди”, are more popular than their literary equivalents “користувач”, “операційна система Windows”. Computer terminology should become the object of attention of scientists – linguists, translation specialists, since, as can be seen from other branches of science, special vocabulary

sometimes penetrates into the literary language and is fixed in it for many years.

When studying the computer terminological system, you should also pay attention to the following number of features:

- 1) The process of computer vocabulary analysis is complicated by the variety and ambiguity of terminology (professionalisms, jargonisms, argotisms, slangisms).
- 2) Computer terminology is subordinated to the laws of the Ukrainian language in its functioning and vocabulary. In particular, the most common word formation methods in computer vocabulary are affixal, affixless, and lexical-semantic.
- 3) Computer vocabulary is characterized by the use of language games and language tools expressions.
- 4) The reasons for borrowing from the English language are due to the development of computer technologies in English-speaking countries, namely in the USA.
- 5) There are several ways of computer terminology translation.

Transcoding, when the sound and/or graphic form of the word of the source language is rendered by means of the alphabet of the target language. The transcoding of terms occurs in translation in those cases when the culture and, in particular, the science of the country of the language of translation lacks a corresponding concept and a corresponding translation equivalent, and the translator cannot choose a word or words in the translation language that would adequately convey the meaning of the concept and meet the requirements for term formation. Transcoding of terms occurs especially often in cases where the term in the translation language consists of international term elements of Latin or ancient Greek origin. Transcoding is divided into four subtypes:

- Transliteration: e.g. *commutator* – *комутатор*; *processor* – *процесор*; *operator* – *оператор*; *monitor* – *монітор*; *printer* – *принтер*; *indicator* – *індикатор*; *buffer* – *буфер*; *portal* – *портал*; *server* – *сервер*; *laser* – *лазер*; *multimedia* –

мультимедія; decoder – декодер; port – порт; plotter – плотер; scanner – сканер.

It is necessary to note some peculiarities in the translation of these words-terms, namely: 1) the doubling of consonants between vowels is not rendered, as, for example, in the word *комутатор*; 2) the letter r at the end is usually rendered, and regardless of whether it is pronounced in the source word, for example, *монітор*.

- Transcribing: e.g. *tuner – тюнер; browser – браузер; site – сайт; provider – провайдер; cluster – кластер; display – дисплей; user – юзер; driver – драйвер; cartridge – картридж; computer – комп'ютер.*

This way of translation is characterized by such a feature in Ukrainian translation as the rendering of the letter r in any case, for example, *driver – драйвер*. Mixed transcoding: e.g. *on-line – он-лайн; interface – інтерфейс; organizer – організатор; device – девайс; chat – чат; chipset – чіпсет; adaptor – адаптор; chorus – хорус.*

- Adapted transcoding: e.g. *profile – профіль; matrix – матриця; domain – домен; command – команда; card – карта; menu – меню; viewer – в'ювер.*

This way of translation is characterized by the following features: 1) the use of softening at the end of the word in the Ukrainian language, which is absent in the English word, for example, *модуль (a module)*; 2) the presence of a genitive ending in the target language, for example, *модифікація (-і) (a modification)*; 3) doubling of consonants between vowels is not rendered in the Ukrainian language.

- Calque (loan translation)

Calque (loan translation) is the translation of lexical units of the original by replacing their constituent parts – morphemes or words – with their lexical equivalents in the target language. Calque (loan translation) as a translation technique is more often used in the translation of complex words (terms). It can also be applied to only one of the components of a compound word (term). Quite often calques (loan translations) are used in translation for those complex terms formed with the help of common words.

In some cases, the use of calque method is accompanied by a sequences change of calqued elements. Often in the process of translation, transcription and calque are used simultaneously. E.g. *control panel* – панель управління; *matrix printer* – матричний принтер; *hot keys* – гарячі кнопки; *file system* – файлова система; *data warehouse* – інформаційне сховище; *artificial neural network* – штучна нейтронна мережа; *composite key* – композитний ключ; *computer network* – комп'ютерна мережа; *mailbox* – поштова скриня; *error checking* – контроль помилок; *ring network* – кільцева мережа; *network neighborhood* – мережеве оточення.

- Descriptive translation

Descriptive translation – a word is replaced in the translation language by a word combination that adequately conveys the meaning of the word. When applying descriptive translation, it is important to make sure that there is no translation counterpart in the translation language (it is clear that the translation dictionaries could not yet record it, but it can be recorded, in particular, in already translated literature), so as not to create terminological doublets in the translation language.

In order to apply correctly this method of translation, it is necessary to know the subject area of the translated text well in order to reveal correctly the meaning of the concept indicated by the term. E.g. *burning* – запис компактдиска; *capture*; *cross fade* – плавний перехід від одного звукового фрагмента або відеокліпа до іншого; *deluxe* – розширена версія програмного пакета, яка включає додаткові програми чи можливості; *freeware* – безкоштовне програмне забезпечення; *software* – програмне забезпечення; *log* – текстовий файл звіту, в який записують усі дії, які виконує програма, і їх результати; *shareware* – умовнобезкоштовне програмне забезпечення, з яким можна працювати протягом певного часу; *wizard* – інтерактивний інструмент для покрокового виконання різних операцій; *protocol* – метод передачі даних.

- Equivalent translation

Equivalent translation – the meaning of an English word fully corresponds to the meaning of one Ukrainian word. This type of

translation is quite common when translating English computer terms, although there are not too many corresponding words in this field in the Ukrainian language. E.g. *keyboard* – *клавіатура*; *memory* – *пам'ять*; *message* – *повідомлення*; *mode* – *режим*; *mouse* – *маніпулятор*; *notepad* – *записна книжка*; *pitch* – *рівень, висота*; *screen* – *екран*; *desktop* – *робочий стіл*; *network* – *мережа*; *bar* – *панель*; *drive* – *дискковод*; *error* – *помилка*; *lock* – *блокування*.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Speak on the translation of internationalisms.
2. What is “a neologism”? Discuss the translation of neologisms.
3. Analyze the structure of a neologism.
4. Give analysis of neologisms creation in the sphere of the Internet and computer technologies.
5. Name the ways of translating neologisms in the field of computer technologies and the Internet by means of the Ukrainian language.
6. State the problems of the adequacy of the translation of neologisms in the field of economics, computer technologies and the Internet.
7. Speak on the translation of English computer technology terms.

Lecture 7

POLITICALLY CORRECT VOCABULARY IN TRANSLATION AND PRAGMATICS OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TEXTS TRANSLATION

1. Politically correct vocabulary in translation
2. Pragmatic aspect of translation

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1. Politically correct vocabulary in translation

Politically correct lexical items originated as euphemisms that had a purpose to avoid using words that emphasize certain cases of inequality among people, such as racial, gender inequality, physical or mental disabilities. Among the politically correct terms, the following groups of lexical units can be distinguished:

- 1) units to indicate race and nationality, for example *African American* “афро-американці” – to denote American Negroes, *indigenous peoples* “первісне населення” – to denote American Indians, *Inuit* – to denote “ескімосів”;
- 2) units to denote gender units, such as attempts to create substitutes for the word *woman*, which are not derived from *man* – *womyn*, *wimmin*, *wimyn*, *wofem*, *womban*, *womon*;
- 3) units that denote physical or mental qualities of a person – for example, synonyms to denote an overweight person: e.g. *large-than-average person*, *a person of size*, *a person of substance*, *a person with an alternative body image*, *a horizontally challenged person*, *differently sized person*; synonyms used to denote elderly people: e.g. *chronologically gifted*, *experientially enchanced*, *longer-living*, *mature*; *celebrally challenged* – to avoid the word *stupid*, *emotionally different* – to avoid the word *crazy* [1, p. 20].
- 4) gender-neutral lexical units, mainly for designation of professions, where neutralized morphemes for gender designation *fire fighter* instead of *fireman*, *actron* instead of *actor*, *actress*, *waitron* instead of *waiter*, *waitress*, *chairperson* instead of *chairman*, *chairwoman*; there are also attempts to create gender-neutral pronouns *co* (*he*, *she*), *cos* (*his*, *her*), *coself* (*himself*, *herself*);

- 5) units, which are used to denote non-prestigious professions that emphasize their importance for society – *sanitation engineer (garbage collector)*, *environmental hygienist (janitor)*.
- 6) units for marking animals and plants *animal companion (pet)*, *botanical companion*, *floral companion (plant, bouquet)*, *canine-American* (American dog, by analogy with African American).

Some of these lexical units have become fixed in the language (African American, indigenous peoples, fire fighter, chairperson). Such lexical items are created from components that traditionally exist in the language, which makes them easier to understand. Others, artificially created, which did not exist in the language before, could not replace the usual words at the present stage of language development (womyn, wimmin, wimyn, wofem, womban, womon, co, cos). These units are diverse in structure – word combinations with different number of components – from *multi-component* (a person with an alternative body image) to two-component (*floral companion*), rarely complex words (*large-than-average person*, *longer-living*).

Lexical units that denote the physical or mental qualities of a person are the closest to euphemisms, for example, *celebratedly challenged (stupid)*, *emotionally different (crazy)*. In other cases, we have attempts to rethink the usual ideas about man and the world, for example, *animal companion (pet)*, *botanical companion*, *floral companion (plant, bouquet)*, *canine-American (American dog)*, *human animal / non-human animal* emphasize the equality of man and other living beings.

Such lexical units, which only conditionally can be named politically correct, as they reflect such a system of values, which denies the traditional. Among such lexical units, which have already become used in the language, there is, for example, the *dead white male canon* (sometimes abbreviated as the canon) – canonical scientific, philosophical, literary and artistic works (created almost exclusively by men of the white race), which are traditionally considered outstanding and which became the basis of the Western patriarchal civilization and, accordingly, the basis of the education system aimed at maintaining ideas about the inferiority of other cultures (capitalistic patriarchal

hegemonic discourse). A less common abbreviation derived from the *dead white male canon* – *DWEMs* (dead white European males) – the most famous representatives of the Western European patriarchal civilization, who are traditionally considered outstanding. This culture is characterized by Eurocentrism, the belief that it is the most developed and should dominate the world (dominant culture). It is characterized by a tendency to aggressiveness, selfishness, a consumerist attitude towards the surrounding world and other living beings (Euro American worldview), a desire to oppress representatives of the opposite sex, other races and species (ego-testicle worldview). The phenomena of inequality are observed both in family and social relations, as well as in attitudes towards the surrounding world.

Examples of lexical units denoting family relationships, emphasizing the oppressed position of *a woman in marriage* – *unpaid sex worker (wife)* – *derived from sex worker* – (*prostitute*), *unpaid labor (housework)*. The oppressed position of women it is also emphasized in the social sphere, which is reflected in lexical units such as differential framing, face-ism, the tendency of television to focus the camera on the face, if a man is filmed, and on the figure, if a woman is filmed.

Lexical units denoting a person's relationship with the surrounding world, as well can emphasize its barbaric attitude towards other species, the fact that a person interrupts the life cycles of representatives of other species and uses their products their life activities in their own interests. For example, *processed animal carcasses (meat)*, *processed tree carcasses (paper, books)*, *stolen products – from stolen nonhuman animal products (eggs, milk, honey, wool)*. The idea that representatives of other species are only a resource for humans is opposed by biocentrism, which emphasizes the equality of all species in nature.

A large group of words refers to different types of discrimination, for example *за віком* – *ageism*, *за станом здоров'я* – *diseasism*, *за наявністю надмірної ваги* – *fatism*, *за зовнішністю* – *lookism*, *за належністю до жіночої статі* – *misogyny*, *уявлення про панівне становище людини серед інших видів* – *non-human animal speciesism* [4, p. 21]. Person's idea of his dominant position in nature extends even

to the fact that he mainly considers the possibility of the existence of other intelligent life forms similar to him, that is, based on carbon compounds – hence *carbonocentrism*.

Linguists and sociologists have repeatedly emphasized the conventionality of the concept “political correct”, because politically correct vocabulary does not always arise for political reasons and these lexical units are often not correct from the point of view of the fact that they are deliberately provocative, violate the principle of politeness and tolerance, and, therefore, can be studied within the framework of conflict discourse. Politically correct lexical units arose as polite euphemisms that allow avoiding the use of words to indicate physical or mental deficiencies of a person, discrimination of a person in society. However, politically correct lexical units have evolved. Some of them give new names to familiar phenomena and concepts, question traditional phenomena about a person.

2. Pragmatic aspect of translation

Linguistic analysis of translation provides rich material for solving a number of fundamental problems that arise in connection with the pragmatics of language and speech. In the linguistic literature, the pragmatic aspect is considered from three different points of view. First, there is the question of conveying the pragmatic meanings of the original words. Secondly, translation pragmatics is interpreted as the pragmatic task of a particular translation act. Thirdly, there is a requirement for pragmatic adaptation of the translation in order to ensure the equality of the communicative effect in the original and the translation.

The term “pragmatic meaning” is used in modern linguistics quite ambiguously. As V.N. Komisarov notes, “...from the philosophical concepts of modern semiotics, linguistics has borrowed, first of all, the idea of three types of relations that are inherent in to any sign, including signs of natural languages: semantic, which reflect the relationship between the sign and the object it denotes, syntactic, which that relate this sign to other signs of the same system, and pragmatic signs that determine the relationship between the sign and the persons «who use

them in the process of speech”. It should be noted that initially these relations were considered as different plans or aspects of language. Later, they were considered as types of sign meanings, attributing to them an ontological character. Thus, we can conclude that a language sign is denoted by semantic (also called denotative or referential), syntactic (or intralinguistic), and pragmatic meanings. At the same time most often a word is understood as a linguistic sign, although, as V.N. Komisarov notes, “... some authors speak of the same meanings in the sense of an utterance or linguistic expression”.

But it remains not entirely clear how this classification coexists with other types of meaning that are allocated in a word, primarily with the concepts of grammatical and lexical meanings of a word, as well as with the concept of connotative and denotative meanings. For example, Barkhudarov L.S. to the number of pragmatic meanings includes the stylistic characteristic of the word, its register (expressive characteristic) and the emotional flavor of the word, that is, those components of the semantics of the word that are usually related to its connotation. Then Barkhudarov L.S. indicates that “... the pragmatic meaning of a word includes what is considered its connotation, meaning the additional associations that the word evokes in speakers of a given language. Connotation also has an emotionally figurative character, but it is not part of the meaning of the word”.

And D. Schweitzer in terms of the content of “linguistic expressions” distinguishes denotative, significative, syntactic, connotative and pragmatic meaning. At the same time, although we are talking about the content of the statement, the difference between different types of meanings is revealed in the comparison of different types of words. In a number of works, the pragmatic aspect of signs receives an even broader interpretation. Thus, A. Neubert believes that “... pragmatics includes all stylistics, because it considers all the problems related to the choice of formatives by the speaker... and the pragmatics of the original is based on its grammar and semantics, and, from the second on the other hand, it can be inherent in all speech as a

whole, even regardless of its content, because the pragmatic goal may not be the content, but the very fact of speech.”

The situation is much more complicated with the pragmatic aspect of a coherent text, i.e. the relationship between the speech and the participants in the communication. These relations are determined not only by the pragmatic meaning of the signs included in the utterance, but also the factual side of the information, social status and psychological characteristics of the communicators. This raises the question of what aspects of pragmatics should be reproduced in translation. G. Yeager distinguishes four pragmatic aspects of the text related to the choice of language means in the process of communication, defining them as follows: “The first aspect is the decision to create a text in the form of a judgment, a question, an exhortation or a wish... The second aspect is determined by the choice of the text content, taking into account the environment and the nature of the communicators... The third pragmatic aspect is related to the method of language reproduction, i.e. the choice of the language on which the text is based... The fourth type is determined by the selection of specific linguistic means that have their own intralinguistic meanings, which are included in their content”.

Pragmatic problems often arise in connection with the implementation of interlingual communication problems of a different type, which already have an extralinguistic character, because we are talking about pragmatics of the act of translation itself. And therefore in this case the term “pragmatics” acquires the meaning “practical goal” or “practical task” of some activity. The prerequisite for consideration of translation in this way is a kind of dual nature, translation as a type of language activity, when translation reveals a double pragmatic orientation: “... on the one hand, translation is carried out within the framework of interlanguage communication, and therefore focuses on the original... and its pragmatic task is ensuring the maximum closeness between the original and the translation, on the other hand translation is an act of speech, pragmatically focused on a specific person and on environment”. That is why the translator can pursue a goal that is

independent from the pragmatic task of translation, which may not influence the process and on the translation results.

As for the purpose of translation, G. Georgi points to various methods of classifying the purpose of translation, including: 1) sign – those who use a sign; 2) by content: political, social, ethical, moral, aesthetic, economic; 3) by source: individual, group, class, national; 4) by time: close, remote; 5) by quality and quantity: timely, socially necessary. Although one may disagree with the need for such a detailed classification of the purpose of translation, since the purpose of translation exists beyond linguistics, and subtypes can be defined indefinitely. However, the existence of such a category is undeniable, as its impact on the translation process and the result. In some cases, the purpose of the translation acts as a “pragmatic supertask” that determines the evaluation of the results of the translation process. Very often, these results are evaluated not only according to the correspondence to the original, but also according to whether the text meets the objectives for which the translation was made. To determine the degree of this correspondence, V.N. Komisarov proposed the term “pragmatic value” of the translation text, insisting that “...based on the pragmatic value of the translation, in some cases it is possible to recognize as adequate a translation that does not correspond to the original.”

Thus, the real pragmatics of translation also includes the problem of the translator's attitude to his or her activity, his or her intentions, which he or she carries out in the process of translation. This reveals the duality of the act of translation, as a result of which, along with the orientation towards the original, the translator may set a goal that has nothing to do with the tasks that were set in the process of creating the original. A translator may set a goal of a propagandistic, educational, etc. nature, he may apply his translation to special conditions of perception or to a special group, and he may also try to link his relationship to the author or to the content of the original. To achieve this goal, the translator may simplify, reduce or change this information, deliberately refusing to maximize equivalence. The use of interlingual communication for such purposes is beyond the scope of translation linguistics. However, although such facts are extra-linguistic in nature, they should be taken

into account in the linguistic analysis of a translation in order to limit their impact on the equivalence of translation of pragmatic evaluations common to all speakers who have a certain linguistic expression.

This approach raises the greatest number of problems. In this case, the concept is put forward that the pragmatics of a text should be understood as its communicative effect, i.e. the influence of the text on the receptor, or the reaction to the content of the text. In this case, there is a need for pragmatic adaptation of the translation so that it has the same effect on the receptor as the same effect on the Receptor as the original.

In the translation literature, the influence of this factor is considered with regard to the difference of “culture” in translation. In this case, the term “culture” is considered in the broad sense of phenomena of ethnographic, historical, and geographical significance. Some authors add to this term the peculiarity of the world's cultures, while others emphasize the existence of a “local culture” for understanding the meanings of new signs.

The combination of ethnolinguistic and sociolinguistic facts plays an important role in translation. Establishing equivalence in translation involves taking into account the following differences.

It should also be borne in mind that in any act of communication the receptor may receive incomplete information. If you want to clarify the information, the receiver is used to referring to reference books, notes and footnotes. Moreover, it is natural not to understand foreign customs, rites and actions in translations that reproduce the culture of another nation. As Yu. Nida correctly notes, “...differences in culture create fewer difficulties in translation than they might otherwise, because all people know that other peoples have their own ideas about life... Perhaps for some peoples it is the degree of the idea of life, but at modern level of communication, such deviations are short-lived”

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What is called a politically correct vocabulary? Analyze politically correct vocabulary in translation.
2. Speak on the pragmatic aspect of translation.

Lecture 8

GENRE-STYLISTIC PROBLEMS OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

1. Genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical style
2. Sub styles and genres of the scientific and technical style

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1. Genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical style

Scientific style is one of the styles that has a strong and versatile influence on the literary language. The scope of its application is very wide.

The emergence and development of the scientific style is connected with the development of various areas of scientific knowledge, various spheres of human activity. In the early days, the style of scientific presentation was close to the style of an artistic narrative. The separation of scientific style from artistic style occurred when scientific terminology began to be created in the Greek language. Subsequently, it was replenished from the resources of Latin, and became the international scientific language of the European Middle Ages. During the Renaissance, scientists strove for the brevity and accuracy of scientific description, free from emotional and artistic elements of presentation as opposed to the abstract and logical representation of nature. However, the liberation of the scientific style from these elements was gradual. It is known that the overly “artistic” nature of Galileo's presentation annoyed Kepler, and Descartes found the style of Galileo's scientific proofs excessively “fictionalized.” In the future, Newton's logical exposition became a model of scientific language.

Continuous scientific and technical progress introduces a huge number of terms into common use. Computer, display, ecology, stratosphere, investor, tranche, solar wind – these and many other terms have moved from the pages of special publications to everyday life.

The broad and intensive development of the scientific and technical style led to the formation within its framework of numerous genres, such as: article, monograph, textbook, patent description, abstract, documentation, catalog, handbook, specification, instruction,

advertisement (having signs and journalism). Each genre has its own individual stylistic features, but they do not violate the unity of the scientific and technical style, imitating its general features.

The scientific style is characterized by a logical sequence of the presentation, an ordered system of connections between the parts of the statement, the authors' desire for accuracy, brevity, and unambiguity while preserving the richness of the content.

Logic is the presence of meaningful connections between successive units of the text. Consistency is only a text in which the conclusions follow from the content, they are not contradictory, the text is divided into separate meaningful segments that reflect the movement of thought from the partial to the general or from the general to specific. Clarity, as a quality of scientific language, implies comprehensibility and accessibility. According to the degree of accessibility, scientific, scientific-educational and popular science texts differ in terms of material and method of its language design. The accuracy of scientific language presupposes unambiguity of understanding, lack of discrepancy between the signified and its definition. Therefore, in scientific texts, as a rule, there are no similar, expressive means; words are used mainly in their literal sense, the frequency of terms also contributes to the clarity of the text. The strict accuracy requirements imposed on the scientific text limit the use of figurative language: metaphors, epithets, artistic similes, proverbs, etc. Sometimes such means can penetrate into scientific works, because the scientific style strives not only for accuracy, but also for persuasiveness and proof. Sometimes such funds are necessary to implement the requirement of clarity and comprehensibility of the presentation.

A characteristic feature of the style of scientific works is their saturation with terms (in particular, international ones). However, one should not overestimate the degree of this saturation: on average, terminological vocabulary usually makes up 15–25 percent of the total vocabulary used in the work. A term is a word or phrase that accurately and unambiguously names a subject, phenomenon or concept of science and reveals its meaning. The term carries a large amount of logical

information. In the explanatory dictionaries, the terms are accompanied by the “special” mark.

The use of abstract vocabulary plays an important role in the style of scientific works. The lexicon of the scientific language consists of three main layers: commonly used words, general scientific words and terms. In any scientific text, commonly used vocabulary forms the basis of the presentation.

First of all, words with a generalized and abstract meaning are selected (being, consciousness, fixes, temperature). With the help of general scientific words, phenomena and processes in various fields of science and technology are described (system, question, meaning, mark). One of the features of the use of general scientific words is their repeated repetition in a narrow context.

Morphological features of the scientific style – the predominance of nouns, the wide distribution of abstract nouns (time, phenomena, change, state), the use of plural nouns that do not have plural forms in ordinary use (costs, became ...), the use of singular nouns for generalized concepts (birch, acid), the use almost exclusively of forms of the present tense in a timeless sense, indicates the permanent nature of the process (emerges, occurs).

In the field of morphology, there is the use of shorter variants of forms (which corresponds to the principle of economy of linguistic means), the objective nature of the presentation, the use of “we” instead of “I”, the omission of pronouns, the narrowing of the range of personal verb forms (3rd person), the use of passive participle forms past tense, reflexive-impersonal, impersonal-predicative forms (it was developed by us; it can be argued that ...).

Scientific style is dominated by logical, bookish syntax. Typical complex and complex constructions, narrative sentences, direct word order. Logical certainty is achieved with the help of subordinating conjunctions (because, since ...), introductory words (for the first time, therefore).

To connect parts of the text, special means (words, phrases and sentences) are used, which indicate the sequence of the development of

thoughts (at first, then, then, first of all, in advance, etc.), the connection of previous and subsequent information (as indicated, as already mentioned, as noted, considered, etc.), to cause-and-effect relationships (but, therefore, thanks to this, therefore, in connection with the fact that, as a result of this, etc.), to the transition to a new topic (we will consider now, let's move on to the consideration, etc.), on the proximity, identity of objects, circumstances, features (he, the same, such, so, here, here, etc.)

Among simple sentences, a construction with a large number of dependents is widespread, we string nouns in the form genitive case. Generalization and abstractness of the language of scientific prose are determined by the specifics of scientific thinking. Science interprets concepts, expresses an abstract thought, therefore its language is devoid of concreteness. And in this respect, it is opposed to the language of fiction. The intellectual character of scientific knowledge determines the logic of the language of science, which is expressed in the preliminary thinking of the message, in the monologue character and strict sequence of presentation. In this respect, the scientific style, like some other book styles, is opposed to the colloquial language.

The collective nature of modern scientific research determines the objectivity of the language of science. The role of the author's "I", he says, in a scientific presentation, in contrast to, for example, artistic speech, journalism, conversational style, is quite insignificant. The main thing is the message itself, its subject, the results of the research or experiment, presented clearly, clearly, objectively, regardless of the feelings that the researcher felt during the experiment, in the process of writing a scientific paper. The feelings and experiences of the author are taken out in brackets, do not participate in language.

2. Sub-styles and genres of the scientific and technical style

For a more complete consideration of the scientific and technical style, it is necessary to mention its sub-styles and genres. There are three varieties (sub-styles) of scientific style: proper scientific sub-style; scientific and educational sub-style; popular science sub-style. Within the proper scientific sub-style, such genres as monograph, dissertation,

report, etc. are distinguished. It brings together scientific literature written by specialists and intended for specialists. This sub-style is contrasted with the popular science sub-style. Its function is to popularize scientific information. Here, the expert author addresses the reader who is not sufficiently familiar with this science, so the information is presented in an accessible and often interesting form.

The peculiarity of the popular science sub-style is the combination of polar stylistic features in it: logic and emotionality, objectivity and subjectivity, abstractness and concreteness. In contrast to scientific prose, there are significantly fewer special terms and other properly scientific tools in popular science literature.

The scientific and educational sub-style combines the features of the proper scientific sub-style and the popular scientific presentation. From the actual scientific underpinnings, it is related to terminological, systematic in the description of scientific information, logicity, evidentiality; with popular science – accessibility, saturation with illustrative material. Genres of the scientific and educational sub-style include: study guide, lecture, seminar report, exam answer, etc. The following genres of scientific prose can be distinguished: monograph, journal article, review, textbook (teaching manual), lecture, report, information message (about what was held at a conference, symposium, congress), oral presentation (at a conference, symposium, etc.), dissertation, scientific report. These genres are primary, that is, texts created by the author for the first time. Secondary texts, i.e. texts composed on the basis of already existing ones, include: abstract, author's abstract, synopsis, theses, abstract. During the preparation of secondary texts, information is collapsed in order to reduce the volume of the text.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Discuss genre-stylistic problems of scientific and technical style.
2. Speak on the sub styles and genres of the scientific and technical style.

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Slyvka Liubov

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