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THE PROBLEM OF TRANSLATING THE UNTRANSLATABLE: THE NONEQUIVALENT LEXIS

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The article deals with the different ways of the nonequivalent lexis translation. A detailed description of the nonequivalent lexis is given. This lexis is divided into three groups: referentially nonequivalent, pragmatically nonequivalent, alternatively nonequivalent. The author emphasizes the fact that the nonequivalent lexis can cause serious difficulties during translation and it requires specific approaches.

Differences between languages caused by cultural distinctions are noticeable most of all in the vocabulary and phraseology because the nominative means of a language are related most directly to the extra-linguistic reality. In any language or dialect there are words that do not have one-word translation in other languages. This is the so-called nonequivalent lexis [1, p. 52]. The nonequivalent lexis includes words that do not have analogues in other languages, and lack semantic correspondences in the content system of another language) [2, p. 11].

The most frequently used terms are "nonequivalent lexis", "exotic lexis" or "exotisms", and along with them, "barbarisms", "localisms", "ethnographisms", "ethnolexemes", "ethnocultural vocabulary", "words with a zero equivalent", and others. National, historical, local, everyday connotation, absence of equivalents in the target language and in some cases foreign origin make these notions related [4, p. 44]. As a rule, the nonequivalent lexis causes the greatest difficulty for translators. An example of a specific approach to the nonequivalent lexis translation is translation of semantic gaps, i.e. words that do not have any equivalents as separate words in the target language [3, p. 137].

Nonequivalence should be based on the generally accepted idea about an equivalent, and in particular on the definition of the "equivalent", given by Y.I. Retsker, who defines it as a constant equal correspondence usually independent of the context [5, p. 10–11]. According to this all lexical (and phraseological) units which usually do not have constant, independent of the context equivalents in the target language refer to the nonequivalent lexis [4, p. 44].

From this point on we will keep to the definition provided by A.O. Ivanov. The nonequivalent lexis is considered to be the lexical units of the source language, which do not have any equivalents in the target language vocabulary, i.e. units which can transfer at a similar level all relevant in the given context components of the meaning or one variant of the original lexical unit meaning.

Along with language units of the source language having single or multiple correspondences in the target language, the comparative analysis discovers lexical-grammatical units which have no direct correspondence in the target language. The source language units with no regular correspondences in the target language are called nonequivalent. The nonequivalent lexis can be found mainly among neologisms, words naming specific concepts and national realities, little-known names and titles. These are English words conservationist, baby-sitters, backlog, etc. Nonequivalent grammatical units can be either separate morphological forms (gerund) and parts of speech (article), or syntactic structures (absolute constructions) [4, p. 25].

Using the term "English nonequivalent lexis" we take into account that it means "English vocabulary that has no equivalences in translation into Russian" [4, p. 190]. This issue is important to remember because the notion "nonequivalence" is meaningful only within a particular language pair and can be used only in one particular direction, in our case in translation from English into Russian. A source language unit nonequivalent to the given target language can have regular correspondences in other languages.

According to A.O. Ivanov, the reasons for nonequivalence are absence of an object or phenomenon in people's life (material nonequivalence); absence of an identical concept in the target language (lexical-semantic nonequivalence); differences of lexical-semantic characteristics (stylistic nonequivalence) [3, c. 82].

Due to the fact that translation is being implemented at a speech level, traditionally singled out lexical and grammatical meanings are not very appropriate for the description of nonequivalence. The semiotic classification of meanings is more convenient. According to it all meanings in any utterance are divided into three types:

1. Referential, expressing relationship between a sign and its referent when it comes to the concept, or denotative, when it comes to the relation to an object.

2. Pragmatic, expressing relationship between a sign and a person or a language community using the given language (connotative, emotive).

3. Intralingual, expressing relationship between a sign and other signs or structure elements of the same sign system, in our case - the language.

In our research we keep to the classification proposed by A.O. Ivanov. He singles out three types of meanings mentioned above. Accordingly, there are three groups of the nonequivalent lexis:

– referentially nonequivalent, which includes terms, individual (author) neologisms, semantic gaps (lacunae), words of broad semantics, compound words;

– pragmatically nonequivalent, which includes deviations from the common language norms, foreign-language blotches, reductions (abbreviations), words with suffixes of subjective evaluation, interjections, onomatopoeia and associative gaps;

– alternatively nonequivalent, which includes proper nouns, addresses, culture-specific items and phraseologisms [3, p. 46].

THE REFERENTIALLY NONEQUIVALENT lexis. Cases of divergence in referential meanings of corresponding lexical units in two languages occur quite often. They are classified into two types: 1) Absence (in the target language) of a lexical unit which has the same referential meaning as an original unit of the source language; 2) Partial coincidence of referential meanings of units of the source and the target languages.

Terms, author neologisms, semantic gaps, complex words refer to the referentially nonequivalent lexis. Further we will consider these types.

Terms are words or phrases of a special (scientific, technical, etc.) language, created for the exact expression of specific concepts and for special item notation. Most of them have permanent equivalents in other languages. Terms can be nonequivalent only when they denote new concepts. It is clear that nonequivalence gradually disappears with the development of the same areas of knowledge. The widespread use of borrowings can be explained by the fact that it preserves the main characteristics of a term – brevity and non-ambiguity. Moreover, term borrowing from the source language provides a unification of a metalanguage of the given science at the international level. Other commonly used ways of translation of terms are: calquing and descriptive translation.

*"**Extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis** ignores nearly everything medicine can throw at it"* [6] (*"Туберкулез с широкой лекарственной устойчивостью не реагирует практически на все лекарственные средства, которые могут быть применены против него"*).

Author neologisms are most difficult for translation, all of them are nonequivalent. Omission of neologisms is undesirable. Referential meaning (in other words, the concept being embedded by an author in a word), as well as pragmatics, which includes novelty, individuality and imagery, are very important elements of neologisms significance.

Speaking about semantic gaps we mean absence in the target language of a certain concept denoted by the same lexical unit (a word or a phrase) in the source language. But we are not talking about the impossibility of expressing this concept by means of the target language. The very existence of such semantic gaps in specific pairs of languages demonstrates the thesis about the mismatch between the pictures of the world in various languages. Descriptive translation is the primary method of semantic gaps translation.

*"Why **crash dummies** are getting fat?"* [6] (*"Почему **манекены, используемые при тестировании машины в аварии**, становятся толще?"*).

Nonequivalence of the lexical units types can be explained by the divergence of a referential meaning of corresponding units in the source and the target languages. Another type of divergence of referential meaning is much more ambiguous. This is an incomplete coincidence of referential meanings of lexical units of the source and the target languages (or words of broad semantics): переводчик – interpreter/translator; рука – arm/hand; дело – affair/business. In the source language we have a word that has a broader meaning than its analogues in the target language. It will be nonequivalent if the context and extralinguistic situation do not contain any indication of relevance of a particular variant of its equivalents. The choice of a required corresponding unit in translation is possible only when we go beyond the linguistic context and possess some information about real setting or situation. Specification is the main way to translate words of broad semantics.

Compound words generally do not have equivalents in the target language. In the English language such words are as follows:

• Compound nouns of different types: noun + noun + ship (*lifemanship – умение преодолевать тяжелые ситуации*); noun + noun + er (*boat-misser – человек, постоянно опаздывающий на судно*); noun + verb + er (*bread-winner – кормилец*).

• Complex adjectives and participles with the second verbal element: *error-plagued – сопряженный с неизбежными ошибками, heavy-handed – неуклюжий, неповоротливый*. Compound adjectives of other types: noun + proof (*foolproof – надежный*); noun + happy (*trigger-happy – легкомысленный в обращении с оружием*).

- Compound verbs: *to ghost-write – писать/сочинять за кого-либо другого; to brainstorm – искать решение с помощью "мозгового штурма".*
- The word-phrases (prepositive-attributive word combinations, similar to a sentence or collocation due to their structure, which function in a sentence as a separate word): *can't-do-with-it-a thing (hair type)* (*волосы, которые сложно уложить*); *the do-this-by-yesterday (order)* (*сделать это до завтра*). Most often, the meaning of such units can be transmitted into Russian using detailed descriptive translation or using different transformations at a sentence level [3, p. 87–110].

*"Watch golfer Jason Palmer's unique **one-handed** chipping technique"* [6] (*"Посмотрите на уникальную технику удара по мячу для гольфа **с помощью одной руки** известного игрока Джейсона Палмера"*).

*"**Whale-shaped** giant of the skies"* [6] (*"Небесный гигант **в форме кита**"*).

THE PRAGMATICALLY NONEQUIVALENT lexis. In every language in comparison with some other one we can find words with the same referential meaning, but with different stylistic characteristics or emotional connotation, i.e. with issues that are usually included in the pragmatic meaning of a lexical unit.

The largest class of the pragmatically nonequivalent lexis represents deviations from the common language norms. They include territorial and social dialecticisms, localisms, slang and vulgar terms, neutral words which do not have adequate pragmatic equivalents in other language/other languages. The deviations from the common language norms include "spoken language's freedoms". In English, the examples of such words are: *flopnik – an unsuccessfully launched satellite* (from Eng. flop – to fall down), *buttinsky – the person who barges in everywhere* (from Eng. to butt in – to barge).

*"She launched it in 2011, a few months after moving to **the Big Apple** from Rio de Janeiro"* [6] (*"Она открыла свою фирму в 2011 году, через несколько месяцев после переезда в **Нью-Йорк** из Рио-де-Жанейро"*).

This group also includes foreign language inclusions – words and phrases in a foreign language introduced to create authenticity, emotional colouring, atmosphere or impression of erudition, irony. The determining factor in translation is the role of foreign language inclusions in the text. If they are used to create local colour or to transfer a nationality of a speaker, the should be included in a text of translation in their original forms.

*"But accepting such change in Germany is being seen as part of the national duty, and the price to be paid for the widespread popular will to say **nein danke** to **atomkraft**"* [6] (*"Учитывая тот факт, что подобные изменения рассматриваются в Германии как часть национального долга, за такую огромную популярность придется заплатить адресованным **атомной энергии «nein danke»**"*)/

Abbreviations (acronyms) are "reduced reflection of the original units", in addition to a referential meaning they have an extra pragmatic one: of either belonging to a particular functional style (scientific, technical, conversational, professional slang), or to a particular register of speech (familiarity).

*"**The internet of things (IoT)**, which will populate homes, cars and bodies with devices that use sophisticated sensors to monitor people, could easily build up a "deeply personal and startlingly complete picture" of a person's lifestyle, said Ms Ramirez"* [6] (*"По словам госпожи Рамирез, **«интернет вещей»** (**IoT, от англ. internet of things**), который в скором времени заполонит дома, машины и тела людей устройствами с «умными сенсорами», следящими за людьми, может создать «глубоко личную и поразительно полную картину» жизни любого человека"*).

Nonequivalence of words with suffixes of a subjective evaluation is more typical for the translation from Russian into English as Russian is richer in suffixes of this type (English has in total four diminutive suffixes: -let (booklet), -ling (weakling), -kin (Peterkin), -y (Piggy)). The translation of English nouns with suffixes of a subjective evaluation into Russian is usually not a serious problem.

Interjections are also mostly pragmatically nonequivalent, representing a class of unalterable words deprived of special grammatical indicators and possessing a special expressive-semantic function of any sensation and feeling expression. We need specification in order to transfer adequately the required meaning of an interjection.

*"**Aye, aye** cap'n: Scots under the sea in film and TV"* [6]. (*"**Так точно**, кэп: Шотландцы под водой в фильмах и на телевидении"*).

Due to the differences of phonological systems, and partly because of the associated differences in perceptions of euphony in the source and target languages, onomatopoeia sometimes does not have equivalents in the target language and is represented in a dictionary in a descriptive way. For example: clop – tap of hoofs, plonk – the sound of slap.

*"**Clip clop, clip clop, Tick, tock, tick tock**. The clock is ticking down to the world's most famous horse race, and the anticipation is building"* [6] (*"**Цок-цок, цок-цок. Тик-так, тик-так**. Начался обратный отсчет до старта самых знаменитых скачек, ожидания растут"*).

The pragmatically nonequivalent lexis also includes associative gaps (lacunae). For example, a Russian word "береза" is a symbol of the modest Russian nature, the English word "birch-tree" lacks such an association [3, p. 119–132].

THE ALTERNATIVELY NONEQUIVALENT lexis. The group of alternatively nonequivalent lexis includes the lexis, which, depending on the chosen method of translation, can be either referentially nonequivalent (i.e. differ with the corresponding unit in the target language in referential meaning) or pragmatically nonequivalent (i.e. differ with the corresponding unit in pragmatic meaning). Proper names, addresses, culture-specific items and phraseologisms refer to this group.

The group of proper names consists of personal names and nicknames, geographic and brand names as well as the names of institutions, newspapers, magazines, ships, etc. representing one of the most obviously nonequivalent type of lexis.

*"**Charlie Hebdo** massacre"* [6] (*"**Убийства в редакции журнала Charlie Hebdo**"*).

The other group of words which is often considered to be nonequivalent is addresses. Proper names as addresses usually have an equivalent in other languages. Exceptions are addresses with proper nouns, which include the title of the post or title of the husband used when referring to his wife, for example: Mrs. Professor Johnson – г-жа Джонсон, Mrs. Colonel Smith – г-жа Смит [3, p. 135–140].

*"A different letter tells of how **Mrs Colonel Edmondes** was proposed to by her fourth husband, Lord Dormar"* [6] (*"Другое письмо рассказывает о том, как **г-же Эдмондс** было сделано предложение руки и сердца ее четвертым мужем, лордом Дормаром"*).

Culture-specific items have no exact matches in other languages. These are special words and phrases naming objects typical for everyday life, culture, social and historical development of one nation and alien to another. The examples of English and American culture-specific items may be the following: drive-in (Amer.) – кинотеатр, в котором фильм смотрят, не выходя из автомашины; banns (Eng. and Amer.) – процедура оглашения имен лиц, предполагающих вступить в брак; fat cats (Amer.) – спонсоры президентской кампании, приглашенные на обед с кандидатом в президенты. Being bearers of a national and/or historical connotation they usually do not have exact equivalents in other languages. There are several ways to transfer the culture-specific items to the target language: 1) calquing, i. e. repetition of the internal form of the original word, for example: *Grand Jury – Большое жюри, backbencher – заднескамеечник*; 2) use of an existing analogue, for example: *drugstore – аптека*; 3) transliteration/transcription, for example: *pub – паб*; 4) approximate or descriptive translation, for example: *drive-in – автокинотеатр* [3, p. 190].

*"Sean Brown murder inquest: **Coroner** summons **chief constable**"* [6] (*"Расследование убийства Шона Брауна: **следователь, ведущий дело о насильственной смерти**, привлекает к суду **начальника полиции**"*).

Idioms also refer to the nonequivalent lexis, they have two possible ways of translation – lexical or descriptive (*husband's tea – слабый чай*) and calquing (*fat cats – жирные коты*). Generally translation of all types of the nonequivalent lexis is considered to be an extremely complex problem because the translator always has to choose between calquing and descriptive translation. An internal form maintaining can lead to disruption in pragmatics and maintaining of pragmatic meaning can be accompanied by the loss of reference. This choice cannot be associated with any translation norm, it should be based on translator's skills and style [3, p. 190].

"Examples of Hebrew idiom that have become English via the Bible include: "to set one's teeth on edge", "by the skin of one's teeth", "the land of the living" and "from strength to strength"" [6] (*"К примерам древнееврейских фразеологизмов, которые стали английскими с помощью Библии, относятся: «действовать на нервы», «с трудом/едва (сделать что-либо)», «земля живых» и «брать новые высоты»"*).

Thus, translation of the nonequivalent lexis is accompanied by certain difficulties. For adequate translation one should define a type of a lexical unit and, depending on it, should choose an appropriate way of translation.

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A PERFECT ENTHUSIAST IN ADMIRATION OF NATURE

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The article deals with the early correspondence of W. Wordsworth. The author dwells upon the letter which was written by Wordsworth while crossing the Alps. The article also surveys some aspects and principles of methodology of a literary research.

Any phenomenon has the beginning, and this beginning often contains some definite signs of what will happen in the future. Life is certainly the most amazing multi-dimensional phenomenon, which is available for system analysis. The analysis itself becomes more interesting and scientifically useful if the analyzed life is bright and original. Of course, there is no doubt that the life of a poet can be that solid and rich material for a research or analysis.

It is not a secret that the discoveries of physicists in the XXth century radically changed the scientific picture of the world. The absolute laws of Nature were destroyed. They became relative. C.G. Jung remarks: «The laws of nature are a statistical truth. They are absolutely true only when we are dealing with the macroscopic quantities. In the realm of very small quantities predictability weakens, and sometimes even becomes impossible» [1, p. 218]. He then continues: «There are no "absolute" laws of nature, to the authority of which we could appeal, trying to protect our own prejudices. The most that we can claim – is the largest possible number of individual observations» [1, p. 221]. In his other work C.G. Jung makes an interesting remark. He writes: «Slightly exaggerating we can say that the reality is composed of continuous exceptions and that the true reality is characterized mainly by its irregularity» [2, p. 6]. We also want to note that for us «a scientific fact is always the answer of the reality to the question of a scientist. A scientific fact is not indifferent to human reality, it is always relevant to a human» [3, p. 9]. We should also mark that «scientific "objectivity" of a literary critic does not imply his detachment from his aesthetic sensibility. The main thing in this process is to capture factors which are not only connected with one's own artistic impression, but to describe all those structures which are given in textual work, which could be seen and experienced by every potential reader» [3, p. 10].We share all these principles and in a certain sense they are applied in our methodology.

Trying not to fall into the trap of *"ordinary scientific consciousness"* [4, p. 9], we insist that the study of works of any artist should not be structured by the general model, but by the individual preferences and features of this or that artist. In a research we can and should be interested in the personality of an artist, in his way of living, in his opinion about the literary process, his relationship with society [5, p. 23–24]. The careful analysis of these aspects allows a researcher to understand and, what is even more complicated, to explain the work of some artist.

It should be noted that in certain circumstances the connection between events has a non-causal character and requires another principle of explanation. It is clearly noticeable when we consider the creative process. Can a person fairly accurately predict his or her future life? We believe that the y can. Is there something supernatural? Definitely not. This question usually torments everyman or creeps in the head of a scientist trapped in *"ordinary scientific consciousness"*. The metaphysical battle in his head, as a rule, makes his mind retreat into a fortress of frenzied materialism. In fact, there is nothing unusual about the prediction. Prediction is a concrete manifestation of a person's search activity, selectivity, and the choice of the anticipatory reflection of the reality. It involves a person's subjective feeling of incompleteness, uncertainty and fragility of existence at any given time. Prediction is also associated with the element of fear, with the search aimed at the present and the future, and with the productive imagination. So, in general, prediction is one of the possible manifestations of anticipation.