

## THEORY OF GRAMMAR AS APPLIED TO PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATION

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In this short work we have attempted to give the theory of grammar as applied to problems of translation. It must be pointed out that the author of this essay makes use of the achievements of the British structural school (particularly views shared by the linguists of the School of Applied Linguistics, Edinburgh) and aims at throwing light on the main points of their linguistic analysis rather than criticizing the methods which are different from those applied by Soviet linguists.

A theory is a set of interrelated theoretical statements which account systematically for all the observed events. Those events are observed phenomena from which we make generalisations.

The events must be classified as they have some properties in common, and those properties are relationships which exist between them.

On the basis of a theory and its theorems we may construct descriptive hypotheses (including the so-called laws) the fate of which, contrary to that of the theory itself, depends exclusively on verification.

By means of the theory we can describe, explain and predict relationships between events. It provides us with the means for the evaluation of the description.

The theory how language works is part of the theory of language.

“The relevant theory consists of a scheme of interrelated categories which are set up to account for the data, and a set of scales of abstraction which relate the categories to the data and to each other. The data to be accounted for are observed language events, observed as spoken or as codified in writing, any corpus of which, when used as material for linguistic description, is a “text”<sup>1</sup>.

Language is a patterned activity. It is patterned because it displays regularities; it is an activity because it requires energy. The energy used produces patterns of substance which is formally organized in such a way as to express some features of the situation in which the activity occurs.

The primary levels of language are:

1) Substance – the raw material which can be phonic (noises) or graphic (marks).

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<sup>1</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *Categories of the Theory of Grammar*, Working Paper, p. 3.

2) Form – the organisation of substances into meaningful patterns.

3) Context – relation of form to non-linguistic features of the situation in which language operates.

The complete framework of levels requires certain further subdivisions and additions, and is as follows:

“a) Substance may be either “phonic“ or “graphic“.

b) If substance is phonic, it is related to form by “phonology“.

c) If substance is graphic, it is related to form by “orthography“ (or „graphology“), either

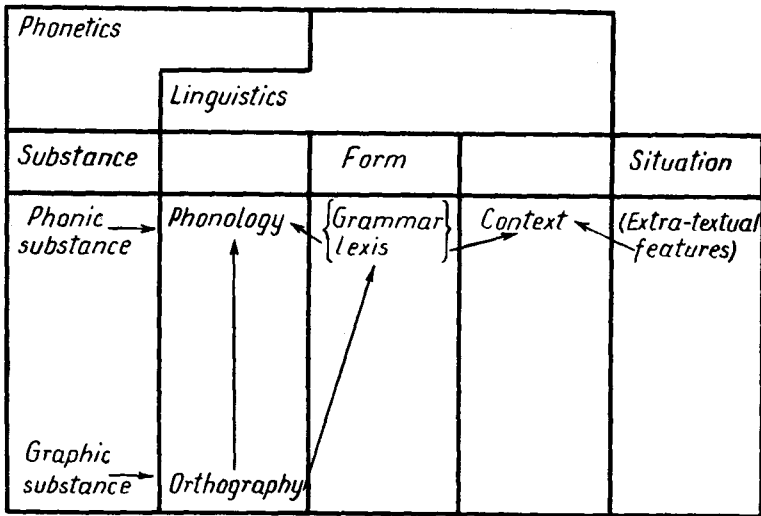
i) if the script is lexical, then directly,

or ii) if the script is phonological, then via phonology.

d) Form is in fact two related levels, “grammar“ and “lexis“.

e) Context is in fact (like phonology) an “interlevel“, relating form to extra-textual features“<sup>2</sup>.

The following diagram of Dr. Halliday will make the relation between the levels clearer.



The level of form comprises patterns of two kinds: those operating in closed systems – the level of grammar, and those operating in open sets – the level of lexis.

Language cannot be analysed at different levels simultaneously because abstractions of different kinds are involved at each level. In the end, for full description, the levels must be all linked together.

At the formal level the patterns displayed are patterns of meaningful organisation. In grammar, where selection of items is from closed systems, the patterns are displayed over stretches of different extent in time (spoken language) or space (written language).

<sup>2</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, op. cit., p. 4.

The linguistic sciences have made tremendous advances since the first application of descriptive methods to speech-events as natural phenomena by linguists. Recently linguists have become so confident of their theories and views that they have started the application of linguistic experience and discipline to the practical problem of language teaching. Grammar predominates in linguistic literature. The theory of grammar works with certain categories.

There are four fundamental categories for the theory of grammar: unit, structure, class and system.

“These are categories of the highest order of abstraction: they are established and interrelated in the theory. Each of the four is specifically related to and logically derivable from each other. The categories are mutually definable. They are primary features of the data and all the others have to be linked with them”<sup>3</sup>.

The name for the category of extent is “unit“. Units of grammar constitute a hierarchy of rank. The unit which is higher in rank consists of one or more units of the rank next below or of the same rank or of the rank above in the cases of downward rankshift.

Unit is the category that carries pattern of likeness of events at the same rank.

The category for likeness of events is structure.

The operation of a unit in the structure of a unit next above yields the category of class. Classes are syntactical – syntactical means downward – not morphological groupings, where groupings are made according to their inner structure. Classes form systems, groupings of items that offer a limited choice.

At some point of formal description of language a stage of delicacy is reached where general useful statements about items cannot be made: we have reached the most delicate degree of exponence. The description yields either a closed system: the formal items are grammatically contrastive; or it yields a class where grammatical analysis does not yield new categories. Here the exponents of the category yield an open set. The relations between such exponents are accounted for at the level of lexis. For such exponents the term “lexical item“ is used, while the term “word“ is kept as the name of the grammatical unit.

Thus we find that one must ultimately turn to grammar to arrive at the concept of lexical item.

## METHOD OF DESCRIPTION

Description is regarded by us as a set of statements based not on procedures but on a theory of language.

“The set of abstractions constituting the body of descriptive method might be regarded as a “calculus“, since its function is to relate the theory to the data. The different types of description are bodies of method which derive from and are answerable to that theory“.

“Description consists in relating the text to the categories of the theory“.

“The method by which it is done involves a number of processes of abstraction, varying in kind and variable in degree“<sup>4</sup>.

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<sup>3</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *ibid.*

<sup>4</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

Description, then, depends on the theory.

The best description is that which, comprehensive and presupposed, makes maximal use of the data.

Our aim in applying the descriptive method to problems of translation is to make systemic comparison of certain grammatical categories in two languages and to arrive at results by a consistent and linguistically valid method.

The comparison can be made by the grammatical identification of the related terms which are formally expressed in the text of two languages compared.

Those related terms which are grammatical categories can be established in the descriptive analysis of the data by formal grammatical criteria.

The following section of our discussion will be concerned with defining the grammatical categories which can be in the description.

Language is a patterned activity of meaningful organisation and certain regularities are exhibited over certain stretches in language.

The essential feature of those stretches is that they are of varying extent.

In language unit is a stretch at which pattern operates.

In English (and Lithuanian) it is useful to recognize five units: morpheme, word, group/phrase, clause and sentence. To define units, units should be such that every single item at all ranks at which they operate in the hierarchy has its place.

“The number of units in the hierarchy is a feature of description<sup>5</sup>”.

The vast majority of grammars have failed to relate the units to the language as a whole.

Each unit is characterized by certain structures. The next thing is to state those structures. The statement must be based on generalized observation of how the structure is made up, and what are the elements of which it is made.

“The structure is a syntagmatic framework of interrelated elements which are paradigmatically established in the system of classes and stated as values in the structure<sup>6</sup>”.

The rule here is that the structure of any unit must be stated in the unit one below it. And so the structure of a sentence should be stated as how it is made up of clauses, the structure of a clause as how it is made up of groups, of a group as how it is made up of words, and of a word as how it is made up of morphemes (i.e. structure of an adverbial phrase can be stated as  $r \mp a/b + N$  and structure of a clause as  $S + P \mp A$ ). (For the explanation of symbols see p. 87).

Our procedure in describing the structures must be to state in primary terms the types of units and combinations which occur.

The statement must indicate:

1. The inventory including the constituent parts in the description.
2. The distribution stating on the single constituents or combinations which make up structures.

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<sup>5</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

<sup>6</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *Some Aspects of Systematic Description and Comparison in Grammatical Analysis*, *Studies in Linguistic Analysis* (Special volume of the Philological Society), Oxford, Blackwell, 1957.

The units are defined syntagmatically by the position in which they operate in the structure.

In describing the distribution of the constituents in the structure, we consider the following questions:

- 1) What are the possible structures (of the given unit)?
- 2) Are some constituents (i.e. elements of structure) obligatory to all structures?
- 3) Do some constituents never occur without others?
- 4) Are there certain fixed sequences of constituents?
- 5) What are the frequently recurring sequences of constituents?
- 6) Are any constituents mutually exclusive?
- 7) What constituents, or combinations of constituents can be substituted for one another (in a given structure)? (E. A. Nida, *Outline of Descriptive Syntax*, Summer Institute of Linguistics, Glendale, California, 1951. Nida's formulation has been altered to show the relation of these points to the theory adapted here).

It may be helpful at this point to explain what the above terms mean and why their use is found useful.

### **Obligatory constituency**

If any constituent is obligatory for all the structures, it is most important to recognize this fact, for such a constituent will prove to be a nuclear or central element in the larger structure (e.g. head in the nominal group which may be S or C in the structure of a clause).

### **Sequence**

Place in sequence is one possible exponent of the order relative in structure. Recurrent sequences of constituents (i.e. of elements of the same structure) include such things as, in English, determinative lexical modifier head in the nominal group.

### **Mutual exclusion**

There are restrictions on forms which may combine into constructions. When the restrictions are obligatory, i.e. grammatical, the items are mutually exclusive (e.g. "the" is mutually exclusive with "a").

### **Substitutability**

Substitutability includes elements in (1) mutual exclusion or (2) expanded/reduced status having the same meaningful relationship to the non-changing part (e.g. in the nominal group, H (reduced status) can be substituted by H H (expanded status) as they both can operate as S or C in the structure of a clause).

And now we shall proceed to the next category "class".

Class is a grouping of items of a given rank. It must be firmly associated with one unit.

"The class is that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above"<sup>7</sup>.

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<sup>7</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *Categories of the Theory of Grammar*, Working paper, p. 14.

Therefore, class is a syntactically defined group of items and so it is related primarily to elements of structure.

A structure is made up of elements and it is an arrangement of those elements ordered in places.

A class stands in one to one relation to elements of structure (e.g. H, MH, HO, MHO are four structures of the nominal group, made up of the three elements H M O. Each of these elements corresponds to one class of the unit next below the group, namely word).

Finally, the category which accounts for the occurrence of one rather than another from among a number of like events is a **system**.

“A closed system is a set of terms with these characteristics:

(a) the number of terms is finite,

(b) each term is exclusive of all the others,

(c) if a new term is added to the system, this changes the meaning of all others”<sup>8</sup>.

(For example, the primary structures of the nominal group constitute a system, their number is finite (4) and each is mutually exclusive with the other three; if there existed a fifth primary nominal structure, the meaning of all the others would change, similarly the classes “verbal group“, “nominal group“, “adjectival or determinative group“ and classes at the rank of the group).

In the final formulation of description of structure, the following points are kept in mind:

(1) It is useful to begin with the constituent which occurs throughout the structure (e.g. H in the nominal structure).

(2) One should begin with the smaller combinations and work up to the larger (e.g. the order in the case of the analysis of the nominal structures should be: (1) H, (2) MH, (3) HQ, (4) M H Q).

(3) One should employ special care in the use of: (a) restrictives, i.e. “may“ or „must“ (e.g. a nominal group must include H; it may include M or Q); (b) positionals, i.e. “precede“ or “follow“ (e.g. the determinative must precede the lexical modifiers in English; the prepositional phrase must follow the head if it qualifies the nominal structure)<sup>9</sup>.

## TRANSFER GRAMMAR

Transfer grammar, as the term itself implies, transfers the terms and categories used in the analysis of one language into another language, providing at the same time for all those features in which the two languages differ. It is one type of comparative descriptive grammar. The term was used for the first time by Zellig S. Harris and Oscar Luis in *Chavarría Aquillar* in 1954.

Transfer grammar compares the structures, and relations within and between structures, of the two languages in order to present the significant structural features of one in terms of the other.

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<sup>8</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>9</sup> The above points were taken from E. N. Nida, *Outline of Descriptive Syntax*, Summer Institute of Linguistics, Glendale, California, 1951.

The principal aim of transfer grammar is to indicate where and how the languages are structurally similar and where dissimilar and, in the latter case, to provide the necessary linguistic material in terms of structural processes, stated in what we may call the transference operation, to enable us to transfer structure from one language to the other and control the structural characteristics“.

“In stating our transference operations, we will find it to our advantage occasionally to restate or to simplify certain features of one language in terms of the other“.

“The transference operations are stated with respect to the environments in which the relevant structures (of both languages) occur“.

“For the sake of economy we wish to keep our transference operations to a minimum“.

“We attempt in equating the structural relevancies of the two languages to come as close as possible to the ideal of a one to one correspondence of structural types“<sup>10</sup>.

The method outlined here can contribute to a classification of structural types among languages. The method is also relevant to a proceduralized system of translation and can be put in form of routine instrument as a set of rules in numerical terms for machine translation.

Finally, the method may be used in the learning or teaching of foreign languages.

## PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATION

Translation may be defined as a process of replacing the linguistic units, and relations between them, of a source language by corresponding units and relations of a target language.

„As a process, translation is unidirectional, but a translation which is the end-procedure of such a process is, together with the original, a form of comparative description of two languages. The two languages are brought into specific relation with one another, such that one of the two texts can replace the other as language activity in a given context of situation. The relation is not a simple one, but two languages impinge on each other at a number of different levels“<sup>11</sup>.

The important levels for comparative description are the purely formal levels, grammar and lexis, and their relations to context.

“A comparative description is one which states the form and form-context equivalent of grammatical and lexical items in two (or more) languages within one integrated scheme of categories“<sup>12</sup>.

The structural approach to language – the view that language is systemic, or describable in terms of systems of contrastive elements – has implications of importance for our subject.

People often talk about literal translation, without any very clear idea of what they are talking about.

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<sup>10</sup> Zellig S. Harris, Oscar Luis, Chavarria Aquillar, *Transfer Grammar, Lectures in Linguistics*, Poona, 1954, p. 115.

<sup>11</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *Linguistics and Machine Translation*, p. 6.

<sup>12</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *ibid.*

What *is* literal translation, if indeed there *is* such a thing? It means translating what is said (or written) in one language exactly into another. But the linguistic background is so different that although there may be “counterparts“ in style, it is not the same.

Those wishing to learn a foreign language have sometimes been told to try an all-purpose interlingual dictionary (of conversation-book type) and learn all the words that would be necessary in communicating in any of the languages concerned. Thus the English word “black“, for example, might be arranged with its foreign equivalents in the following manner:

English	Russian	Lithuanian	French	German
black	chiornyj	juodas	noir	schwarz

This is to overlook the fact that even within the limits of a single language a word, especially when common, has more than one meaning, and that these other meanings or senses *differ* for the “equivalents“ in other languages. Hence, even if languages happened to be so constructed that they would lend themselves to a mathematical:

English:	a	b	c	d	e
Russian:	a	b	c	d	e
Lithuanian:	a	b	c	d	e
German:	a	b	c	d	e

the arrangement of the parts being subject to differences, the influences of contexts and situations would affect the meaning of words, listed as synonyms, so differently as to make such a plan completely unworkable, because thoroughly unreliable. Take the French expression “Comment vous portez-vous? (Lithuanian „Kaip gyvuojate?“), which means “How are you?“, and this simple plan of substituting a word in one’s mother tongue with a synonym in another language fails at once. (J. O. Gauntlet’s formulation has been adapted here to bring out the point which is under discussion in this section: J. O. Gauntlet, *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*, New York, St. Martin’s Press, 1961, p. 45).

Such a belief overlooks the fact that structural patterns not only differ from language to language but that they do not even work in the same way. Anyone who wants to learn a foreign language by studying a dictionary should be familiar with Henry Sweet’s remark which still holds good to-day: “The worst kind of isolation is to begin a study of a language by learning lists of words by heart“. And furthermore, the less cognate languages are, the truer this is.

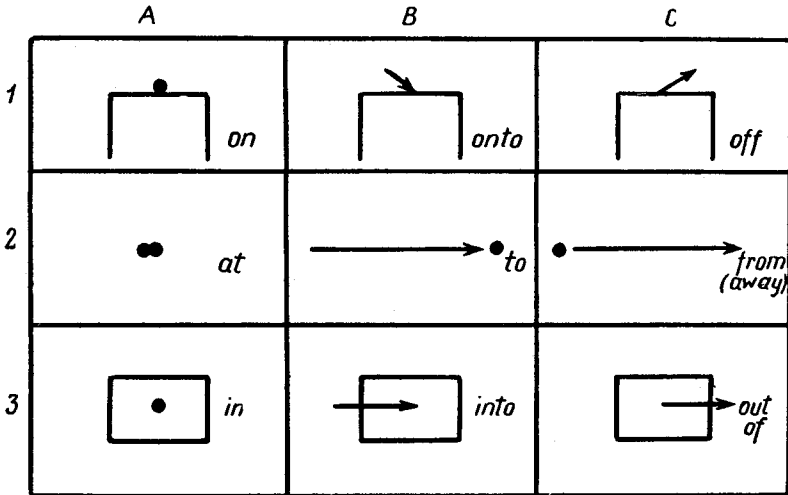
To come back to our subject in question, we must emphasize the fact that language is systemic at all levels: grammatical, lexical, phonological. There are non-correspondences between the systems of languages, and it is these non-correspondences between the systems – and hence between the constituent elements of the systems – of English and other languages, which underlie many of the difficulties of the translation process. The following illustration will throw light on this.

For instance, in the verbal system of English there is a distinction between (1) “write“ and (2) “am writing“. The verbal system of Lithuanian, Russian, French and a number of other languages, force no such distinction upon its speakers.



In vocabulary, particular terms for parts of the body oblige English speakers to make a rigorous distinction (in ordinary everyday intercourse) between “legs” and “feet”; but there is no such obligation for speakers of Lithuanian, Russian, Czech, German etc.

Here is another illustration suggested by J.C. Catford, Director of the School of Applied Linguistics (Edinburgh, U.K.).



This diagram represents a system of spatial relations; these relations vary, or contrast, in two dimensions. Strictly speaking, variations in the type of relation occur only in the horizontal dimension – in columns A, B and C. The relation in column A is one of static contiguity, those in B and C are dynamic relations which may be termed “arrival” or “approach” (B) and “departure” or “separation” (C). The variations in the vertical dimension (in rows 1, 2 and 3) represent, on the other hand, different types of end-point. In row 1, we have relations concerned with the exterior of something. This contrasts with row 3, where the relations concern the interior of something. Between these, in row 2, we have relations which are indifferent with regard to the exteriority or interiority of the second. We may say that row 1 shows relations to a surface (or line), row 2 – relations to a point, row 3 – relations to a space.

Now, this is a system which has been set up for the description of the meanings of a group of common English prepositions.

These systematic distinctions hold good also for expanded or less obvious uses. Compare, for example, (a) *on entering the room*, he sat down; (b) *in entering the room*, he tripped over the mat; (c) *at this entrance*, everyone stood up. In (a) his *sitting down* is subsequent, and thus *external*, to his entering: hence *on*. In (b) his *tripping* is part of the actual process of entering, and thus *internal* to it: hence *in*. In (c) his *entrance* merely marks a point in time; the question of the precise simultaneity or otherwise, or the “exteriority” or “interiority” of the standing up in relation to the entrance, is left open: hence *at*\*

\* The table and explanations are taken from: The Teaching of English, Studies in Communication 3, “English as a Foreign Language” by J. C. Catford.

We can construct, on the basis of the above mentioned table, a similar one for Russian common prepositions:

<i>Na + loc.</i> ( <i>na stolé</i> )	<i>Na + acc.</i> ( <i>na stol</i> )	<i>S(o) + gen.</i> ( <i>so stolá</i> )
<i>V + loc.</i> ( <i>v stolé</i> )	<i>V + acc.</i> ( <i>v stol</i> )	<i>iz + gen.</i> ( <i>iz stolá</i> )
<i>u + gen.</i> ( <i>u stolá</i> )	<i>k + dat.</i> ( <i>k stolú</i> )	<i>ot + gen.</i> ( <i>ot stolá</i> )

In Russian spatial relations are always expressed by prepositions + cases. The preposition limits the choice of the case.

In Lithuanian these relations may be expressed either by preposition + case or only case. See table 3.

<i>Ant + gen.</i> ( <i>ant stalo</i> )	<i>Ant + gen.</i> ( <i>ant stalo</i> )	<i>Nuo + gen.</i> ( <i>nuo stalo</i> )
<i>O(zero) + loc.</i> ( <i>stale</i> )	<i>Į + acc.</i> ( <i>į stala</i> )	<i>Iš + gen.</i> ( <i>iš stalo</i> )
<i>Prie + gen.</i> ( <i>prie stalo</i> )	<i>Prie + gen.</i> ( <i>į, pas + acc.,</i> <i>obsolete</i> ) ( <i>prie stalo</i> )	<i>Nuo + gen.</i> ( <i>nuo stalo</i> )

Thus, the system of Lithuanian prepositions does not force upon its users, in some cases, the distinction between static and dynamic relations (*knyga guli ant stalo. Padėk knygą ant stalo. Prie stalo stovėjo senyvas žmogus. Eikite prie stalo*). Russian obliges its speakers to distinguish between “na” + locative and “na” + accusative (*na stolé ležít kniga. Položi knigu na stol*) as well as between “u” + genitive and “k” + dative (*u stolá stojal čelovek. Podojdítie k stolú*).

In Lithuanian, as in Russian, the choice of the case is limited by that of preposition. Such prepositions as “į”, “nuo”, “iš” are capable of expressing only dynamic relations. Furthermore, in Lithuanian only three cases are used in combination with prepositions, i.e. genitive, accusative and instrumental. For the remaining part, the case system comes into play.

“These crude and oversimplified examples serve to illustrate the point we are making: namely, that systems of different languages impose different “grids” on our experience of the world. These “grids” are rarely, if ever, identical in form.

This kind of non-correspondence proves that “complete” translation is impossible. A sentence in one language may be appropriate to exactly the same practical situation as a sentence in another language. But in the linguistic sense, the two versions can never have exactly the same “value” and this may have more than purely theoretical importance. “The main defect of the so-called “Grammar-Translation Method” was not that it used grammar and translation, but that it used them badly. Ignoring the systemic nature of language, it equated grammatical categories and lexical items of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  (source language and target language) in an atomistic way, as if they were directly equivalent, instead of being units deriving incommenceable values from the different systems of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ”<sup>13</sup>.

“The basis for any total translation must be found in linguistic analysis at the grammatical, lexical, collocational and situational level. Total translation means comprehensive application of all known techniques in the statement of meaning in linguistic terms.

Thus we can call translation a process of building bridges between the source and the target languages with the material and technique of linguistics. A comprehensive description of the two languages can itself constitute the bridge, enabling the linguist to frame a total translation”<sup>14</sup>.

Research in translation is concerned with the explicit criteria of equivalence, with establishment on a sound theoretical basis of comparison between source and target languages and with the development of effective and linguistically valid techniques for obtaining the equivalents of the source language.

Equivalence is justified by the fact that two languages reflect, though in different ways, similar features from similar context or situation. Thus, in total translation the forms are equivalent when they are relatable to each other. However, grammatical equivalence between two languages is not absolute but it is related to the strata of grammatical units which are the carriers of grammatical systems and structures.

<sup>13</sup> The Teaching of English, Studies in Communication 3, “English as a Foreign Language” by J. C. Catford.

<sup>14</sup> J. R. Firth, Linguistic Analysis and Translation, Reprint for Roman Jakobson, 1956, p. 4.

“They are, therefore, the segments into which language text is divided when grammatical statements are being made about it. Again they are not universals, they must be recognized fresh for each language”<sup>15</sup>.

“If, however, we want to compare two languages, we must be comparing something, we link not the two languages as a whole but items in each and these items must be related to the grammatical units of which they are class members”.

“So for comparative purposes we relate the units of the two languages to each other on the basis of translation equivalence”<sup>16</sup>.

Comparison presupposes description. Things must be described before they can be compared. The validity of the comparison depends upon the validity of the respective descriptions. Comparison is not possible without good descriptions of both source and target languages.

Translators have never agreed upon principles on which translation should rest. But there is a point where they all agree: translator should give a complete transcript of the meaning of the original work. How it is achieved in a human translator it will probably never be known. It can be accurately stated for the mechanical translator.

As has been already mentioned above, for a theory of translation a theory of description of language is necessary. Such a theory of translation applies both in the case of a human translator and in the case of a machine. While a logical step-by-step procedure is a must for the machine it will rarely be found with men.

In discussing translation equivalents, first of all, empirical justification should be considered, i.e. the fact that the equivalents occur in the text. Secondly, statistical generalization based on observation of large samples of data should be made. In this way, we arrive at probable equivalents based on statistical data of frequency of occurrence. These statistical data allow prediction beyond a given corpus and so they constitute description of the language in question.

The set of statistical rules, as has been mentioned above, is capable also of being transformed into an “algorithm” to be used for machine translation.

In the process of translation three factors are involved at all strata:

1. There is the probability scale translation equivalence.
2. There is the conditional effect on those probabilities by environmental features characteristic for a given language.
3. There is the factor of the internal structure of the target language which may determine the choice of one or another item on the basis of larger units of which it is a part. (These points have been taken from M. A. K. Halliday’s “Linguistics and Machine Translation”).

To conclude this essay, we give a graphic representation of translation process, adapted from A. G. Gettinger, *Automatic Language Translation*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1960 (see p. 87).

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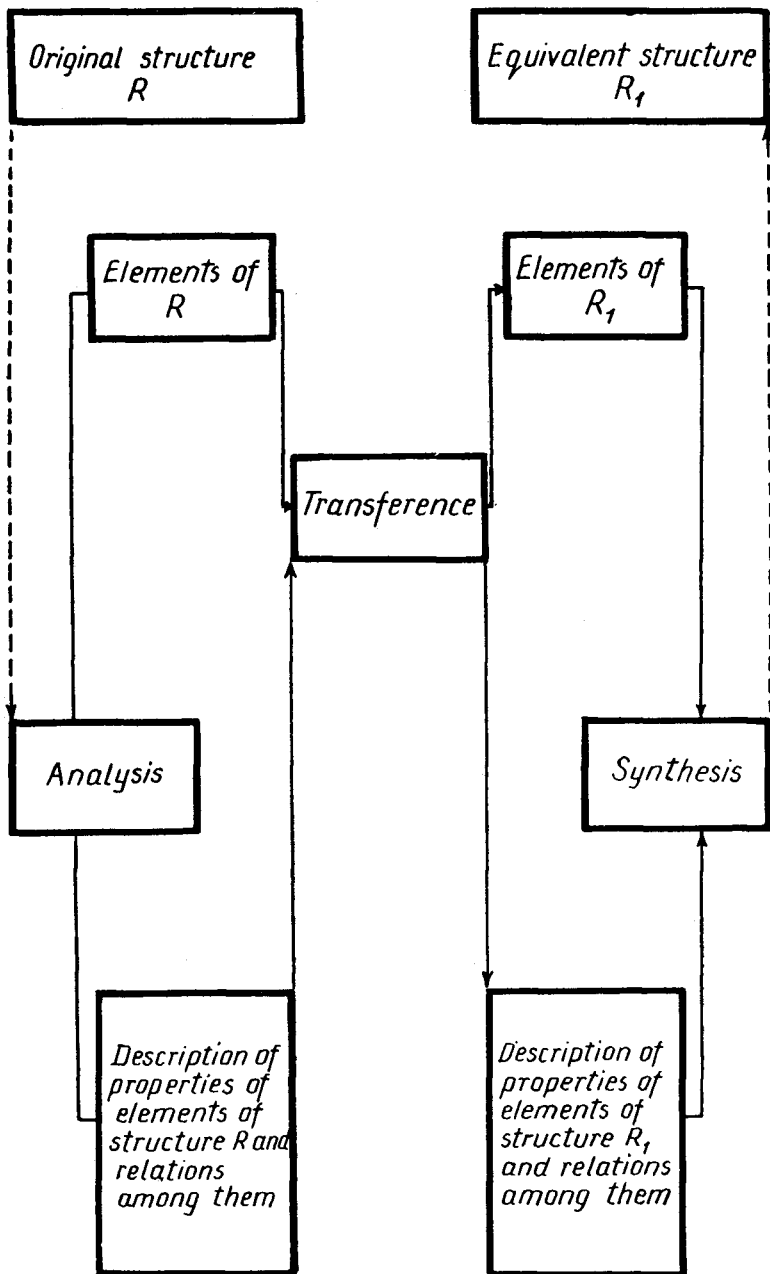
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<sup>15</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *Linguistics and Machine Translation*, p. 8.

<sup>16</sup> M. A. K. Halliday, *ibid.*

Symbols used in the essay:

- |                         |                   |                             |
|-------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| $L_1$ — source language | C — complement    | MHQ — in the Nominal group: |
| $L_2$ — target language | N — Nominal group | M — modifier                |
| S — subject             | r — preposition   | H — head                    |
| P — predicator          | a — adjective     | Q — qualifier               |
| A — adjunct             | b — adverb        |                             |



This graphic representation of translation process has been adapted from A. G. Gettinger, *Automatic Language Translation*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1960.

# GRAMATIKOS TEORIJA, PRITAIKYTA VERTIMO PROBLEMOMS

N. JANSONIENE

## *Reziumė*

Straipsnyje bendrais bruožais nagrinėjamos vertimo problemos britų (Edinburgo „Taikomosios lingvistikos mokykla“) struktūralistinės gramatikos teorijos šviesoje.

Kalba, jų nuomone, yra veikla, operuojanti kalbiniais modeliais. Sakome, kad kalba operuoja modeliais, nes jie reguliariai pasireiškia joje. Modeliai formos atžvilgiu organizuoti taip, kad išreikštų įvairių situacijų, pasireiškiančių kalbinėje veikloje, bruožus.

Deskripcija (aprašymas) didele dalimi priklauso nuo kalbos gramatikos teorijos, nes deskripcijos esmė yra ta, kad ji tampriai sieja tekstą su kalbos gramatinėmis kategorijomis. Geriausia deskripcija yra tokia, kuri maksimaliai panaudoja kalbos faktus.

Vertimas gali būti apibrėžtas kaip procesas, kurio metu vienos kalbos lingvistiniai vienetai ir santykiai tarp jų yra pakeičiami atitinkamais kitos kalbos kalbiniais vienetais ir santykiais tarp jų. Vertimas yra gretinamosios kalbotyros forma.

Kiekvienai kalbai yra būdingi tik tam tikri struktūriniai modeliai. Straipsnyje pateikiamos lentelės, iliustruojančios pagrindinių anglų, rusų ir lietuvių kalbų prielinksnių, išreiškiančių erdvinis santykius, vartosenos specifiškumą. Šis neatitikimas įrodo tą faktą, kad kiekviena kalba operuoja savo sistema, šis faktorius, jų požiūriu, yra svarbiausias išėities taškas, nagrinėjant vertimo problemas.

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## ТЕОРИЯ ГРАММАТИКИ И ПРОБЛЕМЫ ПЕРЕВОДА

Н. ЯНСОНЕНЕ

## *Резюме*

В статье в общих чертах рассматриваются проблемы перевода в свете британской (Эдинбургская «Школа прикладной лингвистики») структуралистской теории грамматики.

Язык, по их мнению, — деятельность, оперирующая языковыми моделями. Говорим, что язык оперирует моделями, так как они регулярно проявляются в нем. Модели, по своей форме, организованы таким образом, что выражают различные черты ситуаций, проявляющихся в языковой деятельности.

Описание (deskрипция) в значительной мере зависит от теории грамматики языка, так как сущность описания в том, что оно тесно связывает текст с грамматическими категориями языка. Лучшее описание есть то, которое максимально использует языковые факты.

Перевод можно определить как процесс, во время которого лингвистические единицы и отношения между ними одного языка заменяются соот-

ветствующими языковыми единицами и отношениями между ними другого языка. Перевод является формой сравнительного языкознания.

Каждому языку свойственны только его собственные структурные модели. В статье приводятся таблицы, иллюстрирующие специфичность употребления английских, русских и литовских предлогов, изображающих пространственные отношения. Несоответствие, по их мнению, является важнейшей исходной точкой при рассмотрении проблемы перевода.

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