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Title: English category of voice and its linguistic features

Master student: Isayeva Svetlana

Supervisor: PhD. Eldar Shahgaldiyev

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Contents

Abstract

The main goal of this thesis is to help in understanding Voice influence on the reader that is reached by the use of a large quantity of various means. The category of Voice can appear in every utterance and in order to identify this category it is necessary to analyze the speech and understand how the different types of voice can impress the speaker`s voice dignity.

Each language has a certain set of tenses. In grammar, tense is a category that expresses time and are usually showed by the use of specific forms of verbs. Some languages have all 3 tenses (past, present and future), but some have only 2 (past and non past).

The problem of transfer of Voices from the original text in translation is one of the main and actual problems in this theory of translation and in practical activities of translators. The paper provides an overview on what are generally considered the most important lexica- grammatical problems of Voice translation and it is one of the theoretical frameworks of the thesis. Furthermore, the grammatical category 'ergative verbs' and its main features is described and discussed in a rather detailed way, with a separate focus on various attempts of classification of ergativity.

The findings of this thesis are based on the practical study in Voice and the results of our search are analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively that is the core of this thesis.

The theoretical framework of the thesis combines different description of passive voice constructions and analyze the voice translation in order to provide the translation of voice. The focus will be laid upon the use passive voice, occurrence and the alternative ways of translation of the passive voice sentences from English to Azerbaijani will be mentioned.

The actuality of this thesis is described by the problems related with a lexical construction of Voice. The problems of translation into different languages stay

unsolved and are regarded to be significant. The purpose of thesis is the main role of voice categories and the ways its translation into target translation and ergative verb translation.

The purpose and functions of the thesis is the analysis of the main categories of English voice, its construction and our purpose in this thesis is to investigate the nature of voice and types of ergative verbs and their meaning and examines of the theoretical discussions about voice translation.

Introduction

"Knowledge and thoughts are expressed both verbally and in writing. Human common attitude and sense demand making the task of finding cultural and literal correspondences because languages differ from one another. The use of language is not confined to its being the medium through which we communicate our ideas to one another; it fulfills a no less important function as an instrument of thought, not being merely its vehicle, but giving it wings for fight."[1]

"Nothing moves without translation and human experience is covered by three terms: emotions, techniques and thought. Emotions (fear, pain, etc) do not change in character like thoughts and techniques do ". The communication is the purpose of language. If communication fails, the language is useless. "The structure of any language is unique and if the language is simple it is easy to translate that language to another one. Words give us a panoramic view of the entire field of linguistics because they impinge on every aspect of any language structure. An understanding of the nature of words provides us with a key that opens the door to an understanding of important aspects of nature of language in general."[2]

Theme Actuality: Being the important element of any language system, the Voice is a sort of focus for the problems of lexicology, syntax, morphology, and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech and probably quite a few other branches of knowledge.

Thus, the role of verbals plays in our lives and various aspects they touch upon are important reason why studies the Voice never lose their actuality.

Object of Research: The notion 'Voice' plays the central role in this thesis. Thus the main object of study refers English Voices and its categories. Thesis also includes: study of Voice in translation, defining the voice as a linguistic unit, analyzing its structures, etc. The subject of our research of the thesis is Voice, its comparative

[1]George Roget. Thesaurus of English words and phrases, 2002, pp.,3-4.
[2]Katamba F. English words: structure, history and usage, London, 2005, p.,4.

analyses and the means of translation into different languages. We started from English Tense Forms, and subsequently, by observing phenomena and developing theoretical analyses of these phenomena, arrive at some corresponding theoretical notion. This master thesis presents major points of Voice theory and shows what constitutes the English Voice and its meanings. The dissertation reveals the nature of English Voice. As far as our purpose in this thesis is to investigate the nature of Voice and placing it within linguistics and its meanings we will try to establish the distinctions and disciplines between them. In the whole, our main purpose in this thesis is to provide an answer, or at least a partial answer, to the fundamental question "What is the category of Voice in English and its linguistic features?"

History of research: The number of translators who are experienced and have mastered the specific translation techniques is indeed small, but those who are involved in translation and consider themselves competent are more than enough.

Translation, despite its inter-linguistic communication significance in the world has always been considered, a secondhand art but it's more of an art and like many various genres of art it demands artistic ability and not given the prestige it deserves. There is nothing accidental about vocabulary of the language, that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them."[1]

It is very important to use the word which expresses the exact meaning you intend and you have to use the appropriate level of vocabulary. The definition of the word has been, for a long time, a major problem for linguistic theory because "there are some items in languages which speakers of those languages call 'words' but which are not covered by the definition. "[2]The simple word is sometimes better than fancy one. "All attempts to characterize the word are necessarily specific for each domain of science and therefore considered one-sided by the representatives of all

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[1]G.B. Antrushina, Lexicology, Moscow. 1999, pp.,6-7.
[2]Andreas Glombitza, Explaining the meaning of words.2007, p.,3.

the other domains and criticized for incompleteness."[1] If regular dictionary does not help you, use a thesaurus or a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms.

The object of the research of my thesis is examined to be different grammatical resources of the English language, linguistic views of the linguists and grammarians including various scholars in the sphere of the English grammar.

Purpose and functions of the thesis:

The purpose of the actual thesis is described is to be the analysis and research of the main peculiarities and categories of the English voice, its construction and its transformations into Azerbaijani language. As far as our purpose in this thesis is to investigate the nature of voice and its meaning, therefore we try to emphasize English voice. As a fundamental discipline of our researches this master thesis presents the main points of voice and examines theoretical discussions about voice translation. In the whole, we believe that it will provide an answer, or at least a partial answer, to the major question "What is the Voice and ergative verb?

The theoretical and methodological bases of thesis and its practical importance:

The aim of this thesis is defined the following tasks:

- Linguistic researching the English grammar in order to examine different linguistic approaches to regard the notion Voice its translation ways and ergative verbs.
- linguistic researching about the features of verbs and tenses and provide information about the differences between them.
- examining all the functions of the infinitive and ergativity in the English language.
- researching the means and ways of translation of the voice into the Azerbaijani language

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[1]Arnold. The English Word, Moscow. 1966, pp., 22-24.

The practical value of this thesis is that it can be used as a manual for the learners of the English grammar and can be useful to differentiate the voice categories and non-native speakers can get more information about the usage and transferring of the verbs in the English. While doing the current research, we make references to the various grammarians and scholars such as I. P. Krylova & E. M. Gordon, R. S. Ginzburg, M. Vince, M. Hewings, O. Ismayilzada, and others.

The present thesis consists of an introduction part, three main chapters, each of which includes two subchapters and a conclusion. First chapter presents the information about the Voice in English. Theoretical discussions and comparative analyses of Voice are also mentioned in this chapter.

Chapter 2 is dedicated to the ergative verbs and its types. In this chapter we provide the regards and opinions of different linguists and grammarians about the functions of ergativity from theoretical and practical aspects.

In the 3 chapter we examine the general problems of translation. This part describes the main peculiarities of passive voice sentences and lexical and grammatical problems of their translation.

Chapter 1

General information about voice category in English

Voice is the grammatical category of the verb denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of sentence. There are two main voices in English: the Active Voice and Passive Voice. There are also voices which embrace a very limited number of verbs: reflexive (wash oneself), reciprocal (embrace one another), medial (the book reads well).

The Active voice

The action is issues from the subject, thus the subject denotes the doer (agent) of the action: We help our friends. Biz dostlarımıza kömək edirik.

The Passive voice indicates that the action is directed towards the subject. Here the subject expresses a person or non-person who or which is the receiver of the action. It does not act, but is acted upon and therefore affected by the action of the verb. We were helped by our friends in our work. (Dostlarımız bizə işdə kömək etdilər) The difference in the meaning of the forms (helped - were helped, had asked - had been asked, saw – was seen) illustrates the morphological contrast between the active and the passive voice.

Voice is most closely related to the syntax of the sentence and the syntactical level of voice can be presented in the following way:

A sentence containing a verb in the passive voice is called a passive construction, and a sentence containing a verb in active voice is called an active construction, especially when opposed to the passive construction

The subject of an active construction indicates the agent (doer) of the action, which may be a living being, or any source of the action (a thing, a natural phenomenon, an abstract notion).

The subject of a passive construction has the meaning of the receiver of the action that is a person or non-person affected by the action. The object of an active construction denotes the receiver of the action, whereas the object of the passive construction is the agent of the action. The latter is introduced by the preposition by. If it is not the agent but the instrument, it is introduced by the preposition with. The vase was broken by Tom. It was broken with a hammer.

1.1 The category of Voice in English

"So far as its grammatical meaning is concerned, the subject is the agent of the action expressed by the predicate that it acts. This definition can be applied to many cases without any special reservations.

Example: 'I deny that, ' said Brad. We know you've been cheating us. Why have you done this? I went to her and she bowed her head slowly on my shoulder. Emmy was living then in a hostel for women students. Then she moved into her little flat. Harold who had been opening his letters now bore down on the conservation.   There are cases when, owing to the lexical character of the verb the subject of the active construction cannot be regarded as the doer of the action. Thus in the following examples the subject is rather a sufferer, a victim than the doer of the action.

Example: Each time a man is confronted with women`s lack of reserve he suffers a new shock.

"Why cannot you leave me alone?" she cried "I have lost everything that made life lovely to me."

He chanced soon after his arrival to go to a party. He broke out into a sweat.

It is possible to say that in the above cases there is a discrepancy between the grammatical form, which is active, and the lexical meaning of the verb.

If the main verb of an English sentence is in the past time, all subordinate verbs also must be in the past time:

Nelly says he is an American

Nelly said he was in America"[1]

With some poly-semantic verbs, depending on their respective meaning, the subject of the active construction is sometimes the agent (a) and sometimes the sufferer, the victim of the action (b).

A-The maid who opened the door asked me to go in Mr. Loren`s study.	B-The door opened and Mr. Smith appeared bearing the tea tray.
She led Basil up a step, down a step and into a dining room.	Some steps led down to the water.
You took good care to burn the letter.	The lamp still burnt dimly and all was as before
When she came back he noticed that she had changed her dress.	Mike thought their expression changed when she saw him
He was reading the paper and she was playing patience.	She handed a telegram to me. It read as follows: `For God`s sake await letter.`
She drew the curtains and handed him his letters and the papers.	I like a cigar that is mild, but full-flavored, rolled so that it draws without consciousness of effort on your part.

In the sentences under (a) there is no discrepancy between the form and the meaning of the verb: it is active voice and the subject is the agent of the action. In the sentences under (b) verb form is active but it has passive meaning. In these examples the verbs under (a) are used in their transitive meaning, while the ones under (b) are intransitive.

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[1]Robert J. Dixon. Second booking in English..p.,36.

Moreover, the same discrepancy between form and meaning may be found when the verb is transitive in both cases.

Example: a) He burnt the paper. He broke a branch.

 b) He burnt his finger. He broke his leg.

Despite the difference in meaning, all the above examples must be recognized as the Active Voice since the form of the verb is active: grammatically the subject is represented as active because it is the agent of the action expressed by the predicate verb.

"The passive voice is understood in this manual as the form of the verb expressing either actions (as in "She was loved and respected by all those who knew her") or states resulting from previously accomplished actions. (as in "All is settled")"[1]

The Passive Voice serves to show that the subject of the sentence is not the agent but rather the object. The subject in the passive construction does not act but is acted upon: it undergoes an action.

Example: The aesthetic emotions are excited more readily by natural than by artificial objects.

She was taken from her sleep by his impossible singing at an impossible late hour.

I was brought up like that. They were received with great frankness and charm.

His years of waiting had been haunted by one fear. The object of his ecstasies well knew that she was being praised.

Unlike the Active voice, the Passive is, on the whole, uniform in meaning. We can but seldom trace a discrepancy between form ad meanings in the Passive. Yet the following sentences the subject can hardly be interpreted as an object undergoing the action denoted by the predicate verb.

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[1] Б.Л. Каушанская, Сборник Упражнений по грамматике Английского языка.р.,224.

Example: I went off to sleep without knowing it, into a dream in which I was riding in the Fiat with her and suddenly I was lost in the wild open country.

A smile came on her uncle's lips and was reflected on the magistrates.

After my mother was drowned, our place was mortgaged and Jack Holland bought it. "Well, professor, continued Sir Lawrence when they were seated," what do you think of London?

That evening a part of us was gathered in the salon discussing the day's events with feverish animation.

The same is true of such set phrases as No love was lost between them or It was lost sight of.

Note: That means that the definition of the passive voice is best interpreted in a purely grammatical sense, like the definition of the active voice.

The types of passive constructions

English is rich in various types of passive constructions. In most cases the Passive Voice is formed from transitive verbs, so the subject of the passive construction corresponds to the direct object of the verb. This type of Passive may be called the direct passive or the primary passive.

It should be noted that the direct (primary) passive is part of two widely used specific constructions.

It forms the basis of the construction which is traditionally known as the nominative with infinitive.

e. g. She is said to be a first- class teacher.

Some of those old brick houses were said to have lovely rooms.

The children, as usual, were busy doing all the things they had been told not to do.

The enemy were somewhere beyond the farther hills.

They were expected to appear late that afternoon.

Now the half- moon was considered to be the most beautiful thing in the dry season, so they had to wait.

I was not allowed to chat.

He was not known to be in this part of the world, and it was a great surprise when he turned up on this occasion.

I am supposed to know something about science.

The audience is request to laugh softly and not to applaud.

The new Sports Pavilion was both criticized and admired. It was admitted to

Be a fine building, but naturally everybody would have liked to improve its design in one way or another.

b) The construction with the so-called anticipatory it may also contain the passive of verbs denoting speech, mental and physical perception, suggestion, order, request and decision, such as to say, to announce, to report, to rumor, to explain, to think , to know, to believe, to understand , to expect, to feel, to notice, to observe, to suggest, to propose, to require, to demand, to request, to recommend, to decide, to agree, to determine, to arrange and the like. The passive construction is followed by a clause introduced, as a rule, by the conjunction that.

Example: It was explained that Ambrose was unaccountably absent from duty that morning. It is said that she encouraged you and that later she turned you down. It is said that she encouraged you that later she turned you down.

Indeed, it was observed that she was philosophic, more careful, and sweeter than she had been for many years. It was known that he would not tolerate invasion.

It was agreed beforehand that she should have the first shot. It was arranged that Maurice should have a room. It was felt that the final seal of approval had been set on the afternoon's entertainment.

"The verbals are regarded in most grammars as forms of the verb because they have certain features in common with the finite forms. But at the same time they have their own peculiarities which distinguish them from the finite forms and, owing to those peculiarities they are usually considered in special chapters.

Verbals, like the finite forms can be used in the active and in the passive. Accordingly, their subject may be either the doer (agent) of the action expressed by the verbal or may undergo this action, be acted upon, so to speak.

Example:

Passive Voice	Active Voice
I am seen by Tom	Tom sees me
You will be struck by Tom	Tom will strike you
It was stolen by Tom	Tom stole it
We were carried by Tom	Tom carried us
They have been chosen by Tom	Tom has chosen them

Theagent and patient switch grammatical roles between active and passive voices so that in passive the patient is the subject, and the agent is noted in an optional prepositional phrase using by, Example:

Active: I heard the music. Passive: The music was heard.(by me)

The passive form of the verb is formed by replacing the verb with to be in the same tense and aspect, and appending the past participle of the original verb. "[1]

Tense	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Present	I hear the music	The music is heard by me

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[1]УюЬю Пщквщт *ЕруУтпдшыр мукифды*б Шю Кю Лрылова Международные отношения ю1973юзю10

Present Progressive	I`m hearing the music	The music is being heard by me
Past Progressive	I was hearing the music	The music was being heard by me
Past Perfect	I had heard the music	The music had been heard by me
Simple Future	I will hear the music	The music will be heard by me

This pattern continues through all the composite tenses as well. "The semantic effect of the change from active to passive is the depersonalization of an action. It is also occasionally used to mention the direct object of a sentence, or when the agent is either unknown or unimportant. Example:

The plane was shot down. Dozens were killed. Fred was run over by a bus.

The Use of Tense Forms in the Passive Voice- is not exactly parallel to that in the Active. This is explained, on the have, by lexical reasons, namely, by the lexical character of the verbs which may be durative or terminative; on the other hand, it is affected by grammatical reasons, i.e. the lack of certain tense forms in the Passive.

According to Kobrina the active voice of the infinitive indicates that the action is directed from the subject (either expressed or implied), the passive infinitive indicates that the action is directed to the subject"[1]

With the Indefinite forms it is important to differentiate between durative and terminative verbs. As for durative verbs, their use in the Active and the Passive is parallel, that is the same rules hold good as described in "The Use of Tense-Aspect Forms". Example: Consequently the pub is much used by solid business men and Town Hall officials, who like to drink without women.

Are you wanted by the police? You need not be afraid of telling me.

We all know how you are run after in London.

You are clever man; you don't believe all the claptrap that is talked nowadays.

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[1]Кобрина Н.А., Корнеева Е.А *Грамматика английского языка. Морфология Синтаксис*) р.,115.

They still cannot forgive him, as some of the comments on his death have shown. But his place in history is secure. He will be remembered long after his detractors have been forgotten.

She had telephoned to know where the meeting would be held.

While Dr Hewlett Johnson, "The Red Dean", was alive he was loved by millions and hated by a handful.

At Brixton Gaol Mr. Rampoke enjoyed many privileges that were not accorded to common criminals.

They were tolerated now as one of the troubles of the time.

In English, as in many other languages, the passive voice is the form of a transitive verb whose grammatical subject serves as the patient. The passive voice is typically contrasted with the active voice, which is the form of a transitive verb whose subject serves as the agent, performing the action of the verb. The subject of a verb corresponds to the object. Thus passive voice is periphrastic; it does not have a one-word form.

Passive voice is used in any number of tenses.

Canonical passives

Passive constructions have a range of meanings and uses. The canonical use is to map a clause with a direct object to a corresponding clause where the direct object has become the subject. For example:

John throws the ball. (Simple present tense, active voice)

John threw the ball. (Simple past tense, active voice)

John will throw the ball. (Future tense, active voice)

John has thrown the ball. (Present perfect tense, active voice)

Here, in the second case, threw is a transitive verb with John as its subject and the ball as its direct object. If we recast the verb in the passive voice (was thrown), then the ball becomes the subject (it is promoted to subject position) and John disappears:

The ball is thrown. (Simple present tense, passive voice)

The ball was thrown. (Simple past tense, passive voice)

The ball will be thrown. (Future tense, passive voice)

The ball has been thrown. (Present perfect tense, passive voice)

The original subject can typically be re-inserted using the preposition by:

The ball is thrown by John. The ball was thrown by John. The ball will be thrown by John. The ball has been thrown by John.

Promotion of other objects

One non-canonical use of passive is to promote an object other than a direct object. It is usually possible in English to promote indirect objects as well. Example:

Tom gave Molly a book. Molly was given a book.

In this sentence gave is the verb in active form; Tom is its subject, Molly is object, and a book is an object; in the passive form, the indirect object has been promoted and the direct object has been left in place. They talked about the novel. (The novel was talked about.)

Indeed, in some sense it does not have an object, since the novel is actually the subject. When the doer of the active infinitive is not indicated, both forms of the infinitive may be used but, they are different in meaning.

There was nothing to do. There was nothing to be done. There was nothing to see.

There was nothing to be seen."[1]

Promotion of content clauses

It is possible to promote a content clause that serves as a direct object. However, it typically does not change its position in the sentence, and an expletiveit takes the normal subject position:

They say that he left. (It is said that he left).

Stative passives

The passives described so far have all been dynamic passives. There exist also stative passives; they describe the result of an action. English does not usually distinguish between the two. Example:

The rule was broken.

This sentence has two meanings, roughly the following:

Mike broke (violated) the rule.

The rule was in the broken (dysfunctional) state.

The former meaning represents the canonical, eventive passive; the latter, the stative passive. (The terms eventive and stative or resultative refer to the tendencies of these forms to describe events and resultant states, respectively. The terms can be misleading, however, as the canonical passive of a stative verb is not a stative passive, even though it describes a state.)

Some verbs do not form stative passives. In some cases, this is because distinct adjectives exist for this purpose, such as with the verb open:

The door was opened. Emmy opened the door.

The door was open. The door was in the open state.

[1]Jespersen. O. *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles* , Copenhagen,1940. pp., 221-230.

Adjectival passives

Adjectival passives are not true passives; they occur when a participial adjective (an adjective derived from a participle) is used predicatively. For example:

He was relieved to find her car undamaged.

Here, relieved is an ordinary adjective, though it derives from the past participle of relieve. In some cases, the line between an adjectival passive and a stative passive may be unclear.

Passives without active counterparts

In a few cases, passive constructions retain all the sense of the passive voice, but do not have immediate active counterparts. Example:

He was rumored to be a war veteran. - Paul rumored him to be a war veteran.

(The asterisk here denotes an ungrammatical construction.) Similarly:

It was rumored that he was a war veteran. -Paul rumored that he was a war veteran.

In both of these examples, the active counterpart was once possible, but has fallen out of use.

Double passives

It is possible for a verb in the passive voice to take an infinitive complement that is also in the passive voice.

The project is expected to be completed in the next year.

Commonly, either or both verbs may be moved into the active voice:

Julie expects the project to be completed in the next year.

Simon is expected to complete the project in the next year.

Loren expects Greg to complete the project in the next year.

"Gerunds always function as nouns. Certain verbs in English are always followed by gerunds rather than by infinitives. Some of these verbs are: enjoy, mind, stop, avoid, consider, appreciate, admit, finish, deny, risk and dislike.

We enjoy swimming in the lake.

Do you mind waiting in the hall?"[1]

   In some cases, a similar construction may occur with a verb that is not object-raising in the active voice:

The project will be attempted to be completed in the next year. Fred will attempt the project to be completed in the next year. –Fred will attempt to complete the project in the next year.

   "A correspondent states as his own usage, and defends, the insertion of an adverb between the sign of the infinitive mood and the verb. He gives as an instance, "to scientifically illustrate." But surely this is a practice entirely unknown to English speakers and writers. It seems to me, that we ever regard the infinitive as inseparable from its verb. And when we have already a choice between two forms of expression, "scientifically to illustrate," and "to illustrate scientifically," there seems no good reason for flying in the face of common usage."[2]

(The question mark here denotes a questionably-grammatical construction.) In this example, the object of the infinitive has been promoted to the subject of the main verb, and both the infinitive and the main verb have been moved to the passive voice. The American Heritage Book of English Usage declares this unacceptable, but it is nonetheless attested in a variety of contexts.

A past participle alone usually carries passive force; the form of be can therefore be omitted in certain circumstances, such as newspaper headlines and reduced relative clauses:

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[1] Robert J. Dixson Second booking English . 1980.p.,63.
[2] Crystal, David The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language,p.,228.

Couple found slain; Murder-suicide suspected.

The problem, unless dealt with, will only get worse.

A person struck by lightning has a high chance of survival.

With get as the auxiliary

While the ordinary passive construction uses the auxiliary be, using get in its place can sometimes achieve the same effect:

Jamie got hit with the stone.

This use of get is fairly restricted. First of all, it is fairly colloquial; be is used in news reports, formal writing, and so on. Second, it typically only forms eventive passives of eventive verbs. The most common uses of get in the passive are, in order: get married, get paid, get involved, and get caught.

Gerunds and nominalization

Gerunds are formed by adding – ing to a simple verb.

Smoke-smoking, read- reading

Gerund Clause:"On entering the hall, he kissed her on the cheek."[1]

In English, the passive voice is a periphrastic construction, i .e. it is modeled using an ad hoc phrase structure with a different word-order, an auxiliary verb and a participle of the main verb. In a passive voice sentence, the subject and the object switch places. The direct object is promoted to subject, and the subject is demoted to a complement.

1.2 Comparative analyses of translation in English and Azerbaijani

In English, the passive voice is formed by combining the past participle of a verb together with one of the auxiliary verbs is or has. For example, consider the

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1http://www.ccsenet.org/ canadian center of science, journal Canadian publication site.

two sentences, "Susan is helped," and "Susan was helped." In both of them, the subject is Susan. The action is expressed by either "is helped" or "was helped". In both of those phrases, "helped," the past participle of "to help," describes the action. The inflection of "to be" expresses when the action occurs.

There is one situation where the passive will always be popular in any country: when creating deliberate vagueness. Many people find it far more appealing to write the second of these two sentences:

People made mistakes. Mistakes were made.

The passive voice is very often found in academic and journalistic writings. The passive voice is also used to avoid blame. For example, "He was hurt, "instead of "Someone hurt him." In law as well as subjects such as chemistry, passive voice is the norm rather than a sign of deception.

The present dissertation represents a research in the field of the theory of grammar and semantics. As the title suggests, it is devoted to the category of voice in the Modern English language as both a grammatical and a semantic category and the means of its expression.

The concept of voice includes the variety of means used to render it on different levels of linguistics, i.e. the grammatical and lexical ones and the combination of both. The grammatical means of expressing voice in English is the passive form of the verb "to be+ Participle II"; in the active voice the verb is not grammatically marked. The other voices, i.e. reflexive and reciprocal ones, do not possess a verb in a special form either.

Other means of expressing the category of voice as lexical ones are the parts of speech derived from the verb. They denote the meanings of active, passive, reflexive and reciprocal voices depending on the meaning and valance of the verb they are formed from. These are the adjective, the adverb and the noun. The meaning of voice rendered by them differs from that expressed by the verb because

the adjective, the adverb and the noun contain other categorical meaningful seems that refer to them as belonging to a certain part of speech besides those of voice. This fact does not permit us to include them into the center of the functional-semantic field of voice. The adverb can denote only active, passive and reciprocal voices in comparison with the noun and adjective.

No minor part is played by the context which has a decisive role in determining the meaning of the noun, because one and the same noun can be both active and passive outside it. The preposition is different from the other parts of speech concerning voice because it can only intensify the passive or reciprocal (agreement between) meaning of a noun or an adjective and emphasizes the passive meaning of participle II in an elliptical passive sentence.

The verb is the main means of expressing voice in a language because it renders the category under discussion grammatically. There is a group of verbs called ergative that copy the classical way of transforming the active voice sentence into a passive one by changing the object of the active sentence into the subject of the middle voice sentence, the "form" of the verb remaining active and bearing a passive meaning. These verbs give the English a shadow of ergativity, which implies no differences between the case of the subject and that of the object.

The active voice has no special means of formation. It is recognized by contrast with the passive voice, which is composed of the auxiliary verb to be and participle II. Thus the passive verb forms are analytical; the tense of the auxiliary verb to be varies according to the sense. The notional verb (participle II) remains unchanged and provides the form with passive meaning. The active voice has no special means of formation and it is recognized by contrast with the passive voice, which is composed of the auxiliary verb to be and participle II. The category of voice applies to the whole system of English verb forms, both finite and non-finite.

The active voice is widely used with all kinds of verbs, both transitive and intransitive. The meaning of the active voice depends on the type of verb and the syntactical pattern of the sentence.

The category of voice applies to the whole system of English verb forms, both finite and non-finite. The voice forms of the verb.

1. The active voice of transitive verbs presents an action as directed from the subject and passing over to the object that is from the doer of the action to its receiver.

Oscar made a boat for his brother.

They are building a new railway.

We are talking about the new film.

One of the characteristic features of English is that verbs which were originally intransitive may function as transitive verbs without changing their morphological structure, with or without changing their lexical meaning.

Weran is in the distance in four minutes. Kelly will run your house. Jessica stood the lamp on the table.

2. The active voice of intransitive verbs shows that the action, directed from the subject, does not pass over to any object, and thus the verb only characterizes the subject as the doer of the action.

He came here yesterday. The boy can run very fast. You acted wisely. He slept eight hours.

3. The form of the active voice of some transitive verbs, often accompanied by an adverbial modifier, does not indicate that the subject denotes the doer of the action. This specific use of the transitive verb is easily recognized from the meaning of the subject, which is a noun denoting a non-person, and by the absence of a direct

object after a mono-transitive, non-prepositional verb. In such cases the verb is used in the medial voice.

The bell rang. The door opened. The newspaper sells well.

Verbs in the passive voice may acquire almost all the aspect, tense and perfect form that occur in the active voice, except for the future continuous and perfect continuous forms. Passive voice in different aspect, tense and perfect forms;

Common aspect, non-perfect

Students are examined twice a year.

They were examined in June.

They will be examined next Friday.

Continuous aspect, non-perfect

Don't be noisy! Students are being examined.

The students were being examined when the professor came.

Common aspect, perfect

Our students have already been examined.

They had been examined by 2 o'clock. Everybody will have been examined by 3 o'clock.

The difference between Active and Passive Voice is as the terms are defined, Example: in Active Voice the subject is performing or doing an action, thus the term doer. In Active Voice the subject is actively involved in the action. But in Passive Voice the doer is no longer the subject, and the subject is no longer participating in any action, but rather, the action is being done to the subject and the subject is now the receiver. In this voice, the sentence wants to emphasize the action and not who is doing the action.

If consider all of the skills involved in learning a language: there is listening, speaking, reading, and writing, two are active and two are passive. Speaking and writing are skills that require action while listening and reading require little or no action and that's why they are passive skills. Example: The man is reading the newspaper. (Active Voice – The subject is reading.) The newspaper is being read by the man. (Passive voice – The subject in this sentence is not doing anything, but it is receiver of the action).

The sentences that have a subject, a verb, and an object can be converted into Passive Voice. There are many verbs that have no object. Some examples:

The child is crying. (No object) The students are going to the library. (No object)

They can only be written in active voice. Verbs that do not have an object are called intransitive verbs. When you look a verb up in a dictionary, you will see an "i" after the verb. If there is an object in the sentence, it can be written in Passive Voice. Some examples of sentences with an object are:

The girl bought a journal. (Active voice)

The journal was bought by the girl. (Passive Voice)

The above sentences can be written in both Active and Passive Voice because there is an object in the Active voice, in this case, the journal. Verbs that have an object are called transitive verbs. When you look a verb up in a dictionary to determine if a verb can be in either Active or Passive Voice or both, you will see a "t" after the verb.

Active voice is preferred voice in English, because it is shorter and more direct. Passive Voice uses longer sentences and is used frequently in formal writing. There are several reasons to use Passive Voice;

1. When the subject or doer of the action is not known.

Example: The paper was left on my desk.My wallet was stolen.The alarm was rung.

2. When the focus has to be about the receiver and not the agent

Example: The telephone was discovered by Alexander Graham Bell. The bill was paid by the client.

3. When the subject is obvious or represents a large group and doesn't need to be stated.The test was given.The suspect was arrested. Rice is grown in China.

4. When the doer of the action is known but does not want to be mentioned because it might be something wrong. Example: The top of the deck was ruined. The window was broken.

5. When are writing an essay or assignment and you want to vary the voice in your writing to avoid monotony

Contemporary American audiences and language instructors prefer sentences written in the active voice. Sentences written in this way have value clarity, brevity, and action.

Voice in English Writing

Languages have from formal to informal levels. The using of the levels depends on the purpose, the audiences, and the situation and generally, the written English form is more formal than spoken English form. However, writers use less personal pronouns and less colloquial language in the written form.

Furthermore, when writing, the writers need to choose the voice and in writing, voice is defined as the writer's personality and attitude toward the topic are revealed to the audience. For instance, a writer writes a letter to a friend is different with the one writes a letter to a teacher. Since the writers use their voices to express their expression in the writing form, the choice of voices is very important. There are two voices are discussed in this section: active voice and passive voice.

Active and Passive Voice Sentences

In English, as we already know there are active and the passive voice. Voice refers to the arrangement of the subject and object in a sentence along with the change in the tense in the clause.

Modern English is an SVO order language, i.e. Subject+ Verb+(direct)Object. The example of the following arrangement of the subject and object is the active voice order. Example: The student finished the exercise.

In the passive voice the subject of the active voice and the active voice direct object (receiver) interchange their relative position in the clause. Thus, the order becomes: Object+ Verb+ by Subject

Example: The exercise was finished by the student.

However, not every active sentence in English can be transformed into corresponding passive form. There are two rules which are required to make this transformation. They are:

1. Only transitive verbs can be made passive, since it has to have a direct object to make it into passive

2. Linking verbs cannot be transformed for a passive clause

Intransitive Verbs:

"An intransitive verb denotes a state without any reference to an object;

The sun is melting (transitive) the snow,

But -The snow is melting (intransitive)"[1]

The Structural Difference

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[1]George O. Curme *Principles Practice of English Grammar*.p.,2.

The difference between active and passive is in how many noun phrases in the sentence that are not introduced with the use of a preposition. Compare the following sentences:

He dropped the ball. The ball was dropped by him.

The woman offered the butler a reward. The butler was offered a reward by the woman.

The sentence has two or three noun phrases that do not require a prepositional phrase in the active voice in the active voice and these are the subject, the direct object and indirect object. He dropped the ball (he is the subject; the ball is the direct object.)

The woman offered the butler a reward. (The woman is the subject. the butler is the indirect object and a reward is the direct object.)

The sentence has one less noun phrase than the corresponding active in passive voice and the subject is removed and can only appear in an optional prepositional phrase. The object is promoted to subject. In intransitive verbs only the indirect object is promoted to subject.

The ball was dropped by him. (The ball is now the subject. he shows up in an optional by-phrase.)

The Butler was offered a reward by the woman. (The butler is now the subject. There is only one object: a reward. So, the man shows up in an optional by-phrase.)

In English, the passive has three characteristics. An auxiliary verb, generally be but also get or become. The past participle of the verb (usually add -ed)

The object of the active version of the sentence is the subject and the subject of the active version is either not present or in a prepositional phrase with by. Example:

Passive: Mom`s antique vase was broken by Abby.

The Timber boys were defeated by the Miami boys

Active: Abby broke mom's antique vase.

Miami boys beat the Timber boys.

"The active and passive versions of sentences are not always synonymous. Although many style books rail against the passive, it can be quite useful for shifting the point of view as well as aiding narrative flow.

Active; John wrote the letter

Passive; the letter was written by Damon. The letter was written"[1]

1.3 Theoretical discussions about middle voice in English

Many writing guides do not recommend the use of passive voice in English, however Strunk and White do. As we already know, there is a third voice in English, that related to classical Middle voice. In this kind of sentences, the patient becomes the subject like in passive, but the verb still remains in active voice and no agent can be supplied. Generally an adverbial modifies the whole construction. Example: She does not frighten easily. This apple pie slices poorly. Her novels sell well.

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[1] Robert J. Dixson Second booking English.p.,54.

Chapter 2

Ergative verbs

The term "grammar" can also be used to represent the rules that direct the linguistic behavior of speakers. Accordingly, the term "English grammar" may receive several meanings. It may denote the entire English grammar; it means the grammar that is used by all the speakers of the English language. In this case, the term expresses many type of variation. As a matter of fact, the term may denote only what is typical to the grammars of all, or of the majority of the English speakers.

At first we analyze research of the general peculiarities of the infinitive and its forms, functions of the Infinitive and its double nature and investigate the features of the bare infinitive and split infinite in the English language. During research, we have analyzed that infinitive has two forms passive and active. The infinitive expresses time as well. But the finite forms of the verbs in general states time in an absolute form. That means the finite verbs express an action to the present tense, past tense and future tense. In the English language the infinitive has two grammatical categories: Aspect and Voice

The split infinitive and bare infinitive have been observed accordingly. The split infinitive and the bare infinitive are also defined the forms of the infinitive.

Infinitive has noun functions as well as verb functions. As a noun it may be used as subject, object and predicative. This is considered as double nature. Infinitive also receives the characteristics of modality. Infinitive may occur in the function of predicate, parenthesis, verb adjunct, noun adjunct, adjective adjunct and etc. Infinitive has always been of great importance in the English grammar. Majority of grammarians and scholars have made researches and observations in this field. Thus, infinitive, its forms and functions have always been of the main subjects in linguistics analysis.

2.1 General information about English verbs.

The verbs are words, just like other parts of speech; therefore they can be divided into various kinds.

Morphological division

Regular verbs; Irregular verbs;   Compound verbs; Phrasal verbs;

According to the meaning of verbs we can separate them into semantic division (action, being, having). We can classify verbs in 3 ways.

Syntactically (according to the role of verbs in a sentence)

Morphologically (based on their formation)

Semantically (their meaning)

According to syntax we can divide the following division and sub-divisions.

Finite verbs

Transitive; Intransitive; Linking verbs;

Non-infinite verbs (Verbals)

Infinitives; Gerunds; Participles (present, past, perfect)

Helping verbs (Auxiliaries)

Primary auxiliaries; Modal Auxiliaries;

English traditional grammars distinguish sixteen tense forms which fall under four different classes; Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect and Perfect continuous, each embracing four tenses, but not every grammarian find this system satisfactory. If tense is to be defined as the linguistic expression of time, i.e. as the form of verb which serves to denote time relation existing in reality, only three forms can be

recognized in English as tense forms, namely the Present Indefinite, the Past Indefinite and the Future Indefinite.

Infinitive constructions have a special role and function in a sentence. Besides, they have also specific intonation. Their linguistic features include their existence in the language and usage by speakers, especially the preference of their usage in the speech by speakers, no matter whether it is a native speaker or a foreigner.

According to Gordon and Krylova "If there are two or more infinitives in the same function following each other, the particle to is normally used before the first one and need not be repeated before the others." [1]

Example: "The girl thought the world of the things her friend Lillian could do- she was said, for instance, to dance and skate very well, and at one time she had fenced."[2]

"The supporters of this standpoint assert that English has two aspects which they term as the Common (Generic) aspect and The Continuous (Temporary) aspect.

Infinitive Clause; He wondered why he had forsaken to study human culture in the first place."[3]

"The Infinitive as an adverbial modifier of result depends on adjectives or adverbs modified by the adverbs 'too'' and ''enough'' and also by "so"+ an adjective, "such"+ a noun with the conjunction "as".

Let us transform the above-given sentences into the result clause:

I was too busy so that I couldn't see anyone.

Kevin was so weak that she was unable to work.

e) of comparison (manner); than, as if , as though.

Kate knew better than to rely on her.

d) of attendant circumstances.

Tom was driven away, never to revisit this neighborhood.

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[1]Krylova, I. P. & Gordon, E. M.*A Grammar of present-day English practical course*., p 185

[2] Bowen, Elizabeth *The Death of the Heart* .p., 218.

[3]Catforrd J.C. A linguistic Theory of Translation..p.,14.

8) Pparenthesis:

Example: to tell frankly, it's interesting for us to know.

To tell the truth, I've never been here before."[1]

The problem of the perfect forms present more difficulty but the indefinite forms are regarded as they refer an action to a definite point of time- present, the past or future. According to this viewpoint, perfect forms do not refer an action to any definite point time, but express priority with regard to the moment of speaking (the present perfect), to a definite moment in the past (the past perfect) or the future (future perfect).The perfect forms are treated as relative tense and we find the terms "secondary tenses" for the perfect forms in some grammars. The future-in-the Past is also believed to be a relative tense since this form serves to denote an action which is future from the viewpoint of a past moment.

According to other authors the perfect forms are not as expressions of tense but as aspect forms. Their opinions differ, however, as to the nature of that aspect: some scholars assign resultative meaning to the present forms, other- the meaning of completion, still others -retro-spectiveness.

According to Thomson "in theory to is required in the last example but in practice it is often omitted. The theory is that if dare and used are treated as auxiliaries, they take the bare infinitive like most auxiliaries. If they are treated as ordinary verbs, with do/did etc., they take the full infinitive like ordinary verbs." [2]

An infinitive can be represented by to alone to avoid repetition. This is chiefly done after such verbs as hate, hope, intend, would like/ love, make (passive), mean, plan, try, want, after the auxiliaries have, need, ought, and with used to, be able to and to be going to form:

Would you like to come with me? Yes, I'd love to.

Did you get a ticket? No, I tried to, but there weren't any left.

Why did you take a taxi? I had to (take one). I was late.

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[2] Thomson, Audrey Jean, A.V. Martinet A Practical English Grammar, 1986., p.212.

Do you ride? Not now but I used to.

He wanted to go but he wasn't able to.

Have you fed the dog?No, but I am just going to. [1]

"The verbals are regarded in most grammars as forms of the verb because they have certain features in common with the finite forms. But at the same time they have their own peculiarities which distinguish them from the finite forms and, owing to those peculiarities they are usually considered in special chapters."[2]

"Verbals, like the finite forms can be used in the active and in the passive. Accordingly, their subject may be either the doer (agent) of the action expressed by the verbal or may undergo this action, be acted upon, so to speak.

E.M. Gordon states that "the action expressed by the verbals may be simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate verb (a), may precede (b) or follow it (c)." [3]

As above noted, the Infinitive is used a non-finite form of the verb and it has a double nature. Ganshina and Vasilevskaya stated that "Although the infinitive was primarily a verbal noun, in the course of its development it has acquired some characteristics of the verb and is at present intermediate between verb and noun." [4]

2.2 Types of ergative verbs

An ergative verb is a verb that may be either transitive or intransitive, and whose subject when it is intransitive plays the same semantic role as its direct object when it is transitive. For example, fly is an ergative verb, such that the following sentences are roughly synonymous:

The airplane flew.

The airplane was flown.

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[1] Audrey Jean Thomson, A.V. Martinet. A Practical English Grammar, USA, 2001.p., 212.

[2] Krylova .Международные отношения .p.,10.

[3] Krylova, I. P. & Gordon, E. M *A Grammar of present day English practical course.* p.,171.

[4] Ganshina, A. &Vasilevskaya, N. M. *English grammar* Moscow: 1964, p.,223.

Ted flew the airplane.

One major difference is that the intransitive construction does not permit an agent to be mentioned, and indeed can imply that no agent is present, that the subject is performing the action on itself. For this reason, the intransitive construction of an ergative verb is often said to be in a middle voice, between active and passive, or in a medio-passive voice, between active and passive but closer to passive.

Reflexive verbs

A reflexive verb is a transitive verb one of whose objects is a reflexive pronoun (myself, yourself, etc.). In some languages, reflexive verbs are a special class of verbs with special semantics and syntax, but in English, they typically represent ordinary uses of transitive verbs. For example, with the verb see:

He sees her as a writer.

She sees herself as a writer.

Nonetheless, sometimes English reflexive verbs have a passive sense, expressing an agent less action. Consider the verb solve, as in the following sentences:

He solved the problem.

The problem solved itself.

One could not say that the problem truly solved anything; rather, what is meant is that the problem was solved without anyone is solving it.

"Auxiliary verbs -are often used in English in order to avoid the unnecessary repletion of verbs or verb phrases. Notice the following examples where auxiliary verbs are used alone with too. Notice also that parts of the sentence are affirmative".

In English, the passive voice is formed by combining the Past participle of a verb together with one of the auxiliary verbs is or has. For example, consider the

two sentences, "Susan is helped," and "Susan was helped." In both of them, the subject is Susan. The action is expressed by either "is helped" or "was helped". In both of those phrases, "helped," the past participle of "to help," describes the action. The inflection of "to be" expresses when the action occurs.

Some people consider it bad practice to use the passive voice in English, because it obscures the subject. This is a difference in approach between the United Kingdom and the USA. In the UK, passive voice is more commonly used, while in the USA, people prefer to use the active voice. Formal and business communications often use passive voice more often than in everyday speech, though educators and readability experts especially dislike the use of passive voice.

There is one situation where the passive will always be popular in any country: when creating deliberate vagueness. Many people find it far more appealing to write the second of these two sentences:

People made mistakes. Mistakes were made.

The passive voice is very often found in academic and journalistic writings. The passive voice is also used to avoid blame. For example, "He was hurt, "instead of "Someone hurt him." In law as well as subjects such as chemistry, passive voice is the norm rather than a sign of deception.

The concept of voice includes the variety of means used to render it on different levels of linguistics, i.e. the grammatical and lexical ones and the combination of both. The grammatical means of expressing voice in English is the passive form of the verb "to be+ Participle II"; in the active voice the verb is not grammatically marked. The other voices, i.e. reflexive and reciprocal ones, do not possess a verb in a special form either.

Other means of expressing the category of voice as lexical ones are the parts of speech derived from the verb. They denote the meanings of active, passive, reflexive and reciprocal voices depending on the meaning and valance of the verb

they are formed from. These are the adjective, the adverb and the noun. The meaning of voice rendered by them differs from that expressed by the verb because the adjective, the adverb and the noun contain other categorical meaningful seems that refer to them as belonging to a certain part of speech besides those of voice. This fact does not permit us to include them into the center of the functional-semantic field of voice. The adverb can denote only active, passive and reciprocal voices in comparison with the noun and adjective.

No minor part is played by the context which has a decisive role in determining the meaning of the noun, because one and the same noun can be both active and passive outside it. The preposition is different from the other parts of speech concerning voice because it can only intensify the passive or reciprocal meaning of a noun or an adjective and emphasizes the passive meaning of participle II in an elliptical passive sentence.

2.3 Linguistic discussions about the nature of ergative verbs

The verb is the main means of expressing voice in a language because it renders the category under discussion grammatically. There is a group of verbs called ergative that copy the classical way of transforming the active voice sentence into a passive one by changing the object of the active sentence into the subject of the middle voice sentence, the "form" of the verb remaining active and bearing a passive meaning. These verbs give the English a shadow of ergativity, which implies no differences between the case of the subject and that of the object.

The difference between Active and Passive Voice is as the terms are defined, Example: in active voice the subject is performing or doing an action, thus the term doer. In active Voice the subject is actively involved in the action. But in Passive Voice the doer is no longer the subject, and the subject is no longer participating in any action, but rather, the action is being done to the subject and the subject is now the receiver. In this voice, the sentence wants to emphasize the action and not who is doing the action.

If you consider all of the skills involved in learning a language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, two are active and two are passive. Speaking and writing are skills that require action while listening and reading require little or no action and that's why they are passive skills. Example: The man is reading the newspaper. (Active Voice – The subject is reading.) The newspaper is being read by the man. (Passive Voice – The subject in this sentence is not doing anything, but it is receiver of the action).

The sentences that have a subject, a verb, and an object can be converted into Passive Voice. There are many verbs that have no object. Some examples:

The child is crying. (No object)

The students are going to the library. (No object)

They can only be written in Active Voice. Verbs that do not have an object are called intransitive verbs. When you look a verb up in a dictionary, you will see an "i" after the verb. If there is an object in the sentence, it can be written in Passive Voice. Some examples of sentences with an object are:

The girl bought a journal. (Active voice)

The journal was bought by the girl. (Passive voice)

The above sentences can be written in both active and passive Voice because there is an object in the Active Voice, in this case, the journal. Verbs that have an object are called transitive verbs. When you look a verb up in a dictionary to determine if a verb can be in either Active or Passive Voice or both, you will see a "t" after the verb.

Voice in English Writing

Languages have from formal to informal levels. The using of the levels depends on the purpose, the audiences, and the situation and generally, the written English

form is more formal than spoken English form. However, writers use less personal pronouns and less colloquial language in the written form.

"In English, when we talk about subject of a verb, we generally think about a person who does the action.

Example: Pony ran. Emmy ate the apple.

But, sometimes the grammatical subject is not the person who does the verb.

(The window opened, the butter melted) In these sentences, the action is done by not the subject. This kind of verb is called ergative verb. Sometimes it is confusing, because it is difficult to differ it from passive verbs, but in the sentences (the window opened), (the butter melted) there are active sentences and verbs are intransitive.

Here some more examples:

The kid broke the glass (active)

The glass was broken by the kid (passive)

The glass broke (ergative)

The sun is melting the butter (active)

The butter is being melted by the sun (passive)

The butter is melting (ergative)"[1]

In some cases, it is necessarily to use an ergative verb than passive one, because some verbs can also be confusing and sometimes it is easy to use then in passive by mistake.

The light melted the cheese.

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[1]Lyons. Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics. 1968. p.,352.

There is a standard subject, a transitive verb and a direct object in this sentence. The cheese melted, but in this sentence the subject was the object of original sentence, because the cheese did not melt itself it needed the heat of the light. This shows us the use of ergative verb, where the subject of the intransitive verb is the object of the transitive verb.

There are some explanations about ergative and middle voice. There is at least a pedagogical need for a term involving English verb, like fire and open, which appear with both agentive and non-agentive subjects. The term that is generally used by linguists for the syntactic relationship that holds between (The stone moved and The John moved the stone) is by Stoney. But middle voice is actually one of the old grammatical terms that borrowed from Greek and indicates a specific conjugation in Greek, Sanskrit.

An ergative verb has 2 patterns and only one of them has a noun group following the verb. The verb or thing indicated by that noun is also indicated by the subject of the other pattern.

The government increased salaries. (Active voice)

Salaries were increased by the government. (Passive voice)

Salaries increased. (Middle voice)

Here some sentences used ergatively.

Miles boiled the water- The water boiled.

The pilot landed the plane- The plane landed.

The kid broke the toy- The toy broke.

The government closed the bank- The bank closed.

There are some other verbs that are commonly used in some way.

Attach, abort, back up, bake, bleed, boil, break, burn, calm down, change, clarify, close, connect, cook, count, dampen, decrease, deform, download, drain, drive, drop, drill, dry, duplicate, eat, end, erase, empty, fail, fall, fly, freeze, grow, graduate, hang, hurt, land, lock, melt, move, open, play, pop, raise, rest, reboot, run, roll, sail, sell, separate, smash, stop, split, sweep, tire, toast, wave, worry

The driver stopped the bus.

A big bus stopped.

I am cooking lasagna.

The spaghetti is cooking.

He sailed his yacht round the world.

The yacht sailed on Sunday.

Some verbs can be used in both ways, but need an adverbial when they are used without an object. (Polish, sell, wash, freeze, clean)

She sells journals.
This journal is selling well.

Reflexive verbs

Singular- (myself, yourself, himself, itself)
Plural – (ourselves, yourselves, themselves)
I am teaching myself to play the guitar.
Be careful with razor, you can hurt yourself.

Generally ergative verbs are both transitive and intransitive.
Molly closed the window. N+V+N transitive
The window closed. N+V (intransitive)
Ergative verbs can be divided into few categories.

Verbs that express a change of state (heal, tear, melt), cooking (bake, cook, boil), movement (walk, move, turn) and verbs implying vehicles (sail, fly, drive)

A particularly odd English ergative verb is -graduate: he graduated school and school graduated him mean the same thing, although the latter usage has passed out of vogue. With the latter usage, the verb is ergative, but with the former, the verb is non-ergative.

English does show a trace of something that could be regarded as ergativity and with an intransitive verb, adding the suffix -ee to the verb produces a label for the person performing the action:

Meg has retired.- Meg is a retiree.

Meg has escaped- Meg is an escapee.

Meg is standing- Meg is a standee.

However, with a transitive verb, adding -ee does not produce a label for the person doing the action. Instead, it gives us a label for the person to whom the action is done:

Mike employs Simon.- Simon is an employee.

Mike has inducted Simon.-Simon is an inductee.

Mike has appointed Simon.-Simon is an appointee.

unusual in having an almost fully ergative system.

There is by Kim telephoned (i. e. A telephone call by Kim has been received).

Ergative verbs

An ergative verb is a verb that may be either transitive or intransitive, and whose subject when it is intransitive plays the same semantic role as its direct object when it is transitive. For example, fly is an ergative verb, such that the following sentences are roughly synonymous:

The airplane flew. The airplane was flown. Ted flew the airplane.

One major difference is that the intransitive construction does not permit an agent to be mentioned, and indeed can imply that no agent is present, that the subject is performing the action on itself. For this reason, the intransitive construction of an ergative verb is often said to be in a middle voice, between active and passive, or in a medio-passive voice, between active and passive but closer to passive.

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One could not say that the problem truly solved anything; rather, what is meant is that the problem was solved without anyone is solving it.

"Auxiliary verbs -are often used in English in order to avoid the unnecessary repletion of verbs or verb phrases. Notice the following examples where auxiliary verbs are used alone with too. Notice also that parts of the sentence are affirmative.

Tommy went to the movies and I went to the movies.

Tommy went to the movies and I did too.

I like Mexico and Mary likes Mexico.

I like Mexico and Mary does too."[1]

Ergative languages usually do not have a passive voice, since their syntactic structure does not agree with it; instead some have an anti-passive voice that deletes the object of transitive verbs.

Chapter 3

Problems of Translation with Passive voice

"Without translation, our world would

narrow mercilessly" (Chute, 1978)

The first traces of translation data from 3000 BC, during the Egyptian, in the area of the First Cataract where inscriptions in two languages have been found. It became a significant factor in the West in 300 BC, when the Romans took over wholesale many elements of Greek culture. The situation favored the two essential conditions for large scale translation (Storig, 1963) when the Moorish supremacy collapsed in Spain, the Toledo school of translators translated Arabic versions of Greek scientific and philosophical classics. Bible translation by Luther in 1522 laid the foundations of modern German and the Bible (1611) had a seminal influence on English. Significant periods of translation preceded Shakespeare and his contemporaries, French classicism and the Romantic Movements. The twenties century has been called the 'Age of translation' or 'reproduction'.

3.1 Translation of Passive voice sentences in English

"Translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods. The theory demonstrates the possible translation procedures and the various arguments. Translation is concerned with choices and decisions, not with

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[1] Robert J. Dixon Second booking English .Regents.1980.p.76

the mechanics of either the SL or the TL."[1]When Catford gives a list of words that are grammatically singular in one language and plural in another, he may be not contributing to translation theory."Translation theory attempts to be useful, to assist translator both by stimulating to write better and to suggest points of agreement on common translation problems. The translation theory alternates between the smallest detail, significance (translation) of dashes and hyphens, and the most abstract them."[2]

Let's look at the practical problems. First task of translator is to understand the text, often to analyze, or at least make some generalizations about his text before he selects an appropriate translation method.

The intention of a text. 'Personnel management of multinational companies' this is an article written in innocuous internationalist style and here the defensive style speaks for itself. Thus the translator has to be faithful to the author and bear the intention of the original in mind throughout his work. Achilles Fang: 'You may say that they did not go the right way about their business, but you must know that is equally the fault of times' and "You may blame them for their misguided intelligence, yet you will have to agree with me that their obscurity was due to a lack of opportunity."[3]Fang presents the major points of translation, showing that the first thing the translator is concerned with, appear more clearly in the second sentence.

The intention of translator: Here translation trying to ensure that the translation has the same emotional and persuasive charge as the original and addressing a different uninformed reader affects in the same way as the original.

The reader and setting of the text: The translator tries to define the reader: their education, class, age, sex and informed or ignorant, layman or expert. Finding out the answer to all of this help the translator to decide on the degree of formality

[1]Catforrd J.C. A linguistic Theory of Translation. Oxford University Press. 1965.pp.,3-4.
[2]Barthgate R. A Studies of Translation. New York, 1982, p.,21.
[3]Achilles Fang. Interpreting Values Cross-culturally. Bern. 1979.,p.,45.

(official, administrative, formal, informal, colloquial, slang), emotiveness (intense, warm, neutral, cool, impassive, factual) and simplicity (universally comprehensible, media level, graduate level, fairly technical, opaquely technical). The translator finds it useful to distinguish between texts that are dramatic or narrative ('verb' emphasis) and those that are static or descriptive (nouns, noun-compounds, adjectives, adverbs).

The quality of writing and authority of the text: If the text is well written the translator has to regard every nuance of the meaning of the author (if it is subtle and difficult).The main functions of language are the expressive, the descriptive or informative and the vocative or directive or persuasive, the minor functions; phatic, metalingual and aesthetic. All texts have the expressive, the informative and the vocative function. In the sentence 'I miss you' show something about the transmitter of utterance, the depth of feelings and expressing manner that gives us a piece of straight information and try to produce a certain effect (action, emotion, reflection) upon the reader. The translation theorist then applies the following criteria to the translation of each text category: language bias (SL or TL); focus (author, reader or 'content'); type of language (figurative, factual or persuasive); unit of translation (short, long); loss of meaning (large, small, nil); purpose of translation (to convince or to inform). For sure there may be other criteria and on the basis of it the theorist decides to translate 'communicatively' or 'semantically'.

The minor functions of language are diverse. The translator used to keep the reader happy or in touch by phrases such as of course, naturally, as is well known, it need hardly be mentioned, interesting to note, important, etc. The metalingual function has peculiar problems that non-institutional words used in SL which do not exist in the TL and have to be transferred or monosemized.

The aesthetic function: This function is also intimately connected, identical with the expressive function. "The translator has to weigh the claims of meaning against form in any significant form or abstract work"[1]

The translator have to select an appropriate of course it is the main concern, always bearing in mind that "standardized languages, technical term, terms of art, the set of language of institutions, procedures, games, phatic language, etc. must be translated by the equivalent TL standard term, of course if one exists. "[2]

Two methods of translation that are appropriate to any text: communicative and semantic. The translator attempts to produce the same effect on TL readers by communicative translation. The notion of communicative and semantic translation is based on the distinction between free and literal translation. The translator must operate the techniques and undertake compromises. There is basic difference between communicative and semantic is based on message and meaning, reader and author, utterance and thought processes, like or as and how, per formative and constative. The translator must define whether the whole or a part of the text is straight (means what it says), ironical (slightly or entirely opposite in meaning), or nonsensical. Then he has to decide which of general meaning he has to take. These are the linguistic, the referential, the subjective, the force or intention of the utterance, the performative, the inferential, the cultural, the code meaning, the connotative, the pragmatic and the semiotic.

Linguistics, in the modern sense of the word, did not exist in Great Britain 25 years ago except perhaps at J. R. Firth's SOAS (School of Oriental and African Studies) of the University of London. Apparently subordinate to a practical exercise. In a sense it is at third remove. Those who can, write; those who cannot, translate; those who cannot translate, write about translation."[3] However, Goethe and a host of

[1]Loewen Jacob A. Culture, Meaning and Translation. Bratslava., 1964. p.,46.
[2]Deibler, Ellis W. Comparative cost ructions in Translation. New York,1966. p., 12.
[3]Catford, J. C. A Linguistic Theory of Translation.p., 27.

respectable writers who wrote well, translated well and wrote well about translation are an obvious disproof of this adapted Shavianism.

Translation theory's present standing is not yet secure. To begin with, 'everyone' has views about translation; many have written about it, few have written books about it. "Such topics as lexical and grammatical ambiguity, the translation of poetry, technical translation, synonymy, the translation of plays, the history of translation, the influence on culture is hardly touched on. Other subjects such as the unit of translation, translation equivalence, translation invariance, detailed schemes for assessing translation, I regard as dead dicks- either too theoretical or too arbitrary."[1] The translation theorist with certain particular problems: metaphor, synonyms; proper names; institutional and cultural terms, grammatical, lexical and referential ambiguity, cliché, quotations; cultural focus, overlap and distance, idiolect; neologism, poetry; jargon, the categories of key terms. The problem of the units of translation is one of the complicated issues in the theory of translation.

Lastly, "the translator has to consider cultural, universal and personal elements in the metaphor, and whether communicative or semantic translation is to be used. C. Brook-Rose's distinction between metaphor and symbol combined with literal meaning has to be respected in the sense that the latter, if seriously conceived, may have to be culturally adapted."[2]

In fact, while the position is nothing like so simple, the principle stands that unless a single object's or a person's name already has as accepted translation it should not be translated but must be adhered to, unless the name is used as a metaphor. If the name, becomes commonly used, it may be modified in pronunciation and spelling; but nowadays, when people have become as jealous of their names as of their national and linguistic independence, this is not likely.

Where sovereigns had 'translatable' the names, together with titles were and are still usually mutually translated in the main European countries. However,

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[1]Barnwell, Katherine. Towards acceptable translation. Bern, 1974. p.,8.
[2]Rose, Marilyn Gaddis. Translation spectrum. Albany, NY. Press. 1981.p.,19.

surnames have usually been preserved, but the surnames, first names and appellative names, have been 'naturalized'. In belles-lettres, names are normally translated only if, as in some plays, the characters and milieu are naturalized. While surnames in fiction often have deliberate connotations though sound and meaning, the translator should explain the connotation in glossary and leave the names intact. Proper names in fairy stories, folk tales and the children's literature are often translated, on the ground that children and fairies are the same the world over. The names of heroes of folk tales are not translated if they represent national qualities.

However, the English reader, both layman and expert, is entitled to assistance with obsolete institutional words. A scholarly book might handle them in a glossary when the terms can be explained in details. Translators of historical terms have to be careful both to transcribe and explain terms such as parliament and intendant; are translated owing to their 'transparency'; the 'Popular Front 'is usually translated because of its transparency as well as its international applications.

Names for clothing, vehicles, dishes, art forms may temporarily become vogue – words, but when the vogue is over they become historical terms. At various times, foreign visitors have felt that certain words were peculiar to the character of a foreign culture, and have imported the words into their own language, often keeping the reference to the foreign culture.

"Normally a translator can treat cultural terms more freely than institutional terms. He is not called to account for faulty decisions, whether he is translating imaginative literature or general works, since little can be explained to the spectator, cultural terms are rather more likely to be translated or given a cultural equivalent in a play than in fiction."[1] But generally the most favored procedure for a recently noted term peculiar to a foreign culture is likely to be transcription,

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[1]Loewen, Jacobs A. Culture, Meaning and Translation.p.,23.

coupled with discreet explanation within the text. If the text becomes widespread it may be adopted in the TL.

Collocation is concerned with how words go together, which words may occur in constructions with which other words. "Some words occur together often, other words may occur together occasionally, and some combinations of words are not likely to occur. Knowing which words go together is an important part of understanding the meaning of a text and combination would be nonsense; that is, it would not make sense because it is often outside of reality."[1] In English, we do not say the cat's wings, but we often say the bird's wings. Only in a fantasy with a flying cat might cat's wings be considered good English.

The word collocate means to put side by side. Combinations of words will differ from language to language. For example, in English, the verb have collocates with the word dream. We say I had a dream. Rather, one would say I saw (in) a dream. Person learning a second language often makes mistakes because he collocates words together in their first language, but do not go together in the language they are learning.

In English, we say he has trouble or he suffers trouble, other languages may say he sees trouble or he drinks trouble. The meaning is the same, but different words are combined to indicate the meaning.

As a rule, while translating sentences of more or less complicated structure various types of grammatical and lexical factors make the translation on word level impossible and its application is brought to minimum.

As a rule, when translating a sentence only a part of words find their direct equivalents in the TL, translation of the rest of the sentence or wholly translated on word level. Generally such a sentence is very simple and elementary by its structure. For example: OSCE proposal is an endeavor to create an atmosphere

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[1]Austin J. L. How to do things with words. Cambridge, 1962.,p.16.

which will lead to further negotiations between the former allies and between the two German Governments.

One must not think that only set phrase may be the units of translation on the level of word combination. The units of translation are free word combinations. The meanings of such free word combinations in the SL wholly and completely depend on the sum of meanings of the words of which they are formed.

If this is characteristic of the source language, but not of the receptor language, the translator should not retain the doublet, but use the natural quotation openers and closers of the receptor language. The meaning of the doublet is to be translated faithfully, using whatever form is most natural in the receptor language. There may be no direct equivalent in the receptor language, but there may be a lexical item with an exact opposite meaning and by negative this, the desired meaning may be obtained. We have already used the example of bad being translated into Aguaruna only by pegkegchau 'not good'.

The use of a reciprocal lexical item as an equivalent is another possibility which is discussed above. For example, Max gave me the hat and I received the hat from Max would be reciprocal equivalents. The translator needs to be open to the possibility that this will be the best lexical equivalent in some situations. However, the reciprocal may have a different connotation meaning, a different collocational range, or a change of focus. For example, in changing to the reciprocal, the grammatical form is often changed from active to passive. However, passive may have a special function not intended in the source text.

As has been pointed out repeatedly above, concepts are grouped together under a generic label in different languages. In English, we have only one word for banana which is used for all varieties. In some Amerindian languages, there are a dozen of more specific names and there may or may not be a generic term. Because of the mismatch in generic terminology between languages, there may be times in translation when a lexical equivalent which is more specific can be used. Since

languages vary greatly in generic vocabulary, but are more alike in specific vocabulary, it will be easier to find a specific equivalent. There may be no generic equivalent for the source language generic word. For example, the word miracle is a generic term in the sense that it refers to a variety of miraculous action-healing, calming a storm, exorcism, and so forth. Where there is an accepted collocation in the source language, the translator must find and use its equivalents in the TL.

"Paradigmatic collocations may be based on well-established hierarchies such as kinship (fathers and sons), colors (emerald is a bright green), scientific taxonomies and institutional hierarchies where the elements of the culture for each language often have their own distinct linguistic likeness, although the extra-linguistic object may be the same. Alternatively they may consist of the various synonyms and antonyms that permeate all languages."[1]

In any fussy or obscured syntactical structure, the translator's lob is to find the underlying (deep) structure. In my opinion, the most useful procedure is to discover the logical subject first, then its specific verb, and let the rest fall into place.

"All non-literary passages, most sentences, are partly external reality; partly sense, partly reference; partly pragmatics, partly semantics; partly stylistics, partly cognition. Most sentences carry a deal of lexical and grammatical ambiguity, which may be linguistic or referential; hopefully all this ambiguity will be cleared up by the micro-and the translator has to determine whether it is referential or linguistic or between the two extremes."[2] A referential ambiguity must always be retained and pointed out, if it cannot be cleared up by an expert. "A linguistic ambiguity may enrich a text as both meanings may be intended, and the translator should attempt to reproduce the ambiguity, but if he is unable to do so, he normally translates one of the meanings and lets the other go. Whilst lexical ambiguities are more common, grammatical ambiguities arise, when the point of stress in a clause

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[1]Crystal, David G. Current Trends in Translation. Oxford University Press, 1976. p.,44.
[2]Catford, J. C. A Linguistic theory of translation. p.,24.

or one does not know 'what goes with what."[1] The translator is continuously made award of the functional and structural nature of language, which appears to him is the common dynamic-functional simile of a game of chess and the static-structural simile of a crossword puzzle.

For the translator, the language is a code which he is well never breaks, a system he cannot wholly grasp, because it is lexically infinite. Never was the inadequacy of language to designate extra-linguistic reality shown up more clearly than in one remark: "All this evidence! But one picture would be worth a thousand words." It means "bütün bu sübutlar! Amma bir şəkil min sözə dəyər".

"The translator has to quality and of the writing in the source language text. The common translator's distinction between literary and non-literary texts, assuming that the importance of the first lies in its formal elements and of the second in its factual content, and therefore that the first must be translated closely and the second freely, is mistaken."[2]"The translator is, however, entitled treat the formal components of a badly written text, whether popular or technical, with considerable freedom, since by replacing clumsy with elegant syntactic structures, by removing redundant or repetitive items, by educating the cliché and the vogue – word to a plainer statement, by clarifying the emphasis and tightening up the sentence, he is attempting to give the text's semantic content its full value."[3] Nevertheless, the translator is often at risk in declaring a text sins against the fraudulent canons of simplicity, clarity, and brevity may indeed be well written if it expresses the author's personality without distorting his message; it is only badly designed to make its own irrelevant but 'with it 'impression. Normally, the translator should translate within his own idiolect or his conception of the SL text author's, always provided the text appears to be written naturally. As a matter of fact, any unit of the language level may be regarded as a unit of translation.

[1]Ivir, Valdimir. Social Aspects of Translation. New York, 1975. p.,17.
[2]Fox, David G. How Intelligible is a Literal Translation. New York, 1959. p.,48.
[3]Barnwell, Katherine. Towards Acceptable Translation. Bern, 1974. p.,26.

The translator who tries to translate literally will change the grammatical forms when the constructions are obligatory. We expect greetings to have varying forms, but realize the forms used to express the meaning that a person, who is the speaker, possesses money. English uses 'I have money' Japanese and Latin use forms which literally say to me there is money. Arabic and Russian use forms which literally say with me there is money. Azerbaijani and Turkish say my money exists. Translators don't have problems with common expressions but when they move into unfamiliar material there is a tendency for choices of lexical and grammatical forms in TL and the result will be forms which sound strange and foreign to TL speakers. Unless the SL and the TL are closely related languages, from the same language family, and the nature of language is that each language uses different forms and they have complicated secondary and figurative meanings. "Literal language is a word for word translation which follows closely the form of the SL and is useful if you studying the structure of source text, but a literal translation does not correspond the meaning of the source text."[1]

3.2 Lexica- grammatical problems in translation of passive sentences.

During the period 1940-1970 only a few linguistic articles or books of significance appeared in the United States devoted to universal properties of words. The article published in the 1970's by Halle brought a renewed interest in the word and rediscovered the need for morphological component in the grammar of a language. Since these studies of words represented different interests and goals, the renewed interest did not lead toward the construction of a lexical theory.

"The term 'Lexicology' was not even to be found in 1990 in most dictionaries and in grammar books, after a period of long neglect the field of lexicology has recently been rediscovered and attracted the attention of larger number of scholars."[2] However, "lexicology must not be confused with lexicography, the writing or compilation of dictionaries, which is special technique rather than a

[1]Fox. David G. How Intelligible is a Literal Translation. p.,48.
[2]Leonid Lipka, English Lexicology: lexical structure and word formation, 2002.p.,21.

level of language study. Lexicography is a practical application of lexicology so that the dictionary maker is inevitable guided in his work by the principles laid down by lexicologist as a result of his investigations."[1]

In Modern English the root may be described as a part of word which remains after removal of all function and derivational affixes and do not admit any further analysis. In the form untouchables, Example: the root is touch, other derivational affixes being un, able and s. Thus "roots are the basic constituent part of words without which the word is inconceivable in modern English."[2]

First let us look at the characteristics of meaning components. In most languages there is a meaning component of plurality as English's'. This is often occurs in the grammar as suffix on the nouns or verbs or both. However, "traditional grammars saw the study of words and their relations as absolutely central to an understanding of workings of language."[3]

"The study of single words reveals many facts about the development of their form, thus we find English words certain features, which present clearly that the words have been built up of simpler elements by a process of affregation or combination."[4]

Second, "it is characteristic of languages that the same meaning component will occur in several surface structure lexical items. Like the word sheep in English. However, questions that are still providing difficulties today were asked by scholars in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries and in many ways present day knowledge shows little advance on Panini's."[5]

Third, it is further characteristic of languages that one form will be used to represent several alternative meanings. This again is obvious from looking in any good dictionary and most words have more than meaning. First will be a primary

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[1]Howard Jackson, Words, meaning and vocabulary, Cromwell.2000.p.,2.
[2]Ginsburg, R.S. A course in Modern English Lexicology, Moscow.1979.p.,92.
[3]Stephen R. Anderson, A morphous morphology, 1992.p.,2.
[4]J.B. Greenough, G.I. Kittredge. Words and their ways in English Speech. New York.1901.p.,168.
[5]Laurie Bauer, English word formation, Cambridge University Press. 1983.p.,22.

meaning; the one which usually comes to mind immediately and secondary meaning; additional meanings that a word has in context with other words. In English we can say the boy runs using run in its primary meaning. But we can also say the motor runs, the river runs, his nose runs using run in secondary senses, with different meanings. One more example; the English possessive phrase my house may mean the house I live in, the house I built or the house for which I drew up the plans. Only the larger context determines the meaning.

Literal translations of words, idioms, figures of speech, etc., end in unclear, unnatural and sometimes nonsensical translations. The translator usually adjusts the translation enough to avoid wrong meanings and the unnaturalness still remains in a modified literal translation. Thus literal translators often resist very complicated problems. The translators break grammatical rules and create entirely new words, translating characters' names especially when they reflect aspects of their personality. For example Harry Porter series, with characters such as Mad-Eye Moody, or Tom Maryolo Riddle that is an anagram of I am Lord Voldemort. This is why literal translation is very tricky because you have to translate things that are beyond meaning and you have to translate certain impressions and feelings that writer could create with a single word and you have to find words equal to that in TL.

Idiomatic translations use natural forms of the TL, both in the grammatical construction and the choice of lexical items. The good translator tries to translate idiomatically and this is his honorable goal. However, translations are often a mixture of literal transfer of the meaning of the text; because it is not easy consistently translate idiomatically. Sometimes the translator express some parts of the translation in natural form and then in other parts fall back into a literal form.

Lexicology has both a morphological and a semantic dimension; both may be regarded from a diachronic or a synchronic point of view. The same holds for syntax, which is considered with larger linguistic units. It may be thought at first sight that "phonology does not interact with lexicology in any significant manner.

But close analysis will reveal that, in many cases, the difference between two identical lexical items can be reduced to a difference at the level of phonology"[1]

"The distinction between semantic and communicative translation, which a behaviorists might well deny, shows how closely translation theory relates not only to the philosophy of language, but even to philosophy in an older sense of the term, when it meant perhaps interpretation of the meaning of life. Thus an affirmative attitude to translation would perhaps stem from a belief in rationalism, in the communicability and renewal of common experience, in innate human nature and even in natural law."[2]

Normally, one assumes that a semantic translation is a briefer and more literal than a communicative translation. This is usually, but not always, so. If the original is rich in metaphor, has simultaneously abstract as well as a physical meanings and is concerned with say religion, ritual magic, witchcraft or other domains of discourse which have covert categories, a prose categories, a prose translation explanatory power (the interpretation must be within the translation, not follow it) is likely to be longer than the original. It has to reproduce the full meaning of the original, not simply one of its functions.

Semantic translation is sometimes both linguistic and encyclopedic, whilst communicative translation is strictly functional. Adam`s rib, as was pointed out, has always been inadequate translation.

If we are to use, semantic translation for works of philosophy, religion, anthropology, even politics, in texts where the manner and the matter are fused, which are therefore well written, then the translation must be more explicit and usually fuller than for works of literature, particularly poetry. "In poetry symbol is retained or transferred; in anthropology, it is retained and explained within the text."[3]The translation is the interpretation and therefore, the full meaning must be

[1]Howard Jackson, Words, meaning and vocabulary, Cromwell.2000.p.,2.
[2]Fox. David G. How Intelligible is a Literal translation.p.,7.
[3]Anderson H., Stephen R. The Role of Deep Structure of Semantic Interpretation. London.1971.p.,14.

in the text, not in a string notes. A sentence such as Mary was a virgin mother must be explicit in accordance with precisely what the translator believes the writer to have intended, normally retaining both literal and the symbolical (figurative) interpretation.

"In many societies teenagers develop a special vocabulary which they use when talking to one another. Although understood by the adults around them, this special vocabulary would not be use by the adults. Also, in any group, there will be vocabulary which is still understood by most of population but only used by the older people, since the words are no longer part of the vocabulary used by the majority. It is , of course, obvious that the translator will want to avoid vocabulary which is age specific and use the vocabulary which is understood by majority of the people without any age connotation, unless the source text author intend to show age by the choice in the original."[1]

The translation was described as the process of studying the lexicon, the grammatical structure and the communication situation of the SL text, analyzing it in order to determine the meaning and then reconstruction this same meaning using the neutral forms of the TL. "The translator is constantly looking for lexical equivalents between the SL and the TL. However, as discussed previously, this is sometimes a very complicated process."[2]

The fact that the TL is spoken by people of a culture which is often very different from the culture of those who speak the SL will automatically make it difficult to find lexical equivalents.

Other words are partly evaluative and partly informative (perceptive, stupid, pigs (police), star, judicious, etc.)

The lexicon of the two languages will not match. This mismatch will make necessary for the translation. Languages will group semantic components together

[1]Crystal, David. G, Current Trends in Translation.p.,44.
[2]Anderson H., Stephen R. The Role of Deep Structure of Semantic Interpretation..p.,36.

in a great variety of ways. This makes a literal, one-for-one equivalence of lexical items impossible. Also, the translator is looking for the most natural an accurate way to express the meaning. Therefore, the form of the translation may be quite different from the form of the source text, even when the concepts are shared between the two languages. As pointed out before, even though most of the concepts which occur in a particular text are also found in the TL, they are expressed in different ways. There is an extensive core of meaning components which are shared between languages. But, even when the same concepts do occur, the way in which they are expressed in two languages is often very different.

As already discussed, language combine meaning components differently and meaning components are divided and grouped differently in one language than in another. There is usually complete mismatch between the secondary senses and figurative senses of lexical items between languages. An idea may be expressed from a different perspective; that is, figuratively in one language and not in another or positively in one and negatively in another. In light of the tremendous diversity in the lexicon of various languages, how is it possible for a translator to choose the best lexical equivalent for the translation?

First of all, it is essential that the translator accept the fact that a single SL word may be translated by one word or by a number of words in the TL and that what are several words in the source text will sometimes be translated by a single word. Often the SL words will be translated by a completely different set of words. That is, the translator must not expect that there will be a literal equivalence. There will be times when words will match between the two languages. This is most often true when a SL word is being used in its primary senses and the TL is likely to have an equivalent word with that same primary sense. Even when dealing with primary senses there is not always complete matching.

The translator should remember that `how many ideas and what combination of ideas may be combined into one word is a language specific feature that only occasionally correspond between unrelated languages`. It should be remember that

languages differ 1) as to the number and selection of meaning components combined in a word, and 2) as to the semantic interrelationship that may exist between words. The translator should not expect concepts to be represented the same way in the TL as they are in the SL text being translated. Since the lexical structures of the two languages are different, the way the concepts are expressed will be different. Finding equivalent translations for money terms is often difficult. For example, nickel is a coin worth five cents. It is translated into Azerbaijani as `nikel beş sent dəyərində qəpik puldur`It is not hard to restate the meaning using words of the same system. The complications come when these need to be equated to words from another money system. The problem is, of course, that to be sure of an exact equivalence. The alternative is to borrow the lexical form from the SL, but this would mean almost nothing to the reader of the TL in many cases. In some cases, even though a specific coin is named, the value is not in focus. The name in the SL could be kept. When the value of the money is in focus and it is important to include this, it is sometimes possible to equate the value in the TL by talking in terms of so many days, wages or some other reference will make the value relatively clear. In this case, a descriptive phrase clarifies the amount.

Equivalents involving synonyms, antonyms and reciprocal lexical items were discussed. Two languages often do not have a matching of synonyms related to a given concept. For example, English has a number of terms such as goodness, holiness, righteousness and virtue, but Aguaruna has only one word, pegkeg, which would be the best equivalent for any of these synonyms. On the other hand, if one were translating Aguaruna into English, one would need to evaluate each context of pegkeg to decide which of the synonyms would be the best choice in English. The choice will depend on the meaning of synonyms. There may well be restrictions of the collocation which will need to be considered in choosing among the synonyms. Also, as mentioned above, the connotation of synonyms are distinct and need to be taken into consideration. The words policeman and cop are synonyms, but cannot be used interchangeably in most contexts.

The problems of semantics have often been assigned to the dictionary."[1]It is also very common to find synonymous words or expressions used together as doublets. A doublet consists of two near synonymous words or phrases which occur as a unit, for example, spots and blemishes, holy and righteous, and strangers and foreigners. The SL needs to be that the use doublets is simply for stylistic reason, it will not always be possible or stylistically appropriate to keep both.

It is clear that the aim of translation is not to give a precise reproduction of the grammatical forms but is to convey the sense of original where SL and TL expressions do not coincide at all. Grammatical forms perform an important character when they play a certain stylistic function, Example: brevity that the translators have to seek for analogical means in the TL in order to achieve adequacy. Thus, discoincidence in the structure of SL and TL requires grammatical and lexical transformation category of one language is absent in the other, Example:., the use of number category do not always coincide. Though identical in some cases the grammatical phenomena of any languages connected and conditioned by the laws of development differ mostly from those of other languages which evoke certain difficulties in translation process both in the morphology and syntax fields. One reveals those cases of partial correspondence when the given grammatical categories exist in both languages, but they correspond not in all forms, Example: the English participle, there is no perfect from in Azerbaijani and no participle of intransitive verbs in English. Despite the differences in formal and semantic system of two languages, equivalency in translation requires a number of transformations, in order to convey the information contained in the source text to the target as completely as possible. The grammatical transformations are;

1. Transposition; 2. Replacement; 3.Addition; 4. Omission;

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[1]Matthews, Morphology: The theory of word structure, Cambridge, 1991. p.,2.

The four types of transformation are seldom matched in practice in a pure form, they often function together assuming the forms of complicated and complex transformations.

1. Transposition: is an extensional replacement of the elements of the SL in the text of the TL, such as words, word combinations, clauses and independent sentences. The most ordinary case of transposition is inversion of the word order, as we know English word is determined by the subject that is followed by the predicate which is also followed by the object, then adverbial modifier and so on.

2. Replacement: is an extended type of transformation. Any language unit may be replaced by other in the translation process. There grammatical (nouns, tenses, verbs) and lexical (words and phrases) replacements. Generally we have three types of lexical replacement; concretization, generalization and replacement of case by effect or vice-versa.

3. Addition: The most case of addition is formal absence of semantic components in word combinations in the SL, Example:., I began the bookthe appropriate word may be either to read, if the broad context is about the reader, or to write if we speak about an author. As one the same deep structure of a sentence may have different surface structure in different languages, Example:., the new American Secretary of State has proposed a world conference on food supplies. The word to call (çağırmaq), which is a componentof deep structure of the word combination, has proposed a world conference is omitted, and we translate the sentence into Azerbaijani like this; Amerikanın dövlət katibi ərzaq ehtiyyatları ilə bağlı iclas çağırılmasını təklif etdi.

4.Omission: It is quite contrary to Addition. The system of any language enable the translators to omit texts that contains redundant elements in the process of translation.

The translator is always have to break a sentence into several in order to achieve adequacy in translation, that is called breaking up of sentences or disconnection.

Sometimes the translator connects two simple sentences into one complex or the complex sentence turns into simple. Joining up of sentences in translation is rare that their breaking up. The reasons of joining up sentences are probably the same as in breaking them up. In english texts we meet grammatically incomplete sentences, for example, as those that begin with the conjunction or and nor and they are nor peculiar to many written speech and therefore we use the method of joining up of sentences.

A sentence is characterized not only by its formal grammatical structure, but also by its communacative aim. These components form the informational structure of the sentence even outside of the context.For example, the logical center of separately taken sentence in English is at the end of the sentence, Example: I met the man in India, it was me who met the man in India.

Translation of English constructions without direct correspondences in TL, we mainly refer absolute causative constractions. By translation of a construction we mean the choice of those grammatical and lexical means. To recognize an absolute construction in a concrete context does not present special difficulty. For example , in Bernand Show`s play It is bad, but truethere is such phrase : Do you expect me to sleep with you in the room? In isolation it may be understood euther like this: Do you expect me to sleep with you- in the room? or Do you expect me to sleep - with you in the room? This is said by a young lady who is ill.She says it as answer to the advice of the thief to sleep and not bother her by paying attention to him. Naturally, here the author does not mean where the lady will sleep-in the room or somewhere else. Therefore it would have been a mistake not to note the absolute construction and translate it literally as: siz istəyirsiniz mən sizinlə bir otaqda yatım? The right translation would be: Siz istəyirsiniz mən siz burada olarkən bu otaqda yatım? It is not always possible to define exactly the function of the absolute construction in the sentence.

  Generally translators worry about English tense forms. But if you stop 100 native English speakers in the street and ask them about tense, only one of them may give

you an intelligent answer, of course if you are lucky. Other 99 will know little about terms like `past perfect` or `present continuous`, and they will know nothing about aspect, voice or mood. However, they can speak fluent English and communicate effectively. Of course, grammar helps you to know about tenses, but do not become obsessed with them and be like those native speakers. Speak naturally!

Grammatical tense is a temporal linguistic quality expressing the time at, during, or over which a state or action denoted by a verb occurs. Tense is one of at least five qualities, along with mood, voice, aspect, and person, which verb forms may express and cannot always be translated from one language to another. While verbs in all languages have typical forms are identified in dictionaries, usually the most common present tense or infinitive, their meanings vary among languages.

In Chinese language tense is not used, but implied in temporal adverbs when needed, and in Japanese temporal information appears in the inflection of adjectives, lending them a verb-like quality. In Azerbaijani language a simple verb may indicate aspect and tense. The number of tenses in a language may be controversial, since its verbs may indicate qualities of uncertainty, frequency, completion, duration, possibility. "Tenses are the different forms which a verb supposed to indicate the time of the action or state. There are six tenses in English; present, past, perfect, past perfect, future, future perfect .

I return (present), returned (past), have returned (present perfect), had returned (past perfect), shall (will) return (future), and shall (will) have returned (future perfect)."[1]

The distinction between grammatical tense, aspect, and mood is unclear and at times controversial. The English continuous temporal construction express an aspect as well as a tense, and some therefore consider the aspect to be separate from tense in English. Modern English grammarians dispute whether tense can

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[1] George O. Curme. Principles Practice of English Grammar. Banes and Noble. 1947.p.,5.

refer to inflected forms. The abbreviation TAM, T/A/M or TMA is sometimes found when dealing with verbal morphemes that combine tense, aspect and mood information. In some languages, tense and other TAM information may be marked on a noun, rather than a verb. This is called nominal TAM.

"The infinitive may be used as an adjunct to an active verb accompanied by a pronoun or a noun that stands to the infinitive in connection with a subject. This is the reason why it is appropriate to call this combination "noun/pronoun + infinitive" a complex verb adjunct. The combination is limited lexically since it can be applied only after definite verbs.

Some of these verbs need an infinitive with the particle to:

to acknowledge	to bid	to encourage	to imagine	to impel
to advise	to bring up	to expect	to implore	to know
to allow	to cause	to find	to induce	to lead
to assume	to challenge	to forbid	to influence	to like
to authorize	to command	to force	to inspire	to love
to beg	to compel	to get	to instruct	to mean
to believe	to consider	to guess	to intend	to oblige
to beseech	to enable	to hate	to invite	to observe
to order	to prefer	to request	to suspect	to think
to perceive	to press	to require	to teach	to trust
to permit	to realize	to signal	to tell	to understand
to persuade	to recommend	to suppose	to tempt	to want

The infinitive may also be preceded by other modifiers. Unlike in order and so as which only make the idea of purpose more obvious, these other modifiers are used to add their own certain shades of meaning."[1]

One of the main notions is that all the languages include grammar. Language is of great importance in the life of all human beings. Language can be considered

[1] Gordon E.M, KrylovaI.P, The English Verbals . p.,78.

as verbal, physical, biologically innate, and the main form of communication. People use language to transfer their inner thoughts and feelings, make sense of complex and abstract notions, to learn to connect with others, to fulfill their needs, as well as to form rules and maintain the culture.

English verbs have more tenses than forms; tenses beyond the ones possible with the five forms are formed with auxiliary verbs, as are the passive voice forms of these verbs. Important auxiliary verbs in English include will, used to form the future tense; shall, used mainly for the future tense, but now used mainly for commands and directives; be, have, and do, which are used to form the supplementary tenses of English verb, to add aspect to the actions they describe, or for negation.

"English grammar distinguishes between finite and non-finite forms of verb. The non-finite forms that are also called Verbal or non-predicative form of the verb, comprise, according to most grammars, the infinitive (to talk), the gerund (talking), and participle II (taken)."[1]

The term "grammar" can also be used to represent the rules that direct the linguistic behavior of speakers. Accordingly, the term "English grammar" may receive several meanings. It may denote the entire English grammar; it means the grammar that is used by all the speakers of the English language. In this case, the term expresses many type of variation. As a matter of fact, the term may denote only what is typical to the grammars of all, or of the majority of the English speakers.

English verbs display complex forms of negation. While simple negation was used well into period of early Modern English in contemporary English negation almost always requires that the negative particle be attached to an auxiliary verb such as do or be. I go not is archaic; I do not go or I am not going are what the contemporary idiom requires. English historically allowed questions to be asked by inverting the position of verb and subject: Whither goest thou? Now, in English,

[1]Gordon E. M. The English verbals.p.,9.

questions are often trickily idiomatic, and require the use of auxiliary verbs, though occasionally, the interrogative mood is still used in Modern English.

In English grammar, tense refers to any conjugated form expressing time, aspect or mood. English has the richest and subtlest system of tense and aspect of any Germanic language. This can be confusing for foreign learners; however , the English verb is in fact systematic once one understands that in each of the three time sphere-past, present and future- English has a basic tense which can then be made either perfect or progressive (continuous) or both.

Simple: Progressive: Perfect: Perfect-progressive:

Future-I will write. I will be writing. I will have written. I will have been writing.

Present- I write.   I am writing.   I have been written. I have been writing.

Past - I wrote.   I was writing.   I had written.   I had been writing.

English modern textbooks generally use the terminology in this table. What was traditionally called the "perfect" is here called "present perfect" and the "pluperfect" becomes past "past perfect", in order to show the relationship of the perfect forms to their respective simple forms. In Old English, the "perfect" is just a past tense, the English "present perfect" has a present reference; it is both a past tense and a present tense, describing the connection between a past event and a present state. Historical linguists sometimes prefer terminology that is more helpful for comparative purposes; when describing wrote as a historical form, for example, we would say "preterite" rather than "past simple".

Similar to all other finite forms of the verb, the infinitive also has two forms: passive and active. The infinitive denotes time as well. But generally, the finite forms of the verbs express time in an absolute form. That means the finite verbs express an action to the present tense, past tense and future tense. In most cases, continuous infinitive is applied to emphasize the concept of duration and process, and to make the sentence more real and emphatic.

We can observe that infinitive has both noun functions and verb functions. As a noun it may be used as subject, object and predicative. The Infinitive has also modal properties. "The infinitive clauses have the syntactic position of Tense and Moods.

This table, of course, omits a number of forms which can be regarded as additional to the basic system:

The intensive present	I do write.
The intensive past	I did write.
The habitual	I used to write.
The "shall future"	I shall write.
The "going-to future"	I am going to write.
The "future in the past "	I was going to write.
The conditional	I would write.
The (increasingly seldom used	I would have written,
Subjunctives	if I be, if I were.

English traditional grammars distinguish sixteen tense forms which fall under four different classes; Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect and Perfect continuous, each embracing four tenses, but not every grammarian find this system satisfactory. If tense is to be defined as the linguistic expression of time, i.e. as the form of verb which serves to denote time relation existing in reality, only three forms can be recognized in English as tense forms, namely the Present Indefinite, the Past Indefinite and the Future Indefinite.[1]

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[1] Gordon E. M. The English verbals. p.,2.

Many scholars point out that the Present Continuous, The Past Continuous and the Future Continuous cannot be regarded as tense forms because their time reference does not differ from the corresponding indefinite forms. They refer the action to the present, the past and the future and the difference between the two classes-the Indefinite and the Continuous- is not a temporal one. The forms differ in the manner in which the action is presented, that means that they must be treated as two different aspect forms. The Indefinite forms have a very broad meaning and their main function being to represent an action as simply occurring, merely stating it as a fact, but the continuous forms are characterized by a distinct that present an action in its progress, in its development, to emphasize the duration of an action.

Thus we have two kinds of forms opposed to each other: The Indefinite forms with a broad meaning and the Continuous forms with a specialized meaning. The supporters of this standpoint assert that English has two aspects which they term as the Common (Generic) aspect and The Continuous (Temporary) aspect.

The problem of the perfect forms present more difficulty but the indefinite forms are regarded as they refer an action to a definite point of time- present, the past or future. According to this viewpoint, Perfect forms do not refer an action to any definite point time, but express priority with regard to the moment of speaking (the Present Perfect), to a definite moment in the past (the Past Perfect) or the future (Future Perfect).The Perfect forms are treated as relative tense and we find the terms "secondary tenses" for the Perfect forms in some grammars. The Future-in-the Past is also believed to be a relative tense since this form serves to denote an action which is future from the viewpoint of a past moment.

According to other authors the Perfect forms are not as expressions of tense but as aspect forms. Their opinions differ, however, as to the nature of that aspect: some scholars assign resultative meaning to the present forms, other- the meaning of completion, still others-retro-spectiveness.

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky suggested Perfect forms as a new grammatical category which is neither tense nor aspect. This category is constituted by the opposition of all the Perfect forms to all the Non-Perfect forms; the Continuous forms are opposed to the Perfect Continuous forms. The unmarked Non-Perfect forms refer an action directly to a point of time, present, past or future, whereas the marked Perfect forms express priority. For this peculiar category Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky suggests the term "the category of time relation".

M. Joos differs from Prof. Smirnitsky in that he recognizes only two tenses in English, the unmarked Present and the marked Past which he respectively names the Actual and the Remote. The author claims that "there is no Future tense in English as the verbs "shall" and " will" are always modal verbs and refer an action to the future much in the same manner as other modal verbs. According to M. Joos, the modally colorless Future is expressed by other grammatical or lexical means."[1]

M. Joos views on the category of aspect are on the whole the same as Prof. Smirnitisky. This category is constituted by the opposition of the unmarked Non-Continuous forms which have no aspect meaning of their own and the marked Continuous forms whose meaning is defined by the author as "limited duration".

Thus, the analysis of the forms under discussion yields the following results.

In the class of Indefinite , forms the categorical meaning which is defined as very broad and indistinct, lacking aspect characteristic, can be applied only to the Past Indefinite. As for the Present Indefinite, its aspect characteristic seems quite specified without any context, its basic meaning being that of permanent or recurrent actions. With regard to the Future Indefinite forms owing to various reasons. Its use seems to be restricted either lexically or structurally.

In the class of the Continuous forms the Present and the Past Continuous have the same basic meaning, that of an action which is in progress at a definite moment.

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[1]Joos .M. Semology: A linguistic theory of meaning. Language &Linguistics.p.17

The Future Continuous, however, is seldom used in this way; its basic function is to express future actions which are supposed to take place as a matter of course.

With regard to class of the Perfect forms the facts of living English usage confirm Prof. Vorontsova's opinion. "While the problem of tense and aspect is a controversial one, voice does not seem to give rise to much divergence of opinion. Most authors agree that voice is the form of the verb which serves to show whether the subject of the sentence is the agent or the object, the victim of the action expressed by the predicate verb. Hence, two voices are generally recognized in English-the unmarked form of the Active Voice which is broad in meaning and the marked form of the Passive Voice whose meaning is more specified. "[1]

According to Yule the different forms of a verb in English are determined in terms of tense and aspect. The simple time-line view, which stands past as yesterday, present as today, and future as tomorrow, seems to induce learners to misunderstand English verb forms. "Verb tense distinction in English is made by the opposition between the past tense and the present tense. When the situation described is to close the situation of utterance, which means that it is non-remote from the speaker's situation, the past tense is more commonly used.

Concerning verb meaning only, presents lexical aspect by distinguishing stative from dynamic situations, and subdividing the latter into punctual (non-durative) and durative aspects."[2] The stative meaning of a verb implies no action by no agent, nor any end to the state described, which cognitive, such as knowledge (know, understand), emotion (hate, miss) or relations (be, have). According to other point, dynamic situations imply the concept of change. When this change is an isolated act, with almost no duration (kick, hit, smash), the aspect is punctual. If this punctual situation is presented with the progressive form, the meaning is that the act happens repeatedly, so the adverbial expression to reinforce this iterative aspect is going to be again and again or over and over. However, if the change

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[1] Г.Н. Воронцова. Очерки по грамматике английского языка. М. 1960.p.,15.
[2] Yule and "George Orwell's Animal Farm translations England.1998.pp.,62-64.

extends through time, as an activity (run, eat) or a process (become, grow) the aspect of the verb is durative.

dynamic

stative:		punctual:	durative:	
cognition	relations	acts	activities	processes
like	be	kick	work	learn
hate	belong	strike	swim	grow
know	have	throw	walk	become
want	contain	stab	run	harden
understand	own	hit	write	flow
believe	resemble	jump	eat	change

There two basic grammatical aspects: the progressive and the perfect. While the progressive aspect describes an ongoing situation viewed from inside (a situation in progress), the perfect aspect describes a situation viewed from the outside, in retrospect.

The author emphasizes the interaction between lexical and grammatical aspect in terms of interpretation and implicated meaning. Verbs denoting acts, activities and processes have different meanings when used with progressive or with perfect aspect (grammatical aspect). In utterances like She is eating lunch or He is learning karate, the progressive aspect implies the idea of an ongoing or incomplete process or activity. However, if the perfect aspect is used, as in `She has eaten lunch or he has learned karate`, is the implicated meaning is that some goal has been achieved after a completed event, because the situation is retrospectively viewed. When the perfect aspect is used with the stative aspect, there is no implicated meaning of completion. Instead, there is pre-existing situation that will continue, as in I have been ill or She has believed in Allah all her life. Despite not being usual, stative

verbs can be used with the progressive. The implicated meaning is that of a non-permanent or temporary situation, as showed in `you're being foolish` or `I am having a terrible day`.

"Inflection is the stem of the word that that corresponds nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries and personal pronouns in English. Inflectional changes in the body of a word can be different kinds of meaning: grammatical, like in be-am-is-are-was-go-went; lexical, like in boy-girl, bull-cow, where the gender distinction is expressed by the different stems, exp: author-authoress, lion-lioness.it also can be regular (is always expressed by suffixes) and irregular (use non- affixational means). Example: foot-feet, sing-sang-sung, write-wrote. The phenomenon of inflections consists in addition to steps of certain suffixes which so limit the application of the stems in various ways, that they are capable of combining syntactically in sentence."[1]

Some common problems that occur during the translation process are:

Reading the original language poses a problem to inexperienced or unskilled translators. It is not just verbal fluency of a language that is required. The skills read and write it are sometimes more important. The translator sometimes brings in his own belief and experiences in interpreting a document. This natural problem to occur with every translator but it must be fought against. Lack of knowledge the SL is also big problem for translators. The translator should ideally be a native to that language. That is only way to ensure comprehensive translation of the content, complete with colloquial understanding of expressions, humor, slangs, hidden meanings, cultural significant content, etc. some translators only deliver the word for word translation or superficial meaning of text. This leads to a loss of the core meaning of the text.

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[1]Greenough. Words and their Ways in English Speech. New York. 1901.,pp.,178-179.

Translators usually have to deal with six different problematic areas in their work. These include: lexical-semantic problems; grammar: syntax; rhetoric, and pragmatic and cultural problems.

Multiple meanings- sometimes words have several meanings.

1: words that sound alike (also known as homographic homophones or homonyms), Example:., "scale" in the following sentence: "Scale the fish completely before weighing it on the scale" 2: Words that sound different (also known as homographic heterophones or heterophonyms), Example: "windy" in the following sentence:"I drove down the windy road on a windy day."

Sarcasm- is a sharp, bitter or cutting way of uttering an expression or remark that usually means the opposite of what people say. Sarcasm frequently loses its meaning when translated word-for-word into another language; a literal translation would express the opposite of what the speaker actually intended to say.

Semantic: (which includes aphorisms, standardized terms, etc.) and the cultural (which includes idioms, proverbs, puns, etc.) difficulties of translation. Translators should know all the characteristics of the language.

There are some rare words whose meanings escape, not only the general public but also the dictionaries. The translator should have enough common sense and intuition to come up with the closest possible word for it.

Being faithful to both languages. There are rules and cultural differences to be considered in both languages. It is difficult to express exactly the same meaning in another language at times. There are sometimes no equivalents for certain words or expressions. The most a translator can do is come up with the next best alternative word. It is less definite than the Infinitive form the lexica-grammatical point of view, being subject to easy neutralization in its opposition with the verbal noun in-ing, as well as with the present participle. Gerund is not rival of the Infinitive in the paradigmatic head-form function.

Gerunds and nominalized verbs (noun derived from verbs and referring to the actions or states expresses by them), unlike finite verbs, do not require explicit subjects. This allows an object to be expresses while omitting a subject. Example:

-the proof of the pudding is in the eating.

-Generating electricity typically requires a magnet and solenoid.

The same applies to infinitive constructions:

-the easiest way to make more space would be to install more shelving.

-the first step is to read the manual.

Many English educators and usage guides, such as The Element of Style, discourage the use or overuse of the passive voice, seeing it as unnecessarily verbose (when the agent is included in a by phrase), or as obscure and vague (when is not). However, the passive voice is commonly found in good writing and many of those who claim that it is bad actually use it frequently themselves. It is even used in The Elements of Style in a sentence devoted to explaining why it should be avoided.

"The identity of form in the present participle and gerund makes it often difficult to distinguish them: the form- ing a gerund in dining –car (i.e. a car for dining), ironing- board (i.e. board for ironing), but a present participle with passive force in cooking- apple (i.e. an apple that can be cooked), breech-loading gun (i.e. a gun that is loaded at the breech)."[1]

Example: Powel's being rude like that was disgusting.

Example: Seward only replied by starting at the paper knife and shaking his head slowly to and fro, and twisting his long legs into knots under the desk.(Murdoch)

Mr. Dorrit positively trembled in addressing the great man (Dickens)

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[1] George O. Curme Principles Practice of English Grammar.1947.p.,265.

Unfortunately this fruitful silence was ruined by the sound of a doer being banged (Presley).He never ceased talking."[1]

An article is a word that combines with a noun to indicate the type of reference being made by the noun. The three main articles in the English language are the, an and a. An article is sometimes called a noun marker, although this is generally considered to be an archaic term and sometimes wondered which parts of speech articles belong to. Despite all, articles are not adjectives because they don't describe nouns; they just agree with them. Linguists place them in a different category that of determiners. Articles can have various functions:

-A definite article (English the) is used before singular and plural nouns that refer to a particular member of a group. The cat is on the black mat.

- An indefinite article (English a, an) is used before singular nouns that refer to any member of a group. A cat is a mammal.

- A partitive article indicates an indefinite quantity of a mass noun; there is no partitive article in English, though the words some or any often have that function.- A zero article is the absence of an article (Example: English indefinite plural), used in some languages in contrast with the presence of one. Linguists hypothesize the absence as a zero article based on the X-bar theory. Cats are mammals.

[1] . Каушанская Б. Л., Сборник Упражнений по грамматике Английского языка.р.,138.

Conclusion

Goethe wrote that translating labor was and remains one of the most important and worthy matters connecting the entire universe together. These words characterize translator as creative person who carries works beyond the limits of one national culture and who serves to people giving these fruits of this culture, created in new language form or vice versa, including achievements of other nations in his national science and culture. It is one of the evidences of the huge human role of translation in the history of human civilization.

Every national culture solving its problems carries its contribution in treasuring house of literature creating something that belongs only to it, has significance for all nations and proves that there are not small or big nations or inferior languages.

Extending of national culture confines with the help of translation has a great positive and enriching influence on the language. It is true that together with the translation many new ideas, discoveries, notions and so on penetrate in the language and it leads to the appearance of new language elements and figurative meanings. This fact is very important while translating from literary language that is not fully developed. Therefore the literary language enriches figurative possibilities, national culture, and spiritual development of this nation. Creative beginning of translation is premise of creative attitude to native language, its source of faith in its possibilities and beauty. Concerning this point the translator also has another task to defend his native speech from borrowings-parasites that clog and make it ugly, from strange forms that artificially could crowd out its own national coloring.

The task and mission of the translator especially the translator of feature literature is defense of the riches and beauty of the native language, its unlimited abilities to convey all that is kept in the greatest masterpieces of world literature.

Translated literature can also be the indicator of condition, degree of development of national language.

"National beginning of literature,- I. R. Beher wrote,- is defined with the fact of preservation, proceeding and creative development of other literatures. The choice of element that adopt it from literature of other nations shows its own character and is judged if its indeed national originality no."

Most words have more than one meaning. There will be a primary meaning – the additional meaning which a word has in context with other words. This principal is not limited to lexical items for it is also true that the same grammatical pattern may express quiet different meanings.

The fascination of translation theory lies in the large scope, its basic appeal from the meaning within a context. Translation theory's present standing is not yet secure. Translation theory has an excitement and pleasure of its own, which parallels, translation itself.

The English word " translation" has several meanings. It has the meaning of " removal" (removal of smb. From one post to another), interpretation, explanation, broadcasting and others. Even in the meaning of translation from one language into another both words translation and tərcümə are used in two meanings. The term process when applied to translation must be usually understood in a pure linguistic meaning, i. e. as a type of linguistic, namely, as an interlinguistic a text of another language. Here again the term recreation must not be understood literally – the original text is not recreated or transformed by itself. It is evident that the original remains unchanged, but on the basis of it a new text is created in another language which we call translation in the first meaning of this word. In other words, the term transformation may be used here only in the meaning when it is applied to the synchronical description of the languege, here we deal with a certaine relation between the two languages or speech units one of which is the source, but the second is produced on the basis of the first. In this case, the translator has a source text written in the SL and he creates a text written in the TL by applying certain translation may be considered a type of transformation, namely, an interlinguistic transformation.

We may define the subject of the linguistic theory of translation as a scientific description of the process of translation, as an interlinguistic transformation. The transformation of a text in one language to an equivqlent text of another language. In other words, the task of the linguistic theory of translation is the modelling of the process of translation in the above-mentioned sense.

The essence of translation. In translation we always have two texts. The first is the original text which is created irrespective of the other, the second text is created on the basis of the first with the help of certaine operations – interlinguistic transformations. The first text is called the text of the original, the second is called the text of translation. The language in which the original text is written is called the source language (SL), the language into which the translation is done is called the target language (TL).

In modern linguistics as a science two branches are noted by everybody-microlinguistics and macrolinguistics. By the first we mean the study of language when language becomes the object of investigation and is investigated by means of language itself, the language becomes the object and the tool of investigation at the same time. By the second we understand the trend of linguistics which studies language in its connection with extralinguistics factors which are outside of the language. We may refer to them psycholinguitics, sociolinguistics. To applied desciplines one may relate methodojogy of teaching language, the theory of information and others.

The theory of translation is referred first to macrolinguistic, then to applied linguistics. It means that it is impossible to build the theory of translation only on pure linguistic foundations, without paying attention to the extralinguistic factors, which lie beyond the language, but are directly interrelated with it. A text being the product of speech activity takes into account three moments:

1. the subject (theme)of the communication, what the text deals with,

2. the situation in which the communication takes place,

3. the participants of the speech activity it (the sender of the message and the receiver)who possess a certain experience of linguistic or extralinguistic nature.

The linguistic factor helps to understand the meaning of polysemantic words, to fill the gaps in elliptical sentences conditioned by the situation. We use the language, which is a system of signs, and we are not indifferent to these signs in the process of the communication. We express our subjective attitude to these referents expressed by the signs, where the words express one and the same referents, but different subjective relations. These subjective (emotional, expressive, stylistic) relations are called pragmatic relations and the meaning - pragmatic meaning.

One must not forget that not any sign exists in isolation, any sign functions as a component of a certain sign system. Therefore, any sign is in complicated and multifarious relations with other signs of the sign system.

The relation of a sign to other signs in the same sign system is called intralinguistic relations and the meaning – intralinguistic meaning.

The semantic structure of the sign is composed of three components – referential, pragmatic, and intralinguistic meanings and they are all interconnected and interdependent. Which of thses meanings are conveyed from the text of the SL to the text of the TL? First of all, the referential meaning, for it expresses the accumulated experience of the whole language community, to a less degree pragmatic meanings, because, though we cognize one and the same thing in the same form, still subjective attitudes to them differ completely. The least transformable is the intralinguistic meaning of the SL are substituted with those of the TL. We even may speak of non-transformability of the intralinguistic meanings. The transformation of these three meanings mainly depend of the type of the text, in the texts where we deal mainly with factual information the main attention is paid to transformation of the referential meanings, but in the text with conceptual information pragmatic meanings take the advantage.

Pragmatic aspect of translation. The notion of pragmatics can not be limited with the pragmatic meaning alone. It is much broader and includes all the problems connected with the degree of comprehension of the text depending on the linguistic and exptralinguistic experience of the participants of the communication. The extralinguistic experience – the background knowledge of the participants of the communication defines to a certain degree their understanding of language and speech units. As we have already mentioned, there may be cases where extralinguistic information at the disposal of speakers of the SL and TL does not coincide, the background knowledge of peoples speaking in the SL and the TL is different. As a result of this, many things understandable, known to the speakers of the SL may occur less understandable or quite inconprehensible to the speakers of the TL or vise versa. If the translator does not take it into account, even the most exact translation will not gain the desired effect, as it is incomprehensible to those for whome it is aimed. Therefore, pragmatic factor is one of the necessary conditions for reaching complete translation adrquacy. And here again one must bear in mind that not all the texts require consideration of the pragmatic aspects or factor in the same degree. The well-known German theorist of translation A. Newbert divides all the texts intended for translation into four groups depending on the pragmatic factors expressed in them:

1. scientific prose where the text is understood by the specialist in the same way;

2. newspaper articles and some other texts intended for the national readers the contents of which are not easely understood;

3. fiction;

4. text dealing with the propagation of foreigh policy of the country and advertisements. In both of them (3,4)the pragmatic factor is of great importance be in the SL or the TL.

Translation and levels of the language system. We have already defined translation as a process of transformation of a text written in one language into

another language by keeping the plane of content unchanged. It means that in the process of translation the units of the plane of expression, the units of the SL are substituted by their counterparts in the TL, but the plane of content, the information that the text carries out, remains relatively unchanged. Thus, we conclude that the main task of the translator, irrespective of his being a theorist or a practitioner, is to find out in the text of the SL minimal units, which are to be translated. These units are generally recognized in the theory of translation as of translation.

The problem of the units of translation is one of the complicated issues in the theory of translation. Thereare different points of veiw concerning this problem. There are theorists who even deny the existence of such units completely. By the unitsof translation in the SL we understand such units the correspondences of which may be singled out in the TT, but the componentss of which taken separately do not have correspondences in the TT. They may have complicated structures as well, may consists of more smallest units of the SL the components of which taken separately are untranslatable, it is impossible to find out correspondences for them in the TT if even in the SL they have their own, relatively independent meaning.

The minimal meaning unit in linguistics is said to be morpgeme. But:

1. there are lots of cases when in the role of meaningful unit we have not morphemes, but units of higher levels such, as words, hprases or ever sentences:

2. and even when these units of higher levels – words, phrases, sentences - semantically segmented, when their components have their relatively independent meanings, not seldom there are cases when in the TL they correspond tttto indivisible units the components of which do not correspond to the components of identical units in the Source Text. In such cases the units of translation are not morphrmrs, but more higher units in the SL.

Translation, by dictionary definition, consists of changing from one state or form to another. Translation is basically a change of form. When we speak of the form of a language, we mean actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, etc., which are

spoken or written. It is the structural part of language which is actually seen in print or heard in speech. The distinction between grammatical tense, aspect, and mood is unclear and at times controversial. The English continuous temporal construction expresses an aspect as well as a tense, and some therefore consider the aspect to be separate from tense in English."English grammar distinguishes between finite and non-finite forms of verb. The non-finite forms that are also called Verbal or non-predicative form of the verb, comprise, according to most grammars, the infinitive (to talk), the gerund (talking), and participle II (taken)." There are cases when, owing to the lexical character of the verb the subject of the active construction cannot be regarded as the doer of the action. Thus in the following examples the subject is rather a sufferer, a victim than the doer of the action. He chanced soon after his arrival to go to a party.He broke out into a sweat. The verbals are regarded in most grammars as forms of the verb because they have certain features in common with the finite forms. But at the same time they have their own peculiarities which distinguish them from the finite forms and, owing to those peculiarities they are usually considered in special chapters."[1]

Voice is the grammatical category of the verb denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of sentence. There are two main voices in English: the Active Voice and Passive Voice. There are also voices which embrace a very limited number of verbs: reflexive (wash oneself), reciprocal (embrace one another), medial (the book reads well). The passive voice is understood in this manual as the form of the verb expressing either actions (as in "She was loved and respected by all those who knew her") or states resulting from previously accomplished actions. (as in "All is settled")"[2]

The grammatical means of expressing voice in English is the passive form of the verb "to be+ Participle II"; in the active voice the verb is not grammatically

[1]E.M. Gordon. The English verbals,I. R. Крылова Международные отношени.р.,10.

[2] Б.Л. Каушанская,. Сборник Упражнений по грамматике Английского языка.р,.24.

marked. The other voices, i.e. reflexive and reciprocal ones, do not possess a verb in a special form either. Other means of expressing the category of voice as lexical ones are the parts of speech derived from the verb. They denote the meanings of active, passive, reflexive and reciprocal voices depending on the meaning and valance of the verb they are formed from. These are the adjective, the adverb and the noun. The meaning of voice rendered by them differs from that expressed by the verb because the adjective, the adverb and the noun contain other categorical meaningful seems that refer to them as belonging to a certain part of speech besides those of voice. This fact does not permit us to include them into the center of the functional-semantic field of voice. The adverb can denote only active, passive and reciprocal voices in comparison with the noun and adjective.

The verb is the main means of expressing voice in a language because it renders the category under discussion grammatically. There is a group of verbs called ergative that copy the classical way of transforming the active voice sentence into a passive one by changing the object of the active sentence into the subject of the middle voice sentence, the "form" of the verb remaining active and bearing a passive meaning. These verbs give the English a shadow of ergativity, which implies no differences between the case of the subject and that of the object.

The active Voice has no special means of formation. It is recognized by contrast with the passive voice, which is composed of the auxiliary verb to be and participle II. Thus the passive verb forms are analytical; the tense of the auxiliary verb to be varies according to the sense.

The category of voice applies to the whole system of English verb forms, both finite and non-finite. The voice forms of the verb.

The active voice of transitive verbs presents an action as directed from the subject and passing over to the object that is from the doer of the action to its receiver.

Oscar made a boat for his brother.

They are building a new railway.

We are talking about the new film.

One of the characteristic features of English is that verbs which were originally intransitive may function as transitive verbs without changing their morphological structure, with or without changing their lexical meaning.

Contemporary American audiences and language instructors prefer sentences written in the active voice. Sentences written in this way have value clarity, brevity, and action.

Abbreviation list:

TAM, T/A/M or TMA (tense, aspect, mood)

TL (target language)

SL (source language)

N+V+N (noun, verb, noun)

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