


# Syntactical Shifts in Translation of Texts on the Country's History and Culture

## Sintaksinės transformacijos krašto istorijos ir kultūros tekstų vertimuose

TRANSLATION / VERTIMAS

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Translation of texts on the country's history and culture has been and remains in demand in Lithuania. In order to convey the message of such texts effectively, the translator has to take into consideration their function, to be familiar with their structure and style, and to be aware of differences between the source and target languages, which are reflected by translation transformations (shifts).

The article focuses on syntactical transformations in English translations of Lithuanian texts on the country's history and culture. Earlier and more recent theoretical approaches to translation shifts and linguistic analysis are discussed, such as the attitudes of Vinay and Darbelnet, Catford, van Leuven-Zwart, Armalytė and Pažūsis, Toury, Chesterman, Molina and Hurtado Albir, Cyrus, Gudavičius, Palumbo, and Leonavičienė. Syntactical patterns emerging in the analysed corpus are discussed, and the dominant trends are reflected.

The discussion of shifts is important for translation pedagogy as it helps to obtain answers to practical questions about translation. The findings of the analysis might be interesting from the standpoint of ethnolinguistics.

**KEYWORDS:** impersonal sentences, modulation, perception of actants, sentence parts, thematic relations, translation pedagogy, translation shifts.

The term "translation shift" was introduced in Catford's "A Linguistic Theory of Translation" (1965) (Cyrus, 2010, p.91). Palumbo provides the following explanation of the concept: "A shift is a linguistic deviation from the original text, a change introduced in translation with respect to either the syntactic form or the meaning of the ST. Considering the differences existing between languages [...] at the structural level as well as the different cultural background of audiences in any language pair, shifts can be seen as inevitable features of translations" (2009, p.104). Translation theory has sought the answers to the following interrogatives: "how can shifts occurring in translation be described" and "why do they occur?" (ibid.).

As different researchers have proposed classifications of shifts, terminology used by them is varying and sometimes even confusing. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) used the term "procedures", others labelled them "methods" or "techniques", while Chesterman (1997) refers

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## Abstract

## Introduction



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to “strategies”, emphasizing their problem-solving character (Palumbo, 2009, p.105). Early taxonomies of shifts are sometimes criticized for being grounded on linguistic theories, for focusing on the micro-level, and for seeking a certain degree of generality. And still, to quote Palumbo, “the various description and taxonomies of shifts proposed so far are probably one of the ‘success stories’ of translation theory”. The researcher provides Toury’s argument (1995) to support his opinion: “these taxonomies have nevertheless provided the field with an *apparatus for describing all types of relationship which may obtain between target and source items*”. According to Palumbo, while linguistically oriented theories have tended to explain shifts “with recourse to the way different languages encode meanings”, target-oriented and cultural approaches to translation “use shifts as an instrumental notion to characterize different concepts of translation, which in turn are seen as motivated by a wide range of socio-cultural factors” (2009, p.106).

The aim of the paper is to study syntactical shifts in translation of Lithuanian texts on the country’s history and culture into English. The objectives of the paper are: 1. to investigate the attitudes to translation shifts, linguistic analysis, and syntactic functions of the clause constituents; 2. to analyse shifts of sentence parts and shifts in the sentence structure in translation of narratives on Lithuania’s history and culture.

## Attitudes to Translation Shifts and Linguistic Analysis

Lea Cyrus states that the attitudes to shifts have changed “from mildly prescriptive to neutrally descriptive” (2009, p.87). She also notices that “in recent years, one can observe a renaissance of linguistic approaches, certainly encouraged by Baker’s (1995) influential suggestions as to how linguistic corpora could be applied to the study of translation” (2009, pp.97-98). According to Cyrus, linguistic analysis of corpora may yield interesting results and be a significant contribution to applied translation studies. The researcher comments on Munday’s (1998) and Macken’s (2007) attempts to compile control corpuses and carry out computational analysis in them, as well as on Ahrenberg and Merkel’s (2000) correspondence model based on structural and semantic shifts, which “can be used for the linguistic evaluation of machine translation output” (2009, 102). According to Munday (1998), the computerised approach enables researchers to see beyond individual shifts and check if they become trends over the whole texts; computational analysis reduces “the arduousness of manual investigations” and increases the objectivity of results (Cyrus, 2009, pp.98-99). Macken used the shift approach to investigate current norms with respect to “different degrees of freeness in the translation of different text types” (2009, p.100). Cyrus introduced a manual annotation project that focused on the annotation and categorisation of translation shifts: English originals of proceedings of the European Parliament and their German translations constituted the corpus, shift annotation was based on “predicate-argument structures”, and the researcher categorized the shifts as grammatical, semantic or structural (2009, pp.101-102). Cyrus notices the revival of interest in the concept of translation shifts in the computer era and concludes by saying that “maybe it is time to give up regarding linguistic approaches with suspicion” (2009, pp.103-104). In Catford’s (1965) words, translation shifts are “departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL” (Munday, 2001, p.60). Catford distinguished between two kinds of shifts: shifts of level and shifts of category. *Category shifts* are subdivided into structural shifts, class shifts, unit/ rank shifts, and intra-system shifts. Shifts of sentence parts had been attributed by Catford to “structural” ones.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) suggested a system of seven translation procedures: direct (involving borrowing, calque, literal translation) and oblique (involving transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation) (Cyrus, 2009, p.92). Vinay and Darbelnet’s *modulation* is pertinent to this research, described as “changing the semantics and point of view of the SL”

(Munday, 2001, p.58) or as a shift in cognitive categories (Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002, p.499). Munday notes that, according to Vinay and Darbelnet, modulation can be obligatory and “optional, though linked to preferred structures of the two languages”. Following the English edition of the work by the French researchers, Munday further explains that “modulation is a procedure that is justified [...] when, although a literal, or even transposed, translation results in a grammatically correct utterance, it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL” (2001, p.58). According to Vinay and Darbelnet, while transposition (a change of one part of speech for another without changing the sense) shows a very good knowledge of the TL, modulation proves mastery of a translator. Modulation “at the level of message” covers the following shifts: “abstract for concrete, cause – effect, part – whole, part – another part, reversal of terms, negation of opposite, *active to passive (and vice versa)*, space for time, rethinking of intervals and limits [...], change of symbol” (ibid.). Syntactical shifts involving the change of the voice, discussed in this article, can be viewed as cases of modulation, to use Vinay and Darbelnet’s term. Snell-Hornby (2006) has referred to Vinay and Darbelnet’s procedures as to “atomistic and prescriptive” because they focus on “isolated elements” (Palumbo, 2009, p.106); nonetheless, Palumbo states that in translation teaching, they “enjoy continued success” because they “provide a flexible set of conceptual tools to describe translating and translated texts at the linguistic level”.

Kitty van Leuven-Zwart (1989-1990) developed a two-part method for describing translations of fictional narrative texts: her analysis consists of analysis of shifts on the microstructural level and investigation of shifts’ effect on the macrostructural level (the level of the characters, events, time, place and other meaningful components of the text) (Cyrus, 2009, p.95-96). The three major categories of shifts, identified by the scholar, are the following: modulation, modification, and mutation (ibid.). The shifts of interest to this research would fit into van Leuven-Zwart’s category of modifications (*syntactic-semantic* and *syntactic-pragmatic*). “Syntactic modification” is “only recorded if it has an effect on the semantic, stylistic, or pragmatic level” (ibid.). Syntactic-semantic modification “occurs whenever there has been a change with respect to a grammatical feature such as tense, person, or number, or with respect to grammatical class or *function*”; syntactic-pragmatic modification marks “a change in speech act or in *thematic meaning*” (2009, pp.96-97).

Armalytė and Pažūsis (1990) proposed the following system for classifying translation transformations: 1) transpositions (changing the sequence of semantically independent linguistic elements); 2) *shifts* (both grammatical units (word forms, parts of speech, sentence parts, types of syntactic links) and lexical units are replaced); 3) additions (lexical elements are added when certain semantic components of SL word combinations have not been formally expressed); 4) omissions (omission of semantically redundant words) (1990, pp.181-239). The researchers have noted that the system is arbitrary and that the four types of transformations are rarely absolute (pp.181-182). Shifts of sentence parts, changes in the sentence structure and changes in the type of links between clauses of a composite sentence, pertinent to this research, fall under the category of “shifts” discerned by these researchers.

It has been noticed by Armalytė that *Lithuanian thematic objects* are often transformed into *English subjects*, and these transformations involve the *change of the voice of the verb* or the *change of the type of the verb* (Lithuanian intransitive verbs are transformed into English transitive verbs) (1982, pp.13-14); the researcher’s findings mostly focus on the shifts in simple personal sentences with simple predicates. Broughton, having compared pairs of English sentences with transitive verbs in active and passive forms, states that “active and passive sentences are not, however, two ways of saying the same thing” (1990, p.3). According to the grammarian, the choice of the passive is effective when: 1) “the agent is unknown,

unimportant or to be disguised”; 2) the author wishes to front a phrase in order to emphasize it; 3) the author needs to express a complex thought without awkwardness.

To quote Armalytė, another type of shifts “involving changes in the syntactical expression of sentence elements can be observed when translating Lithuanian sentences with *thematic local* and *temporal adverbials*” (1982, p.16). The scholar has noticed that when Lithuanian local adverbials are expressed by *geographical names* or locative nouns denoting either *geographical entities* or *functional buildings*, the transformations of thematic local adverbials to subjects are accompanied by transformations of Lithuanian intransitive verbs into English transitive verbs. When translating sentences with adverbials denoting *large gatherings, events, or various kinds of written documents*, the adverbials “are transformed into English locative subjects and Lithuanian passive participles are transformed into English active verb forms”; non-gender forms of passive participles of Lithuanian impersonal clauses are replaced by English active verb forms (pp. 22-23). The shift “LT temporal adverbial – EN subject” is associated with the usage of Lithuanian “when-adverbials” expressed by: 1) “nouns or adverbs denoting time as the starting or the closing point”; 2) “nouns denoting a prolonged duration of time”; 3) “nouns denoting events and happenings, usually sudden and dangerous” (Armalytė, 1982, p.19-20). Moreover, the researcher has addressed *syntactic compression* in translation from Lithuanian into English (pp. 25-31).

Aurelija Leonavičienė proposes the following classification: shifts, omissions and additions (2010, p.21). Lexical-semantic and grammatical transformations are attributed to the category of *shifts*. The subcategory of *grammatical transformations* includes morphological and syntactic transformations: 1) transposition of parts of speech; 2) transposition of grammatical categories; 3) shifts of sentence parts; 4) shifts in sentence structure; 5) changes in the type of links between the sentence components (p.24). The last three kinds of grammatical transformations are relevant to this article.

*Shifts of sentence parts* are defined as changes in syntactical functions of words in the target sentences while expressing these words by *the same parts of speech* as in the ST (Leonavičienė, 2010, p.26). The latter shifts can be determined by lexical or other grammatical transformations, or even stylistic considerations (ibid.).

Leonavičienė states that *shifts in sentence structure* encompass the following: 1) shift from a composite sentence to a simple; 2) shift from a simple sentence to a composite; 3) shift from a compound sentence to a complex one; 4) shift from a complex sentence to compound; 5) shift from the main clause to a subordinate clause; 6) shift from a subordinate clause to the main clause. These changes are produced seeking naturally sounding translations and normative as well as pragmatic equivalence of texts; application of this shift may also be determined by the need to emphasize a certain informative structure (pp.26-27).

In Toury’s (1995) view, translations “first and foremost occupy a position in the social and literary systems of the target culture”, and “this position determines the translation strategies that are employed” (Munday, 2001, p.112). Munday explains that Toury’s three-phase methodology for systematic Descriptive Translation Studies integrates “a description of the product” and “the wider role of the sociocultural system”. As step one, Toury situates the text within the target culture system; as step two, he compares the ST and TT for shifts and endeavours to provide “generalizations about the underlying concept of translation” (ibid.). Step three is drawing “implications for decision-making in future translating”; thus, Toury considers the analysis of shifts to be helpful for decision-making in the future. Toury also refers to shifts when discussing his *textual-linguistic norms*. For Toury, “textual-linguistic norms govern the selection of TT linguistic material: lexical items, phrases and stylistic features”, and linguistic analysis should disclose shifts “in the relations” between the ST and TT (Munday, 2001, p.114).

Chesterman (1997) also takes linguistic approaches into account. He distinguishes between (1) “product or expectancy norms” and (2) “process or professional norms” (Munday, 2001, pp.118-119). Professional norms relate to the translation process and are governed by expectancy norms. Among the three kinds of professional norms, the “*relation*” norm is a linguistic one, gauging the relation between the ST and the TT (ibid.). Chesterman discerns syntactic, semantic and pragmatic changes, and perceives them “as ultimately motivated by the norms adhered to by the translator” (Palumbo, 2009, p.106).

According to Gudavičius, the syntactical structure (organization) of a language reflects the perception of actants of a specific situation (2009, pp.157-158). The sentence structure can highlight one or another situational element, and the meaning of the expression slightly changes as a result: one of alternatives to interpret the situation is chosen by the speaker or writer (ibid.). Gudavičius states that a typical structure of the English sentence is SVO (the sentence emphasizes the subject). The researcher quotes Jandt (2001) who notices that in Japanese the situational subject is not accentuated, while Eskimos tend to use hypothetical structures rather than temporal ones. This tendency can be explained by the fact that Eskimos live under severe conditions and their life is vulnerable; therefore, they can control the environment to a slight extent only and are not confident about the future (ibid.).

The researcher, drawing on findings of different scholars (Bulygina, Shmeliov 1997, Arutiunova 1999, Wierzbicka 1997), provides some comparison of English and Russian and states that the idea of resigning oneself to one’s fate is clearly expressed in the world-view of the Russian language: this resignation is reflected by tautological sentences *X есть X*; moreover, impersonal structures are very characteristic of Russian and suppose that a person is a tool of indeterminate forces or the object of the action, or a certain locale where something takes place, stream of consciousness moves, characteristics and states lie perdue, while the subject himself/ herself remains passive. And though impersonal structures are also used in other languages (including English), structures emphasizing the agent, action and volition are still preferred in English. Detailed statistical research on structures with dative and nominative should be carried out if one seeks to explore Lithuanian in this respect (Gudavičius, 2009, pp.158-159).

According to Valeika and Buitkienė, the syntactic structure of the clause is “the system of syntactic (formal) functions realized by its constituents”, and the researchers distinguish the following functions: *Subject*, *Predicate*, *Objective Complement*, *Attributive Adjunct*, *Adverbial Adjunct*, and *Enclosure* (2006, p.100). Definitions of *Subject*, *Predicate*, *Object* and *Adverbial Modifier* are provided below.

Valeika and Buitkienė give the following definitions of the *Subject* in English: the *Subject* is a person restricter (modifier) of the *Predicate* (a functional definition); the *Subject* is a constituent that agrees with the *Predicate* in person and number, or a constituent that in a declarative clause comes before the *Predicate*, or a constituent repeated in a tag question (a formal definition) (p.101). It may be identified as: 1) the nominal which determines verbal concord; 2) the so-called nominative form of a pronoun; 3) the nominal preceding the verb (p.103). The *Subject* “usually realizes the *Agent*, the *Affected Patient*, the *Effected Patient*, the *Recipient Experiencer*, the *Sayer*, the *Carrier*, and the *Existent*” (ibid.).

According to Carnie, “in English the subject is always the NP (noun phrase) or CP (complementizer phrase) that appears before the verb or auxiliary” (2013, p.132). Carnie notices that the definition of subject is not a semantic one. He states that the subject is not necessarily the doer of the action and provides the following examples to illustrate this: (a) “*Fred* feels fine.”, (b) “*The kitten* was licked.”, and (c) “*That Bill’s breath smells of onions* bothers Erin.” *Thematic*

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## Studies on the Relationship between Language and Culture

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## Syntactic Functions of Clause Constituents



*relations* are particular semantic terms used to describe the role that the argument plays with respect to the predicate (Carnie, 2013, p.229). Carnie suggests that subjects can have the following roles: the *agent*, *experiencers*, *goals* (entities towards which motion takes place), *recipients*, *sources* (entities from which motions originate), and *instruments*. The syntactician notices that “any given DP (determiner phrase) can have more than one thematic relation”. As “there is no one-to-one relationship between thematic relations and arguments”, linguists introduced a special construct called a *theta role*: “theta roles are bundles of thematic relations that cluster on one argument”, i.e. one argument is assigned only one theta role (pp.229-234). The central position in the clause (a predicative unit) is occupied by the *Predicate*; the remaining parts of the clause can be viewed as restricters of the *Predicate* (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006, p.100). The *Predicate* is a process restricter of the *Subject*; the distinction between *verbal* (simple and compound) and *nominal* (compound) *predicates* is made (2006, pp.101-105). *Verbal predicates* realize the verbal categories of person, number, tense, mood, aspect, voice, and order, while *nominal predicates* have two parts: “the copula realizes the verbal categories of person, number, etc. while the predicative expresses the content of the *Predicate*” (p.101). Valeika and Buitkienė define the English *Objective Complement* as “a substance restricter of the Predicate” (2006, p.107). They explain that the *Objective Complement* is “a noun (or a pronoun) or a noun clause that serves as a restricter of the verb”. At the semantic level, the *Objective Complement* represents “the *Affected*, the *Effected Patient*, the *Recipient*, the *Beneficiary*, the *Phenomenon*, and the *Verbiage*”. *Objective Complements* can be divided into *direct* and *indirect* (ibid.). Carnie provides the following definitions of the *direct object* of the verb and the *object of a preposition* (2013, p.133): *Direct object* = NP or CP daughter of a VP (NP = noun phrase, CP = complementizer phrase, VP = verb phrase); *Object of preposition* = NP daughter of PP (PP = prepositional phrase). The scholar suggests that objects can be assigned the following roles with respect to predicates: those of *experiencers*, *themes* (entities that undergo actions or are moved, experienced, or perceived), *goals* (entities towards which (abstract) motion takes place), *recipients* (“occur with verbs that denote a change of possession”), *sources* (the entities from which motions originate), *instruments*, and *beneficiaries* (the ones for whose benefit events took place). A particular argument gets only one theta role (pp.229-232).

*Adverbial Adjuncts* are attributed to non-nuclear constituents of the clause and are “situation-concretizing elements” (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006, p.111). Specific semantic labels are attached to different types of circumstances. The linguists stress that *Adverbial Adjuncts* exhibit “different degrees of structural integration” and state that *Complement Adjuncts* exhibit the greatest integration in the clause structure (e.g. “He was *in his office*.”), while “the least integrated are *adverbial Adjuncts of Matter and Evaluation*”; other adjuncts “exhibit moderate integration” (ibid.).

Valeika and Buitkienė explain that “clause constituents present a hierarchical system” in which nuclear constituents are presented by the *Subject* and the *Predicate*, and the subsidiary constituents are presented by the *Objective Complement*, the *Attributive Adjunct* and the *Adverbial Adjunct* (2006, p.111). The linguists refer to the controversial syntactic status of the *Objective Complement* which “may be treated as a nuclear or as a non-nuclear constituent”. They indicate the similarity between the *Subject* and the *Objective Complement* stating that “depending on their pragmatic functions, the *Subject* can be turned into the *Objective Complement* and the *Objective Complement* into the *Subject*” (p.102). They quote Jespersen (1924) who considered that the *Objective Complement* is “a *Hidden Subject*”. According to Valeika and Buitkienė, “this returns us to the old theory, according to which the principal parts of the clause consist of three members: fully articulate clauses, besides the *Subject* and the *Predicate*, should also include the *Objective Complement*” (ibid.).

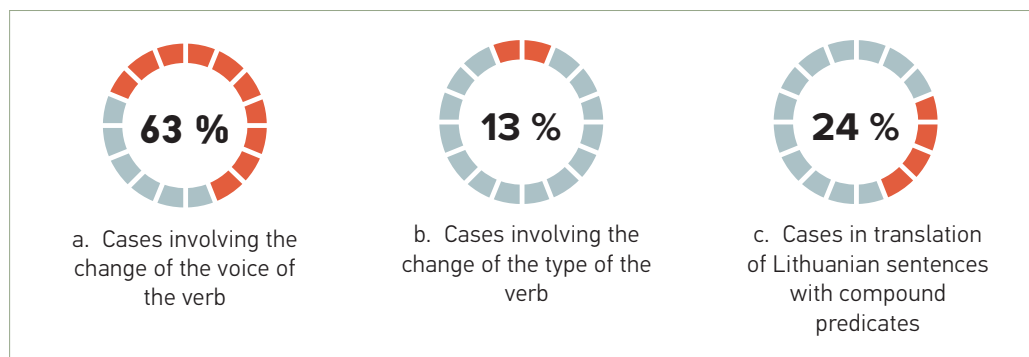
Holvoet and Semėnienė emphasize the importance of *the case criterion* as a formal criterion when defining the status of the subject (Lith. *veiksny*s), direct object and adverbial modifiers in Lithuanian (Holvoet and Mikulskas (ed.), 2005, pp.55-61), and state that it would be risky to define the subject and direct object on the basis of semantic roles alone (pp.62, 64).

85 pages of the material (narratives) on Lithuania's history and culture have been analysed with the aim of studying syntactical shifts (the sources are indicated in "Sources of Examples"). The research has been based on the comparative model of translation (Olohan, 2000, p.2), and a mixed-methods approach (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013, p.23) has been adopted to analyse the data of the corpus (Austermühl, 2001, p.125; Podesva and Sharma (ed.), 2014, p.258-259). The contrastive linguistic approach (Olohan, 2000, p.2) has been used to posit correlations between source and target texts (qualitative analysis), and this exploration has been followed up with a more focused quantitative analysis of sub-topics.

The Lithuanian sentence with two or several syntactical centres is considered a composite sentence (DLKG, 2006, p.658); its components correspond to simple sentences although they lack intonational self-sufficiency by which simple sentences are characterized (LKŽ, 2000, p.274). Therefore, both simple and composite sentences have been examined and considered in frequency calculations; subordinate clauses have not been equated with sentence parts in this research because of their grammatical form (DLKG, 2006, p.667). The following definition of the English subject has been adopted for the purposes of this analysis: the nominal which determines verbal concord or the nominative form of a pronoun, preceding the verb in a declarative clause.

### The shift "LT object – EN subject"

The "LT object – EN subject" shift in translation of personal sentences or clauses has proved the most conspicuous (76 cases). The analysis has produced the following results: shift a. involving the change of the voice of the verb accounts for 63% of all identified cases, shift b. involving the change of the type of the verb accounts for 13% of the cases, whereas shift c. occurring in translation of Lithuanian sentences with compound predicates constitutes 24% of the cases (Figure 1).



#### a. The shift "LT object – EN subject": the change of the voice of the verb

Most of the cases exhibiting the shift "LT object – EN subject" have been identified in simple sentences. E.g.:

- 1) Molinius *indus*, įvairias *talpas naudojo* visų socialinių sluoksnių miestelėnai. – *Pottery* and various clay *vessels* were used by townspeople of different social levels. [3, pp.17-18]/ [*indus/ talpas* – theme and instrument; *pottery/ vessels* – theme and instrument]

## Methodology

## Results: Shifts of Sentence Parts

Figure 1

The "object – subject" shift: translation of LT personal sentences or clauses into EN

- 2) Ateities *perspektyvas* ir 1831 metų sukilimo pralaimėjimo *priežastis nagrinėjo* ir kitas jo dalyvis – Jonas Goštautas (1800-1871) knygelėje ... [1, p.24] – *The perspectives* for the future, as well as the *causes* of failure of the 1831 rebellion *were* also *analysed* by another participant of the rebellion, Jonas Goštautas (1800-1871) in his book ... [2, p.29] [*perspektyvas/ priežastis* – theme; *perspectives/ causes* – theme]
- 3) Tokias *sagutes siūdavo* prie drabužių arba *vėrė* į *vėrinius* kartu su kitais papuošalais, pavyzdžiui, gintariniais vamzdeliniais karoliais. [4, p.48] – Such *buttons were sewn* onto clothing or *incorporated* into other ornaments, for example, amber pipe-shaped beads. [5, p.48] [*sagutes* – theme; *buttons* – theme]

In the above examples, the direction of the action has been reversed with the help of the passive voice. Following Broughton, fronting might have been the translator's aim in ex. 1, a complex thought had to be expressed in ex. 2, and the agent was unimportant in ex. 3.

If we try to describe the roles that the arguments of concern play with respect to the predicates, we see that these roles in LT and EN sentences above do not clash although objects have been replaced by subjects (notes at examples). The finding may support Carnie's claims that "large parts of the grammatical system are universal and innate" (2013, p.492) and that languages with phenomena of polysynthesis, incorporation, scrambling, and non-configurationality "might have more in common" with languages exhibiting fixed orders and strong constituency "than we might think at first glance" (2013, p.505). Thus differences between syntactical organization of Lithuanian (a synthetic language) and English (an analytical language) may not be so radical.

The analysis has revealed that: 1) the "object – subject" shift including the change of the voice is *not obligatory* in the studied corpus; 2) the translator may introduce the shift with the aim of fronting a phrase in order to emphasize it, when the agent is unimportant, or when a complex thought has to be expressed; 3) theta roles that can be assigned to the arguments of concern do not clash in the analysed pairs of simple sentences, which indicates that the shift may help to ensure similar communicative structure of simple source and target sentences.

#### b. The shift "LT object – EN subject": the change of the type of the verb

In the analysed material, the shift occurs in personal simple, composite sentences, and simple sentences transformed into composite ones. Cf.:

- 1) *Didikams* Lietuvos valstybė *asocijavosi* su buvusiomis privilegijomis. [1, pp.19-20] – *The magnates associated* the Lithuanian state with their former privileges. [2, p.23]
- 2) Iš *to kilo* Pilies amatų festivalis, senovinių amatų dirbtuves įrengiantis Katedros aikštėje. – *They developed into* the Castle Festival of Crafts, during which workshops of ancient trades are set up in Cathedral Square. [3, p. 32]

The transitive verbs *associate (sth with sth)*, *concern*, *consist (of)*, *include*, *meet (with)*, *develop (into)* are used in sentences of this type and replace their Lithuanian intransitive counterparts. The analysis has shown that this shift is *not obligatory*, but some target sentences would not sound naturally if the shift had not occurred.

#### c. The shift "LT object – EN subject": transformation in sentence pairs including LT personal sentences/ clauses with compound predicates

*The first subtype* of this transformation is related to translation of LT sentences with *nominal predicates*:

- the shift in sentences with nominal predicates consisting of an inflective form of the copula *būti* + adjective/ noun/ adjective + noun/ numeral + noun), e.g.: *S. Konarskiui* Lietuva



ir Lenkija – *bendra demokratinė valstybė*, kuri turėtų būti sukurta sukilimui laimėjus. [1, p.23] – *Konarskis envisaged Lithuania and Poland as a unitary democratic state which was to be established once the rebellion won.* [2, p.28]

- the shift in sentences with nominal predicates consisting of an inflective form of the copula *būti* + passive participle derived from transitive verb, e.g.: 1664 m. birželio 6 d. *puodžiams buvo įteiktas* pergamentas, patvirtintas LDK antspaudu. – On 6 June 1664 *the potters were handed* a parchment bearing the seal of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. [3, p.15]

*The second subtype* is related to translation of LT sentences with *mixed predicates* [combine features of both nominal and compound verbal predicates (LKŽ, 2000, p.249)]. The “object – subject” shift occurs in translation of sentences with mixed predicates including passive participles derived from transitive verbs, e.g.:

M. K. Oginskis manė, kad *Lietuvai* Rusijos imperijoje *galėtų būti suteiktas* panašus statusas kaip Suomijos Didžiajai kunigaikštystei ar Lenkijos karalystei. [1, p.20] – Oginskis maintained that *Lithuania could be afforded* a status in the Russian Empire similar to that of the Grand Duchy of Finland or the Kingdom of Poland. [2, p.24]

*The third subtype* is related to translation of sentences with *compound verbal predicates* [consist of a finite form of auxiliary verb and the infinitive (LKŽ, 2000, p.247)]. E.g.:

Šios apeiginės lazdos vaizduoja Briedžių briedę. *Jas* kulto apeigose *turėjo naudoti* žyniai. [4, p.48-50] – These ceremonial *sticks* picture the female Moose of All Moose, and *were to be used* by shamans in rituals. [5, pp.48-50]

To summarize, there are no strict patterns for translation of LT sentences with compound predicates; the translator must have an excellent command of English and be creative in order to convey the meaning of such units; the “object – subject” shift is *not obligatory* (i.e. maintaining the ST structure would be possible, but it would render translations less stylistically appropriate); the shift is often accompanied by lexical-semantic changes (e.g. generalization) and changes in sentence structure (e.g. unification).

#### d. The shift “LT object – EN subject”: the transformation in translation of Lithuanian impersonal simple sentences or impersonal clauses of composite sentences

Translation of Lithuanian impersonal structures into English may be rather challenging: it requires of the translator logical thinking, perfect command of English and ingenuity. 10 different types of impersonal sentences/ clauses and their translation patterns have been distinguished in the studied corpus (the total number of identified impersonal structures is 50). Lithuanian instances, similar to the ones in categories d.1, d.3, d.6, d.7, d.8, d.9, and d.10, are reviewed in DLKG (2006, pp. 606-611, pp.616-619).

*d.1. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with non-gender forms of adjectives (e.g. galima, nesunku, privalu) and infinitives, conveying various states of dative subjects*

A similar type is reviewed in DLKG (2006, p.619): “*Man nepatogu sėdėti*”, “*Po to jam buvo nepakeliama gyventi kartu*”. In Lithuanian sentences of this type, infinitives adjoin non-gender forms of adjectives. The sentences express states of “logical subjects” marked by datives (if explicit). E.g.:

Cecho *seniūnui privalu rūpintis* ne tik gaminio kokybe, bet ir *prižiūrėti* meistrų sąžiningumą. – The guild *elder* was required to ensure not only the quality of the products, but also the honesty of the masters. [3, p.9]

*d.2. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with non-gender forms of passive participles (e.g. leista, žadama, etc.) and infinitives*

Source sentences of this multifarious group may convey states of dative subjects (if any); their objects in accusative or genitive can be *goals* (or *affected*, *effected patients*), to use semantic terms. E.g.:

*Žadama aprūpinti atvykusius žeme, laikinai atleisti nuo mokesčių ir muitų. – The newcomers were promised land and temporary exemption from taxes and duties. [3, p.2]*

In the analysed corpus, the following other non-gender forms of passive participles, accompanied by infinitives, are used in Lithuanian sentences of this type: *imta*, *nurodyta*, *reikalaujama*, *siūloma*.

*d.3. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with the verbs derėti, reikėti, tekti, likti, rūpėti and infinitives, expressing obligation or an urge to take certain actions*

DLKG summarizes such structures as  $Vf_{imp} - N_d - Inf$  (“*Svečiams reikės palaukti*”) (p.610). Sentences of this type express states of “logical subjects” marked by datives; the nouns in datives may not be used if the experiencer is known from the context or is not actual (ibid.). Such structures have occurred most frequently in the researched corpus (12 cases). The analysed examples include Lithuanian verbs *derėti*, *reikėti*, *tekti*, *likti*; the verb *tekti* has been used most frequently, followed by *reikėti* and *likti*. The instance below illustrates the *explicit* “object – subject” shift:

1983 m. panaikinus Lietuvoje amatų cechų organizacinę struktūrą, *amatininkams beliko užsiimti* individualia veikla ar *įsiliėti* į miesto proletariato gretas. – After abolishment of the organizational structure of Lithuanian guilds in 1983, *craftsmen had no choice but to start* an individual business or *join* the ranks of the city’s proletariat. [3, p.30]

*d.4. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with nouns in accusative, dative, instrumental, and non-gender forms of passive participles (e.g. kalbama, susimąstyta, žiūrėta, etc.):*

- 1) Tačiau į šią *idėją nepalankiai žiūrėta* Lenkijoje. [1, p.29] – Yet this *idea met with disapproval* in Poland. [2, p. 29]
- 2) Tuo tarpu LDK didikų elgesys liudija, kad dar nebuvo išnykęs jų valstybingumo jausmas, tad *tu* ir *spekuliuota*. [1, p.18] – Whereas the conduct of the magnates of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania indicates that they had not totally lost their concern for statehood yet. Thus *it became the object of trading*. [2, p.21]

Some Lithuanian sentences of this type include adverbial modifiers to clarify the location or time of a specific state.

*d.5. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with nouns in genitive and non-gender forms of passive participles (būta, aptikta, pastebima, rasta, etc.), expressing availability of things or providing their quantitative characteristics*

The sentences of this second largest group (11 cases) frequently include members with quantifying meaning: numerals and adverbs (e.g. *nemažai*, *daug*). The majority of such sentences indicate availability or abundance of things in certain places. E.g.:

*Daugiausia jų dirbtuvių būta Šnipiškių priemiestyje, kur slūgsojo dideli molio klodai. – Their shops were mainly concentrated* in the suburb of Šnipiškės, which had large clay deposits. [3, p.15]

More examples of this kind can be provided: *kultūros paminklų aptinkama pajūrio ruože = sites of culture are found in the coastal strip; titnago dirbiniuose pastebima ir Nemuno, ir Pamarių kultūrai būdingų bruožų = characteristics of both Nemunas and Baltic Coastal cultures can be seen in the flint items; daug dėmesio buvo skiriama gamybai = great attention has been paid to the items.*

*d.6. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with nouns in genitive and verbs gausėti, daugėti, pasitaisyti, etc., informing of permanent or changing states*

A reference to a similar type is made in DLKG: Vf<sub>imp</sub> – N<sub>g</sub> (“Prisirinko reikalų”) (p.606). The verbs used impersonally require nouns in genitive expressing unspecified quantity. The sentences inform of permanent or changing states of “logical subjects” in genitive and frequently provide quantitative characteristics. E.g.:

Lietuviškai ėmusių rašyti autorijų vis daugėja. [1, p.21] – The authors writing in Lithuanian are on the increase. [2, p.25]

The translators may opt for structures with introductory “there” to translate sentences of this type; such cases are notable for the semantic loss occurring in the verb:

Pasitaiko ir ypatingesnių gintaro papuošalų ... (4, p.48) – *There are* also more note-worthy amber ornaments ... (5, p.48)

d.7. Impersonal sentences with nouns in genitive and local adverbial modifiers, expressing the absence, lack or sufficiency of sth in certain locations

The verbs in such sentences express sufficiency or lack of persons or things. A reference to a similar type of impersonal sentences is provided in DLKG: Vf<sub>imp</sub> – N<sub>g</sub> – AdvLoc/Dir (“Šulinyje stinga vandens”) (p.609). E.g.:

Kitų amatų meistrų Lietuvoje radosi 1950 m. įkūrus Mokslines restauracinės gamybinės dirbtuves. – Craftsmen of other trades emerged after the establishment of the Workshop of Scientific Restoration in 1950. [3, p.31]

d.8. Impersonal sentences with nouns in genitive and members with quantifying meaning (nedaug, etc.)

A similar type is referred to in DLKG: N<sub>g</sub> – Vf<sub>cop</sub> AdvQuant (“Grybų buvo daug”) (p.618). E.g.:

Palyginti su kitų senojo Vilniaus cechų amatininkais, kepurininkų buvo nedaug. – Hatters were small in number compared to craftsmen of other guilds in Old Vilnius. [3, p.25]

d.9. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with reflexive verbs (sektis, etc.) and nouns in dative, informing of spontaneous states

DLKG reduces the structure of such sentences to the formula Vf<sub>imp</sub> – N<sub>d</sub> (“Draugui sekasi”) (p.606). The sentences inform of spontaneous states of “logical subjects” marked by datives, e.g.:

Drobės audėjams Vilniuje sekėsi geriau – puikios žaliavos į valias. – Linen weavers of Vilnius were luckier – there was a plentiful supply of excellent raw material. [3, p.20]

d.10. Impersonal sentences/ clauses with nouns in dative and genitive, and impersonal verbs expressing the need, sufficiency or lack of sth (reikėti, etc.)

This type is referred to as Vf<sub>imp</sub> – N<sub>g</sub> – N<sub>d</sub> (“Švarkui trūksta sagų”) in DLKG (p.607). The sentences can also include the verbs expressing mental states (e.g. norėtis) (ibid.). In the next example, the noun in genitive marks the needed object:

Tam prireikė specialaus susitari-  
mo, kurį patvirtino teismas. – This  
matter was decided by a special  
agreement which was approved  
by court. [3, p.13]

The distribution of cases with the shift “LT object – EN subject”, occurring in translation of both Lithuanian personal and impersonal sentences or clauses, is reflected in Figure 2.

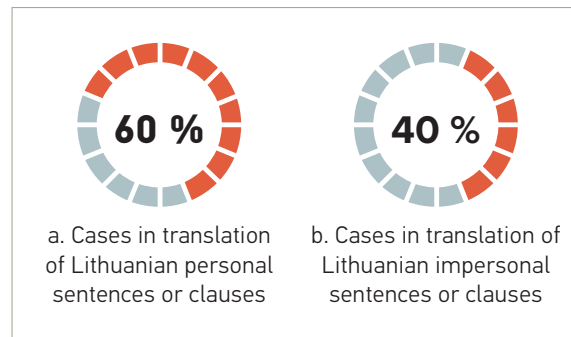


Figure 2

The “object – subject” shift: translation of Lithuanian personal and impersonal sentences or clauses

## Translation of Lithuanian impersonal sentences/ clauses: introduction of the subject into the target unit

Another type of syntactical shifts, related to translation of Lithuanian impersonal sentences/ clauses into English, can be referred to as “introduction of the subject into the TS”. Four major trends have been noticed in the analysed material.

- EN subjects in nominative make up for implicit LT *datives* (provided in angular brackets). Such instances could be referred to as “covert object – subject shifts”; however, as new sentence parts (subjects) are actually introduced into the target sentences, it makes sense to attribute such cases to the category “introduction of the subject”. E.g.:  
*Jeigu darbas nenusisektų, [jam] pakartoti bandymą galima po metų ketvirčio.* – In case of failure, the *journeyman could try* after three months. [3, p.21]
- Pairs of sentences in which EN subjects in nominative mark covert LT *accusatives* constitute another sub-group of this broader category, e.g.:  
*Jeigu vis tik darbas bus atliktas blogai, teks [jį/tokį] bausti.* – If despite this the work was still not done properly, such a *craftsman had to be punished*. [3, p.9]
- LT source sentences may “hide” *genitives* which are reflected by EN subjects in nominative in the target sentences, e.g.:  
*Tačiau vėliau [jų – gildijos] vis tik buvo sugrįžta į šv. Jonų bažnyčią.* – However, the *guild* eventually *returned* to the Church of Sts Johns. [3, p.28]
- Instances exhibiting more complex *grammatical – lexical transformations* can be attributed to the fourth category. E.g.:  
*1966 m. sausio 11 d. įkūrus Lietuvos TSR liaudies meno draugiją, imta labiau rūpintis amato tradicijų tęstinumu.* – The *issue* of continuation of handicraft traditions *was taken* more *seriously* after the establishment of the People’s Art Society of the Lithuanian SSR on 11 January 1966. [3, p.30]

In such cases, both grammatical and lexical shifts are realized. Translation of impersonal sentences similar to these requires understanding of the context, the communicative purpose of the text and may be challenging to budding translators.

Hence the research has shown that: 1) impersonal structures are common in Lithuanian narratives (cf. 60% of cases with the “object – subject” shift in translation of Lithuanian personal structures and 40% of cases in translation of Lithuanian impersonal structures; Figure 2); 2) impersonal source structures have been most frequently rendered as personal target structures in the analysed corpus; 3) Lithuanian tends to use verbs absolutely and to highlight facts, while English emphasizes the subject (Lith. *dalykas*), the agent, the experiencer expressed by a nominal. Lithuanian impersonal clauses may illustrate the “pro-drop” phenomenon discussed by Carnie (2013, pp.42, 449).

### The shift “LT adverbial modifier – EN subject”

37 cases illustrating this shift have been identified in the analysed texts.

#### The shift “LT local adverbial – EN subject”

##### a. Translation of sentences with LT local adverbials expressed by geographical names

Sentences with local adverbials expressed by geographical names, the translation of which involves the “adverbial – subject” shift, account for 16% of all the cases with local adverbials in the analysed material. The shift occurs in simple, composite sentences, as well as simple

ones transformed into complex and composite ones transformed into simple. In line with Armalytė's finding, intransitive verbs are replaced by their transitive counterparts:

*Rusijoje* ilgiausiai visoje Europoje *išsilaikė* baudžiava, bet ir Rusija, bijodama visuotinio sukilimo, buvo priversta imtis reformų ... [1, p.26] – Among all European countries, *Russia* longest *retained* serfdom, yet even Russia, fearing universal rebellion, was forced to embark on the course of reforms. [2, p.32]

If the relational verb “have” is used in target sentences, this results in the semantic loss, which is compensated for by English nominals.

#### b. Translation of sentences with LT local adverbials denoting written documents

Lithuanian sentences with local adverbials denoting written documents are very characteristic of the analysed corpus (70% of all the cases with local adverbials). The shift “adverbial – subject” occurs in simple, composite sentences, as well as simple ones transformed into complex ones; in line with Armalytė's finding, notable is the substitution of English active verb forms for Lithuanian passive participles. E.g.:

LDK generalinės laisvosios konfederacijos *akte*, skirtingai nei visos Abiejų Tautų Respublikos didikų ir bajorų vardu pasirašytame Targovicos *akte*, buvo ryškiai *išreikštas* LDK bajorijos sąjungos atskirumas. [1, p.18] – The *Act* of General Free Confederacy of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, unlike the *Act* of Torgovitsa signed on behalf of the magnates and nobles of all the Republic of Both Nations, *contained* a marked expression of the separateness of the united nobility of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. [2, p.21]

Familiarity with this translation pattern would benefit the translator of ethnographic, historical texts and official documents.

#### c. Translation of sentences with LT local adverbials denoting large gatherings or events

Sentences with local adverbials denoting gatherings or events account for 11% of all the cases exhibiting the “local adverbial – subject” shift. The examples illustrate this transformation and substitution of English active verb forms for Lithuanian passive participles, which supports Armalytė's finding:

- 1) Vadovaujant vyskupui J.K. Kosakovskiui, LDK konfederacijos *vadovybėje* buvo *suformuoti* visišką savarankiškai organizuotos Lietuvos valstybės atkūrimą numatantys būsimosios valstybės sutvarkymo principai. [1, p.18] – Under the leadership of Bishop J.K. Kosakovskis, the *command* of the Confederacy of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania *formulated* the principles of future organisation of the state which envisaged a total restoration of autonomously organised state of Lithuania. [2, p.21]
- 2) *Ten* [Amatų dienoje] vykdavo amatų technologijos demonstravimas, prekyba kaskart originalesniais dirbiniais, buvo *renkamas* geriausias Lietuvos meistras ... – The *festival* *included* a demonstration of handicraft techniques, sale of handicraft objects that over time became more and more original, and a poll of the best craftsmen of Lithuania ... [3, p.31]

Variations of the shift “local adverbial denoting gathering – subject” have been noticed: active Lithuanian verb forms may be replaced by passive ones, as illustrated by the next example notable for concretization:

Ir *čia* *vadovaudavo* išrinkti vyresnieji ... – Their *meetings* *were* also *presided over* by elected elders ... [3, p.8]

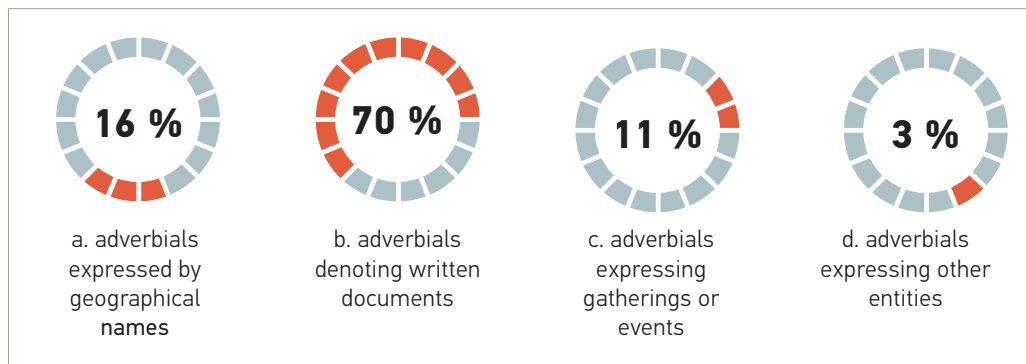
#### d. Translation of sentences with LT local adverbials denoting other entities

In the next example, the shift “local adverbial – subject” has been realized by transforming the Lithuanian passive participle to the English verb in the passive voice; the thematic adverbial is replaced by the subject which can be called *theme*:

XVIII a. pabaigos [alavo] *dirbiniuose jaučiama* ir klasicizmo stiliaus [taka. – The [pewter] *articles* from the 18<sup>th</sup> century *were influenced* by the Classical style. [3, p.11]

The distribution of cases exemplifying the shift “LT local adverbial – EN subject” is reflected in Figure 3.

**Figure 3**  
The shift “LT local adverbial – EN subject”: translation of sentences with Lithuanian local adverbials



### Translation of sentences with LT temporal adverbials

Cases with Lithuanian “when-adverbials” expressed by nouns or adverbs denoting time as the starting or the closing point, nouns denoting a prolonged duration of time, and nouns denoting events and happenings, usually sudden and dangerous, have not been identified in the studied corpus. The shift “temporal adverbial – subject” is *not obligatory*, the source structures are frequently carried over to the TT, and this may account for the absence of the latter cases in the analysed narratives.

Other cases exhibiting complex changes have been observed: ex. 1 includes the transformation of the extended temporal adverbial expressed by the participial structure to the EN subject; ex. 2 includes a “reverse” shift (LT subject – EN temporal adverbial). Cf.:

- 1) *Lietuvai atkūrus nepriklausomybę*, tautodailei ir tradiciniam amatams atsivėrė plačios galimybės. – *The restoration of Lithuanian independence* opened up broad opportunities for folk art and traditional crafts. [3, p. 32]
- 2) *Stažuotė* – vieneri metai pas čionykščius, vieneri – užsienyje. – *During the training trip* the journeyman spent one year with the locals and one year abroad. [3, p.20]

Lastly, the translator may decide to dispense with a temporal adverbial altogether, e.g.:

*Archeologinių kasinėjimų metu* aptikta daugiau kaip 100 000 puodų šukių, iš kurių rekonstruotas ne vienas dailus Pamarių kultūros puodas. [4, p.57] – Over 100,000 potshards have been found, from which elegant Baltic Coastal culture pots have been reconstructed. [5, p.57]

### Shifts of sentence parts: other instances

Purely syntactic shifts of other kinds (excluding the discussed “object – subject” and “adverbial – subject” shifts) are not common in the analysed texts. These other shifts are as follows: Lithuanian attributes – English local adverbial modifiers, Lithuanian subjects – English adverbial modifiers of cause, cf.:

- 1) Šią idėją jis bandė įteigti ir *Rusijos* valdantiesiems sluoksniams. [1, p.29] – He also tried to suggest this idea to the ruling circles *in Russia*. [2, p.36]



- 2) Šioji *teisė* leido miestams patiems tvarkyti prekybą ir amatus. – *Under this right*, cities themselves could regulate trade and crafts. [3, pp.2-3]

A category of examples with participial forms, possessing verbal and nominal characteristics both in Lithuanian and English, has been distinguished and should be addressed in this section. The cases below with various participial forms illustrate the following shifts: LT nominal predicate – EN subject (ex. 1), LT attribute – simple EN predicate (ex. 2), LT adverbial modifier – simple EN predicate (ex. 3), LT adverbial modifier – EN object (ex. 4). Cf.:

- 1) Pamarių kultūros titnago inventoriuje *persipynę* naujų ir senųjų dirbinių tipai. [4, p.50] – In the flint items of the Baltic Coastal culture, the *intertwining* of new and old is clearly seen. [5, p.54]
- 2) Vilniaus senamiestyje, deja, šiandien nedaug ženklų, *primenančių* šlovingą cechų istoriją ... – Unfortunately, few signs in the Old Town of Vilnius *remind* of the glorious history of the guilds ... [3, pp.32-35]
- 3) Alavas – labai technologiškas metalas, nes lydosi jau 232 laipsnių Celsijaus temperatūroje, puikiai *užpildydamas* formas. – Pewter is very malleable because it has a low melting point of 232 degrees Celsius and perfectly *fills* in the mould. [3, p.11]
- 4) Antroje III tūkstantmečio pusėje Rytų Pabaltijyje, į vietines Narvos ir Nemuno kultūras *įsiliejus* Rutulinių amforų ir Virvelinės keramikos kultūroms, susidarė Pamarių kultūra. [4, p.54] – In the second half of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium in the eastern Baltic, the Baltic Coastal culture arose from the *merging* of the Globular Amphora and Corded Ware cultures into the Narva and Nemunas cultures. [5, p.54]

Changes brought about in simple, compound and complex sentences fall under clear categories, and frequency of their occurrence can be easily measured. It is harder to account numerically for shifts related to mixed sentences (Lith. *mišrieji*; LKŽ, 2000, p.297) of complex structure as they display miscellaneous links. Therefore, the research has focused on discerning general tendencies and not on providing statistics in this respect. The types of identified changes are illustrated below:

*a. composite sentence into simple*, e.g.: Drožybės darbų šedevru laikytini vienuolika klevinių altorių, *kuriais* Bernardinų bažnyčių padabino šio cecho meistrai. – Eleven maple altars created by the masters of this guild for the Bernardines' Church are a real carving masterpiece. [3, p.22]

*b. simple sentence into composite*, e.g.: Skleisti lietuviškumo idėją padėjo ir lenkiškai rašantys autoriai, savo kūrinuose šlovinantys Lietuvos praeitį. [1, p.21] – The idea of Lithuanian identity is also propagated by the authors writing in Polish *who* in their writings glorify the Lithuanian past. [2, p.25]

*c. compound sentence into complex*, e.g.: Jiems rūpėjo sugrąžinti buvusius laikus, *o* juos įsivaizdavo tik vieningoje Lenkijoje ... [1, p.15] – They were concerned with bringing back the old times, which they pictured only in the context of a state in union with Poland ... [2, p.17]

*d. complex sentence into compound*, e.g.: Jie – gana siaurų specializacijų, *kurios* priklausė nuo medžiagų ir laikmečio mados. – Their specialization was rather narrow *and* they were dependent on the supply of materials and the fashion of the time. [3, p.25]

*e. syndetic link into asyndetic*, e.g.: Gera nuostata, *kad* pameistrys ir savo gyvensena turi sekti meistrą, šeštadieniais apsišvarinti, keisti baltus marškinius ir rankšluostį ... – The statute promoted a healthy attitude: the journeyman should follow the example of his master, should clean himself up and change his white shirt and towel on Saturdays ... [3, p.23]

## Results: Shifts in Sentence Structure

*f. asyndetic link into syndetic*, e.g.: Be to, juos varžė ir socialinė padėtis: lenkiškai kalbėjo dvarininkai, lietuviškai – juos aptarnaujantys asmenys ir baudžiauninkai. [1, p.16] – Moreover, they were also constrained by their social standing: the landowners spoke Polish, *whereas* those who served them and the serfs spoke Lithuanian. [2, p.18]

*g. splitting*, e.g.: Virvelinės keramikos kultūros vardu vadinama grupė Vidurio, Šiaurės ir Rytų Europoje gyvavusių kultūrų, *kurioms* yra būdinga virvelių įspaudais puošta keramika, laiviniai kovos kirviai, laidosena suriestoje padėtyje. [4, p.54] – A group of central, northern, and eastern European cultures are known by this name. They were characterized by pottery with cord impressions, boat-shaped battle-axes, and burial posture in the crouched or fetal position. [5, p.54]

*h. unification*, e.g.: Koks kelias veiksmingesnis? Ginkluotas sukilimas, teroro aktai ar diplomatiniai demaršai, galbūt liberalesnio režimo laukimas? [1, p.22] – Which course of action is more efficient: armed rebellion, terror, or diplomatic *démarche*, or perhaps waiting for a more liberal regime? [2, p.27]

*i. transposition*, e.g.: Knygos tuo laikmečiu buvo dar retas daiktas, jas skaitydavo ne vienas žmogus, *tad jrišti buvo būtina*. – *Binding was necessary* because books at that time were rare and the same copy was read by many people. [3, p.24]

The shift from simple sentence to composite has proved to be the prevailing trend among these major shifts in the sentence structure. This shift is followed by the shift from composite sentence to simple. Instances exhibiting the latter two shifts are interesting in one more respect: they illustrate *syntactic compression*. In the examined material, syntactic compression in English is achieved through prepositional phrases, participial constructions, gerundial constructions, and infinitives; extended participial attributes, extended participial adverbials, and prepositional phrases make source sentences more compact than their target counterparts.

Besides the discussed major shifts in the sentence structure, other tendencies have been observed: the shift from complex sentences with one link to the ones with more links and various changes related to *mixed sentences*. The following cases account for the shifts related to mixed sentences: a. mixed sentence into asyndetic composite, b. asyndetic composite into mixed, c. splitting, d. compound into mixed, e. mixed into mixed with more links, f. complex into mixed, and g. mixed into complex.

The shifts in sentence structure are often realized with shifts of sentence parts and lexical changes (additions, concretization [*tie = journeymen, jame numatyta = the statute prescribed*], explicitation [*Mindaugas = the creator of the Lithuanian state, its first king Mindaugas*], implicitation [*ši idėja = it*], denomination [*pirkliai ėmė davinėti cechams užsakymus = guilds started to receive orders from merchants*]). In addition, the translators use devices of lexicomorphological compression to shorten the target texts [e.g. *nepriklausantys cechui = non-guild, valgio įrankiai = cutlery, planinė struktūra = layout, likę gyvi dalyviai = survivors*].

## Conclusions

1 Taxonomies of shifts reflect relationships which may obtain between target and source items and as such, help describe translated texts at the linguistic level. The discussion of translation techniques or strategies remains relevant to the teaching of translation as translation primarily is a linguistic activity. Linguistic approaches can be applied to the study of corpora, and the relationship between the microstructural and macrostructural levels can be established, yielding interesting results and providing sociocultural insights.

2 The analysis of shifts of sentence parts has given the following results: the “LT object – EN subject” shift has proved the most conspicuous in the analysed narratives; the second notable group exhibits the shift “LT local adverbial – EN subject”; less common shifts are “LT attribute – EN local adverbial” and “LT subject – EN adverbial modifier of cause”. In case of the

“object – subject” shift, the instances illustrating the change of the voice of the verb outnumber the ones with the change in the type of the verb. Moreover, a complex category of examples with participial forms possessing both verbal and nominal characteristics has been distinguished, illustrating different shifts in sentence parts, as well as a category of instances exhibiting “introduction of the subject into the target clause”. Impersonal structures are abundant in Lithuanian texts on culture and history, which implies that the translator must develop effective strategies for rendering such items into the target language. References to written documents marked by Lithuanian local adverbials are very characteristic of ethnographic and historical texts. The shifts in sentence structure occur simultaneously with shifts in sentence parts and lexical-semantic changes. The means of both syntactical and lexico-morphological compression help condense the target texts which generally show a tendency to be more explicit and redundant than the source texts. Mixed transformations, ensuring the meaning and linguistic acceptability of the target texts, prove the complexity of the translator’s activity.

3 The findings of this analysis, although small-scale, might be interesting from the standpoint of ethnolinguistics. However, only large-scale research of representative electronic corpora, conducted using sophisticated corpus linguistics tools, could yield valid statistical results and lead to well-founded conclusions about language features and associations triggered by the use of such features.

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**Santrauka****Dalia Venckienė. Sintaksinės transformacijos krašto istorijos ir kultūros tekstų vertimuose**

Šiuo metu Lietuvoje į anglų kalbą išverčiama daug tekstų apie krašto istoriją ir kultūrą. Siekdamas efektyviai perteikti informaciją, vertėjas turi suprasti vertimo tikslą, turėti žinių apie šio tipo tekstų struktūrą ir stilių, puikiai išmanyti anglų ir lietuvių kalbų skirtumus. Straipsnyje analizuojamos sintaksinės transformacijos, būdingos tekstų apie krašto istoriją ir kultūrą vertimui į anglų kalbą. Aptariami įvairūs teoretikų požiūriai į vertimo transformacijas ir lingvistinę analizę apskritai: pristatomos J. P. Vinay ir J. Darbelnet, J. C. Catfordo, K. van Leuven-Zwart, O. Armalytės ir L. Pažūsis, G. Toury, A. Chestermano, L. Molinos ir A. Hurtado Albir, L. Cyrus, A. Gudavičiaus, G. Palumbo ir A. Leonavičienės įžvalgos. Aprašomos tirtuose tekstuose pastebėtos sintaksinės transformacijos (sakinio dalių bei sakinio struktūros pakeitimai), pateikiami jų dažnio paskaičiavimai. Vertimo „technikas“ („procedūras“, „strategijas“) naudinga aptarti ugdant būsimuosius vertėjus, nes vertimas pirmiausia – tai lingvistinė veikla. Šios analizės rezultatai, nors ir grindžiami nedideliu duomenų kiekiu, galėtų būti įdomūs etnolingvistikos požiūriu.

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