An Analysis of the Translation Strategies of Evidential Adverbs in a Corpus-Based Study

Doctoral Dissertation

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I must also thank my good university colleagues for having faith in me and giving me support and encouragement throughout this project.

Getting through my doctoral thesis required more than academic support and I must thank many good friends for being such a good listener and having devoted me their valuable time. I can only express my gratitude for their friendship.

Finally, and most importantly, none of this could have happened without my family. My parents, who offered me their encouragement through phone calls and messages every week. And my husband who did not let me quit, when I was not sure about things, and who was very supportive.

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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGSWE</td>
<td>Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OED</td>
<td>Oxford English Dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAE</td>
<td>Real Academia Española</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCFA</td>
<td>Stylistique comparée du français et de l’anglais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Source language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>Source text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCS</td>
<td>Translation Corpus Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>Target text</td>
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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION
**Evidentiality** is quite a complex concept in linguistics, as scholars do not seem to agree as to the exact nature of evidentiality, namely a grammatical marker or a lexical item, its status as an independent concept or a subcategory of epistemic modality, and its functions, among other matters. Broadly speaking, evidentiality is related to the way in which source/mode of knowledge is conveyed. The following quotation (Lee, 1959: 137) beautifully exemplifies this:

The Wintu never say it is bread. They say, 'It looks-to-me- bread' or 'It feels-to-me bread' or 'I-have-heard-it-to-be bread' or 'I-infer-from-evidence-that-it-is-bread' or 'I-think-it-to-be-bread', or, vaguely and timelessly, 'according-to-my-experience-be bread’.

The semantic phenomenon exposed above is called by the linguists *evidentiality*.

In many languages, the origin of the information is either lexically or grammatically highlighted in their utterances. Every language has a considerable variety of resources to make reference to the source of information available for the speaker or the way the speaker has accessed the information. In this way, *evidentiality* can be defined as the semantic domain related to express the source of information formulated in a statement.

In the field of linguistic studies, the concept of *evidentiality* appears for the first time in Boas (1947), an essay about the Kwakiutl grammar posthumously published in Jacobsen (1986). Thanks to the pioneering publications of Jakobson (1957) and the relevant work *Evidentiality: The linguistic coding of epistemology* (Chafe & Nichols, 1986), the concept of evidentiality increasingly became an established research issue in linguistics.

This dissertation seeks to analyse the manifestation of the source of knowledge through the use of adverbs of evidentiality, which may convey certainty as well as perspective. We argue that the use of evidentials might be culture-related, and so shift from one language to another in this regard can be by virtue of the cultural setting in which a text is produced. It is in this context that the translation of adverbs becomes especially relevant, as adverbs are suitable for the specification of the speaker’s perspective in the three languages under study, namely Spanish, French and English.
For this dissertation, we have analysed adverbs in the UNESCO corpus compiled at the University of Vigo to detect those adverbs of evidentiality in English, which we have taken as the source language. Then, we have examined their translation into Spanish and French, as target languages, in order to determine which translation strategy has been used as their equivalent in the target texts.

The present study is structured in five chapters and the reference list. The present chapter defines the subject of research, the purposes to be conducted or promoted by the end of the study, and the method used for the analysis of the data retrieved from the selected corpus. Chapter 2 is dedicated to the description of translation strategies, which are the baseline for our methodological approach, enabling the obtention of our results. Besides, this chapter also provides the definition of evidentiality in translation, including the concept of (inter)subjectivity, which is quite relevant in the field of translation, since translation is a cognitive activity, where the translator acts as both reader of the original text and writer of the final version, which intrinsically implies the addition of subjective elements.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology beginning with the definition of the concept Corpus-based Translation Studies and a detailed description of the selected corpus, i.e. UNESCO. Additionally, it presents and defines the evidential adverbs studied in our analysis, i.e. absolutely, actually, clearly, evidently, indeed, in fact, manifestly, plainly and undoubtedly.

Chapter 4 collects the analysis of the translation strategies adopted both in Spanish and French for the translation of the evidential adverbs after retrieving the search results in the UNESCO Corpus. Finally, chapter 5 draws the final conclusions of this dissertation.
CHAPTER 2. TRANSLATION. TRANSLATION AND EVIDENTIALITY
2.1. INTRODUCTION

Translation can be defined as the process the translator begins with the source text, with an attempt at analyzing this particular text into semantic construction. The translator must then rebuild the semantic construction concerned into proper forms of the target language (TL), seeking to produce an equivalent receptor language text (Larson, 1998:519). According to this definition, the translator is between the source and the target texts (TTs) and his/her work consists in moving from one language to another and vice versa to find a translation of every single construction from the source text (ST), which better keeps the original meaning in the target text. However, translation is indeed more sophisticated, and it implies more complicated procedures and intricates processes of conscious and unconscious learning than such a general way of looking at translation process. (Larson 1998:519, Robinson 2003:49).

This chapter addresses to the translation strategies, methods, techniques or procedures the translator must pass through in order to achieve an accurate and acceptable translation, which conveys the intended message of the original author.

Although translation as a scientific discipline is quite young, many theories have emerged throughout the last decades. Many linguists, academics and professionals have suggested different translation approaches from the cannibal theories to the most recent ones trying to empower women or those exclusively focusing on the purpose of the translation such as the aesthetic-poetic translation or the ethnographic translation proposed by Brislin (in Jones et al., 2001: 300-304). However, since the aim of this study is to analyse how evidentiality is expressed in specialised texts written in English and translated into Spanish and French, we take for granted that the translator’s goal is to find the communicative equivalence in both the source and the target languages.

The concept of communicative equivalence leads us to the terms communicative translation and semantic translation coined by Newmark (1981: 39), who defines as follows:

Communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render, as
closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original.

According to the previous definition, communicative translation refers to the effect the translation seeks to create on the TT reader and, therefore, it is oriented towards a specific language and culture. Communicative translation transfers foreign elements into the TL culture in order to achieve an accurate communication of the ST message in the TT, while semantic translation remains in the source language (SL) culture and keeps loyalty to the ST author by sticking close to the syntactic and lexical elements by replicating stylistic devices of the ST. However, Newmark (1981:63) indicates that semantic translation differs from literal translation, since it respects the context, interprets and even explains (including metaphors, for instance). However, if there is a conflict between the two forms of translation, communicative translation should prevail over the semantic, especially in those cases, in which semantic translation would turn out into an atypical translation and would not cause an equivalent effect on the TT reader. For a better understanding of this, Newmark (1981:39) provides the following examples: *bissiger Hund!* in German and *chien méchant!* in French, which are communicatively translated in English as *beware the dog!* and not semantically as *dog that bites!* or *bad dog!* since the purpose of the original message is to keep the communicative meaning creating in this case a warning effect on the TT reader.

In view of the above, we can affirm that the central problem of translating is whether to translate literally or freely and this is the most difficult task for a translator during the translation process to decide the most convenient translation method considered the type of text, the purpose of the translation and the nature of the readers.

Languages express a whole array of concepts that deal with every aspect of human life. In doing so, a language does not follow a set of general rules extensively and homogeneously explained. Even in a monolingual context, articulating one’s own thoughts can be a difficult task. However, the fact that every language classifies and structures itself in a different way makes the translators’ work a real challenge. They have to deal with issues such as style, idioms and proverbs. All these may be problematic factors for the translator, but with proper training and expertise, they can be easily managed. Connotations and allusions, which tend to be culture-
specific parts of the SL, require a closer attention and a deep knowledge of the cultural conceptions of both, the SL and the TL in order to decide the best approach in the translation process, and thereby ensure an accurate equivalence of the original message in the TL. In words of Culler (1976:21-22):

If language were simply a nomenclature for a set of universal concepts, it would be easy to translate from one language to another. One would simply replace the French name for a concept with the English name. If language were like this the task of learning a new language would also be much easier than it is. But anyone who has attempted either of this task has acquired alas a vast amount of direct proof that languages are not nomenclatures, that the concepts... of one language may differ radically from those of another... Each language articulates or organizes the world differently. Languages do not simply name existing categories, they articulate their own.

On this point, Culler believes that languages are not nomenclatures and the concepts of one language may differ entirely from those of another, since each language articulates or organises the world differently, and languages do not simply name categories; they articulate in their own way. In this regard, we can conclude that the translator task is very difficult precisely because of the wide range of differences existing among languages either sharing a common linguistic origin or belonging to different linguistic roots. According to Orduñari (2007): “the bigger the gap between the SL and the TL, the more difficult the transfer of message from the former to the latter will be”.

When it comes to the different ways a translator confronts a text to be translated with the different solutions he/she uses during the translation process in order to transfer the meaning of the ST into the TT, we refer to translation strategies. Many theorists distinguish between translation procedure and translation method.

Moreover, there are other terms such as technique, tactic or approach, which are frequently used as synonyms, since their meaning meets a common definition and describes as well the general concept of using different means or resources to sort out the specific problems occurring during the translation process. Due to this terminological confusion and despite the many attempts of researchers to develop a universal classification of the translation strategies without considering the terminological synonymy, we conclude that there is not still a definition that works as a prototype. This might make us wrongly believe, that despite that uncontrolled
use of terms, it exists a uniformity in their use. Unfortunately, this is far beyond reality.

2.2. TERMINOLOGICAL CONFUSION

In 1958 Vinay and Darbelnet introduced for the first time the concept of translation procedure from the French procédé technique de la traduction, defining the concept as all those mechanisms that are involved when working and changing between two different languages. Vinay and Darbelnet study the translation procedures considering three linguistic levels: lexical, morphosyntactic and semantic. They create an entire corpus of equivalences obtained from comparing two languages English and French and searching for examples of translations and this way they try to define functional methods of translation. Their book contains translation-oriented contrastive grammatical and stylistic analyses of the two languages and are exemplified by phrases, texts and expressions. It has become a standard reading in the French-speaking world for the study of comparative stylistics and the training of translators. In the updated first English edition of their Stylistique comparée du français et de l’anglais, Vinay and Darbelent (1995:30) describe the methodology of translation on the basis of a comparison between two different linguistics systems:

In the process of translating, translators establish relationships between specific manifestations of two linguistic systems, one which has already been expressed and is therefore given, and the other which is still potential and adaptable.

However, their attempt to describe the concept of translation procedures is restricted to a simply contrastive level, where only units of translations are analysed. In order to develop a global translation theory and to select the most appropriate translation strategy, it is necessary to delve into further details such as text type (e.g. narrative, expository, argumentative or descriptive), domain (e.g., legal, medical, economic, IT), function and effect on the readership (e.g., information, entertainment, teaching or publication), type of readers (e.g., general or specialised audience), prestige of the source text (the Bible, Pinocchio, Le Petit Prince or the Iliad and the Odyssey), motivation (e.g., payment, acknowledgment, learning) and other aspects or restraints. As Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:10) states:

[We must] attempt to follow the way our mind works consciously and subconsciously when it moves from one language to another and record its progress ... and study the mechanisms of
translation on the basis of clear and searching examples in order to derive working methods of translation and beyond these methods discover the mental, social and cultural attitudes which inform them.

According to this quote, Vinay and Darbelnet highlight that the translation process also depends on key factors such as the way our mind works at the moment of translating and the conscious or unconscious origin of the operations used by the translator when shifting between two languages.

Vinay and Darbelnet’s study had a considerable influence on other scholars such as Malblanc (1968), Vázquez Ayora (1977) or Newmark (1988), who adopted the same concept introduced by their precursors as a conceptual and methodological base for their studies. A few years later, Nida introduced the concept of “techniques of adjustment” to refer to all those operations which help to “produce correct equivalents” (Nida, 1964:23). Malblanc (1968), following Vinay and Darbelnet’s lines, adopted not only the same term, *translation procedures*, as his predecessors, but the same conceptual content, limiting himself to referring the reader to Vinay and Darbelnet’s book.

Vázquez Ayora (1977) in his comprehensive work *Introducción a la Traductología: Curso Básico de Traducción*, used the Spanish term “procedimiento técnico de ejecución estilística”, translated as stylistic technique procedures, to refer to the concept proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet. However, there is something that differs Vázquez Ayora from his predecessors: he distinguishes two types of translation procedures introducing two new concepts: “stylistic technique procedures” and “general translation procedures”. Stylistic technique procedures is the term adopted to allude to the two basic types of translation, literal and oblique or dynamic translation, while the term general translation procedures refers to the operations used during the process of translation and its subsequent revision.

In contrast, Newmark (1988:45) distinguishes between two concepts: *translation methods*, to refer to those strategies applied to the whole text, while those applied to specific elements within the text are called *translation procedures*. Besides, Newmark (1988:81) states that while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language. He still uses the concept of “translation procedures” proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet
Translation methods and procedures proposed by Newmark (1988)

According to Bardaji (2009: 162) many studies in this field are complementary and deal with parts of the same reality contributing to a global and/or better understanding of the mental process used during the translation process. For a more general overview of this heterogeneous variety of terms, the following table describes the terminology adopted by the most influential theorists in the field of linguistics and shows how they tend to use the same term with different meaning or even different terms to name the same reality.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet</td>
<td>Translation procedures</td>
<td>Reject individual words as units of translation. Translators deal with ideas and feelings in various semantic fields, rather than individual lexemes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1958)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nida</td>
<td>Techniques of adjustment</td>
<td>Techniques and strategies used in the text as a whole to adjust the form of the message to the structural and semantical characteristics of the TL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1964)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malblanc (1968)</td>
<td>Translation procedures</td>
<td>He follows the lines proposed by his predecessors Vinay and Darbelnet, adopting not only the same terminology, but the same conceptual concept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vázquez Ayora (1977)</td>
<td>Procedimientos técnicos de ejecución estilística</td>
<td>Linguistic tools to facilitate the work of the translator. “Techniques of the contemporary linguistics to avoid literal translation, one of the main causes of mistakes and inaccurate translations”. (Vázquez Ayora, 1977:251)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wotjak (1981)</td>
<td>Transfer techniques in communication</td>
<td>He refers to the transfer process from one language to another. However, he also uses “strategy”, “rule” and “procedure” with the same meaning as “translation techniques”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newmark (1988)</td>
<td>Translation procedures</td>
<td>He uses the same term as Vinay and Darbelnet, however, he distinguishes these from “translation methods”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lörscher (1991)</td>
<td>Translation strategies</td>
<td>Conscious procedure for the solution of a problem, a translator is faced with when translating a text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hervey and Higgins</td>
<td>Strategic decisions and decisions of detail</td>
<td>Strategic decisions take place before the translator begins a translation attending questions of linguistic features, desired effect or text genre, while decisions of detail have the function to resolve specific problems of the translation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1992)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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Table 2: Translation strategies named and described by most influential linguists.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deslile (1993)</td>
<td>Translation procedures</td>
<td>He describes them as operations in the cognitive process of translating and introduces different terms such as translation strategies or translation errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mason (1994)</td>
<td>Translation techniques, procedures and methods</td>
<td>For Mason there is no distinction between the use of the terms and defines procedures as follows: “A procedure is a method adopted to achieve a result. It is a way of proceeding in order to complete some activity” (Mason, 1994:63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiraly (1995)</td>
<td>Translation processes/processing phenomena</td>
<td>Referring to the mental operations implied during the process of translation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guix and Wilkinson (1997)</td>
<td>Procedimientos de traducción</td>
<td>As synonym of “strategy”. Linguistic features the translator must learn to develop multiple and varied strategies to cope with the idiosyncrasies of the languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zabalbeascoa (2000)</td>
<td>Translation strategies and translation techniques</td>
<td>Strategies are any conscious action taken to make easier the translation task, while techniques is associated with the decision-taking process and acquired skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurtado Albir (2001)</td>
<td>Translation strategies, translation methods and translation techniques</td>
<td>Hurtado Albir distinguishes three different terms with different definitions: “technique affects the small text units, while method affects the text as a whole and strategy are those mechanisms used by the translator to solve problems”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Translation strategies named and described by most influential linguists (cont.).

From these theories and parallel to Vinay and Darbelnet’s terminological proposals, a new concept to name the operations involved in the translation process emerges: translation strategy, becoming the most widespread term to describe the mental processes performed by the translator when transferring a text from one language to another. For this reason, this is the term used in the present study to refer to those techniques and methods used by the translator in order to solve translation problems and difficulties and to deliver a quality translation fulfilling the lexical, syntactical and cultural-specific idiosyncrasies of the target audience.
2.3. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

Researchers have described their own classifications considering different aspects, which lead not only to a conceptual discussion, but also to different classifications. For instance, Lörscher’s (1991) classification is based on a cognitive approach, while Chesterman’s (1997) is based on a textual approach. Let us define both the cognitive and the textual approach for a better understanding. A cognitive approach does not only analyse the text or its external behavior, but it considers the inner processes involved in translation, that is to say, it focuses on the translator trying to look “behind” the visible processes of translation. As described by Thagard (2005), the main goal is to explain the development and workings of the mental processes that make complex cognitive behavior like translation possible. While the textual approach to translation regards a text as a communicative act which takes place in a particular situational and cultural context. Therefore, the task of the translator is to produce an equivalent target text considering the textual and the communicative aspects involved in the communicative act. This is accomplished by encoding the ST information into equivalent target culture textual prototypes (Neubert and Shreve, 1992).

Although the conceptual confusion is still an issue for theorists and researchers, most of them share the idea that there are two prototype translation strategies: literal translation, which concentrates on the level of words; and free translation, which goes beyond the level of words and tries to create a more natural and culture-specific target text. Literal versus free translation have always been the central debate in translation theories. Although, according to Hatim and Munday (2004) this debate is relatively sterile, since the two strategies are part of a continuum, where the selection of a strategy is a function of the theoretical assumption of text type, domain, function, prestige of the source text and other factors.

Besides, these two strategies have also been named differently, establishing a variety of oppositions. For instance, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) talk about “direct translation” versus “oblique translation”. Eugene Nida (1964) speaks about “formal equivalence” versus “dynamic equivalence”, who uses the term of “equivalence” instead of “translation”. Peter Newmark (1995) prefers “semantic translation” versus “communicative translation”. Christiane Nord (1991) introduces the idea of
documentation in translation and talks about “documentary translation” versus “instrumental translation”. And the cultural-oriented perspective of Lawrence Venuti (1992) distinguishes between “foreignization” versus “domestication”, trying to avoid the cultural influence of readers in dominant cultures.

Researchers have always attempted to distinguish translation strategies from its synonyms. In so doing, they have developed their own classification of strategies from different approaches and perspectives. The following table shows a general overview of the previous theories proposed by the most influential linguists in the field of translation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Translation strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vinay and Darbelnet (1954)</td>
<td>Direct vs. oblique translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nida (1964)</td>
<td>Formal vs. dynamique translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House (1986)</td>
<td>Overt vs. covert translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newmark (1988)</td>
<td>Semantic vs. communicative translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nord (1991)</td>
<td>Documentary vs. instrumentary translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jääskeläinen (1993)</td>
<td>Global vs. local translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venuti (1995)</td>
<td>Foreignization vs. domestication translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chesterman (1997)</td>
<td>Comprehension vs. production strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Classification of translation strategies by different authors.

After having discussed the two prototype strategies, literal versus free translation, and analysed the different concepts adopted by the linguists, the coming section is devoted to giving an answer to the central question of this chapter: what is a translation strategy?

Every translation entails a complicated process in which the translator has to make continuous decisions based on linguistic and extra-linguistic elements in order to achieve a reliable translation that keeps the same meaning as the original message.
However, the highest difficulty for translators lies on the fact that he/she has to determine which the correct approach is in every case to achieve the intended aim. The translator’s decision to use a particular resource or a combination of resources, is what, in essence will give rise to a *modus operandi* or strategy (Cruz, 2013: 353).

Jääskeläinen (1999:71) defines strategy as “a series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favor the acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information”. Besides, she affirms that strategies are “heuristic and flexible in nature, and their adoption implies a decision influenced by amendments in the translator’s objectives”. According to Jääskeläinen’s definition, one of the most important roles of the translator is to make the correct decision when choosing the most convenient and effective strategy to achieve the intended purpose of the message and to make it accessible to a wider range of readers.

In this way, a translation strategy can be defined as the translator's potentially conscious plans for solving specific translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task (Krings, 1986). In addition, Lörscher (1991) defines “translation strategy” as a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced when translating a text, or any segment of it. He stresses the notion of consciousness as a relevant factor to distinguish the strategies used by the translator and the importance of his/her election. Venuti (1998) introduces the aforementioned concept of foreignization when referring to translation strategies. He considers translation strategies involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it.

Taking into account the definitions mentioned above, Sanjun Sun (2012) concludes that there are a few defining characteristics of a translation strategy, that all researchers agree on: a) it is goal-oriented, the translation needs to fulfill the requirements and expectations of the final client and/or readers, b) it is problem-centered and c) it requires making coordinated decisions, translators are linguistic problem solvers, whose work consists in making constant and correct decisions in order to achieve effectiveness and accuracy in the target text, d) it is conscious and e) it involves text manipulation, since the TT must be comprehensible and accessible to either a general or a specialist reader, what in many cases implies the adaptation and modification of the original text without changing the meaning. The following
scheme represents the defining characteristics of the translation strategies using simple concepts.

Figure 1: Defining characteristics of translation strategies

The scheme has been designed as a circle in order to show that every feature is at the same level of importance and the translator must take all of them into account during the whole process of translation to ensure the quality of his/her translation, which should convey the same communicative message and effect as the original.

A translation strategy involves problem solving, so if it were possible to establish a categorization of the translation problems as well as the translation strategies, it would be possible to solve translation problems by using their correspondent translation strategies in the categorization. The categorization criterion can be the prior knowledge required to solve them, the nature of the goal involved, and the complexity of the problems involved (Robinson, 2001).

Considering the complex process of translation, many scholars such as Reiss (1976), Newmark (1988) or Comitre Narváez (1999) have tried to classify translation strategies. However, their efforts have resulted in a great variety of names and
descriptions, which means that a general and comprehensive classification of translation strategies applicable to every translation is impossible or at least has not been suggested so far. Many linguists have created their own strategy names and classification criteria. For example, Jääskeläinen (2005) divides strategies into two categories: on the one hand, product-related strategies, which imply the selection of the SL text and the development of a method to translate this particular text, and on the other hand, process-related strategies, referring to the rules used by the translator in order to achieve the goals established by the translating situation.

Furthermore, Jääskeläinen (2005) goes further and divides translation strategies into two types: global strategies and local strategies. Global strategies are the general rules and ways of action and local strategies are the specific tasks regarding the processes of problem-solving and decision-making (stylistic considerations, target reader, desire effect of the TT...). Global strategies may be prescribed by the commissioner while local strategies depend on the translator’s decision and aim to offer solutions to specific problems without losing sight of the previously chosen global strategy (lexical research, syntax and grammar adaptations...). Therefore, the whole translation process will be influenced by the election of the global strategy.

In this regard, Jääskeläinen considers literal and free translation strategies as global strategies, mainly used by professional translators, because the translator must focus on the purpose of the TT and its impact on the readers. Local strategies, in turn, are immediately followed by specific techniques, which affect the translation result and the micro-units of the text and are classified by comparison with the source text (Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002). We could then say that local strategies are basically translation techniques. In this way, as the experience of translators increases with every translation project, leading to new skills and speed in problem solving, local strategies are semiconsciously or even unconsciously used by the translators, who are involved in an automated process where the translation problem is no longer an obstacle for them to handle with.

After having defined and analysed the features that describe the concept of translation strategy, we can conclude that its importance stems from the fact that translations are highly influenced by the decisions made by the translator during the process of translation and his/her particular selection of translation strategies,
which will not only define the level of adequacy, equivalence and adaptation of the TT in the cultural context, but also the function and impact of the TT on the target reader.

2.4. CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

The analysis of translations gives us the opportunity to study how the process of translation works. In chapter 3 of the present study, the corpus selected for the analysis of this study will be described in detail, since corpus analysis is the methodology used to reach the results and conclusions of this research. According to Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002), when analysing a translation, three categories are closely studied: text, context and process. Textual categories focus on the coherence, the cohesion and the development of contents. Contextual categories are all those extra-elements related to the context of the ST and the translation production. Finally, process categories refer to the strategies or techniques used by the translator in order to solve the problems that emerge during the process of translation. Translation techniques or local strategies are the methodological options chosen by the translator for each textual micro-unit. These techniques allow us to define, classify and identify the strategies used by the translator. Although since the 1950s, many translation analyses such as those proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Reiss (1976), Newmark (1988), Hervey and Higgins (1992) or Hurtado Albir (2001) have been made with the aim of creating a standard classification of translation strategies and there still is a wide range of representative models. Though this study will analyse the classification of translation strategies of different authors, my analysis begins with the review of the comparative stylistic analysis of French and English described in 1958 by Vinay and Darbelnet in their pioneer work *Stylistique comparée du français et de l’anglais (SCFA)*, given that their book had a wide impact and has been regarded as the starting point for later taxonomies of translation strategies and techniques representing a manual of reference for students, professional translators and researchers. The purpose of their work was to contrast English texts with their French translation establishing the differences between both languages and recognizing the different strategies and techniques used in each textual unit by the translator. Although their work exclusively focused on two languages, French and
English, it lays the basis for many other researches and works in different languages. An example of this influence is the *Stylistique comparée du français et de l’allemand* (Malblanc, 1963), a comparative analysis between French and German translations and also two other books of the same sort between English and Spanish: *Introducción a la traductología* (Vázquez Ayora, 1977) and *Teoría y práctica de la traducción* (García Yebra, 1982).

For the classification of translation strategies of the present study, it has been used the Vinay and Darbelnet’s first English version of their *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a methodology for translation* published in 1995. As aforementioned, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 30-42) divide translation strategies or, as they call them, “procédés techiques de la traduction” in two categories: *direct* (or *literal*) translation and *oblique translation*, comprising seven procedures according to three levels of style: lexis, distribution (morphology and syntax) and message. Three of the techniques are classified as direct translation and four of them are identified as oblique. The following chart represents the classification of the two categories and their corresponding strategies:
2.4.1. Direct Translation Procedures

The following section of my study deals with the definition of the translation strategies and their illustration through examples. The direct translation procedures are:

2.4.1.1. Borrowing

A word from the ST is directly transferred to the TT, that is, a word is taken directly from another language and employed with its same form in the TT without translation (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:31). This technique is used in English and other languages in order to fill a semantic gap in the TT. The following words are some common and frequently used examples of borrowing adopted in Spanish from the English language: *light*, *software*, *hardware*, *marketing*, *merchandising*, *fitness*. The following examples show their correspondent translation to see how they work in both the original and the target text:

(1) I always buy the light version of dairy products.

(2) Siempre compro la versión **light** de los productos lácteos.
(3) The **marketing** campaign of his company was very successful.

(4) La campaña de **marketing** de su empresa tuvo mucho éxito.

Sometimes languages adapt the borrowed form to their own spelling rules, as it can be seen in *sandwich*, which adds a Spanish accent to the first syllable “sâñdwich”.

In a colloquial register or among young people, borrowing can also be used to fit in the society or in a specific group, circle or club, to put it colloquially, to be “cool”. Here several examples that prove this informal use of the language:

(5) You were lucky, that boy is a great **business**!

(6) ¡Tuviste suerte, ese chico es un **business**!

(7) Hey Mark! What are your plans for the **weekend**?

(8) ¡Oye Mark! ¿Qué planes tienes para el **weekend**?

(9) She is very fit. She practices **running** twice a week.

(10) Está en forma. Practica **running** dos veces a la semana.

In the same way, English also borrows many words from other languages, such as *abbatoire, café, passé, omelette, resumé, amateur* from French, *Hamburger, Kindergarten, Poltergeist* from German, *whisky* literally “the water of life” from Irish, *sugar* from Arabic, *quarantine* from Italian, *avatar* from Sanskrit or *trekking* from Afrikaans.

### 2.4.1.2. Calque

This is “a special kind of borrowing”, according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 32-3), where the SL phrase or expression is literally translated word-for-word. Besides, they add that borrowings and calques often become fully integrated into the TL, although they suffer sometimes some semantic changes, which can turn them into false friends: “libraire” (French) and “librería” (Spanish) vs. “library” (English), which means the place where you read and borrow books and not the place where you buy books as in Spanish or French.

Calques contribute to the richness of the translation in the TL by avoiding the direct use of foreign words. It is noteworthy that some authors use the concept of “loan translation” as a synonym for calque. However, a calque is a construction, where a
word or phrase is borrowed from another language while translating its components in order to create a new lexeme in the TL, respecting the syntactical structures of the SL, while a loan may be a phonetic and morphological adaptation. Examples of calques that have been absorbed into English include: blue bood, devil’s advocate, flea market, masterpiece or flyweight from the Spanish expression peso mosca.

The aforementioned examples illustrate only a small part of this linguistic phenomenon. The lists below show a few more examples of calques coming from other languages such as French, German, Latin or Spanish, which have been literally translated into English, and allow us to build a wider picture of this phenomenon. Given that the target languages of the corpus used for the analysis of the present study are French and Spanish, the lists below also show some of the most common and characteristic forms in French and Spanish calqued from their language of origin:

a) From the Romance languages:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From French</th>
<th>Into English</th>
<th>Into Spanish</th>
<th>Into French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L’esprit de l’escalier</td>
<td>Staircase wit</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marché aux puces</td>
<td>Flea market</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouvelle Vague</td>
<td>New Wave</td>
<td>Nueva ola/ nueva oleada</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Par cœur</td>
<td>By heart</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point du vue</td>
<td>Point of view</td>
<td>Punto de vista</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomme d’Adam</td>
<td>Adam’s Apple</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sourd-muet</td>
<td>Deaf- mute</td>
<td>Sordomudo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vers libre</td>
<td>Free verse</td>
<td>Verso libre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vieille Garde</td>
<td>Old guard</td>
<td>Vieja Guardia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Examples of calques from French

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From Latin</th>
<th>Into English</th>
<th>Into Spanish</th>
<th>Into French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dens sapientiae</td>
<td>Wisdom tooth</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Dent de sagesse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus communis</td>
<td>Commonplace</td>
<td>Lugar común</td>
<td>Lieu commun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In nuce</td>
<td>In a nutshell</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resquiescat in pace</td>
<td>Rest in peace</td>
<td>Descanse en paz</td>
<td>Repose en paix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Via lactea</td>
<td>Milky Way</td>
<td>Via láctea</td>
<td>Voie lactée</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Examples of calques from Latin.
b) From the Germanic languages:

Although Germanic languages are not target languages in the corpus analysed in this study, calques derived from Germanic languages give us a general view, which allows us to make a comparison between the use and influence of calques from the Romance and Germanic languages and establish some interesting conclusions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From Spanish</th>
<th>Into English</th>
<th>Into French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Momento de la verdad (in bullfighting, the time the final sword sticks in the bull)</td>
<td>Moment of truth</td>
<td>Moment de vérité</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quinta columna (expression of military register which refers to a group of secret sympathizers and supporters of an enemy of their country)</td>
<td>Fifth column</td>
<td>Cinquième colonne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballena asesina (wrong translation of the 18th century for a type of big predatory cetacean. Correct translation: orca)</td>
<td>Killer whale</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Examples of calques from Spanish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From German</th>
<th>Into English</th>
<th>Into Spanish</th>
<th>Into French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antikörper</td>
<td>Antibody</td>
<td>Anticuerpo</td>
<td>Anticorps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biergarten</td>
<td>Beer garden</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heimweh</td>
<td>Homesickness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lehnwort</td>
<td>Loanword</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regenwald</td>
<td>Rainforest</td>
<td>Bosque pluvial</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standpunkt</td>
<td>Standpoint</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Übermensch (coined by Nietzsche)</td>
<td>Superman</td>
<td>Superhombre</td>
<td>Surhomme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vorwort</td>
<td>Foreword</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Examples of calques from German.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From Dutch</th>
<th>Into English</th>
<th>Into Spanish</th>
<th>Into French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Koekje</td>
<td>Cookie</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pijnappel (Original calque of the French pomme de pin)</td>
<td>Pineapple</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Pomme de pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supergeleider (material that carries electrical current)</td>
<td>Superconductor</td>
<td>Superconductor</td>
<td>Supraconducteur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Examples of calques from Dutch.
As we can see in the tables above, many of the calques adopted in English, either from Romance or Germanic languages have been also calqued in Spanish and French using the same literal translation from their original root.

As it can be seen in most of the cases those calques coming from the Romance languages have an equivalent in English, French and Spanish, while those calques coming from the Germanic languages have always an equivalent in English, mainly because English is a West Germanic language, however, there is rarely an equivalent for French and/or Spanish.

2.4.1.3. **Literal translation**

This occurs when ST is translated `word-for-word` into TT (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:33-5). According to Vinay and Darbelnet, literal translation is most commonly used between languages of the same family and culture and they illustrate it with the following example:

*I left my spectacles on the table downstairs.*

*J’ai laissé mes lunettes sur la table en bas.*

The coincidence between the ST and the TT characterises this method, where the translator tries to respect as much as possible the structure of the original by keeping the format, extension and content of the ST in the TT.

Vinay and Darbelnet consider literal translation as a guarantee of good translation and for them another translation method would be regarded, only if the use of word-for-word translation in the TT alters the meaning of the original: “literalness should only be sacrificed because of structural and metalinguistic requirements and only after checking that the meaning is fully preserved” (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:288). However, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:34-5) make clear that a literal translation is not acceptable, if it:
2.4.2. Oblique translation

In the cases mentioned above, where literal translation is not applicable, Vinay and Darbelnet introduces the second category of translation strategies: **oblique translation**, which includes four further procedures of translation:

- **Transposition**
- **Modulation**
- **Equivalence**
- **Adaptation**

**Figure 4: Oblique translation.**

2.4.2.1. Transposition

It is the first technique towards oblique translation (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:95). Transposition operates at grammatical level and it involves the replacement of a word class of one part of the speech for another without changing the original message. Translators (often without being aware of it) change the word type, for instance verbs for nouns or nouns for prepositions. In stylistic terms, the transposed phrase loses its original value, however, the meaning is the same. In short,
transposition is a translation procedure, where a part or some parts of the original speech change their sequence in the translation process. For example, red shoes become zapatos rojos in Spanish or chaussures rouges in French. In these examples, we observe that following the syntax of Germanic languages, English puts its adjective before the noun, while Roman languages, Spanish and French, place their adjectives after nouns. Therefore, this is a clear example of transposition given that the sequence of the original phrase has been modified in the translation process by altering the order of the word categories.

This method requires the proficiency in both the source and the target language and mastery of the translator to know whether the replacement of the word category is conceivable in the TT without changing the meaning of the original message. The following examples show different types of transposition according to the type of word-class change:

- Adjective-noun:
  
  (1) The student finds it difficult to learn for the English exam.
  
  (2) El estudiante tiene dificultades para estudiar el examen de inglés.

- Adverb-noun:
  
  (3) I sent you an email early this morning.
  
  (4) Te envié un correo electrónico a primera hora de la mañana.

- Verb-noun:
  
  (5) My husband intended to give me a surprise for our 10th wedding anniversary.
  
  (6) La intención de mi marido fue darme una sorpresa por nuestro 10º aniversario de bodas.

- Adverb-adjective:
  
  (7) He drives carelessly.
  
  (8) Su forma de conducir es irresponsable.

- Adverb-verb:
(9) *I only* said the truth of the story.

(10) *No hice otra cosa* que decir la verdad de la historia.

- Possessive article – definite article:

  (11) *Your* feet are too big to fit in those boots.

  (12) *Tienes los* pies demasiados grandes para que te quepan en esas botas.

In every language there are also idiomatic constructions, which are also transposed when they are translated in the TT. For example:

- Noun + participle → Participle + adverbial phrase

  (14) *Hand writing* → Escrito a mano (Spanish) / Écrit à la main (French)

  (15) *Hand made* → Hecho a mano (Spanish) / Fait à main (French)

The shift of word class varies from one language to another by changing their grammatical structures. For a better understanding of this phenomenon, let’s analyse the following example: the English construction verb *like* + verb is replaced in German with verb + adverb, or in Spanish indirect object + verb, while in French the structure of the expression remains the same:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + verb</th>
<th>Verb + adverb</th>
<th>Indirect object + verb + verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
<td><strong>German</strong></td>
<td><strong>Spanish</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He likes playing football</td>
<td>Er spielt gern ußball.</td>
<td>Le gusta jugar al fútbol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>French</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Il aime jouer au football.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These predicates show a divergent syntactic behavior: while the English verb *like* codes as subject the entity that experiences the feeling, the Spanish verb *gustar* expresses the experience through a dative, that is to say, the Spanish equivalence requires the use of an indirect object. The German language uses the adverb *gern*
after the main verb to express willingness and pleasure. After analysing the examples above, we observe that with the translation process the grammar structure changes in the TT, but the meaning remains the same.

Vinay and Darbelnet refer to the ST as the base expression and the TT as the transposed expression and describe two types of transposition: obligatory and optional.

a) Obligatory:

When in a particular context transposition is absolutely necessary to achieve an equivalent meaning in the TT. For example:

(1) Après sa sortie. (adverb + noun)
(2) After he’d gone out (adverb + subordinate clause)

Newmark (1988) uses this example of transposition in his Textbook of Translation to show how the grammatical structure is used in the TT as a way to correct a lexical gap. This is an example of obligatory transposition, because here, transposition is compulsory in order to find an acceptable and suitable equivalence that allows the translator to keep the verb tense and time expression of the original message in the TT.

b) Optional:

Also known as free transposition by other authors. In this case, the transposition mainly depends on the context and on the desired effect of the target message. Here, the method of transposition offers the translator a wide variety of possible versions by using the word categories differently. For example:

(1) La société lui a traitée d’une façon cruelle.
(2) The society has treated her cruelly.

In this example an adverbial phrase in French becomes an adverb in English.

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 36), from a stylistic point of view, the base and the transposed expression do not necessarily have the same value. Therefore, translators must decide whether the use of transposition in their translation fits
better into the statement or even gives a particular nuance of style, which may resemble better the TT.

2.4.2.2. Modulation

This translation technique consists in the variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning. It basically means a change of perspective: the translator uses a phrase that is different in the source and the target languages in order to transfer the same idea. This strategy involves a shift in both the semantics and the point of view of the source language. For example: In Spanish Te lo dejo means literally I leave it to you, but You can have it, it is a more suitable translation in the TT. In the previous example, the literal translation sounds awkward and unfamiliar, while the modulated translation generates a more natural feeling in the reader of the target text and it is easier to understand. Modulation is accepted in those contexts where either a literal or a transposed translation still sounds unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the target language, although the result is grammatically correct (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995: 36).

As with transposition, in some cases modulation can be optional, while in others it is obligatory, also named by Vinay and Darbelnet fixed or free modulation. The difference between free and fixed modulation is one of degree. While fixed modulation is considered a ready-made procedure, conventionally established and usually used in bilingual dictionaries, free modulation is considered more appropriate in those cases in which literal translation is not acceptable in the target language. However, according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:37), free modulation may become fixed, when it is used often enough, or is felt to offer the only solution (phenomenon usually resulting from the study of bilingual texts or from a famous translation which claims recognition due to its literary merit). A classic example of obligatory modulation is in English “the time when” translated as “le moment où” in French, although the literal translation would be “the moment where”. This example shows that the adverb when in English has been replaced by où (where) in French.
Optional modulation is often used within the same language by translators just to analyse whether this is the exact way of saying things and to find a degree of naturalness in the TT by keeping the meaning and linguistic accuracy of the ST. For example, the expressions “it is easy to do” and “it is not difficult to do”. Both have the same meaning, however, *it is easy to do* is a positive statement and suggests easiness, whereas *it is not difficult to do* implies a presumption of difficulty or complication that it is being denied by the use of a negative construction.

### 2.4.2.3. Equivalence

This term is used by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:38-9) to refer to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. An utterance of the ST is replaced in the TT with one that fulfils the same pragmatic function, although it differs in form and meaning. (Cruz 2013: 354). This strategy is commonly used for the translation of idioms, proverbs and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The car must have cost him an arm and a leg.</td>
<td>El coche debió costarle un ojo de la cara.</td>
<td>La voiture a dû lui coûter les yeux de la tête.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is raining cats and dogs.</td>
<td>Está lloviendo a cántaros.</td>
<td>Il pleut à seaux / des cordes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock-a-doodle-do</td>
<td>Quiquiriquí</td>
<td>cocorico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woof, arf, bow wow</td>
<td>Guau guau</td>
<td>Vov vov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heehaw</td>
<td>Ih-oh</td>
<td>Hi-han</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Examples of equivalence

Jakobson (1959), Nida and Taber (1982), Catford (1965), House (1977) and Baker (1992) have been other innovative theorists who have studied equivalence in the field of the translation process. Their theories can be divided into three different groups. The first group is composed by those theorists who stand up for the linguistic approach to translation, forgetting that translation is not just a matter of linguistic. In contrast, the second group recognises that translation deals with two different cultures at the same time and there are other aspects to consider apart
from the merely linguistic ones. They propose a pragmatic/semantic and functionally oriented approach to translation. Finally, the third group belongs to those theorists who are half way between the two theories mentioned above. The term of equivalence is adopted for the sake of convenience, because most translators are used to it rather than it has any theoretical status. (Baker 1992:5)

In this regard, if a specific linguistic unit in one language has the same intended meaning encoded in a specific linguistic way in another, then both units are considered equivalent, because they carry the same intended message. Given that equivalents may be words, morphemes, phrases, clauses, idioms and proverbs, finding the correct equivalent is one of the most problematic and difficult steps in the translation process. However, equivalence does not imply that the translator must always find one-to-one equivalent units, namely the same category or the same structure in both the TL and the SL, given that two different equivalent units can sometimes carry the same function. In this way, equivalence is directly related to the ability of the translator to keep at least some of the same essential features evidenced in the original text. This means that after understanding the meaning of a SL linguistic form, the translator’s task is to find the corresponding linguistic form in the TL ensuring that all the relevant features of the SL message are contained in the TL and reflect the same meaning as the original.

Considering all the points mentioned above, we can conclude this section by saying that equivalence is not a set of criteria which translations have to live up to, but is rather a group of features which characterises the relationships linking the TT with its ST. (Kashgary, 2011:50)

2.4.2.4. Adaptation

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 39-40) introduces this term to refer to the translation strategy that implies changing the cultural reference when the cultural-specific peculiarities of the source text do not exist in the target culture and they must be eliminated or replaced by other cultural-specific peculiarities appropriate in the TT. Vinay and Darbelnet exemplify this technique with the cultural connotation of sport games in different countries:
However, they also mention that this strategy may be appropriate for some restricted cultural frameworks, while the change cricket and cycling would not make sense in cultural-specific phrases in which cricket is the key word such as in “a cricket match at Lord’s next Sunday”, where the addressee knows that Lord’s is commonly known to be the home of cricket in London or in “they don’t even know how to play cricket!”, while watching a cricket game.

Adaptations are particularly common in the translation of film and book titles. As an example, we can name some of the most famous English novels with strangely translated titles: the 1945 George Orwell’s novel Animal Farm translated in French as Animaux Partout (animals everywhere) or the 1931 Aldous Huxley’s novel Brave the New World translated in French as Le meilleur des Mondes (The best of all worlds). These adaptations intend that the translated titles make sense and are attractive to read for the target audience.

Rendering a film title in a different language is not so much about translation, as it is about localization and adaptation of the title to the target culture. Film titles often rely on word play, cultural references and colloquial terms or slang, making the task of the translator especially challenging. Often a cultural reference is difficult to translate when the term or allusion might sound unfamiliar or uncommon to the target audience. This is the case of the 2009 animation film Cloudy with a chance of meatballs, where meatball was translated in Israel as Falafel, which is a traditional dish. Another good example of adaptation is the 2004 romantic science-fiction film Eternal Sunshine of the Spotless Mind. This film is based on the Alexander Pope’s poem Eloisa to Abelard, in which an unconventional couple erase each other from their memories. The Italian producers opted for a more literal translation: “Si mi lasciate cancello”, meaning “If you leave me, I erase you”. In contrast, in Poland the title was replaced by an idiom “Zakochany bez pamięci”, which means in English “madly in love”, but literally “in love without memory”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>Cyclisme</td>
<td>Baseball</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, regarding the degree of change in the TT, theorists distinguish two methods of adaptation: a) **global adaptation**, where the ST suffers a total change of its function in the TT, and b) **local adaptation** that only affects certain parts and sections of the ST (Bastin, 1998:7). A good example of global adaptation is the title of the Aldous Huxley’s novel mentioned above, *Brave the New World* translated into French as *Le meilleur des mondes*. As we can observe the original title of the novel has suffered a total change not only in its lexicon, but in the function of the TT, which confers the French title of the novel a different connotation than the original one in English. In respect to partial adaptation, a good example of it is the aforementioned film *Cloudy with a chance of meatballs* and the adaptation of its title in Israel, where only the term *meatballs* is replaced by Falafel in order to keep the same cultural connotation as the original and create the same impact on the target audience.

We can conclude this section by saying that some level of adaptation may be therefore required during the translation process in certain circumstances, especially in those cases where the TT has a different cultural background from that of the ST audience. In this sense, Thomson- Wohlgemuth (1998: 55-56) affirms:

> The degree of adaptation should ideally be retained in the translation, so that the text does not change in terms of its level of difficulty or interest. However, TT readers have a different cultural background from that of the ST readers, so that the translator will have to alter the text to maintain the degree of adaptation in the translation.

Those seven translation procedures described above belong to the 1995 English version of Vinay and Darbelnet’s book *Comparative Stylistics of French and English* and are summarised in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEXIS</th>
<th>STRUCTURES</th>
<th>MESSAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Borrowing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F: Bulldozer</td>
<td>Sciencie-fiction à la mode</td>
<td>Five o’clock, Bon voyage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E: Fuselage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Calque</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F: économiquement faible</td>
<td>Lutetia Palace</td>
<td>Compliments de la Saison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E: Normal School (C.E.)</td>
<td>Governor General</td>
<td>Take it or leave it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEXIS</th>
<th>STRUCTURES</th>
<th>MESSAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Literal Translation</strong></td>
<td>F: encre E: ink</td>
<td>Le livre est sur la table. The book is on the table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Transposition</strong></td>
<td>F: Expéditeur E: Form</td>
<td>Depuis la revalorisation du bois As timber becomes more valuable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Modulation</strong></td>
<td>F: Peu profound E: Shallow</td>
<td>Donnez un peu de votre sang Give a pint of your blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Equivalence</strong></td>
<td>F: (Mil.) La soupe E. UK: (Mil.) Tea E. US: chow</td>
<td>Comme un chien dans un jeu de quills Like a bull in a china shop</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In this table, the translation procedures have been listed in increasing order of difficulty and are applied to different degrees at lexical, syntactical and structural level. The degree of difficulty considered to order the procedures is based on the translator’s ability or capacities to handle with both the original and the target languages and their relationship to other cultural aspects and behaviors. In words of Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:42):

> Literal translation and transposition presuppose a solid knowledge of the linguistic structures of both languages; the successful application of the methods of modulation, equivalence and adaptation require translators to have additional experience. They must be able to locate a text in its social environment and be informed about the current state of literature, science, politics etc. of both language communities which are reflected in the texts they are asked to translate.

### 2.4.3. Complementary translation strategies

The seven basic procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet are complemented by other specific procedures, which are applicable to specific elements and communicative units within the text. These complementary procedures of translation are based on Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002). They classified the
following complementary twelve procedures as opposing pairs, except for compensation and inversion, which are individually described.

![Diagram of complementary translation procedures]

Figure 5: Complementary Translation Procedures (Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002).

2.4.3.1. Compensation

An element from the ST is placed elsewhere in the TT. This element may be “an item of information or a stylistic effect from the ST that cannot be reproduced in the same place in the TT” (Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002:500). Compensation was first defined by Vinay and Darbelnet in their SCFA in 1958 and described in the English translation of the book as the stylistic translation technique by which a nuance that cannot be put in the same place as in the original is put at another point in the phrase, thereby keeping the overall tone (1995: 341).

In many occasions, the technique of compensation is used to avoid a translation loss. Losses in translation are sometimes inevitable, since there might be terms, which do not have natural or obvious equivalents in the TT. In this regard, it is worth mentioning the definition of the concept, which was further developed by Hervey and Higgings (1992: 248): “the technique of making up for the translation loss of important ST features by approximating their effects in the TT through means other than those used in the ST”. To illustrate the technique of compensation Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002) takes an example from the French translation of Kipling’s
Jungle Book: Indeed, I was seeking thee, Flathead. Here, the author pretended to express respect by using the archaic pronoun thee instead of you. However, French language lacks in archaic pronoun forms, which may resemble and express the same nuance as the original. For this reason and in order to cause the same effect on the target reader, the translator uses a vocative in the form of an interjection O placed in a different part of the sentence: En verité, c’est bien toi que je cherche, O Tête-Plate.

2.4.3.2. Concentration versus Dissolution

Concentration happens when an expression from the ST is translated with a shorter number of words in the TT. This entails the production of a more economic text in the TT. A common example of concentration is the use of compound words and hyphens to translate prepositional verbs, adjectival, adverbial or prepositional phrases. Eg.: to make up for > compenser, à un bon prix > cheaply, faire prevue de > show or al dia > up-to-date.

As opposition, dissolution occurs when an expression from the ST is translated with more words in the TT in order to re-phrase an idea or strengthen the sense of a word or expression from the ST, when its correspondence in the TL cannot be transferred as accurately. Examples of dissolution are: archery > tir à l’arc, vivificante > life-giving, penalty (in football) > tir de réparation or York > Condado de York.

2.4.3.3. Amplification versus Economy

These two translation techniques are similar to concentration and dissolution. Amplification happens when the translator uses more words in the TL in order to cover syntactic or lexical gaps. With the addition of more elements in the TT, the purpose of the translator seeks to facilitate the comprehension of the message to the target reader. Amplification is often required in technical and academic texts as an aid to assure a better understanding of the original message or to decode certain ST elements, whose linguistic, semantic or cultural equivalents may not be clear enough in the TT. An example of amplification is (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:193):

- I think I know what you mean:
- Je crois savoir ce que vous voulez dire.
The opposite direction to amplification is economy, which implies the reduction of the number of words used in the translation of the TT. A translation is considered economical, when the same content of the ST is expressed more concisely and with a shorter number of elements in the TT. According to Vinay and Darbelnet’s results obtained from their comparative study of English texts and their French translations, it can be concluded that English is shorter than French. However, it has to be pointed out that every translation tends to be longer than the original, sometimes due to precaution or ignorance, but also to a lack of abilities of the translator. E.g.: pomme de terre > potato, mettre en relief > emphasise or à l´vapeur > steamed.

Some common examples of economy appear when the main and the subordinate verbs share the same subject or when a noun is used as an equivalent for the subordinate clause. In those cases, the tendency to use economy as translation strategy is frequently related to avoid a literal translation, which may cause an unfamiliar sound effect on the target audience.

Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995:195) following examples illustrate this tendency:

(1) Je crois savoir ce qui s´est passé > I believe I know what happened.
(2) I´ll let you know when he returns > Je vous ferai savoir quand il reviendra
> Je vous préviendrai de son retour.

In the last example, it is obvious that the second version of the French translation, where the verb was converted into a noun, is not only more economical, but also sounds more natural.

2.4.3.4. Reinforcement versus Condensation

These two techniques are a variation of amplification and economy and they are used when some grammatical elements from the SL need to be reinforced or condensed in the TL to achieve a more accurate translation that facilitates the reader comprehension of the TT. Characteristic examples of reinforcement are English prepositions and conjunctions that tend to be supplemented in French by the use of nouns or verbs such as in:

(1) Passengers to Paris > Voyageurs à destination Paris
(2) From > De la part de...
(3) The Time Machine > La machine à mesurer le temps
(4) I’ll call for you > Je passerai vous prendre.

On the contrary, condensation can be exemplified as follows:

(1) Faire une promenade > se promener / To take a walk > to walk
(2) Pousser un soupir > soupirer / To have a sigh > to sigh
(3) Porter un jugement sur > juger / To pass a value judgment on > to judge

2.4.3.5. Explicitation versus Implicitation

Explicitation is when information implicit in the ST is made explicit in the TT, precise details are introduced into the TT to make the original message clear und understandable. Explicitation is often motivated by lexicogrammatical, stylistic or cultural differences between source and target language. A good example of explicitation are pronouns. The need to make pronouns explicit depends on the context or the situation, for example to reveal the patient’s sex when translating a medical report in order to clarify whether the patient is masculine or feminine. Another example of explicitation is caused by general knowledge shared by members of the SL and ST, for example proper nouns such as Saint Andrews > Universidad de San Andrews or La Loire > The Loire river.

In contrast, implicitation is a translation technique intended to increase the economy of the TT by not introducing details of information from the source text in the target text when they are evident or clear enough from the context or the situation and the reader can easily deduce the original message without an extra hint of information. In most of the cases, the same situation indicates the information that is explicit in the ST, implying a different grade of implicitation from the omission of single words to the summarizing of entire paragraphs in less lines or even in just a few words. Eg.: écoute moi! > listen! or go out of the room! > ¡vete!
2.4.3.6. Generalization versus Particularization

Generalization happens when a word or a phrase in the ST is translated into a more general or ample term in the TT, while particularization is the opposite and occurs when a word or a phrase from the ST is translated into a more specific or precise term in the TT. These translation techniques are frequently used to adjust structural and stylistic differences between source and target language texts and also as a tool to influence and shape the audience’s understanding of reality. An example of generalization is the translation of rose, orchid and tulip by flowers or hammer, drill and screwdriver by tools. And good examples of particularization are the colloquial expressions for medical terms, that can be more precisely translated stomach inflammation by gastritis, bad breath by halitosis or eye infection by conjunctivitis.

2.4.3.7. Inversion

Inversion, also named dislocation by Vinay and Darbelnet (1992:222), implies the alteration of the word order or the phrase structure in a sentence or a paragraph in order to achieve a more natural emphasis or to reveal specific stylistic characteristics in the TT. Examples of inversion are:

Did you send this letter, or didn’t you? > Cette lettre, tu l’as envoyé oui ou non?

Keep this to yourself > De cela, ne parlez à personne.

With the description of these twelve complementary translation strategies, we conclude this section and the seven translation procedures first proposed in 1958 by Vinay and Darbelnet would be completed. All these translation strategies will be considered in the methodological part of my study and represent the base of analysis for the comparative study of evidentials in the selected corpus in English and their translation in French and Spanish.

In order to simplify and make the translation strategies described above visually more accessible, the following table has been created as a fundamental tool to check during the process of analysis of the present study:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct Translation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrowing</td>
<td>A word from the ST is directly transferred to the TT without translation.</td>
<td>Marketing, light, sandwich, business, online.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>A language borrows an expression form of another, but then translates literally each of its elements.</td>
<td>Compliments de la saison! &gt; Compliments of the Season!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literal Translation</strong></td>
<td>ST is translated ‘word-for-word’ into TT.</td>
<td>I left my spectacles on the table downstairs &gt; J’ai laissé mes lunettes sur la table en bas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oblique Translation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>Replacement of a word class of one part of the speech for another without changing the original message.</td>
<td>Red shoes &gt; zapatos rojos &gt; chaussures rouges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>Variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning.</td>
<td>It is easy to do &gt; No es difícil de hacer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalence</td>
<td>An utterance of the ST is replaced in the TT with one that fulfils the same pragmatic function, although it differs in form and meaning.</td>
<td>It is raining cats and dogs &gt; Está lloviendo a cántaros &gt; Il pleut à seaux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementary Translation Strategies</td>
<td>Adaptation</td>
<td>A cultural reference in the ST is eliminated or replaced by other cultural-specific peculiarities more appropriate in the TT, because it does not exist in the target culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>An element from the ST is placed elsewhere in the TT.</td>
<td>Indeed, I was seeking thee, Flathead &gt; En verité, c’est bien toi que je cherche, Ô Tête-Plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentration</td>
<td>An expression from the ST is translated with a shorter number of words in the TT.</td>
<td>À un bon prix &gt; Cheaply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissolution</td>
<td>An expression from the ST is translated with more words in the TT.</td>
<td>Tir à l’arch &gt; Archery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amplification</td>
<td>The translator uses more words in the TL in order to cover syntactic or lexical gaps.</td>
<td>I think I know what you mean &gt; Je crois savoir ce que vous voulez dire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Reduction of the number of words used in the translation of the TT.</td>
<td>Pomme de terre &gt; Potato / patata.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reinforcement</strong></td>
<td>Grammatical elements from the SL need to be reinforced in the TL to achieve a more accurate translation that facilitates the reader comprehension of the TT.</td>
<td>From &gt; De la part de...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Condensation</strong></td>
<td>Grammatical elements from the SL are condensed in the TL to achieve a better understanding.</td>
<td>Faire une promenade &gt; To walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Explicitation</strong></td>
<td>Information implicit in the ST is made explicit in the TT.</td>
<td>La Loire &gt; The Loire river</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Implicitation</strong></td>
<td>When details or information from the ST are evident or clear enough from the context or situation, they are not introduced in the TT.</td>
<td>Écoute moi! &gt; ¡Escucha! / Listen!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Generalization</strong></td>
<td>A word or a phrase in the ST is translated into a more general or ample term in the TT.</td>
<td>Tulips, roses, orchids &gt; Flowers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Particularization</strong></td>
<td>A word or a phrase from the ST is translated into a more specific or precise term in the TT.</td>
<td>Bad breath &gt; Halitosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inversion</strong></td>
<td>Alteration of the word order or the phrase structure in a sentence or a paragraph.</td>
<td>Keep this to yourself &gt; De cela, ne parlez à personne</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Description of translation strategies proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet.
2.5. Evidentiality and evidentiality in translation

Evidentiality aims to express how the knowledge or the information have been achieved by the speaker or writer, highlighting thereby the level of authenticity and accuracy of the utterance (E.g.: it is absolutely true or she seems to be very nervous). Evidentiality may be either a grammatical or a lexical item used to set clearly the source or mode of information for a specific proposition. In other words, evidentiality shows patterns of mystification or legitimization for that given proposition. In so doing, some sort of objective distance emerges in the formulation of the message in order to specify different degrees of accountability.

This distance or remoteness might be used by the writer or the speaker to detach him or herself from the message and to avoid responsibility towards the recipient for the information source. In this way, the sender of the message proves the recipients that he or she is not responsible for the contents of the utterance and the source of information comes from somewhere else.

Evidentials ensure an important support for the author’s argumentation with a persuasive effect on the reader (Hyland, 2005:51). Besides, they do not only imply that the information has been submitted by someone different than the speaker, but they can also be used to express that the speaker agrees to a certain extent with the message. However, he or she does not want to get completely involved in the utterance.

For this reason, the biggest difficulties for the translator are to detect the indirect information from the evidentials of the source text and how to include and adapt them in the target text, so they keep the same meaning as in the original. According to Helin (1992) translation is always an interpretation of what has been said or written. So, if we consider translation as an interpretation of the original message, we can understand translation as a communication tool or aid to ensure to some extent that the target audience interprets the message in the correct way. We should also bear in mind that there is always a subjective interpretation particular to every translator and present in his/her translation methods and results.

Here, we bring up the fact of subjectivity in translation, which plays a significant role in the translation process, since the meaning of the original text is not always clear.
When we read or listen to a story, a novel, a poem or even a joke, our brain tends to create a sequence of images, which helps us to follow the line of the story. This process is subject to the creation ability and attitude towards the reality particular to every person. In a translation, however, subjectivity appears twice: on the one hand, in the knowledge of the translator when reading and analyzing the source text and, on the other hand, in the reading process of the recipient when reading the translated text.

Every language has its own means to express uncertainty or leave the original sender inexplicit and it is important for the translator to detect how evidentiality is expressed in his/her working languages and how to adapt it in the target text, so the recipient can interpret the meaning desired by the author of the source text. In words of Chafe (1986:261):

> English has a rich repertoire of evidential devices. It expresses evidentiality with modal auxiliaries, adverbs and miscellaneous idiomatic phrases, although not, for example, with a coherent set of verb suffixes like those in some California Indian languages.

Every textual production contains the subjective interpretation of its author. This means for the translator that he/she has to first decode the author’s purpose and his/her perspective and attitude towards the texts. For this reason, the process of translation implies the independent and creative reasoning of the translator to achieve the correct understanding of the source text and the proper adaptation of the meaning in the writing target text. Pragmatics has shown that understanding an utterance often requires inference on the part of the hearer (Leech, 1983), because what it is said it is not always what it is meant and much less what it implies. This has obvious implications for the translation of evidentials, as there might be ample room for the translator/interpreter to decide the effect a particular evidential may have in the target culture and whether an omission would be also sufficient on these same grounds.

In the translation process of constructing sentences in the target language, subjective attention is inevitably involved. If we analyse Langacker’s (1987) examples, “the lamp is over the table” and “the table is below the lamp”, we come to the result that both descriptions give the same information, but they indicate different perspectives according to the speaker’s point of view. As a logical
consequence, the translator’s subjective consciousness is contained in his/her writing production, fulfilling his/her goals in every required situation. This allows us to conclude that subjectivity is implicit in every communication process. The translator is required to have the particular capacity to contextualise and recreate the meaning in the target text to achieve an accurate equivalence of a particular evidential. Here, the idea of equivalence emerges from the compilation of three different aspects: the interpersonal, conceptual and textual meaning of the source text, and the greatest ability of the translator lies in achieving maximal equivalence working together with those three aspects, so in the end the translation is an accurate version of the original text.

Given the important role that the notions of subjectivity and inter-subjectivity play in the translation process of evidentials, as these devices clearly reflect the speakers’ perspectivization, both concepts will be discussed in more detail in the following section.
2.5.1. (Inter)subjectivity in translation

Following Chen-qing (2015), (inter)subjectivity in the translation process has increasingly been a more common matter of investigation for researchers and scholars. Given that translation is a cognitive activity, where the translator does not only act as a reader of the original text, but also as a writer of the final version of the same, the addition of subjective elements in his/her translation is inevitably implied. The main purpose of the translations studies has mainly been focused on the comparison between the source text and the translated version, where the translation is expected to be a complete transcript of the original work, while the style and the manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original, as suggested by Tytler (2007). According to this author, the translator should not get involved in the creation process, his/her personal elements are to be constantly avoided. In this way, the original message is not distorted and keeps the same sensitive meaning given by the original writer, as Chen-qing records, also following Nida (1993): “He is told to be as free as possible from personal intrusions; he is warned not to “distort the message to fit his own intellectual and emotional outlook”; he is required to minimise “ego-involvement”.

All these hypotheses suggest that the role of the translator is to be like a transparent glass, a mere reflection of the original text in the translated text, where personal and creative elements from the translator are prohibited. The translator is expected to be “invisible” as much as possible so that the original text and the original writer could be more “visible” to the readers (Venuti, 1995). However, translation is an activity of interpretation and understanding, where the subjectivity of the translator is intrinsically involved in the interpretation of the original texts, the selection of the translation strategies, the use of his/her language style and personal adaptation to cultural references. Consequently, we must be realistic and recognise that the whole translation process is eminently subject to the translator’s influence. In the fourth century, St. Jerome, best known as the translator of the Bible into Latin, the Vulgate, and an important monastic leader, believed that the translator by displaying his/her own style and linguistic tactics can make the translated text as beautiful as the original. In the 20th century, translation theories advanced rapidly and the pursue of aesthetic beauty began to play a key role in the written production, especially in the
literary works. In the recent years, subjectivity in translation regarded as the aesthetic pursuit, the creativity and personality of the translator has become a more demanded topic among researchers. The ideas and opinions of the translator began to be paid a special attention. It is true that the translator cannot reflect his/her personal ideas in the translated version, but he must use his own aesthetic sense and creative abilities to create a work that combines both the author’s idea and his own style. For that reason, translation’s subjectivity can be neither overlooked nor overstated.

This (inter)subjective stance of the translator may have some effect on the way the author of the text wanted to convey by the use of a particular evidential. Let us consider a case in which the translator purposely omits the use of the intersubjective matrix *We have been told…*, as he/she considers this information irrelevant. In this case, information concerning the source of knowledge has been cancelled, but also the author’s degree of accountability. The intersubjective meaning of *We are told…* may seek to suggest a mitigating function of the evidential, which is left unrecorded in the target text. This way of perspectivizing information depends on the evidence taken as source.

Following the typology of Willett (1988:57), evidence of source of knowledge can be divided into two broad types: direct and indirect. Languages distinguish between firsthand and non-firsthand information and possess different markers to express evidentiality according to its lexical, syntactical and grammatical characteristics. Evidentiality is classified according to the way the speaker or writer receives or has access to the information, if the speaker saw the incident (visual), or only heard it (nonvisual), or was reported about it (reported or hearsay), or made a comment based on experience, general knowledge or visual signs (inferential). The different sources of knowledge or information have a different impact on the receiver. In the same way, different areas demand different types of source to prove or attest the information.

Sbisà (2014: 463-464) summarised the above as follow:

There are languages that distinguish whether the speaker has been a witness of what she says to be the case or not, whether the information her utterance conveys is firsthand, secondhand or thirdhand, and whether the source of that information is perceptual, inferential, or testimonial.
Willett made two wide divisions of evidentiality according to the nature of evidence (direct and indirect), from which derive three main types (attested, reported and inferring) and their corresponding subtypes.

De Haan (2001:195) describes these two categories as “the information of the action described either comes from the speaker him/herself (direct or firsthand) or the speaker received word of the action in a sentence through a second party (indirect or secondhand)”. Besides, de Haan (2001:193) defines direct evidence as a situation in which the speaker has personally witnesses the action. With these descriptions we understand that direct evidentiality expresses that the speaker or writer has a perceptual testimony about the incident, however, indirect evidentiality implies that the speaker or writer receives the information by indirect means.

All these types would reflect a particular authorial stance, and the way in which the authors want to relate with their texts. In this vein, the ways in which these devices are transposed into the target languages also indicate the authors’ point of view and degree of responsibility for the claims made, but also the cognitive processes the translators have gone through, especially in direct translation, to select the most suitable equivalent. This has a lot to say in linguistics, as the translation of an inferential evidential device, such as may as in She may be reading her book in the
library now into Debe estar leyendo su libro en la biblioteca en este momento, states two things: (a) the translator has identified the evidential nuisance in the use of may (frequently associated with epistemic modality to indicate likely probability that the action is taking place), and (b) that Spanish also owns a periphrastic means to indicate evidentiary inferentiality.

2.6. Chapter summary

In this second chapter of my dissertation, a general description of the concept of translation strategies as defined by different authors such as Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Nida (1964), Malblanc (1968), Vázquez Ayora (1977) or Newmark (1988) is offered. Here, translation strategies are understood as those operations, i.e. techniques and methods, involved in the translation process to find an accurate equivalent in the TL. However, there is still a terminological confusion around the correct term to name translation strategies, which has led theorists and linguists to propose their own terms and definition of the concept. These data are included in table 2, which represents the terminological heterogeneity despite alluding to the same reality.

After the analysis of the conceptual issue, the definitions for the concept translation strategies given by different authors in the field of linguistics such as King’s (1986), Lörscher (1991), Jääskeläinen (1999), Molina and Hurtado Albir (2004) or Cruz (2013) were reviewed in detail.

Vinay and Darbelnet’s first English version of the Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a methodology for translation (1995) has been taken as the basis used for the classification of the translation strategies and are extensively described in section 2.4. of the present chapter.

The last section of this chapter is dedicated to the revision of evidentiality, understood here as the way to express how the knowledge or the information have been achieved by the speaker or writer. Our specific focus is on the importance of evidentiality in translation and how evidential markers find equivalences in other languages. Also, the concept of (inter)subjectivity is defined, since the addition of subjective elements in a translation is inevitably implied. To conclude, the importance of the expression of evidentiality lies in the fact that it confers
authenticity and accuracy to the utterances and facilitate a better understanding and interpretation of the information.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY: CORPUS-BASED TRANSLATION STUDIES
3.1. INTRODUCTION

The present study is based on the analysis of a scientific and technical texts corpus, as exemplified in the UNESCO corpus given at the CLUVI website (see section 3.4.2, below). This collection compiles, classifies and compares aligned segments in three different languages. The research has been carried out following three main steps. In the first place, I have selected passages where adverbs of evidentiality in English have been used, and their corresponding translations into French and Spanish. To do so, I have used the search toolbar offered by the website, which allows an accurate search of isolated words or series of words. This search yields results about the multilingual equivalence of the selected term in context. Secondly, I have delved into the evidentials and their specific meaning in the source text written in English. Finally, I have analysed the translation strategies used to maintain the equivalence between the evidentials appearing in the source language, English, and their translation -or as the case may be, omission- in the target languages, French and Spanish.

Figure 7: Methodology steps.
3.2. Considerations on the corpus compilation

For the purpose of the present research, the method of analysis is based on a parallel textual corpus. Given that this study is based on the analysis of a corpus, it is important to define what a corpus is and discuss the most important issues, advantages and difficulties of a corpus compilation.

The term *corpus*, even within linguistic studies, have different meanings depending on the field of research making use of it. It might consist of audio recordings or transcriptions, in the case of oral corpora; or, if it represents written language, it may contain manuscript letters or published materials of different nature.

The concept of corpus in the field of Translation Studies emanates from Corpus Linguistics. Corpus Linguistics bases the study of a language on a corpus analysis and tries to give answer to two main questions in the field of linguistic research (Bennett, 2010):

a) what particular patterns are associated with lexical or grammatical features?

b) how these patterns differ within varieties and registers?

Many recognized scholars, such as Leech (1983), Biber (1999), Conrad (1999) or Johansson (1999) have carried out studies on the possibilities and advantages of corpus linguistics. However, John Sinclair is considered the most influential scholar of modern-day corpus linguistics, since he and his team developed in the early 1980s the *COBUILD English Dictionary* project at Birmingham (Sinclair 1987, 1991), which revolutionised dictionaries for English language learners and was the first dictionary based on real examples of English, incorporating the type of English that people use in their daily spoken and written communicative contexts. His project resulted in the creation of the largest Corpus of English language texts in the world and introduced new ways of structuring dictionary entries.

One of the main theories of Sinclair (1991) was that “a word does not carry meaning, but this meaning is often made through several words in a sequence”. And this is the idea that makes up the backbone of corpus linguistics. In this regard, Sinclair (1991:171) defines corpus as “a collection of naturally-occurring language text, chosen to characterize a state or variety of a language".
The definition claims the need for a collection of natural instances of languages in order to compare different textual genres, their lexical and syntactic structures and how they interact and adapt in order to find their equivalence in other languages. Torruella Casañas (2017: 25) states:

La lingüística de corpus aspira a facilitar el estudio de la lengua basándose en ejemplos reales organizados en corpus y tiene un marcado enfoque empírico que pretende transformar los datos observables en evidencias científicas destinadas, más que a ilustrar con ejemplos hipótesis ya probadas, a comprobar las nuevas hipótesis que los investigadores proponen.

As defined by Corpas Pastor (1995: 216), “a corpus is a collection of texts, each of which is translated into one or more languages than the original“. Given that a parallel corpus is a significant source of information for translators, it constitutes an essential and reliable tool, which provides researchers and analysts with information about the translative behavior (Corpas Pastor, 1995).

The emergence and rapid spread of new computing technologies has contributed to the development of bilingual and multilingual corpora, known as modern-day corpora, which have recently awoken an increasing interest in the field of Translation Studies and Linguistics. This can be appreciated in the new wave of research projects, scientific papers and doctoral theses recently published (Calzada Pérez, 2018; Toolan, 2018; Malamatidou, 2017; or Sánchez Nieto, 2018). The inclusion of a corpus in many studies is motivated by the diversity of experiments and analyses that can be performed from a data collection, wealthy in text genres and combination of languages. In comparison to traditional paper-based methods, computer-based systems and data retrieval enables a deeper insight and approach and the discovery of more specific features of the translated language. The major reason for using computer corpora is the quality of linguistic evidence, particularly on collocations and typical uses of lexical items, vastly superior to the analyst’s intuition (Sinclair, 1991:42).

Corpus-based analysis can give us relevant information about frequency of use of words or sequences of words, phrases and idiomatic expressions, register, collocations, differences between spoken and written language, most frequently used tenses and prepositional verbs, etc.
Another important aspect of corpora is its growing application for teaching purposes as a didactic tool that reinforces language learning, the acquisition of translation strategies and skills and the improvement of linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge through the translation shift analysis. This way a new concept is introduced. Translation shift analysis aims to study the translation process by classifying and analysing the differences and changes observed through the comparison of ST and TT pairs.

The use of computer corpus in translation studies research focuses on identifying typicalities of the language of translated texts in a corpus, which can be then compared to non-translated language finding the main differences and establishing the norms applicable during the work of translation. The idea of typicality was introduced by Baker in 1993 and was directly related to the concepts of norms, laws and universals. This approach followed Toury’s theory, whose aim was to make generalizations on the decision-making processes of the translator and, subsequently to develop the norms that have been observed in the translation and generate unifying hypotheses that can be applied in further studies. In fact, Toury (1995:55) regards translation as an activity governed by norms, defined as follows:

The translation of general values or ideas shared by a community – as to what is right or wrong, adequate or inadequate – into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations.

According to Toury’s definition, these norms are sociocultural attitudes that emanate from a specific culture and community and a particular period of time. He uses norms as a descriptive category in the analysis through regularity of behavior. However, applying this concept to translation, Baker (1998:164) describes norms as options that translators in a given socio-historical context select on a regular basis. She suggests that using corpus-based analysis of translations, characteristic features such as explicitation, grammatical standardization and an increased frequency of common words can be obtained. Prior to computing technologies, similar theories and hypotheses have been made by different researchers such as Levy (1969), Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) or Vinay and Darbelnet (1958, 1995). All these theories could later be tested on large compilations of texts with the arrival of computerised databases.
3.3. Types of corpus

When consulting a corpus, it is very important to have a clear idea of what we are looking for, since a corpus is a principled collection of real texts electronically stored that can be used to discover information that may not have detected through simple intuition. In this regard, the parameters to classify a corpus are very important in order to simplify and do faster and more accurate searches. Torruella Casañas (2017:41) claims that several factors must be considered to classify corpora and suggests a series of parameters have in order to make an accurate and practical classification of types of corpus:

La descripción del tipo de corpus no responde a un solo parámetro (general o especializado, sincrónico o diacrónico, etc.) sino que es la suma de la definición de diversos factores.

The following chart shows parameters on the left column and types of corpus on the right according to the Torruella Casañas´ classification (2017:41):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parámetro</th>
<th>Tipo de corpus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modalidad</td>
<td>Oral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Escrito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mixto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temática</td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Especializado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Época</td>
<td>Contemporáneo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Histórico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporalidad</td>
<td>Sincrónico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diacrónico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnitud</td>
<td>Grande</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restringido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolución</td>
<td>Abierto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cerrado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribución</td>
<td>Proporcional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equivalente</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Núm. Ediciones</td>
<td>Monoedición</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pluriedición</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 14: Classification of the types of corpus according to Torruella Casañas` parameters.

The type of corpus to be used depends on the purpose of the analysis. For the present study, only six types of the aforementioned corpora, shown below, will be discussed, since these are the most adequate and representative for the description of the corpus selected for our analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Type of corpus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Oral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period of time</td>
<td>Contemporary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporality</td>
<td>Synchronic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of languages</td>
<td>Monolingual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15: Parameters selected for the description of our corpus.
3.3.1. Spoken corpora, written corpora and mixed corpora

Spoken corpora are collections of spoken texts indexed in the form of transcripts. Sometimes, they can also be supported by audio or audiovisual recordings available to be used with customised software programs. They allow the analysis of different aspects of the speech production process. However, the compilation of spoken corpora are quite rare and their samples are small due to the fact that they are expensive and require a labourious job to produce.

In contrast to spoken corpora, written corpora are written text compilations stored in electronic format following specific criteria according to the intended purpose.

Mixed corpora, as their name indicates, are composed by both spoken and written materials. The main difference between them is that they require different processing methods, since spoken records need to be transcripted.

3.3.2. General Corpora and specialised corpora

General corpora are the broadest type of corpus, because they are often very large, frequently composed by more than 10 million words. The results are generalised, because they contain a plentiful variety of language giving users an extensive general overview. These large corpora are compiled for general purpose research and usually composed by written texts from magazine articles, newspapers, fiction and nonfiction stories or scholarly journal articles, but also transcripts of informal oral conversations or meetings. They are suitable, if the research is aimed at obtaining generalizations about language as a whole.

Specialised corpus, also known as specific corpus, is composed of a certain type of texts and intends to be representative of the language of this type, which means they are highly domain specific. Specialised corpora can be large or small depending on the purpose of their creation and field of application. For example, a medical corpus containing the terms and concepts used by cardiologists in the surgery room of a hospital, will contain less entries than a medical corpus compiling the language used by cardiologists in general in the National Health Service of a country. Specialised corpora are mainly composed by texts from different fields of studies: law, medicine, economics, computing, science, engineering, education, etc.
However, it is not always easy to set the limits that determine what a special purpose corpus is or is not. Bowker (2002:12) defines specialised corpus as:

A special purpose corpus is one that focuses on a particular aspect of language. It could be restricted to the LSP of a particular subject field, to a specific type, to a particular language variety or to the language used by members of a certain demographic group (e.g. teenagers). Because of its specialized nature, such a corpus cannot be used to make observations about language in general. However, general reference corpora and special purpose corpora can be used in a comparative fashion to identify those features of a specialized language that differ from general language.

In the last years, the interest in specialised corpora has considerably increased resulting in the emergence of many types of specific corpora. Among these and for the purpose of the present study, I will only mention two specific types of corpus: academic corpora and learner corpora.

3.3.2.1. Academic Corpora

An academic corpus is a type of specialised corpus that exclusively handles with language produced in academic settings. It may contain transcripts of seminars, lectures, meetings, advisory or tutorial sessions as well as all types of written texts produced in academic contexts, i.e. university, colleges, schools. Therefore, academic corpora are likely to include speech of both experts and non-experts in the field of education. The main purpose of academic corpora is to study the nature of academic speech and writing and to bring new ideas and useful initiatives that improve the teaching methods and pedagogic tools.

3.3.2.2. Learner Corpora

A learner corpus is also a type of specialised corpus that unlike academic corpora and as its name suggests, includes written texts and spoken transcripts of language used by students who are currently learning the language, but it does not contain materials produced by experts in a specific area of knowledge. Learner corpora are usually tagged, that means each entry of the corpus is provided with a marker that adds additional information, what allows users for example to examine common mistakes made by students or to search for specific words. They are often developed and employed for both general language teaching and for specific groups at
different levels of language acquisition, but also for contrastive purposes to compare the differences between learners of the first language (L1) or the native tongue and the second language (L2) or the foreign language.

Torrüella makes a distinction between contemporary and historical corpora and synchronic and diachronic corpora, while the majority of theorists do not make this distinction, since they consider both types of corpora share the same common criterion of classification, i.e. time. Due to corpus linguistics is a relatively new field of enquiry, many terms have been coined and some of these terms have been assigned more than one meaning, while others are not yet fully defined (Pearson 1998:44). Here and following Torruella’s theory, all types of corpora will be described in order to establish the differences between the criteria proposed by Torruella, época (period) and temporalidad (temporality).

According to the criterion of time, corpora can be contemporary, if their texts are in modern language, or historical, if they are in ancient language:

3.3.3. Contemporary corpora and historical corpora

Contemporary corpora compile texts in contemporary or modern language, the type of language used in the present. It aims for the study of one or more language varieties of the present moment. Likewise, this type of corpus can be either synchronic, if it is not structured in periods of time, or diachronic, if its texts are organised in time frames.

Historical corpora compile texts of the ancient language. It may contain old-fashioned or uncommon words, spellings and characters (letters), that are no longer employed in the modern language. Like contemporary corpora, historical corpora can be either synchronic, if they only focus on one period of time without studying the evolution of the language with regard to other former times, or diachronic, if texts are organised in different subsequent time frames in order to study the evolution of the language. Historical corpora are mainly restricted to written materials, because there is simply no existence of recordings of native speakers and this fact has a direct impact in the restricted amount of documents available.
Torruela’s concept of temporality refers to time divided into time periods or subsequent time frames. According to this criterion, corpora can be classified in:

### 3.3.4. Synchronic corpora and diachronic corpora

A synchronic corpus presents a snapshot of a language during a limited time frame (Bowker, 2002:12) and it aims the study of the language in a specific moment either in the present or the past.

In contrast, a diachronic corpus structures texts in subsequent time frames in order to study the evolution of the different linguistic elements in the course of time.

### 3.3.5. Large corpora and restricted corpora

The size of a corpus depends on different factors. As mentioned above, one of the main limitations is the amount of material available to create a corpus accomplishing the intended purposes. However, due to the latest technological advances in data processing systems, the easy access to a huge number of texts and the advanced search techniques imply an accurate work of selection, if the purpose is to create a corpus that contains textual aspects (edition), formal aspects (codification) and linguistic aspects (tagging), and becomes a useful tool to achieve the intended results of a study or project.

In this regard, there are two types of corpora attending to their size: large corpora and restricted corpora.

Large corpora do not limit the volume of texts and/or words and do not take sufficient account of balance, representativeness, codification and tagging. This kind of corpora tends to exceed the 100 million of words. Despite the large amount of words contained in the corpus, the compilation of the texts is not randomly made, but follows minimum selection and order criteria.

Restricted corpora limit the number of texts and words and they are representative and well-structured with the aim to be manageable and editable (tagging, codification, etc.). Although there is not a fixed number of texts that distinguishes large corpus from restricted corpus, because the difference does not reside in the
amount of entries, but in the intended purpose, corpus with less than 100 million words are considered restricted corpora.

3.3.6. Monolingual and multilingual corpora

Monolingual corpus is a corpus made up of texts in a single language or sometimes in different dialects of the same language. Monolingual corpora are typically national corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC), the Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) or the Corpus Diacrónico del Español (CORDE).

A multilingual corpus contains texts in two or more languages. Although, the definition is quite simple and evident, multilingual corpora can be further divided into two more types: comparable corpora and parallel corpora.

A comparable corpus is a collection of similar texts in different languages or in different varieties of languages. However, it must be clarified that comparable corpora “consist of sets of texts in different languages that are not translations of each other” (Bowker, 2002:93). It is also interesting the description made by McEnery and Wilson (1996:57), since it completes the previous definition and adds more characteristics:

[...] collections of individual monolingual corpora which use the same or similar sampling procedures and categories for each language, but contain completely different texts in several languages.

Comparable corpora are useful to improve the translator’s understanding of the subject field, enhance the quality of the translation regarding a more correct choice of terms and idiomatic expressions and the creation of terminology banks that aim to make the translation process easier, faster and more practical.

A parallel corpus is a collection of texts, which are translated in one or more other languages. The simplest example is a bilingual corpus, where only two languages are involved: one is the language of the corpora and the other is its exact translation. However, there are parallel corpora in several languages. Another fact to consider is the direction of the translation, which may vary from texts to texts: some texts may have been translated from language A to language B and others the other way
around. In many cases, the direction of the translation may be even unknown, as Bowker (1996:93) states:

it is even possible for different sections of a single text to have been drafted in different languages and then translated into another language at the end. Here, the user may not even suspect that the text is not only an original source text, but is in fact a translation made up of translations from different languages.

For all these reasons, the possible composition options are diverse. In this regard, Teubert (1996:245) describes three possible combinations:

A parallel corpus may contain 1) original texts written in language A and their translations into B and C, 2) an equal amount of texts originally written in language A and B and their respective translations, or 3) only translations of texts into languages A, B and C where the texts were originally written in language Z.

At present, the special interest of parallel corpora is that they offer the opportunity to align original texts and their translation, what gives us a profound insight into the features of the translation (syntax, terminology, idiomatic elements, application of translation strategies, etc.). Parallel corpora are typical in multilingual societies or multilingual communication contexts and a good example of them are the United Nations, the EU institutions and bodies, officially bilingual countries such as Canada, Cameroon and Israel or trilingual such as Luxembourg and Belgium.

3.4. Corpus-based translation studies

In the recent years, corpus-based translation studies (further abbreviated CTS) have experienced a considerable growth, becoming a new influential tool in many areas of language studies. CTS gained attention two decades ago, coinciding with the publication of Mona Baker’s revolutionary paper *Corpus Linguistics and Translation Studies: Implications and Applications* in 1993, in which Baker explores the impact of corpora in the study of translation as an empirical phenomenon, as well as the impact that methodology and techniques in terms of corpus linguistics has on the development of theories and descriptions in the discipline of translation studies. According to Baker, the most suitable types of corpora to apply in translation research should be parallel corpora, comparable corpora and multilingual corpora. These three types play an important role in creating bilingual and/or multilingual
glossaries, in studying imprecise characteristics of source and target texts, in trying out theories from a profound approach, etc.

Also, in the 1990’s there were other leading theorists like Toury (1995), Malmkjær (1998), Shlesinger (1998), who studied the phenomenon of CTS as an innovative strategy in the translation research.

In present, CTS is recognised as an essential model that has revolutionised empirical approaches within the field of translation studies, providing theorists and researchers with the opportunity to study translational behavior, cultural interaction and language in general. Besides, corpora make possible a contrastive study of the relationship between languages, the original language and its translation into one or more languages, and this relationship is investigated from the equivalence, correspondence and shifts of translation. Equivalence has always been the most desirable aim of a translation, pursuing the idea that translations should be as equivalent to their original as possible and this is the fact that determines the ideal translation and, in so doing the quality and abilities of a good translator. The awaken interest to explore and classify the notion of equivalence has raised the need to study real examples that allow to compare not only how formal structures are reproduced in other languages, but also how idiomatic expressions, language usage and meanings are formulated in the target language.

Since the aim of the present study is to make a contrastive analysis that allows us to compare how evidentiality is expressed in other languages and the translation strategies used to produce equivalent results, the methodology applied is the analysis of a selected corpus.

3.5. First steps before using CTS

When a corpus is employed in a research, there are basic steps or procedures that have to be determined from the beginning of the investigation in order to achieve the desired results.

The very first step is to determine the goal of the study. The researcher must define the theory, he/she wants to test out with the application of a corpus.
Secondly, once the goal is set up and clear, it must be selected the most suitable type of corpus, whose design criteria (big or small, general or specific, written or spoken texts, etc.) allow the researcher to achieve the intended aim.

Thirdly and finally, after having selected the type of corpus and determined its general characteristics, we begin with the investigation. It is important to follow certain rules and order in order to carry out an exhaustive contrast of the corpora and/or the data. It is important to be sensitive of every little detail, which may make a difference between one text and the other and allows us to conclude our investigation, study the results and causes and apply our theory in the field of translation. Through a corpus-based translation analysis, our translation activity and results can improve, be more professional and sound more natural and native. The following figure represents the basic steps every researcher must consider before using the CTS:

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 8: First steps before using CTS**

### 3.5.1. Setting study goals and objectives

Goal setting is the process of establishing and defining the objectives to serve as the aim of our investigation. Setting the goals of our study will increase achievement and be the key factor to achieve successful results and conclusions.

As defined in the previous chapter, the main objective of the present work is to analyse the translation of evidentiality in form of adverbs and the application of
translation strategies to find equivalences through a multilingual corpus, where English is the source language and Spanish and French are the target languages.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 9: Definition of the goal.**

3.5.2. Selection of the type of corpus

Once the goal is defined and clear, the type of corpus is selected following certain design criteria, which enable to decide the most suitable type of corpus to reach the intended goal.

Considering that my study is based on a comparative analysis of data and pretends to establish a contrast between languages by identifying differences from an empirical approach, I have selected the UNESCO corpus included in the CLUVI compilation as the basic tool of research to carry out my analysis. In the section below, both corpora will be described.

3.5.2.1. The UNESCO Corpus

The UNESCO Corpus, which will be described in more detail below, is one of the twenty-one corpus included in the CLUVI Corpus.

CLUVI stands for Linguistic Corpus of the University of Vigo and it is the parallel corpus used for the present study. It is a parallel corpus that offers an open set of human-annotated parallel textual corpora of specialised registers built by the conventional sentence alignment method. CLUVI was developed by the Computational Linguistics Group of the University of Vigo, commonly known by its acronym SLI, and is publicly available in its webpage http://sli.uvigo.es/cluvi/ since 2003. This specialised corpus contains over 49 million entries, and it is currently composed by twenty-one parallel corpora divided in nine specialised registers or
domains (fiction, computers, popular science, biblical texts, economy, tourism, film subtitling, law and consumer information) and different language combinations with Galician, Spanish, English, French, German, Italian, Brazilian, Portuguese, Catalan, Basque, Latin and Chinese.

This online tool is especially suitable for our study since it allows both simple one-word searches and more complex sequences of words. The results are displayed in a multilingual chart alongside information concerning the use of the terms in different thematic contexts and their translation into at least two more languages. Since the CLUVI is an ongoing academic research project, the quantity of aligned words and language pairs keeps increasing systematically.

For the purpose of the present study, I have selected the UNESCO Corpus of English-Galician-French-Spanish scientific-technical divulgation, which is one of the twenty-one corpus included in the CLUVI compilation. This corpus owes its name to the UNESCO Courier and, besides, it is the source of material supply that compounds the texts aligned in the UNESCO Corpus.

The UNESCO Courier dates back to 1948 and is the most important magazine published by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The Courier’s founder and first editor was the American journalist Sandy Koffler. Despite the content and form of the magazine has suffered many changes over the years, it always pursues the original mission of promoting UNESCO’s principles, building peace, serving as a platform for the dialogue between cultures and for international debate, strengthening mutual understanding and tolerance.

The printed UNESCO Courier has always enjoyed a leading position due to the great number of loyal readers, the wide range of audience, its high editorial principles and its tolerant attitude towards universal subjects such as human rights, environment, science, education, arts and culture. In 1988, Sandy Koffler affirmed: “Of all the journals published by the United Nations and its specialised institutions, the UNESCO Courier has always occupied first place for the number of its readers and the range of its audience”.

Since 2006 The UNESCO Courier is available online and edited on PDF in the six official languages of the Organization (English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Russian and
Chinese). The reappearance of the journal in 2017 is due to the support of the People’s Republic of China as an opportunity to renew the Courier’s founding ideals.

The UNESCO Corpus was developed by a team under the direction of Xavier Gómez Guinovert since 2003. The translation units of the UNESCO Corpus for the evidential adverbs chosen for my investigation constitute the basic material of my analysis. The main objective of this work is to study translation strategies used to express evidentiality in scientific and technical texts aimed at larger audiences, not only experts in those fields.

The UNESCO Corpus is made up of 3,724,620 words; the source text is in English and the target texts are in Galician, Spanish and French. The corpus is divided into 32 corpora (see figure 10), according to the subjects of their texts, which vary from tourism, cinema, science, human rights, peace, language, immigration, education and sports. And in turn every corpus contains a various quantity of aligned segments of translation composed by a different number of words in both the source and the target languages.

![Figure 10: UNESCO Corpus Information Screen.](image)

Considering the aforementioned characteristics that define the type of corpus, the UNESCO Corpus presents the following features:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Type of corpus</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>Texts of the UNESCO Courier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register</td>
<td>Specialised</td>
<td>Scientific- technical texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period of time</td>
<td>Contemporary</td>
<td>Current material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>3,724,620 entries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of languages</td>
<td>Multilingual</td>
<td>English, Spanish, French and Galician</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Features of the UNESCO Corpus.

3.5.3. Application of the corpus

The application of the UNESCO Corpus allows to carry out the research from a bilateral perspective: the theoretical and the practical approach. The theoretical approach enables to study the translation process by examining how the selected adverbs of evidentiality in English, as source language, are expressed and adapted in Spanish and French, as target languages, and to compare the translation strategies applied and the different linguistic features adopted in both target languages. While the practical approach offers the possibility to create an effective working tool for translators and researchers dealing with evidential markers such as multilingual lists of terms, collocations and synonyms, or even to set new criteria to produce and improve computer aided corpus-processing tools with the aim of saving money, time, human work and providing accuracy.

The searching and browsing tool offered by the CLUVI interface (see figure 11) makes it possible to look up specific entries so that results about their presence in
the database and their translation into Spanish and French are retrieved. This simplified the process to carry out a comparative study of the selected adverbs in the UNESCO corpus and its Spanish and French versions. Firstly, we typed the word in English in the search bar of the UNESCO corpus to find out if it was used as an evidential marker in the source language. Then, we compared its usage with that in Spanish and French. Finally, we analysed which translation strategies had been applied to adapt the TT to the specific cultural context and reader.

3.5.4. Evidential Adverbs

The main reason to choose adverb forms as the target devices of my analysis is based on the general idea that adverbials stand as one of the grammatical categories that most clearly contribute to the expression of interpersonal meaning (Biber and Finegan, 1998).

Despite the many theories that have attempted to provide a clear and appropriate response, it is obvious that the adverbs definition and their classification raise problems and cause a conceptual confusion among the many grammarians and linguists who have tried to determine the nature and function of these words at a
grammatical level, mainly due to their heterogeneity of morphological structures and the complexity of their uses and functions. As García Tejera (1984:183) puts it:

 [...] el adverbio es una de las categorías gramaticales más complejas con las que se han venido enfrentando los gramáticos de todos los tiempos. Esta complejidad [...] nace de una enorme heterogeneidad, que abarca tanto a la diversa procedencia de los adverbios como a sus formas, a sus funciones e incluso a los diferentes matices que presente su significación.

According to the RAE (Real Academia Española) Dictionary, adverb is defined as follows:

Clase de palabras cuyos elementos son invariables y tónicos, están dotados generalmente de significado léxico y modifican el significado de varias categorías, principalmente de un verbo, de un adjetivo, de una oración o de una palabra de la misma clase.

This definition is also parallel to those proposed by authors such as Bello (1981), Alarcos (1994), Fraser (1996) or Biber (1999).

Taking this definition into account, it can be said that adverbs perform a wide variety of functions, which makes it difficult to classify them as a single or unified category. However, it is clear that adverbs fulfil a syntactic function, since they are used to modify or qualify the meaning of one or more lexical categories such as verbs, adjectives or nouns, but also other adverbs within the same clause, making the whole sentence to acquire a different meaning or connotation.

Adverbial forms can be an adverb, a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase or a clause, however, their function is always the same and is that of modifying (add extra information, restrict or change) the meaning of a verb. The following examples taken from the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) illustrate the cases described above:

(1) Adverb:  

Actually, we met yesterday.

(2) Prepositional phrase:  

We met in the café.
As shown in the previous examples, adverbs may also have a semantic function in the clause, since they add information about place (here, at an altitude of 3500 meters), time (yesterday, in the morning), reason (because), attitude (luckily, happily), etc. The placement of adverbs in the clause also plays a relevant role, given that their position may add more strength and emphasis on the message. Adverbs can be placed in initial, medial (pre-verbal or post-verbal) and final position. Their position will mainly depend on the type of adverb, but it can also change on grounds of the meaning and function the adverb intends to pursue.

The initial position corresponds to the first item in the clause:

(1) **Luckily**, our ship was not badly damaged.

The medial position includes all positions between obligatory initial and final clausal elements (Biber et al., 1999:771). In medial position, adverbs can adopt several specific positions:

a) Between the subject and the main verb of the clause (pre-verbal position):

(2) **He usually** arrives home about one o’clock.

b) After the auxiliary or the modal verb, when there is more than one verb in the clause:

(3) **He’s seldom** been out of the country before on an official trip.

c) After the verb adopting a post-verbal position, when the main verb of the clause is be. However, adverbials can also occasionally be placed after main verbs.

(4) **We were clearly** meant to think that this was harsh and unfair.’

The final position corresponds to the last item included in the clause:

(5) **It was a very good buy indeed.**
Additionally, there is a clear distinction between those adverbs which are fully incorporated in the clauses acting as modifiers, and those that work as independent elements in the clause. This distinction is exemplified in the following sentences from the online *BBC News* newspaper. Examples 1 and 2 are incorporated in the clause acting as modifiers: in case 1 the adverb *absolutely* is modifying the adjective *necessary* and in case 2 the adverb *increasingly* is modifying the verb *competes*. However, in examples 3 and 4 adverbs work as independent elements in the clauses and, therefore, they can function on their own.

1. *The authorities have advised people to stay at home and not travel unless absolutely necessary.* (Adverb modifies adjective)
2. *In a world where Hollywood royalty increasingly competes with the real thing.* (Adverb modifies verb)
3. *Curiously, in Exeter, House of Fraser owns most of its building.*
4. *Hunting in South Africa has become easier than ever before - in fact, it is a blossoming tourist industry.*

3.5.4.1. Classification of adverbs

Adverbs are mainly classified in three major categories according to their function: circumstance, stance and linking adverbs as coined by Biber et. al (1999:763). Halliday et al. (2004:123ff), on their part, introduces a similar three-type classification: circumstantial or adjuncts, conjunctive, conjuncts or linking adverbs and, finally, modal or disjuncts. By and large, adverbs that add more information to the action or state of the clause are known as *adjuncts* or *circumstantial*, those functioning as connectors and text organisers are *conjuncts* or *linking* adverbs and, finally, those indicating the speaker’s attitude towards the information of the utterance are *disjuncts* or *modal* adverbs.

For the present study, specific attention is paid to stance adverbs. Since stance adverbs have the function to express some evaluation of the clausal information, to modify the style or content of the whole clause or a part of it and indicate the source of information and knowledge, they have been selected as the target linguistic devices of the present analysis. According to Greenbaum (1969), there are two kind
of stance adverbs: on the one hand, adverbs that “merely express shades of doubt or certainty” and, on the other hand, adverbs that “refer to the observation or perception of a state of affairs”. Parallel to Greenbaum’s proposal, other authors make also similar distinctions, as is the case of Quirk et al. (1985), who speak about adverbs that indicate “conviction” and adverbs that indicate “some degree of doubt”, or Biber and Finegan (1988,1989), who distinguish between “surely-adverbials” and “maybe-adverbials”. All these adverbials are classified under the name *epistemic stance adverbs* by Biber et al. (1999) indicating doubt or certainty on the clause.

Fraser (1996) and Biber et al. (1999) put all these distinctions together in two major categories: adverbs that simply indicate degree of certainty and adverbs that express the source of information. In words of Hyland’s (2005), stance adverbs clearly indicate the author’s attitude towards their texts, and their use depends on the effect the author desires to cause on the reader. Clear examples to illustrate this definition are found in Biber et al (1999:855):

1. **Evidently**, the stock market believes that matters will not rest there and Pearl’s share price raced up 87p to 639p.

2. **Apparently**, Rosie had interrupted her in the middle of some chore.

In the examples above, *evidently* and *apparently*, which are placed at an initial position in the clause, refer to the evidence that supports the proposition and convey the source of the information or knowledge.

As exposed in section 3.4.4., due to the wide variety of morphological structures, the complexity of uses and functions and the diversity of positions, adverbs have adopted numerous classifications, however, I opted for the classification of Conrad and Biber’s (2000) to be the one that best sums up all the above-mentioned.
Following the classification of adverbials according to their semantic categories proposed by Biber’s et al. (1999) in the corpus-based reference Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSWE), adverbials are compiled as follows (cf. also Álvarez-Gil, 2018):

Figure 12: Classification of adverbs (Conrad and Biber, 2000).
3.5.4.2. Selection and description of evidential adverbs

In this dissertation, the focus specifically lies on those adverbs that alludes to the evidence supporting the proposition, in other words, adverbials that show the source of information or knowledge reported in the proposition. For this reason, the nine adverbs selected for the present analysis are: absolutely, actually, clearly, evidently, indeed, in fact, manifestly, plainly and undoubtedly.

Given their similarity in terms of meaning, some of them may turn out ambiguous and, thus, translated incorrectly. For this reason, they have been defined and translated below in order to avoid ambiguity and possible misuses or misunderstandings.

Figure 13: Classification of adverbials according to their semantic categories (Biber et al., 1999).
For the definition of the selected adverbs we have turned to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), for being the main historical dictionary of the English language published by the Oxford University Press. It is considered the most erudite and complete dictionary of the English language that provides students, academics and researchers with an extensive compilation of entries, besides every entry includes detailed information about etymology, syntax, grammar, spelling, quotations and collocations.

For the translation of the selected adverbs into French and Spanish we have turned to the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*, for being the first British dictionary to use computer databases and typesetting in its creation process, what leads to blend results from different editors and thus to obtain more accurate and detailed results. *CollinsDictionary.com* provides definitions, word usage, synonyms and example sentences.

**ABSOLUTELY**: it is defined as “beyond any doubt”, (e.g.: You are *absolutely* right) and synonym for “totally” (E.g.: She trusted him *absolutely* / *totally*). *Absolutely* is used in speech as a forceful way of expressing certainty, assurance and agreement.

(a) Spanish translation: absolutamente, en absoluto, completamente, totalmente. Example:

- *It makes absolutely no difference*
- *No cambia nada en absoluto*

(b) French translation: absolument, complément, totalement. Example:

- *Do you think it’s good idea?*  
  *Tu trouves que c’est une bonne idée?*
- *Absolutely!*  
  *– Absolument!*

**ACTUALLY**: The *Oxford English Dictionary* defines *actually* as “the truth or facts of a situation: really”, (e.g.: In fact, from the above conclusions the truth is *actually* even more complicated) and also as an adverb in sentences in which there is information that is in some way surprising or the opposite of what most people would expect, (e.g.: It was *actually a bit surprised that more people didn’t agree with you*). *Actually*
is used to make reference to what is true or real and to accentuate that a statement is true, especially when it was believed or expected to be in a different way.

(a) Spanish translation: en realidad, realmente. Example:

- Can computers actually create language?
- ¿Pueden realmente crear un idioma los ordenadores?

(b) French translation: vraiment, réelement. Example:

- Did it actually happen?
- Est-ce que c’est vraiment arrivé?

CLEARLY: “without doubt, obviously”, (e.g.: The ability to analyse a line and see all the moves clearly falls under this ability). It also used to express things “in a clear manner, with clarity”, that is in a way that is easy to understand, see or hear, (e.g.: He also made use of the rule that what is clearly and distinctly perceived is true or real).

(a) Spanish translation: claramente, con claridad, estar claro que. Example:

- The owner of the house was clearly not expecting us.
- Estaba claro que el propietario de la casa no nos esperaba

(b) French translation: clairement. Example:

- She explained it very clearly.
- Elle l’a expliqué très clairement.

EVIDENTLY: it is used to express things “in a way that is clearly seen or understood; obviously” (e.g.: All these projects were, quite evidently, communal projects and were a product of cooperation among the members of society). Evidently is used to describe something that seems to be true based on the previous knowledge of the speaker.

(a) Spanish translation: evidentemente, ser evidente que. Example:

- The two men evidently knew each other.
- Evidentemente los dos hombres se conocían.
- Era evidente que los dos hombres se conocían.

(b) French translation: évidemment, naturellement, de toute évidence.

The dictionary does not offer examples of “evidently” in French. However, when searching évidemment in the dictionary, there are several results with their corresponding translation in English:

- Les tomates son évidemment chères en cette saison.
- Tomatoes are obviously expensive at this time of year.
- Est-ce que je peux utiliser ton téléphone? - Évidemment, tu n´as pas besoin de demander.
- Can I use your phone? – Of course, you don´t need to ask.

**IN FACT:** it is the only adverb of our selection which is composed by two words preposition + noun. The noun fact is defined as “something that is known or proved to be true”. In fact as a discourse marker is “used to emphasise the truth of an assertion, especially one opposite to what might be expected or what has been asserted”, (e.g.: This seems like an obvious truth, and yet there is in fact no evidence to support it). In fact is used to introduce something known to be true, to allude to a truth known by actual experience or observation.

(a) Spanish translation: de hecho, en realidad, efectivamente, realmente. Example:

- It sounds simple, but in fact it’s very difficult.
- Parece sencillo, pero de hecho / en realidad es muy difícil.

(b) French translation: en fait, en réalité, vraiment, effectivement.

As in “evidently”, the dictionary does not render any examples of in fact in French, however, by reversing the search French-English, we obtain some examples:

- En fait, je n´ai pas beaucoup de temps.
- I haven´t got much time actually.

**INDEED:** “often used to emphasise a statement or response confirming something already suggested”, (e.g.: it was not expected to last long, and indeed it took less
than three weeks); and synonym for “really or certainly”. In this regard, *indeed* is used to add strength to a previous statement.

(a) Spanish translation: *de hecho, efectivamente, realmente*. Example:

- *I feel, indeed I know, he is wrong.*
- *Creo, de hecho sé, que está equivocado.*
- *Creo, en realidad sé, que está equivocado.*

(b) French translation: *en effet, vraiment, en fait*. Example:

- *It’s very hard indeed*
- *C’est vraiment très difficile.*

**MANIFESTLY:** it is used to express something “in a way that is clear or obvious to the eye or mind”, (e.g.: we have *manifestly* failed to exercise good judgment). *Manifestly* makes a statement clear or evident to see or to understand and put the information given beyond doubt and question.

(a) Spanish translation: *evidentemente*.

(b) French translation: *manifestement*.

Given the uncommon use of the adverb “manifestly”, the dictionary does not even include any example neither in English nor in French language.

**PLAINLY:** it is used “to state one’s belief that something is obviously or undeniably true” (e.g.: to speak *plainly*, I suffer from a lack of confidence). *Plainly* is used to indicate that the information is free from ambiguity and clear, evident and simple to the understanding.

(a) Spanish translation: *estar claro que, ser evidente/ obvio que, perfectamente.*

Example:

- I can remember all quite *plainly*.
- Lo recuerdo todo con detalle / perfectamente.
- *Plainly*, I was not welcome.
Estaba claro / era evidente que no era bienvenido.

(b) French translation: clairement. Example:

- The judge’s conclusion was plainly wrong.
- Les conclusions du juge étaient clairement fausses.

**UNDoubtedly:** “without doubt, certainly”, (e.g.: However, there is an obvious problem that may undoubtedly arise from such a change in the rules). Undoubtedly indicates that the information is not called in question and is, therefore, definitely true or existing.

(a) Spanish translation: indudablemente, sin duda. Example:

- He is undoubtedly the best man for the job.
- Es sin duda el mejor para el trabajo.

(b) French translation: sans aucun doute, sans doute, indiscutablement.

The dictionary does not render examples of undoubtedly for the French translation.

The following table summarises the description of the evidentials detailed above. The table structures the information in four categories: synonyms, Spanish translation, French translation and description in an attempt to give us a general overview of the meaning and usage of the selected evidential markers, in order to choose the most suitable term in a particular context, that keeps the same meaning and expressive function as the original message, and to facilitate the contrastive analysis when studying the results obtained after having carried out our corpus-based translation analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidential</th>
<th>Synonyms in English</th>
<th>Spanish Translation</th>
<th>French Translation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolutely</td>
<td>totally, without any doubt, completely.</td>
<td>absolutamente, en absoluto, completamente, totalmente.</td>
<td>absolument, complement.</td>
<td>To express certainty, assurance and agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actually</td>
<td>really</td>
<td>en realidad, realmente.</td>
<td>vraiment, réellement.</td>
<td>It alludes to what is true and real.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearly</td>
<td>obviously, without doubt.</td>
<td>claramente, con claridad, estar claro que.</td>
<td>clairement</td>
<td>To express certain things in a clear manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidently</td>
<td>obviously</td>
<td>evidentemente, ser evidente que.</td>
<td>évidemment, naturellement, de toute évidence.</td>
<td>Something is true according to the previous knowledge of the speaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In fact</td>
<td>clearly, obviously.</td>
<td>de hecho, en realidad, efectivamente.</td>
<td>en fait, en réalité.</td>
<td>Something is true based on actual experience or observation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeed</td>
<td>certainly, really.</td>
<td>de hecho, efectivamente, realmente.</td>
<td>en effet, vraiment, en fait.</td>
<td>To confirm and add strength to a previous statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manifestly</td>
<td>obviously, clearly.</td>
<td>evidentemente.</td>
<td>manifestement</td>
<td>To make a statement clear or evident.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plainly</td>
<td>obviously, undeniably, easily.</td>
<td>estar claro que, ser evidente/ obvio que, perfectamente.</td>
<td>clairement.</td>
<td>To express clear, evident and simple information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undoubtedly</td>
<td>without doubt, certainly.</td>
<td>indudablemente, sin duda.</td>
<td>sans aucun doute.</td>
<td>Information definitely true or existing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Table 17: Features of evidential adverbs selected. |

3.6. Assessment of the application of CTS

3.6.1.- Advantages of CTS

Corpora are increasingly being used as a valuable and useful source of information in the field of translation research teaching and learning, mainly due to its level of flexibility and comparability, what allows researchers, teachers and professional translators to reach a more descriptive and comprehensive approach applied in different fields of research and for different purposes. As Varantola (1997) stated translators can spend up to 50% of their time on consulting reference materials. Since translational corpora include a wide sample of original texts with their equivalent translations and are created attending to a broad selection of variables (register, size, level of specialization, period of time, etc.), they are especially
employed to create bilingual or multilingual terminology lists, allowing translators to enhance the speed of translations, to analyse the quality of translations, to evaluate the correct application of translation techniques and strategies and to improve translator's performance. Besides, corpora allow to work with differentiated areas of interests within translation studies gaining a profound insight and a more extensive contrastive analysis in the systematic study of a pair or more of languages with a view to describing their syntactic characteristics and to determining their structural and lexical differences and similarities (see Figure 14, next page).

In the words of Zanettin (1998), corpora help trainee translators to become aware of general patterns and preferred ways of expressing things. For these reasons, a corpus-based translation analysis enables to define conclusive hypothesis and theories and to describe typical translational behaviors after the analysis of the translator’s performance. They are an effective and practical method to better understand the meaning, usage and translations of words and phrases in particular contexts.

3.6.2.- Limitations of CTS

Literature has revealed that the use of corpus has been firmly criticised. One of the main detractors was Chomsky, who considered that corpora were not valid for research purposes (McEnery et al. 2006:3-4). With the employment of data processing software, corpus- based studies have notoriously improved offering a wide range of possibilities and advantages in the field of translation studies and linguistics research, though today there are still limitations and disadvantages.
Figure 14: Advantages of CTS

As we mention above, corpora applied in TS offers the possibility to set general patterns, however, professional translators may use these patterns as universals, restricting thereby creative usages (Malmkjaer, 1998) and limiting the creation and discovery of new translation options. In other words, a corpus-based translation study could degenerate from descriptive and classificatory to prescriptive and regulatory.
Parallel corpora are composed by a selection of original texts and their translations, limiting the results and conclusions to the selected material and to one individual’s particular analysis. In this regard, Malmkjaer (1998:252) indicates that “in order to be able to provide any kinds of explanation of the data provided by the corpus, rather than mere statistics, analysts really need substantially more context than computers tend to search and display”. Languages are in constant change, what makes natural language characteristics enormous, and therefore it is basically impossible to collect them all in a corpus. Despite corpora are constantly being updated and completed, it is not possible to collect all the evidence required for achieving scientific rigor results, since corpora lack in thoroughness in collecting data and accuracy in approaching the scientific method.

Corpora have become a powerful tool for the analysis of data, which have been previously computer-processed. Along the corpus creation process, the researcher selects the data and variables that would shape the corpus in the basis of his/her desired purpose. Therefore, corpus linguistics analysis goes from the concrete features of the corpus, previously selected by the researcher in order to achieve his/her pursued goal, to generalizations. Generalizations allow the researcher to identify equivalences and differences and to describe general characteristics of the languages involved. However, since theorists and linguists are interested in searching for evidence that may defend and sustain their hypotheses, the investigation procedure should be carried out the other way around, from general patterns to concrete facts.

Another important disadvantage of corpus-based studies has to be with the original author/s of the source texts and their translations. The researcher does not know or have contact to the author/s, making evidence incomplete and getting only to partial conclusions, since there are relevant facts that are not considered in the research: speakers and writers’ perspective and attitude towards the source text and cultural and their level of knowledge and use of both the source and target languages. The main problem is that corpora only represents lexical and grammatical features of language within a “surface-structure level” (Friginal and Hardy, 2013:62).
After having described the advantages and limitations of CTS, we can conclude that the advantages notably outweigh the disadvantages. Clearly, the use of specialised software and computer-processed data allows a direct access to an immense
quantity of real data, offering a wide range of possibilities in the information processing and the contrastive analysis.

Although there are some important limitations that have to be considered, they can be overcome, if corpora are used as a complementary tool in conjunction with other research methods and most of these disadvantages will improve with the progressive advance of new technologies.

3.7. Chapter summary

In this chapter, a description of corpus linguistics, corpora development and exploitation have been given. The overall aim is to give the necessary information to provide an adequate context serving as the methodological procedure used in the present study. Although some limitations are there in the use of corpora, the benefits of using them far exceed the costs of not using them. Corpora, especially parallel corpora, are outstanding tools to investigate the many ways the source languages can be rendered into the target languages, and the role culture has each case. This is not the only use of parallel corpora. It has also been pointed out as a major weapon to detect certain uses, say modal meanings and nuisances, in the source languages (cf. Aijmer (2008); Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2015)) by analysing the interpretation of the original linguistic units and the translations offered by the specialists in their translations.
CHAPTER 4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS
4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter collects the analysis and the interpretation of the results obtained after having studied the translation strategies adopted in the target languages for the translation of the evidential adverbs described in chapter 3. Findings have been clustered according to the type and the total number of times every translation strategy has been used in every case and in every language.

4.2. Methodological procedure

The corpus has been interrogated to obtain cases of the evidential adverbs absolutely, actually, clearly, evidently, in fact, indeed, manifestly, plainly, and undoubtedly, which have been described in Chapter 3, above. Raw data are presented in the remaining part of this chapter, as no normalised figures are deemed necessary for no comparison with another corpus is intended.

4.3. Results and analysis of findings

The retrieved data are represented by figures. Every evidential adverb has been studied from a quantitative approach and the results obtained are represented by three different figures, indicating the translation strategy used for every entry:

(a) Figure type 1: Translation strategies adopted for adverb X in Spanish and French. This is a quantitative approach which allows comparisons regarding frequency of use between the SL and the target languages seen as a whole.

(b) Figure type 2: Translation strategies adopted for adverb X in Spanish.

(c) Figure type 3: Translation strategies adopted for adverb X in French.

The last figures of this chapter show a general overview of the most frequently used translation strategies in every language, which enable to compare the differences and similitudes between languages in the expression of evidentiality. They also help to delve into the degree of relevance every language confers to the indication of the speaker’s attitude towards the source of information or knowledge.
The analysis of this study begins by exploring the results obtained after looking up the adverbs selected in the search toolbar of the UNESCO Corpus (see figure below).

Based on the results obtained after interrogating the UNESCO Corpus, the quantity of entries for each adverb is listed in alphabetical order as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVERB</th>
<th>ENTRIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSOLUTELY</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTUALLY</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLEARLY</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18: Relation of entries from the UNESCO Corpus.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVERB</th>
<th>ENTRIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EVIDENTLY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN FACT</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDEED</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANIFESTLY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAINLY</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDOUBTEDLY</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>543</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19: Relation of entries from the UNESCO Corpus (cont.).

In the following section of this chapter, each evidential adverb will be commented separately.

**4.3.1. ABSOLUTELY**

A total amount of 27 entries was retrieved when entering *absolutely* in the UNESCO Corpus search toolbar. After analysing the 27 entries in the SL and their corresponding translation into Spanish and French, we take account of the translation strategies used in every particular case in both languages. Following Vinay and Darbelnet's broad classification, four different translation strategies have been adopted in the translation of the English evidential marker *absolutely* in Spanish and French: literal translation, omission, transposition, and modulation.
The following figure represents quantitative data as to the number of cases used for each strategy in the translation of the evidential marker *absolutely* in both languages. The figure offers a general overview of the results after the analysis of the total amount of 54 translations:

![Figure 17: Translation strategies adopted for *absolutely* in Spanish and French.](image)

In Spanish, the preferred translation strategy is literal translation, with a total of 10 cases out of the 27 entries. This is closely followed by transposition with 8 cases, omission with 6 cases and 3 cases of modulation. Figure below shows the distribution of results:

![Figure 18: Translation strategies adopted for *absolutely* in Spanish.](image)
Despite the French translations adopted the same strategies as Spanish, there are differences in the frequency of use. The most employed translation strategy is literal translation with a total of 14 cases out of the 27 entries. Literal translation is followed by omission with 7 cases, transposition with 5 cases and modulation with 2 cases.

![Translation strategies adopted for absolutely in French.](image)

_Absolutely_ is used in the speech as a forceful way of expressing certainty, assurance and agreement and its use in an utterance aims to prove beyond any doubt that the information is clear and true for the speaker. Therefore, _totally_ or _completely_ are good synonyms for this evidential marker.

In order to gain a better understanding of the use of the translation strategies analysed above for the particular case of _absolutely_, we will look at some of the cases retrieved from the UNESCO Corpus:
Example 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. V. M.: The fact is that the whole of literature, <strong>absolutely</strong> all of it, is divided into detective novels and romantic novels.</td>
<td>M. V. M.: Es que toda la literatura se divide en novelas policíacas y novelas de amor, <strong>absolutamente</strong> toda.</td>
<td>M. V. M.: Toute la littérature, sans exception, se divise en romans d'amiour et en romans policiers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Translation Strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LITERAL TRANSLATION</th>
<th>OMISSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In this first example, *absolutely* has been literally translated into Spanish by the literal translation, “absolutamente”. This way, the same function and intention as in the ST is kept. However, in French *absolutely* has been completely omitted and no other grammatical or lexical items have been introduced to compensate the absence of the evidential marker.

Examples 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is a small trick that arouses the imagination and makes the point that many hunted animals stay <strong>absolutely</strong> still when a predator is terrifyingly close to them.</td>
<td>Este fenómeno estimula la imaginación y permite recordar que muchas presas <strong>adoptan la estrategia de la inmovilidad rigurosa</strong> aunque el aliento del depredador esté a una proximidad terrorífica.</td>
<td>Ce phénomène stimule l'imagination, il permet de se rappeler que beaucoup de proies <strong>adoptent une stratégie d'immobilité totale</strong> même quand le souffle du prédateur est horriblement proche.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Translation Strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODULATION</th>
<th>MODULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
In this second example, the Spanish and the French translations have been modulated. The strategy of modulation involves a variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning. The translator employs a phrase in the target text that differs from its original form in the source text. The original form of the ST has been completely modified in both the Spanish and the French TTs by means of a new conceptual unit. In addition, the new clauses created in the TT have suffered an amplification, given that the number of words in both TTs has increased in comparison with the ST, making the original message more precise. By this modulation the sequence order in the TTs is altered. Besides, the French version seems to be a literal translation of the Spanish one. Their similarity would make us believe that the original text was firstly translated into Spanish and then into French.

Example 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>English</strong> (SL)</th>
<th><strong>Spanish</strong> (TL)</th>
<th><strong>French</strong> (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td><strong>Transposition</strong></td>
<td><strong>Transposition</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this third example, transposition is the technique applied to both the Spanish and the French translation by means of the replacement of the word class. *Absolutely* has been replaced by an adverbial phrase. In so doing, the negative clause in the TTs is equally rotund, sounds natural and fulfills the same expressive function as the ST. Besides, the TTs have also suffered an amplification, since the number of words has increased.

After having analysed the results from a quantitative approach, it is worth mentioning that literal translation and omission are the most frequently used strategies in the translation of *absolutely* in both languages. This implies the use of
a neutral style, where the translator tried to be faithful to the ST by keeping the syntactic structures and the original selection of lexical items and by omitting those evidential markers which did not seem to be really necessary or did not imply a great impact on the reader’s effect.

4.3.2. ACTUALLY

A total amount of 148 entries is the result obtained after launching a search on the adverbial form *actually* in the UNESCO Corpus browser. Once every entry is analysed in its original context and its translation in the target languages, we determine that omission, literal translation, transposition, modulation and calque are the translation strategies adopted for the translation of *actually* into Spanish and French. However, it should be noticed that the corpus does not show any translation in French for entries 136 and 147. Their frequency of use in the total of 296 cases studied is represented in the following figure:

Figure 20: Translation strategies adopted for actually in Spanish and French

In Spanish, the most frequently used translation strategy is omission with a large amount of 81 cases of the 148 entries. Omission is followed by literal translation with a total of 43 cases, transposition with 10 cases, modulation with 8 cases and 3 translation mistakes. These data are represented in the following figure:
Figure 21: Translation strategies adopted for actually in Spanish.

In French, the same translation strategies have been used, however, they differ slightly from Spanish. Out the 146 entries, omission has been used in 85 cases followed by literal translation with 41 cases, modulation with 8, transposition with 6 and 2 translation mistakes.

Figure 22: Translation strategies adopted for actually in French.
Example 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actually, it would be difficult to find an anti-prohibitionist who would advocate such a radical solution.</td>
<td>Pero lo cierto es que ya nadie entre los antiprohibicionistas propone una solución tan radical.</td>
<td>En réalité, il n’est plus guère d’antiprohibitionniste pour prôner une solution aussi radicale.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Translation Strategies**  
- MODULATION  
- LITERAL TRANSLATION

In Spanish, *actually* has been completely modified by making use of modulation. The original form has changed and thus altering the point of view.

The coordinating conjunction “pero” is strategically placed at the beginning of the sentence and serves to introduce a contrasting idea. This initial position acts intensifying and adding more emphasis on the whole message. *Pero* is followed by an adjective phrase “lo cierto es”. The use of this phrase does not only change the message syntactically, but also stylistically. Since the grammatical construction “it would be difficult” from the ST, which infuses a negative point of view into the whole message, has turned into *lo cierto es*, providing the message with a positive tone.

In French, *actually* has been literally translated by the adverbial phrase “en réalité”. By the use of literal translation, the original message is equally transferred into the target languages without causing a change in meaning and form.

Example 2:
In the previous example, transposition has been the strategy adopted for the translation of actually in Spanish. There has been a shift in the word category.

The noun phrase “en todo caso” serves, on the one hand, as a linking device between the two clauses occupying the initial position in the concessive clause, which is introduced by the linking conjunction “pero”. And, on the other hand, it intensifies the propositional content and adds extra information.

In contrast, actually has not been translated in French, and no other elements have been used in any other part of the clause to compensate the lack of evidence supporting the proposition.

Example 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A few stray reports acknowledged this, but no national newspaper actually put it on the front page.</td>
<td>Hubo pocos artículos informando sobre ese fenómeno, pero en todo caso ningún periódico de circulación nacional lo destacó en primera plana.</td>
<td>Quelques articles, ici et là, ont relaté le phénomène, mais aucun quotidien national n’en a fait sa première page.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Translation Strategies | TRANSPOSITION | OMISSION |

In the previous example, transposition has been the strategy adopted for the translation of actually in Spanish. There has been a shift in the word category.

The noun phrase “en todo caso” serves, on the one hand, as a linking device between the two clauses occupying the initial position in the concessive clause, which is introduced by the linking conjunction “pero”. And, on the other hand, it intensifies the propositional content and adds extra information.

In contrast, actually has not been translated in French, and no other elements have been used in any other part of the clause to compensate the lack of evidence supporting the proposition.

Example 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For instance, we are actually making a profit on some of our online courses.</td>
<td>Por ejemplo, algunos de nuestros cursos en línea en la actualidad nos reportan beneficios.</td>
<td>Par exemple, certains de nos cours en ligne sont actuellement bénéficiaires.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Translation Strategies | TRANSLATION MISTAKE | TRANSLATION MISTAKE |
In this example, there has been a translation mistake due to the fact that the translator has literally transferred the English adverb form *actually* into Spanish and French. *Actually* is a clear case of deceptive cognate or false friend, a word or expression in one language that is often confused with a word in another language with a different meaning, because the two words look or sound similar. In simple words Roca Varela (2011:80) states: “false friends are words in two languages that are similar in form but different in meaning”.

A lexical mistake in translation is a serious error that adversely affects the quality and accuracy of the TT and modifies the meaning of the original message, causing a different effect on the reader as the one desired by the original author.

Here, *actually* has been translated in the TTs as a circumstantial adverb expressing time, “en la actualidad” and “actuellement”, whose meaning in English is “now, nowadays or at present”. With that incorrect translation of the evidential marker, the message in the TTs differs significantly from the ST, acquiring a completely different perspective: evidence expression has been replaced by time expression, which does not even appear in the ST.

Based on the results analysed, *actually* tends to occupy a medial position in the clause aiming to express a contrary position or unexpected information. *Actually* is used to make reference to what is true or real and to accentuate that a statement is true, especially when it was believed or expected to be in a different way. The translation strategies applied for the translation of *actually* coincide with those of the other adverbs analysed. However, in the particular case of *actually*, due to the fact that its form looks and sounds similar in Spanish and French, the translator has opted for a transfer of the word into the TTs, instead of a translation with the equivalent form, i.e. *en realidad, en réalité*. In so doing, there is a mistake at a lexical level in the translation, which clearly changes the meaning and the effect of the original message.

**4.3.3. CLEARLY**

A total amount of 114 entries is the result obtained for *clearly* after interrogating the UNESCO Corpus. On the basis of the data reached after the analysis of every entry in both the ST and the TTs, the translation strategies adopted have been
omission, literal translation, transposition and modulation. However, it should be noticed that the corpus does not show any translation for entry 85 in French and for entry 96 in Spanish and French. Their frequency of use in the total of 225 cases studied is represented in the figure below:

![Figure 23: Translation strategies adopted for clearly in Spanish and French.](image)

In Spanish, the most frequently used translation strategy is omission with 46 cases of the 113 entries, followed by transposition with 29 cases, literal translation with 24 cases, and modulation with 14 cases. These data are represented in the following figure:

![Figure 24: Translation strategies adopted for clearly in Spanish.](image)

In French, the same translation strategies have been used, however, they differ slightly from Spanish, since literal translation has been the second most frequently used strategy after omission instead of transposition as in Spanish. In the 112
entries, omission has been used in 44 cases followed by literal translation with 38 cases, transposition with 16 and modulation with 13 cases.

![Translation strategies adopted for clearly in French.](image)

**Example 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is a method which uses gradual steps and needs to be explained thoroughly to be clearly understood.</td>
<td>Por eso, para que se entienda este método, que utiliza instrumentos graduados, es menester explicarlo con claridad meridiana.</td>
<td>C'est pourquoi cette méthode, qui utilise des instruments gradués, exige pour être comprise d'être expliquée très clairement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Strategies</th>
<th>TRANSPOSITION</th>
<th>LITERAL TRANSLATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In this example, transposition is the selected strategy for the translation of *clearly* in Spanish, what has led to a shift of the word class of the original form without changing the meaning. Besides, here it has been used a set phrase frequently used in a Spanish colloquial register to indicate that something is absolutely clear.
In French, *clearly* has been literally translated by its French equivalent adverb *clairement*. In so doing, the clause remains the same at a syntactic and semantic level. Besides, the adverb *très* has been placed before *clairement*, what reinforces even more the idea of the speaker’s certainty towards the information.

Example 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(SL)</td>
<td>(TL)</td>
<td>(TL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New technologies <em>clearly</em> make it much easier and much cheaper to pirate books.</td>
<td><strong>No cabe duda de que</strong> las nuevas tecnologías facilitan y abaratan mucho la tarea a los filibusteros de la letra impresa.</td>
<td>Les nouvelles technologies facilitent la tâche des filibustiers de l’imprimé et accroissent la rentabilité de leurs opérations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the previous example, modulation has been adopted for the translation of *clearly* in Spanish. There has been a variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning: the Spanish translation is introduced by the verbal phrase “*no cabe duda de que*”, occupying the initial position in the clause, what adds more emphasis on the idea that the speaker is clearly certain about the information.

In French, *clearly* has been completely omitted and no other evidential markers have been used to compensate this omission.

4.3.4. EVIDENTLY

Having typed the adverb *evidently* in the UNESCO Corpus search toolbar, only one entry associated to the evidential marker *evidently* was retrieved:

Overt racism among supporters and abuse directed at black players, both of which flourished in the 1970s and 1980s, have declined steeply in recent years in the face of vociferous public campaigning, though residual prejudices against foreign players have *evidently* been unaffected.
Evidently is used as an adverbial form to express obviousness and a high degree of certainty. The speaker wants to indicate that the source or origin of the information is certain and he/she is completely sure about his/her utterance. Besides, “evidently” appears as part of a concessive clause beginning with “though”, which introduces an opposing idea to that expressed in the main sentence. In this context, “evidently” plays a role in reinforcing the idea of clearness and logical thought. Another relevant aspect is the position of “evidently” in the sentence. Evidently is not only semantically, but also positionally flexible. It means that it can appear in an initial or final position in the utterance, as well as in a medial position between the noun and an inflected verb or between two verb forms. Apart from the syntagmatic structure of evidently in the sentence, its function depends to a large extent on the preceding and succeeding context. However, the placement of “evidently” has a decisive effect on its function and purpose. In this case, it has a medial position in the sentence, conferring symmetry and balance and reinforcing the idea of the speaker’s certainty towards the information. Besides, since it acts as a marker of evidentiality, the placement of “evidently” in medial position in this particular case has an expressive function and clearly emphasises only a part of the sentence and not the whole of it.

As for the same excerpt in Spanish and French, we found out that the adverb “evidently” turns into an adverbial phrase in Spanish; and disappears in the French version. The full segments in these languages are:

Spanish:
El racismo ostensible entre los aficionados y los denuestos contra los jugadores negros, frecuentes en los setenta y ochenta, han remitido en los últimos años gracias a las intensas campañas públicas, aunque es evidente que los viejos prejuicios raciales contra los extranjeros no han desaparecido.

French:
Dans les années 70 et 80, les supporters accablaient d’injures les joueurs noirs. La fermeté des campagnes d’opinion condamnant ces manifestations avait fini par porter leurs fruits. Mais les préjugés n’ont pas disparu.

Finally, following Vinay and Darbelnet’s broad classification, two different translation strategies have been adopted: transposition, by virtue of which the adverb “evidently” changes its grammatical class for the adverbial phrase “es
evidente que” in the Spanish version; and omission, since this particular adverb has not been explicitly included in French.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overt racism among supporters and abuse directed at black players, both of which flourished in the 1970s and 1980s, have declined steeply in recent years in the face of vociferous public campaigning, though residual prejudices against foreign players have <em>evidently</em> been unaffected.</td>
<td>El racismo ostensible entre los aficionados y los denuestos contra los jugadores negros, frecuentes en los setenta y ochenta, han remitido en los últimos años gracias a las intensas campañas públicas, aunque <em>es evidentemente que</em> los viejos prejuicios raciales contra los extranjeros no han desaparecido.</td>
<td>Dans les années 70 et 80, les supporters accablaient d’injures les joueurs noirs. La fermeté des campagnes d’opinion condamnant ces manifestations avait fini par porter leurs fruits. Mais les préjugés n’ont pas disparu.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Translation Strategies | TRANPOSITION | OMISSION |

In the Spanish translation, the technique of transposition operates at a grammatical level, which involves the replacement of a word class of one part of the speech (the adverb *evidently*) for another (the adverbial phrase *es evidentemente que*) without changing the original message to try to cause the same effect on the reader of the original.

With the use of transposition as a translation strategy the form of the original message in English has suffered a sequence change: the sequence of the original phrase has been modified in the translation process by altering the order of the word categories.

In the French translation, the translation strategy adopted is omission. By making use of the ellipsis, all references to evidentiality in the TT have been omitted.
However, the translator uses the linking conjunction “mais” at the beginning of the sentence as an expressive strategy to indicate opposition to the preceding information and to strengthen and intensify the succeeding message. This may also be a compensation for the omission of the evidential marker in the proposition.

4.3.5. INDEED

85 entries were obtained after entering the adverb *indeed* in the UNESCO Corpus toolbar. After analysing the 85 original entries and their corresponding translations into Spanish and French, we determine the translation strategies used in each particular case in both languages. It should be noticed that there were 4 cases for which no translation is provided: case number 68 does not have a Spanish equivalent, case number 69 lack its French one and case number 85 has been translated into none of these languages in the corpus. The four different translation strategies adopted in the translation of the English evidential marker *indeed* in Spanish and French are listed in descending order according to their frequency: omission, transposition, literal translation and modulation.

The following figure represents the 166 cases analysed considering each strategy used in the translation of the evidential marker *indeed* in both languages:

![Figure 26: Translation strategies adopted for indeed in Spanish and French.](image-url)
In Spanish, the most employed translation strategy is omission, with a total of 40 cases of the 85 entries, followed by literal translation with 26 cases, transposition with 15 cases and modulation with 8 cases.

In French, omission is once again the most frequently used translation strategy with a total of 48 cases, even exceeding the Spanish cases. With 13 cases literal translation is the second most used strategy, followed by the 10 cases of transposition and the 6 cases of modulation.
Example 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women can <strong>indeed</strong> breathe new life into politics and make it more accessible, more human and non-violent as soon as they realise the power that comes from working together.</td>
<td><strong>Sí</strong>, las mujeres son capaces de renovar la política, de humanizarla, de erradicar de ella la violencia desde el momento en que son conscientes de la fuerza que su unión puede representar.</td>
<td><strong>Oui</strong>, les femmes sont capables de rénover la politique, de la rendre plus accessible, de l'humaniser, d'en éradiquer la violence dès l'instant où elles sont conscientes de la force que leur union peut représenter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Translation Strategies** | **COMPENSATION** | **COMPENSATION** |

In this example, compensation has been the translation strategy adopted for the translation of *indeed* in both target languages. *Indeed* has been omitted in the TTs, but, this omission of the evidential has been compensated at the beginning of the sentence with the use of the adverb “*sí*” in Spanish and “*oui*” in French. This explicit element is a way to express agreement. Additionally, it emphasises the original idea of certainty and security expressed by the author. Besides, the placement of *sí* and *oui* at an initial position is strategical, since it encompasses the whole statement and reinforces its exclamatory effect.

Example 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indeed</strong>, blacks represent 48 per cent of these top athletes</td>
<td><strong>Y si se elimina</strong>, dentro de este grupo, a los que efectúan</td>
<td><strong>Et si on exclut</strong>, au sein de ce groupe, ceux qui mènent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the previous example shows, modulation has been the strategy selected by the translator in both target languages. A different phrase in the TTs, i.e. *y si se elimina* and *et si on exclut*, has been used in order to transfer the same idea. The form of the original message, i.e. *indeed*, has been altered by beginning the statement with a conditional clause, which involves a modification of the point of view. This strategy implies a shift at a grammatical level and therefore, the perspective and sequence of the original structure considerably differ from the original.

Besides, both Spanish and French have been equally translated. Therefore, chances are that the French version is a literal translation of the Spanish one or vice versa depending on which language was translated in the first place, an information we cannot have access to.

Example 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Indeed</strong> it is this approach, combined with the view that human life begins at conception, that has led most European countries to ban not</td>
<td><em>Es por lo demás</em> este enfoque, asociado a la idea de que la vida humana comienza desde la concepción, el que ha impulsado a la mayoría de</td>
<td><em>C’est d’ailleurs</em> cette approche, associée à l’idée que la vie humaine commence dès la conception, qui a conduit la plupart des pays</td>
</tr>
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</table>
In the previous example, the translation strategy used for the translation of indeed in both TTs has been transposition. The word class of the original message has been replaced by a different grammatical category.

As illustrated above, the adverbial form of the original message has turned into a multi-word expression operating adverbially “por lo demás” in Spanish and “d’ailleurs” in French. However, the meaning of “indeed” somehow differs from that of the translations; whereas indeed means “without any question” and the phrases “por lo demás” and “d’ailleurs” mean “otherwise” or “apart from that” and in contrast their function is to relate several ideas or concepts and not to indicate stance as is the case of indeed.

Example 4:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Indeed</strong>, only 70 countries, beginning with Sweden in 1979, have banned the practice.</td>
<td><strong>En realidad</strong>, sólo 70 países han prohibido esa práctica, empezando por Suecia en 1979.</td>
<td>70 pays seulement ont interdit ce type de pratiques - à commencer par la Suède, en 1979.</td>
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**Translation Strategies**

| TRANPOSITION | TRANPOSITION |

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**Translation Strategies**

| LITERAL TRANSLATION | OMISSION |

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</table>

**Translation Strategies**

| LITERAL TRANSLATION | OMISSION |
In this example, *indeed* has been literally translated into Spanish by using a literal translation of the adverbial item “en realidad”. In so doing, the syntax and intention of the ST remains unchanged. However, in French *indeed* has been completely omitted and no other grammatical or lexical items have been introduced to compensate the absence of the evidential marker.

After the analysis of the previous results, it should be noted that omission and transposition are the preferred translation strategies adopted for the translation of *indeed* in both Spanish and French. The ellipsis of the evidential marker in a considerable number of the cases analysed in the TTs implies the lack of evidence that supports the speaker’s proposition and his/her attitude towards the source of information. Transposition is the second most used strategy, what implies that the original proposition is modified at a grammatical level by altering the word categories. Here, transposition is employed to make the TT sound more natural, while maintaining the same function as the original.

### 4.3.6. IN FACT

Having typed the adverb *in fact* in the browser of the UNESCO Corpus, 155 entries associated to this adverbial marker were retrieved. However, it should be noticed that entries 8, 91, and 142 were not real matches for the adverbial form *in fact*, case number 95 has not been translated into any language and cases number 95, 148 and 152 does not have any Spanish translation. This makes a total of 300 entries, out of which 149 cases correspond to the TT in Spanish and 150 cases to the TT in French. As for the translation strategies, omission, literal translation, transposition and modulation have been the preferred techniques for the translation of *in fact*. Analysis of the previous data is illustrated below.
In Spanish, the most frequently used translation strategy is literal translation with 67 cases of the 149 entries, followed by omission with 55 cases, modulation with 18 cases and transposition with 9 cases. These data are represented in the following figure:

Although, French has adopted the same translation strategies as Spanish, these have been differently used in terms of frequency. The most employed translation strategy is omission with a total of 73 cases of the 150 entries, followed by literal translation with 56 cases, modulation with 13 and transposition with 8.
Example 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finally, young Internet pirates, branded as criminals by the recording industry, are <strong>in fact</strong> showing the way to new forms of international solidarity</td>
<td>En cuanto a los jóvenes piratas de Internet, tachados de criminales por la industria discográfica, <strong>lo cierto es que</strong> abren camino a nuevas formas de solidaridad internacional.</td>
<td>Quant aux jeunes pirates de l’Internet, taxés de criminels par l’industrie du disque, ils ouvrent la voie à de nouvelles formes de solidarité internationale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Strategies</th>
<th>MODULATION</th>
<th>OMISSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In the previous example, modulation has been adopted for the translation of *in fact* in Spanish. There has been a variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning: the Spanish translation is introduced by the verbal phrase “lo cierto es que”. Despite it is placed in a medial position in the clause, “lo cierto es que” serves as a connector device between the subject and the predicate of the clause and reinforces the proposition.
Whereas in French, *in fact* has been completely omitted and no other evidential markers have been used to compensate this omission. Therefore, no there are no signs of the speaker’s stance towards the statement.

Example 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(SL)</td>
<td>(TL)</td>
<td>(TL)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, the technique of transposition operates at a grammatical level, which involves the replacement of the word classes in both languages without implying a variation of the original meaning.

In this example, *in fact* gathers an evidential capacity, since the intention of the author is to make clear that mixed systems are clearly superior. Therefore, *in fact* may be substituted by other evidential forms such as *clearly, obviously or evidently*.

After the analysis of the results, the adverbial form *in fact* occupies in most of the cases an initial position to intensify its evidential meaning, indicating the subjective aspect towards the information contained in an utterance. From the translational approach, *in fact* is the only adverbial form of our selection which is composed by two words preposition + noun. Therefore, it is obvious that the technique of transposition is highly used in its translation in the TTs, as it is an adverbial form with a wide variety of synonyms in both languages, i.e. *efectivamente, realmente, de hecho* or *en realidad* in Spanish or *vraiment, réellement, effectivement, en fait* or *en effect* in French, and this fact involves in many cases a shift of word classes to reach a more natural effect in the target languages.
Additionally, the high number of cases in which in fact has been omitted, implies the elimination of the evidence that supports the original message as well as the expression of certainty and truth towards the utterances.

Also, literal translation accounts for a large number of cases. Literal translation confers a neutral style and faithfulness towards the ST, since syntactic and lexical structures do not vary from the original.

4.3.7. MANIFESTLY

After introducing the adverb manifestly in the search toolbar of the corpus, only one entry was retrieved. We take the source text in English as the starting point:

I don’t know that universities are engaging enough in addressing such issues on public platforms at a time when social justice is so manifestly not part of our world.

Manifestly is used to express something in a way that is clear or obvious to the eye or mind. Its function is to make a statement clear or evident to see or to understand and to put the information given beyond doubt. This adverb has a flexible position, which implies it can adopt an initial, a medial or a final position in the sentence. In this example, it occupies a medial position after the verb and between the degree adverb so and the negative form not. Its function is intensified by the use of the degree adverb so, which, placed before manifestly confers the idea of the speaker’s security towards the information. With the use of manifestly in this utterance the speaker takes for granted that social justice is clearly absent. Besides, the use of a negative construction “is so manifestly not” seems to intensify the speaker’s attitude towards the utterance, since here the placement of not after the evidential marker reinforces the disbelief of the speaker towards the information.

For the same excerpt in Spanish, manifestly has been omitted, while in French, manifestly has been translated as an adverbial phrase:

Spanish:

Las universidades no hacen demasiados esfuerzos por abordar problemas de esa índole en una época en que la justicia social está tan ausente de nuestro mundo.
French:

J’estime que les universités ne s’engagent pas assez sur des enjeux de ce type, alors que l’absence de justice sociale est, à l’évidence, une question cruciale aujourd’hui.

In the Spanish translation, omission has been the translation strategy adopted. Manifestly has been omitted and no other grammatical or lexical elements have been used by the translator to compensate the absence of the evidential marker in the Spanish version. In so doing, the Spanish statement loses the original intention of certainty and the emphasis expressed by the speaker with the use of manifestly in the ST and therefore, it does not cause the same effect on the reader as the original text in English, since it lacks the speaker’s perspective towards the message. Besides, it seems that in Spanish it is taken for granted that universities do not make any efforts to solve problems, since it omits “I don’t know”.

In the French translation, two different translation strategies have been adopted: on the one hand, transposition as a technique that works at a grammatical level modifying the word class of one part of the message for another. In this case, the English adverb manifestly has been transposed by the French adverbial phrase à l’évidence.

Consequently, transposition implies a sequence change of the original message: the word order of the English text suffered an alteration, when modifying the word category in the French translation. In this respect, the second translation strategy, inversion, also named dislocation by Vinay and Darbelnet (see chapter 2) is applied. The change of the word category in the French translation implies an alteration not only in the word order, but in the structure of a part of the phrase. In this case, inversion confers the statement a more natural emphasis and reinforces the speaker’s attitude towards the message.

4.3.8. PLAINLY

No entries were retrieved for the item plainly in the UNESCO Corpus. Plainly is used to indicate that the speaker’s statement is clearly true and simple to the understanding. However, as can be seen from the results achieved, plainly is not the preferred evidential marker in the languages and material analysed to state one’s belief or to indicate that something is easily noticed or recognised. In contrast,
adverbs such as *obviously, clearly* or *undoubtedly* are more frequently used in those contexts.

### 4.3.9.- UNDOUBTEDLY

After entering the evidential marker *undoubtedly* in the UNESCO Corpus, a total of 12 results were delivered. The analysis of the results shows that transposition, omission and literal translation have been the preferred strategies used by the translator aiming at an accurate equivalence in order to keep the original author’s intention. There is only one clear case of modulation in both languages, in which *undoubtedly* has been translated adopting the same grammatical structure in Spanish and French. Results in both languages are displayed below:

![Pie chart showing translation strategies for undoubtedly in French and Spanish](image)

**Figure 32**: Translation strategies for undoubtedly in French and Spanish.

The following figure shows the results in the Spanish translation, where the most preferred strategy was transposition with a total of 5 cases, followed by omission and literal translation, with 3 cases each; and modulation with one case:
In French, the results only differ slightly from the Spanish translation. Literal translation and omission are, with 4 cases each, the most used translation strategies, followed by the 3 cases of transposition and 1 case of modulation.

Undoubtedly indicates that the information is unquestionable and is, therefore, definitely true or existing. It shows the clear security and belief of the speaker towards his/her statement. The following cases give us a better understanding of
the meaning and use of *undoubtedly* in different contexts, as well as its translation in the TTs.

Example 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (SL)</th>
<th>Spanish (TL)</th>
<th>French (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are <em>undoubtedly</em> problems with traditional or informal justice.</td>
<td><em>Es evidente que</em> la justicia tradicional o informal plantea problemas.</td>
<td><em>Incontestablement</em>, la justice traditionnelle ou &quot;informelle&quot; pose problème.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Strategies</th>
<th>TRANSPOSITION</th>
<th>LITERAL TRANSLATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In this example, *undoubtedly* is used in the original message to show the speaker’s security of certainty towards the information, which is that of security and certainty. *Undoubtedly* emphasises that the speaker is sure about his/her statement.

As the example above shows, in Spanish the original message was transferred through the technique of transposition. *Undoubtedly* has been grammatically modified by a different word class in the Spanish language, and thus amplifying the number of words: from an adverb in English to a construction verb + adjective in Spanish.

In French, however, the translator has opted for the literal translation by using the adverb *incontestablement*, which bears the same meaning as *undoubtedly*. In this way, the TT in French keeps the same stylistic structure and lexical sequence as the original.

Example 2:
In the previous example, modulation has been the translation strategy adopted for both TTs. The form of the original message has been altered by modifying the point of view without changing the original message. Here, this strategy has basically led to a shift in both the semantics and the perspective of the source language. The use of modulation in this case generates a more natural nuance in the TTs and makes the message easier to understand.

On the basis of the results obtained, transposition is clearly the most used translation strategy in both languages, when it comes to undoubtely. This implies that the translator has tried to find an acceptable and suitable equivalence to create the desired effect of the original message on the reader by the replacement of the word class. In this sense, the transposed clause loses its original value, however, the meaning is the same.

4.4. General overview of total results

Based on the analysis of the results obtained from interrogating the multilingual corpus UNESCO about the evidential adverbs selected for the present study, the figure above displays the number of occurrences of each strategy used in the translation of the evidential markers in Spanish and French.
The figure above represents the previous data by languages. It is noteworthy that despite slight differences, the results are similar in both languages. Omission and literal translation are the most frequently used strategies adopted for the translation of evidential markers in Spanish and French.

Figure 35: General overview of total results in the TTs.
Figure 36: General overview of results in Spanish.

Figure 37: General overview of results in French.
4.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter compiles the results and analysis of the evidential adverbs selected for the present study in the UNESCO Corpus. The methodology applied was a corpus-based translation analysis using the multilingual corpus UNESCO, as detailed in the previous chapter of this dissertation. The data obtained from the corpus were analysed from two different approaches:

a) At lexical level, following Conrad and Biber’s (2000) classification and description of adverbs, more specifically stance adverbs, in order to identify, classify and define evidential adverbs.

b) At syntactic and stylistic level, following Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1958) classification of translation strategies in order to identify and categorise the type of translation technique used in each case.

After the analysis of the results retrieved by the UNESCO Corpus and as depicted in figure 35 of this chapter, omission and literal translation have been the most frequent translation strategies used for the translation of evidential adverbs in the TTs. On the one hand, the use of omission aims to avoid serious translation mistakes, which may possibly alter the meaning of the original message, causing a different effect on the reader and to achieve a neutral style, so as to ensure an equal intention and function as the original. Additionally, omission is also used as a technique to cover a lexical gap or when it is not possible to find a suitable equivalent in the TT, that fulfills the same semantic and stylistic features. On the other hand, literal translation implies a word-for-word translation that sticks too close to the ST. For this reason, this strategy tends to make the translation to sound unnatural in the TT, and usually difficult to read and understand by the target reader. Besides, in many cases it may not even convey the meaning of the original text. At that point, it can be also added that literal translation is likely to be used when the translator does not have a good mastery of the language and the translational skills and abilities.

Transposition and modulation after omission and literal translation are the second most frequently used translation strategies. Both techniques involve a variation in the form of the original message, word category or syntactic structure respectively,
are modified without altering the meaning of the ST. In this regard, evidential markers expressed as single adverbs exhibit less occurrences and diversity than those expressed as adverbial phrases.

To conclude, based on the data obtained after an exhaustive analysis of the results, the expression of evidentiality through evidential adverbs in the scientific-technical texts selected is rather omitted or literal translated, implying either the total omission of the evidence supporting the speaker’s propositions or the lack of naturalness and mastery of the translator to find more accurate equivalents in the TT.
CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS
In this chapter, I summarise the results and findings and the conclusions drawn from the full analysis of data developed after the interrogation of the UNESCO corpus. The research carried out in this work aims to provide a deep overview of the use of translation strategies in the translation of evidential adverbs in a multilingual corpus, where English is the SL and Spanish and French are the TLs. For the development and progress of this research, several fields of study have been profoundly studied and described in an attempt to reach quantitative data that enable a successful contrastive analysis. The evidential adverbs selected and therefore the target linguistic devices of this research, are *obviously, actually, clearly, evidently, indeed, in fact, manifestly, plainly and undoubtedly*. The main purpose was to analyse the translation of these adverbs from English into Spanish and French through the use of the multilingual corpus, UNESCO, included in the *Linguistic Corpus of the University of Vigo (CLUVI)*, which is an open collection of sentence-level aligned parallel corpora. This research has demonstrated the advantages corpus-based analysis have in the field of linguistics and translation studies.

For a better understanding of the concepts and criteria adopted for this analysis, I have described in chapter 2 the translation strategies following Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) pioneer work, *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a methodology for translation*. A reference book for scholars, students and translators, since they were the first to present a classification of translation techniques with a defined methodological purpose. Additionally, chapter 3 focuses on the description and categorization of the *UNESCO Corpus* in terms of modality, subject, period of time, temporality, size and number of languages. The UNESCO Corpus provides a search toolbar that allows the interrogation of the database. The software identifies the selected evidential adverbs in their original contexts in English and also shows their aligned translations into Spanish and French.

Since adverbs are the target items of this analysis, section 3.4.4. of chapter 3 defines the concept of *adverb*, which has proven to raise problems and generate a conceptual confusion due to its heterogeneity of morphological structures and the complexity of its many uses, functions and positions in the clause. Adverbs were classified following Conrad and Biber’s (2000) three-category classification: semantic, grammar and placement. In addition, this division was completed by the adverbial classification introduced by Biber’s et al. (1999) in the *Longman Grammar*
of Spoken and Written English, where adverbials are classified according to their semantic categories.

Once the goals of the present study have been explained and the criteria of the analysis set, the results have revealed the following:

Omission has been the most frequently used translation strategy in both TTs. Since evidential adverbs are defined as a form to express the speaker’s degree of certainty towards what is being stated, it is to expect a greater use and thus, the translation of evidential markers in the TTs in order to convey the source of information. However, omission, far from being a synonym for neglect, is a reduction strategy used not only to reduce the size of utterances, but as a method to avoid confusing information, lack of cultural equivalents, terms or naturalness in the TT. Additionally, the ellipsis of adverbials in the TTs implies the absence of evidence supporting the proposition.

Literal translation as the second most used translation strategy in both TTs implies the use of a neutral style, where the translator tried to be faithful to the ST by making a word-for-word translation, in which the syntactic structures and the original selection of lexical items remain unchanged. For this reason, the translation may sound unnatural in the TT, and may be difficult to understand by the target reader. Besides, literal translation does not guarantee the good quality of the translation, since in many cases it may not convey the meaning and intention of the original text. At that point, it can also be said that literal translation tends to be used when the translator does not have a good mastery of the language and the translational capacities and skills.

Transposition and modulation also account for a large number of cases, being the third and fourth most used translation strategies in the TTs. Both techniques share the particularity of modifying the form of the original message by means of altering the word category (transposition) or the syntactic structure and point of view (modulation). Besides, the sequence/order of lexical and syntactical items changes and there is a clear tendency towards amplification, since the numbers of words in the TTs increases. With the use of these techniques, to create a more natural effect without modifying the original meaning and intention is pursued. The appropriate use of transposition and modulation requires a proficient command of both the SL
and the TL as well as mastery of the translator to ensure that the replacement of the word category is conceivable in the TT without changing the meaning of the original message.

Adverbs expressed as single adverbs exhibit less diversity and occurrences than those expressed as adverb phrases. For example, *evidently*, “es obvio que” instead of “obviamente” or “c’est evident que” instead of “évidemment”. This fact implies that in the Romance languages there is a clear tendency to amplification as a method to reinforce the expressive function of the proposition or to explain information in more detail.

When it comes to translation mistakes, very few cases were found and all of them corresponding to the evidential adverb *actually*, which was incorrectly translated as a circumstantial adverb of time in the TT’s, “en la actualidad” and “actuellement”. They are clear cases of deceptive cognate, commonly known as false friends, which, due to their similarity in form and sound, were directly transferred in the TTs without changing their lexical form. With that incorrect translation of the evidential adverb, the message in the TTs differs significantly from the ST, acquiring a completely different perspective: evidence expression has been replaced by time expression, which does not even appear in the ST.

It is generally observed that compensatory lexical devices such as “pero”, “mais”, “muy”, “très”, “aquí”, “ici”, frequently placed before the evidential adverb, have been used in those cases in which some elements of the original clause have been omitted in order to ensure naturalness or to avoid a lexical gap in the TT. However, the limited size of each entry retrieved by the corpus makes it impossible to observe further compensation strategies at a textual level.

It is not surprising that no cases of equivalence and adaptation were found in the present analysis. This is due to the fact that the UNESCO Corpus is composed by a compilation of scientific-technical texts, in which cultural references are not frequently encountered.

Translations in multilingual corpora do not always use the source text as the translation reference, but other target texts. It has been observed that many of the analysed cases have been equally translated in both Spanish and French, sometimes
even differing from the ST. Therefore, chances are that the French version is a literal translation of the Spanish one or vice versa depending on which language was translated in the first place, information to which it is impossible to have access.

To sum up, this study has demonstrated the importance of the expression of evidentiality by means of evidential adverbs in different languages. The importance of their translation in other languages lies in the fact that evidential adverbs are powerful devices to provide evidence supporting the proposition, to reinforce the speaker’s attitude towards the information and to keep the intention and effect of the original message unchanged. After the analysis of the most frequently used translation strategies, it is noteworthy that the ST has not undergone significant changes in the TTs, since these changes mainly occurred at a formal level. Except for some cases of omission, in which the expression of certainty and knowledge has been completely eliminated in the TT, the different translation strategies adopted in the translation of evidential adverbs in the material analysed have contributed to keep the original meaning unchanged and to express the speaker’s degree of certainty towards what is being stated in the source text.
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Análisis de las estrategias de traducción de los adverbios evidenciales basado en el estudio de un corpus

RESUMEN

Cristina Cela Gutiérrez

Las Palmas de Gran Canaria

Noviembre 2018
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AGRADECIMIENTOS

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1. INTRODUCCIÓN

En lingüística, la evidencialidad ha demostrado ser un concepto muy complejo, ya que ni los académicos parecen ponerse de acuerdo en la naturaleza exacta de la misma, concretamente, si se trata de un marcador gramatical o un elemento léxico, de su condición como concepto independiente o una subcategoría de la modalidad epistémica y de sus funciones, entre otras cuestiones. En términos generales, la evidencialidad se relaciona con la manera en que se expresa el origen/modo del conocimiento. La siguiente cita (Lee, 1959:137) lo ejemplifica de forma excelente:

> The Wintu never say it is bread. They say, 'It looks-to-me- bread' or 'It feels-to-me bread' or 'I-have-heard-it-to-be bread' or 'I-infer-from-evidence-that-it-is-bread' or 'I-think-it-to-be-bread', or, vaguely and timelessly, 'according-to-my-experience be bread'.

Los lingüistas denominan el fenómeno semántico expuesto anteriormente, evidencialidad.

En muchas lenguas, el origen de la información se refleja tanto de forma léxica como gramatical en sus enunciados. Cada lengua cuenta con una amplia variedad de recursos para hacer referencia al origen de la información disponible para el hablante, y que, por tanto, le permiten expresar el modo en que este ha accedido a la información. De este modo, la evidencialidad puede definirse como el dominio semántico relacionado con la expresión del origen de la información formulado en un enunciado.

En el ámbito de estudio de la lingüística, el concepto de evidencialidad aparece por primera vez en Boas (1947), en su novedoso trabajo sobre la gramática Kwakiutl publicado de forma póstuma por Jacobsen (1986). Gracias a las publicaciones pioneras de Jakobson (1957) y la obra Evidentiality: The linguistic coding of epistemology (Chafe and Nichols, 1986), el concepto de evidencialidad fue convirtiéndose en un tema de investigación relevante en el campo de la lingüística.
En este estudio, se analiza la manifestación del origen del conocimiento del hablante a través del uso de los adverbios de evidencialidad, que permiten reflejar la certeza y el punto de vista del hablante con respecto a la información. Se discute que el uso de adverbios evidenciales debería tener una relación directa con la cultura, y, por tanto, en este sentido las variaciones de una lengua a otra se llevan a cabo atendiendo al contexto cultural en el que se ha producido el texto. Es precisamente en este punto, en el que la traducción de los adverbios adquiere una relevancia especial, ya que los adverbios permiten la expresión del punto de vista del hablante en las tres lenguas de estudio, concretamente inglés, como lengua de partida y francés y español, como lenguas meta.

2. METODOLOGÍA

Este estudio se basa en el análisis de los adverbios de evidencialidad en el Corpus UNESCO, un corpus multilingüe compuesto por textos divulgativos científico-técnicos, que forma parte de la colección abierta de corpus paralelos del Corpus de Lingüística de la Universidad de Vigo (CLUVI), que reúne, clasifica y compara segmentos alineados en varias lenguas diferentes. Debe su nombre al periódico UNESCO, ya que los textos que lo componen proceden del mismo. El periódico UNESCO data de 1948 y es el periódico más importante publicado por la Organización Educativa, Científica y Cultural de las Naciones Unidas. El corpus está compuesto por una compilación de textos procedentes de dicho periódico y su temática va desde el turismo, el cine o el deporte, hasta la paz, la inmigración o los derechos humanos.

El corpus UNESCO es especialmente idóneo para este estudio, ya que cuenta con una herramienta de búsqueda en línea, que permite realizar búsquedas sencillas, una sola palabra, o más complejas, secuencias de palabras. Los resultados muestran las equivalencias multilingües del término dentro de su contexto, así como información sobre el uso de los términos en diferentes contextos temáticos. Una vez obtenidos los resultados, se estudia el uso y el significado de los adverbios en
inglés y, a continuación, se observan las estrategias de traducción empleadas en su traducción al español y al francés, así como si dichas estrategias, o incluso la omisión de la traducción en ciertos casos, logran cumplir la misma función sintáctica y semántica que en la lengua original.

3. CONTENIDOS

Esta tesis doctoral está estructurada en cinco capítulos y las referencias bibliográficas. El primer capítulo define el objeto de estudio y en él se describen los objetivos que se persiguen y que se alcanzarán al final del estudio, así como la metodología utilizada para el análisis de los datos obtenidos a partir del corpus seleccionado. El capítulo 2 está dedicado a la descripción de las estrategias de traducción, que constituyen la base del enfoque metodológico de nuestro análisis con el que se pretende alcanzar los resultados. Además, este capítulo también aporta una definición de la evidencialidad en la traducción, incluyendo el concepto de (inter)subjetividad, que es bastante relevante en el ámbito de la traducción, ya que la traducción es una actividad cognitiva, en la que el traductor actúa tanto como lector del mensaje original como escritor de la versión final del mismo, lo que implica que de forma intrínseca el traductor añade elementos subjetivos/personales.

El capítulo 3 expone la metodología llevada a cabo. El capítulo da comienzo con la definición del concepto de Estudios de Traducción basados en un Corpus (ETBC) y una descripción detallada de las características del corpus seleccionado para dicho estudio, UNESCO. Además, presenta y define los adverbiales evidenciales objeto de estudio: absolutely, actually, clearly, evidently, indeed, in fact, manifestly, plainly y undoubtedly.

El capítulo 4 expone el análisis de las estrategias de traducción adoptadas en español y francés para la traducción de los adverbiales evidenciales una vez obtenidos los resultados a partir de su búsqueda en el corpus UNESCO.
Finalmente, el capítulo 5 recoge las conclusiones finales de esta tesis doctoral.

**RESUMEN CAPÍTULO 2**

En el capítulo 2 de mi tesis doctoral, se lleva a cabo una descripción del concepto de *estrategias de traducción*, teniendo en cuenta las definiciones propuestas por diferentes autores como Vinay y Darbelnet (1958), Nida (1964), Malblanc (1968), Vázquez Ayora (1977) o Newmark (1988). En este trabajo, las estrategias de traducción se entienden como todas aquellas operaciones, es decir, las técnicas o métodos, implicados en el proceso de traducción con el fin de encontrar una equivalencia precisa en el texto meta. Sin embargo, todavía existe una confusión terminológica sobre el término correcto para nombrar a las estrategias de traducción, que ha llevado a teóricos y lingüistas a proponer sus propios términos y definiciones del concepto. Estos datos están recogidos en la tabla 2, que representa la heterogeneidad terminológica existente a pesar de referirse a la misma realidad.


Se ha tomado como base para la clasificación de las estrategias de traducción, la primera versión en inglés de la obra de Vinay y Darbelnet, *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a methodology for translation* (1995), que se describe de forma extensa en la sección 2.4. de dicho capítulo.

El último apartado del capítulo 2 está dedicado a la revisión de la evidencialidad, entendida aquí como el modo en el que el hablante o escritor refleja en sus enunciados cómo ha conseguido el conocimiento o la información. Nuestro interés se centra especialmente en la importancia de la evidencialidad en la traducción y
como los marcadores evidenciales hallan sus equivalencias en otras lenguas. También se define el concepto de (inter)subjetividad, puesto que toda traducción implica inevitablemente la adición de elementos subjetivos. Para concluir, la importancia de la expresión de la evidencialidad recae en el hecho de que aporta autenticidad y precisión a los enunciados y facilita el entendimiento y la interpretación de la información.

RESUMEN CAPÍTULO 3

En el tercer capítulo, se lleva a cabo la descripción del corpus lingüístico, así como el desarrollo y la aplicación del corpus. El objetivo general es ofrecer la información necesaria para establecer un contexto adecuado que asiente las bases del procedimiento metodológico utilizado en el presente estudio. Aunque existen algunas limitaciones en cuanto al uso de los corpus, los beneficios de su uso superan considerablemente dichas limitaciones. Los corpus, especialmente los corpus paralelos, son herramientas extraordinarias para investigar las muchas formas en las que las lenguas origen se pueden traducir a las lenguas meta, así como el papel que la cultura ejerce sobre cada una de ellas. Este no es el único uso de los corpus paralelos. También destacan por ser la mejor arma de detección de ciertos usos de la lengua, como los significados y connotaciones modales, en las lenguas origen (cf. Aijmer (2008); Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2015)), mediante el análisis de la interpretación de las unidades lingüísticas del original y las traducciones ofrecidas por los especialistas en sus traducciones.

RESUMEN CAPÍTULO 4

El capítulo 4 recoge los resultados y el análisis de los adverbios evidenciales seleccionados para el presente estudio en el Corpus UNESCO. La metodología aplicada fue el estudio de la traducción basado en un corpus, concretamente el
corpus multilingüe UNESCO, como se detalla en el capítulo 3 de esta tesis doctoral. Los datos obtenidos a partir del corpus fueron analizados desde dos enfoques diferentes:

a) A nivel léxico, siguiendo la clasificación y de descripción de los adverbios de Conrad y Biber (2000), más específicamente los adverbios que indican la actitud del hablante, con el fin de identificar, clasificar y definir los adverbios evidenciales.

b) A nivel léxico-sintáctico, siguiendo la clasificación de las estrategias de traducción de Vinay y Darbelnet (1958) con el fin de identificar y categorizar el tipo de técnica de traducción empleada en cada caso concreto.

Después del análisis de los resultados obtenidos a partir del Corpus UNESCO y como se reflejar en la figura 35 del capítulo 4, la omisión y la traducción literal han sido las estrategias de traducción más empleadas para la traducción de los adverbios evidenciales en las lenguas meta. Por un lado, el uso de la omisión tiene por objetivo evitar errores graves de traducción, que muy posiblemente podrían alterar el significado del mensaje original y, con ello, producir un efecto diferente en el lector, además, conferir un estilo neutro que logre la misma intención y función que el original. La omisión también se utiliza como una técnica para cubrir lagunas léxicas o cuando no es posible encontrar una equivalencia adecuada en el texto meta, que aporte las mismas características semánticas y estilísticas. Por otro lado, la traducción literal implica una traducción palabra por palabra, demasiado apegada al texto origen. Por eso, esta estrategia tiende a hacer que la traducción del texto no suene natural y normalmente al lector meta le resulta dificultoso de leer y entender. Pero, además, la traducción literal, en muchos casos, ni tan siquiera coincide con el significado del texto original. En este punto, también se podría añadir que la traducción literal suele utilizarse, cuando el traductor no tiene un buen dominio de la lengua y de las habilidades o destrezas traductológicas.

La transposición y la modulación, inmediatamente después de la omisión y la traducción literal, son las segundas estrategias de traducción más empleadas. Ambas técnicas implican una modificación de la forma del mensaje original,
categoría léxica o estructura sintáctica respectivamente, se modifican sin alterar el
significado del texto origen. A este respecto, los marcadores evidenciales
expresados como adverbios simples (adverbios compuestos por una sola palabra)
muestran menos casos y diversidad que aquellos expresados como sintagmas
adverbiales.

De acuerdo con los datos obtenidos tras un exhaustivo análisis de los resultados,
concluimos que la expresión de la evidencialidad mediante adverbios evidenciales
en los textos científico-técnicos seleccionados, o bien se omite, o bien se traduce
literalmente, lo que supone o la omisión total de la evidencia que respalda los
enunciados del hablante, o la falta de naturalidad y pericia del traductor para
encontrar equivalencias más precisas en el texto meta.

**CONCLUSIONES**

En el capítulo de conclusiones, se resumen los resultados y hallazgos y se extraen
conclusiones a partir del análisis completo de los datos desarrollados tras la
búsqueda de los adverbios en el corpus UNESCO. La investigación llevada a cabo
en este trabajo pretende ofrecer una visión profunda del uso de las estrategias de
traducción en la traducción de los adverbios evidenciales a partir de un corpus
multilingüe, siendo el inglés la lengua origen y el francés y el español las lenguas
meta. Para el desarrollo y avance de esta investigación, se han analizado y descrito
ampliamente diversos ámbitos de estudio en un intento de alcanzar datos
cuantitativos que permitieran un buen análisis contrastivo. Los adverbios
evidenciales seleccionados y, por tanto, los elementos lingüísticos objeto de estudio
de esta investigación son obviously, actually, clearly, evidently, indeed, in fact,
manifestly, plainly and undoubtedly. El objetivo principal ha sido analizar la
traducción de estos adverbios del inglés al español y al francés mediante el uso del
corpus multilingüe UNESCO, incluido en el *Corpus de Lingüística de la Universidad
de Vigo* (CLUVI), que es una colección abierta de corpus paralelos, donde sus
equivalencias de traducción se alinean a nivel fraseológico. Esta investigación ha
demostrado las ventajas que posee el estudio basado en un corpus en el campo de la lingüística y de los estudios de traducción.

Para un mejor entendimiento de los conceptos y criterios adoptados para este análisis, en el capítulo 2 se describen las estrategias de traducción siguiendo la obra pionera de Vinay y Darbelnet (1995), *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a methodology for translation*. Un libro de referencia para académicos, estudiantes y traductores, puesto que fueron los primeros en presentar una clasificación de las técnicas de traducción con un objetivo metodológico definido. Además, el capítulo 3 se centra en la descripción y categorización del Corpus UNESCO en términos de modalidad, temática, época, temporalidad, magnitud y número de lenguas. El corpus UNESCO incluye una barra de búsqueda que permite consultar la base de datos. El programa informático identifica los adverbiales evidenciales seleccionados en sus contextos originales en inglés y también muestra su traducción alineada en español y francés.

Puesto que los adverbios son los elementos de estudio de este análisis, la sección 3.4.4. del capítulo 3 define el concepto de *adverbio*, que ha demostrado plantear problemas y generar una gran confusión terminológica debido a la heterogeneidad de sus estructuras morfológicas y la complejidad de sus muchos usos, funciones y posiciones en la oración. Los adverbios se clasificaron de acuerdo con la clasificación en tres categorías propuesta por Conrad y Biber (2000): semántica, gramática y posición. Además, esta división fue completada con la clasificación de los adverbios a nivel semántico planteada por Biber’s et al. (1999) en su gramática *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*.

Una vez expuestos los objetivos del presente estudio y establecido los criterios del análisis, los resultados han demostrado lo siguiente:

La omisión ha sido la estrategia de traducción utilizada más frecuentemente en ambas lenguas meta. Puesto que los adverbios evidenciales se definen como una forma de expresar el grado de certeza del hablante con respecto a lo que se argumenta, se espera un mayor uso y, con ello, la traducción de los marcadores
evidenciales en las lenguas meta con el fin de expresar el origen de la información. Sin embargo, la omisión, lejos de ser un sinónimo de descuido u olvido, es una estrategia de reducción empleada no solo para reducir el tamaño de los enunciados, sino como método para evitar información confusa, falta de referencias culturales, términos o naturalidad en el texto meta. Además, la elipsis de los adverbios en los textos meta implica la ausencia de la evidencia que respalda el enunciado.

La traducción literal como segunda estrategia de traducción más empleada en ambas lenguas meta supone el uso de un estilo neutro. El traductor ha intentado ser fiel al texto origen mediante la traducción palabra por palabra, en la que las estructuras sintácticas y la selección original de los elementos léxicos se han mantenido invariables. Por esta razón, la traducción puede sonar poco natural e incluso resultar difícil de entender por el lector meta. Además, la traducción literal no garanta la buena calidad de la traducción, puesto que en muchos casos podría no corresponderse con el significado e intención del texto original.

La transposición y la modulación también cuentan con alto número de casos, siendo la tercera y cuarta estrategias de traducción más empleadas en los textos meta. Ambas técnicas comparten la particularidad de modificar la forma del mensaje original mediante la variación de la categoría léxica (transposición) o la estructura sintáctica y el punto de vista (modulación). Además, la secuencia / orden de los elementos léxicos y sintácticos varía y hay una clara tendencia a la amplificación, ya que aumenta el número de palabras en los textos meta. Con el uso de estas técnicas se pretende crear un efecto más natural sin modificar el mensaje e intención del original. El correcto uso de la transposición y la modulación requieren el experto dominio tanto de la lengua origen como de las lenguas meta, así como la pericia del traductor para garantizar que el reemplazo de la categoría léxica sea adecuado en los textos meta, sin con ello modificar el significado del mensaje original.

Los adverbios simples, es decir, aquellos que están formados por una única palabra, muestran un menor número de casos y de diversidad en comparación con los sintagmas adverbiales. Por ejemplo, evidently, “es obvio que” en lugar de
“obviamente” o “c’est evident que” en lugar de “évidemment”. Este hecho pone de manifiesto que en las lenguas románicas existe una clara tendencia a la amplificación como mecanismo para reforzar la función expresiva de los enunciados o para presentar la información más detalladamente.

En cuanto a los errores de traducción, se han encontrado varios casos y todos ellos correspondientes al adverbio evidencial actually, que se ha traducido de forma incorrecta como un adverbio circunstancial de tiempo en los textos meta, “en la actualidad” y “actuellement”. Son casos claros de cognados deceptivos, conocidos comúnmente como falsos amigos, en los que, debido a su gran similitud en forma y sonido, se transfieren directamente a las lenguas meta sin cambiar su forma léxica. Con esta traducción incorrecta del adverbio evidencial, el mensaje de los textos meta difiere considerablemente con respecto al texto origen y adquiere una perspectiva completamente diferente: la expresión de la evidencia ha sido reemplazada por la expresión del tiempo, que ni tan siquiera se refleja en el texto origen.

De forma general, se observa que los elementos léxicos compensatorios como “pero”, “mais”, “muy”, “très”, “ici”, “aquí”, colocados normalmente delante del adverbio evidencial, se han utilizado en aquellos casos, en los que se han omitido algunos elementos de la frase original con el fin de garantizar la naturalidad o evitar una laguna léxica en el texto meta. Sin embargo, el espacio limitado de cada entrada obtenida en el corpus, no permite observar otras posibles estrategias de compensación a nivel textual en otras partes de la oración.

No resulta sorprendente que no se hayan encontrado casos de equivalencia y adaptación en el presente estudio. Esto es debido al hecho de que el Corpus UNESCO está compuesto por una colección de textos científico-técnicos, en los que las referencias culturales no se manifiestan específicamente.

Las traducciones en los corpus multilingües no siempre utilizan el texto origen como el referente de traducción, sino otros textos meta. Se ha observado que muchos de los casos analizados se han traducido de la misma forma en español y
francés, a veces incluso difiriendo del texto origen. En consecuencia, estas observaciones demuestran que la versión en francés es una traducción directa del español o viceversa. Esto dependerá de la lengua a la que se haya traducido el texto origen en primer lugar, información imposible de saber a partir del corpus.

En resumen, este estudio ha demostrado la importancia de la expresión de la evidencialidad mediante los adverbios evidenciales en diferentes lenguas. La importancia de su traducción a otras lenguas radica en el hecho de que los adverbios evidenciales son una magnífica herramienta para aportar la evidencia, que respalda un enunciado, reforzar la actitud del hablante con respecto a la información y mantener inalterables la intención y efecto del mensaje original. Tras el análisis de las estrategias de traducción utilizadas más frecuentemente, cabe destacar que el texto origen no ha sufrido cambios considerables en los textos meta, ya que estos cambios se han producido principalmente a nivel formal, excepto en los casos de omisión, en los que la expresión de la certeza y el conocimiento ha sido completamente eliminada en el texto meta. Las diferentes estrategias de traducción adoptadas en la traducción de los adverbios evidenciales en el material analizado ha contribuido a mantener el significado original inalterable y a expresar el grado de certeza del hablante con respecto a lo que se ha manifestado en el texto origen.
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