TRANSLATION IN A GLOBALISING WORLD:
A CASE OF UKRAINIAN

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RESUMEN

La traducción en un mundo cada vez más global: el caso de la lengua ucraniana

El presente artículo analiza las estrategias empleadas actualmente por traductores e intérpretes, así como los recientes cambios lingüísticos y el auge de la neología en las lenguas de Europa del Este, sobre la base de ejemplos de traducciones al ucraniano. Si bien los campos semánticos de los neologismos introducidos por los traductores en el ucraniano y otras lenguas de la región han sufrido constantes cambios, nuestra investigación y los corpus analizados confirman que extranjerización sigue siendo la principal estrategia de traducción, debido a la creciente necesidad de crear nuevos medios de expresión. La presente contribución se ocupa también de la expansión del uso de construcciones nominales del tipo sustantivo + sustantivo en las lenguas eslavas y se estudia su uso en las traducciones. Para nuestra investigación, analizamos el uso del término «marketing» y cómo este se comporta, cuando se combina con otros elementos léxicos en las traducciones publicadas en la prensa ucraniana. Nuestro objetivo reside en identificar nuevas formas de derivación en las distintas lenguas eslavas que surgieron como consecuencia del incremento del contacto lingüístico con el inglés y otras lenguas no eslavas.
1. INTRODUCTION

Translators and interpreters have always been at the forefront of breaking all barriers and stereotypes in communication process by facilitating contacts and better understanding between peoples, cultures, and countries. Language professionals look “outside its home culture into other cultures and whatever foreign phenomena translation introduces into its home culture; it does so by adapting them to its home culture’s patterns” (Tyulenev, 2014: 30). The paper is to demonstrate how the work of translators and interpreters has had an impact on languages in general and contributed to recent shifts in language planning as a result of mediation between different cultural units.

The downfall of totalitarian regimes and the willingness of people in Eastern and Central Europe to be involved in global development and close international cooperation with the rest of the world have led to significant changes in political, economic and social systems in those countries. The willingness of countries in Central and Eastern Europe to join international communities and the desire of people to have and do what people have and do in the West was the main force which prompted changes on all levels of everyday life. The revolutionary changes in all spheres of life and significant expansion of contacts with the West and the rest of the world began the process of undoing and redoing previous corpus planning where translators and interpreters played a crucial role.

Language users in new democratic societies of Eastern Europe had to reflect the changes and fill in the gaps in developing appropriate linguistic means to express new cultural values. As a result, new status and corpus language planning emerged. The main goals of this process were to relax the limitations of language norms and to use and develop a variety of new expressive means, thus allowing individuals to express their identity in a new way.

Translators, interpreters and other language specialists, especially those who work in mass media have contributed to numerous linguistic innovations in regional languages. They played a prominent role in corpus planning, especially in the vocabulary expansion, terminology modernisation, orthographical and structural innovations. They aimed at avoiding the stilted communist type jargon and sloganisation in order to allow stylistic overlapping and the use of less formal styles in various contexts.

Translators and interpreters have had to learn and change a lot themselves during the time of change in Eastern and Central Europe. They faced new challenges in all spheres: choice of lexical items, style, punctuation, the use of foreign proper names and many other issues of linguistic and cultural nature.

As for strategies currently employed by translators, interpreters and language specialists, we can observe that many of them resort to an extensive use
of direct or full borrowings, mostly from English, which has resulted in numerous linguistic shifts, foreignisation and a continuous ‘neological boom’ in languages. The main reason for this is that they realised that many concepts, phenomena or actual physical things did not exist in their languages and cultures before the 90s and, therefore there were no appropriate language means to express them. In view of this, they aimed at innovating languages and undoing previous corpus planning.

Semantic fields of new lexical items introduced by translators in East European languages have been in constant flux but our research and the analysed examples confirm that the borrowed items that remain in the language have the tendency to expand semantically and/or change their usage due to new collocational capabilities and the growing need for new means of expression. The changing taste of users in new democratic societies also had its impact on the use of new items.

Derivational possibilities of borrowed lexical items is another area where translators have made a significant input. Initially, transformation of some items was restricted, and some of them were used in a single grammatical category since native equivalents had already existed in the language. However, the process has accelerated considerably in recent years and resulted in the production of new derivational forms and word combinations. The growing tendency in many languages is to use borrowed lexical items, especially technical terms, even when a native analogue exists in the language.

By contrast, there were also translators who openly “opposed this type of modernisation and who tried to use linguistic items which existed in the language either during or before the socialist corpus planning began” (Krouglov, 1997: 43). Their attempts “to preserve or even restore the language to its ‘original’ form and identify linguistic items which ‘pollute’ the language” (Krouglov, 2008: 32) were not very successful. In their majority, language users were reluctant to accept them since old linguistic items have undergone partial or full semantic transformations or were already out of date and sounded as historisms. As a result, languages accelerated internationalisation of their vocabularies as well as colloquialisation and conversationalisation of mass media and other areas where more formal styles used to dominate before in Eastern Europe.

How can we characterise this process? First of all, due to changing political and economic structure of societies there were considerable shifts in lexicon. A number of lexical items from the socialist period became obsolete and eventually went out of use altogether. Some other undergone semantic shifts, and their usage has changed. There has been a constant flow of neologisms either of local/native origin, e.g. created by native derivational morphology, or borrowings from other languages, mostly English. There were also neologisms
which combined local/native and borrowed elements. These three types of neologisms received further expansion at later stages.

Secondly, the impact of Western media and eventually regular translation of news items, articles, and commentaries led to shifts in style which can be described as colloquialisation or conversationalisation of previously formal newspaper or media style. At the same time, it is important to note that this is not a process which is restricted to languages in Eastern and Central Europe, this is a wider phenomenon characteristic for mass media in Europe in general and many other countries in the world where communication is more and more based on solidarity rather than distance and languages develop the so-called common style which is somewhere in between the high and low level of language behaviour patterns. Duszak has described similar process in the Polish language where “colloquial expressions infringe upon the ideals of high culture and bring communication down to the level of commonalities, if not trivialities” (2006:100).

Thirdly, we have witnessed the expanded use of borrowed lexical items and even transplanting Noun+Noun constructions in Ukrainian. The paper analyses the borrowed constructions and investigates further whether similar processes took place in other Slavonic languages since most of examples which were used in this research were taken from the Ukrainian media.

2. THE EXPANDING USE OF BORROWED LEXICAL ITEMS: NOUN+NOUN CONSTRUCTIONS

In recent years derivational possibilities of using Noun+Noun structures have significantly expanded and at the same time created a wider choice in the formation of word combinations with newly borrowed items: either using a noun to modify another noun as in example ‘marketing plan’ or using an adjective derived from the same noun.

Relatively new borrowed lexical items such as ‘marketing’, ‘management’, ‘distributor’, ‘Internet’, ‘sponsor’ and many others have gone through a number of changes in their use in the Ukrainian language. For the purpose of our research we analysed the use of ‘marketing’ in translations which appeared in the Ukrainian. We selected phrases where a borrowed noun is combined with other borrowed and/or already existing in the language nouns in developing new lexical units and meanings, for example ‘Internet marketing’, ‘marketing plan’, ‘marketing director’, ‘marketing programme’. These examples clearly demonstrate new derivational possibilities in the Ukrainian language and the use of Noun+Noun constructions, where the first noun acts as a modifier and therefore becomes an attributive noun.

A very small group of Noun+Noun borrowed phrases existed in the Ukrainian language before but they usually constituted lexical items with limited
derivational capabilities, for example kutyu-kompaniya ‘wardroom’ or ‘officer’s mess’. These were selected units which did not produce derivational models which could enable language users to develop similar constructions with either native or borrowed lexical items. They were required to transform the modifying noun into an adjective using existing derivational morphology.

The tendency to use new Noun+Noun constructions appeared in the 90s when various Western companies began to sell their new goods and services in the Ukrainian market. In most cases international companies have transliterated the names of their products but they quite often failed to produce adjectives derived from the proper names and nouns being afraid that this may change significantly the audio and visual appearance of brand names which is important for marketing and advertising purposes, as, for example ‘Big Mac sauce’ or ‘Big Mac menu’. It was not enough to translate the name of the product but it became important to localise the proper names of new products for local consumers. At initial stages these innovations have been only reserved to proper foreign names when they were combined with Ukrainian or already existing in the language nouns.

Further rapid introduction of new borrowed lexical items and ideas from other cultures and languages due to the globalisation process required new language means to absorb these new phrases. For example, Noun+Noun constructions have begun to spread gradually in the Ukrainian language, especially in media and advertising where texts were often translated from English. There are still, however, various approaches in the presentation of Noun+Noun constructions in Ukrainian: they can be written either with a hyphen or as two separate words. Even in the same newspaper we came across Noun+Noun constructions written in two different ways.

We have analysed the use of the word ‘marketing’ in the Ukrainian daily Den1, where both variants of presentation were used, e.g. hyphenated phrases like ‘marketing-plan’, ‘internet-marketing’, ‘marketing-director’, ‘marketing-programme’, as well as non-hyphenated ‘marketing project’, ‘marketing plan’. The growing tendency to use nouns in the function of a modifier is not limited to lexical item ‘marketing’. In our research we came across other nouns used in the function of a modifier, for example ‘fashion’: ‘fashion-industry’, ‘fashion-business’ and many others. Around 90% of all Noun+Noun constructions we have analysed in our research were hyphenated which confirms with our initial hypothesis that this process is currently at initial stages due to existing language norms described above in the analysis of lexical unit kutyu-kompaniya. Both translators and language specialists in Ukraine will be able to select and eventually adopt the preferred variant for graphic presenta-

1 http://www.day.kiev.ua/
tion of Noun+Noun constructions in the future. Future researches will aim to see how this tendency has developed after the events in 2013/14 and Ukraine joining the association agreement with the EU.

The data we have collected demonstrate that there are currently three possible ways of expressing Noun+Noun constructions which have been borrowed by the Ukrainian media, e.g. the English phrase marketing proekt ‘marketing project’ can be translated into Ukrainian and graphically presented as:

1. ‘marketing-project’ – hyphenated Noun+Noun construction;
2. ‘marketing project’ – non-hyphenated Noun+Noun construction;
3. ‘marketing project’ – Adjective+Noun construction.

These examples show that all three patterns coexist in the language of the media and have become productive models in the formation of borrowed items, especially 1 and 3. One of the reasons for using more Noun+Noun constructions have been the impact of the English language when various new approaches, technologies, services and products were brought into the country and the language had to adopt swiftly new concepts and ideas.

By actively using the structures of the language of origin in the target language it makes the process of transfer less complicated and more transparent. At the same time, Adj.+Noun constructions have remained the dominant approach in the formation of new word combinations due to existing patterns of the language, e.g. marketynhove prosuvannya ‘marketing promotion’, marketynhovi doslidzhennya ‘marketing research’, marketynhovyj instytut ‘marketing institute’.

New borrowed nouns have derivational capabilities and almost always form adjectives even in those cases when Ukrainian equivalents already exist in the language, for example: internet > internetnyj ‘Internet’: internetnyj druh ‘Internet friend’, internetna versiya ‘Internet version’, internetna entsyklopediya ‘Internet encyclopedia’; provajder > provajders’kyj ‘provider’: provajders’ka kompaniya ‘company provider’, provajders’ka posluha ‘company service’, provajders’ka asotsiatsiya ‘association of providers’; drajv > drajvovyj (from the English noun ‘drive’) although it is used in the meaning of ‘impressive, energetic, appealing’: drajvovyj kontsert ‘impressive concert’, drajvova hra ‘impressive/energetic performance’, drajvova robota ‘impressive/appealing work’. The last example demonstrates partial transfer of the original semantic field in the target language when only one meaning was transferred from English.

The growing derivational capabilities of borrowed lexical items in the Ukrainian language and gradual expansion of their semantic fields reflect the increasing involvement of Ukraine and its people in the globalisation process.
Noun+Noun constructions is not a unique feature which can be observed in the Ukrainian language. Researchers in the Czech Republic and Poland identified similar processes in their languages. Srpova provided explicit examples of loan nouns which could be used in adjectival function in Czech, e.g. *last minute zájezd* ‘last minute trip’, *business třída* ‘business class’ (2008: 72). At the same time Mańczak-Wohlfeld analyses these new structures in Polish as ‘noun+noun compounds’ which were “unknown type of constructions in Polish, e.g. *flz shop* ‘tile shop’, *auto lakiernia* ‘car vanish’, *auto złom* ‘car scrap’” (2008: 96).

3. **Europeanisation of languages, the case of Ukrainian**

Globalisation of cultures has often been associated with internationalisation or Americanisation. When we assess the linguistic background of the process, it is usually the English language which has become “the associated language of economic globalisation because the source of the paradigm was the United States. However, even where global economic activity is not connected with the United States, contact across linguistic borders is still likely to be in English” (Wright, 2004: 147). In view of this, the notions of Americanisation and the influence of English as a language of wider or global communication are often mixed. For our research purpose, it is important to establish that globalisation is used as an umbrella term which overlaps internationalisation, Americanisation or the global influence of the English language, as well as Westernisation. We claim that there is another globalisation tendency, at least in Europe, which may be called Europeanisation of cultures and languages.

The concept of Europeanisation has been studied in relation to changes in politics, fundamental principles of liberal democracy, economy, infrastructure, legal systems, education and in many other spheres. We will attempt to look into what impact Europeanisation has made on languages and provide some examples. There are various definitions of Europeanisation especially when referred to spheres mentioned above but in general terms we can adopt a very brief definition given by Maarten Vink as “domestic change caused by European integration” (2002: 1). Europeanisation is often considered in relation to three main areas: legal obligations mostly in political and economic spheres, “objective changes in economic structures and in the interests of individuals as a result of” European integration and finally “subjective changes in the beliefs, expectations and identity of the individual” (Emerson & Noutcheva, 2004: 6). These three main areas have a significant impact on discourse and eventually produce changes in languages and corpora. The European aspect should be considered in respect of a wide range of processes, institutions and fields and
includes the impact on languages and their corpora in particular. This process usually goes beyond the geographical borders of the European Union.

The impact of Europeanisation on the Ukrainian language is considered in this research. With the growing influence of the European Union and Europe as a whole, we have witnessed the growing pro-European feelings in many East European countries and the desire for evroinTEGRATSIYa ‘euro-integration’. We also observe Europeanisation of the Ukrainian culture and language influenced by the aspirations of both the elite and a considerable section of the population of the country to be part of Europe where English is often used as a lingua franca and dominates in meetings and written communication (Truchot, 2003).

The European influence can be traced in Ukrainian in both spoken, everyday language and in more technical terminology borrowed directly from various European institutions, legal instruments of the EU, new legal documents and directives, PR and promotion discourses, customer services and many other areas where we observe the growing influence of the EU and its institutions. Translators tend to use two major approaches in the formation of new lexical items in Ukrainian brought from various European institutions: 1) transliterated borrowings without any significant changes and 2) translation of terminology using existing lexical means in the language. In both cases the original semantic field of a lexical unit is preserved in Ukrainian. For example, new terminology coined in the EU institutions is usually transliterated, for example: subsidiarity > subsyDIARNIST’ as in ‘principles of subsidiarity’, harmonisation > harmonizatsiya as in ‘harmonisation of social systems’, Directorate General > Heneral’nyj dyrektorat as in ‘General Directorate 1 – Registry’.

Many European abbreviations also undergo transliteration in the Ukrainian language, preserving the structure of original French abbreviations, as in the following example:

Fr: Comité des représentants permanents (Coreper);
En: Permanent Representatives Committee (Coreper);
Ukr: Komitet postiynych predstavnykiv (Coreper).

This approach which aims at the preservation of original abbreviations in all languages enables the users to communicate effectively and avoid misunderstandings when referring to, for example, various EU institutions or other organisations. Directorate-General for Translation of the European Commission has been involved in the codification and modernisation of terminology in all languages of the EU. The principles and approaches developed in Brussels are often transferred to EU and other non-EU languages.

The majority of EU terminology is usually translated in the Ukrainian language using existing lexical items, e.g. co-responsibility > spil’na
vidpovidal’nist’, common economic area > spil’nyj (edynyj) ekonomichnyj prostir, production target price > kontrol’na tsina vyrobnytstva. This approach is based on established lexical items in Ukrainian which have been used in relation to other international organisations or processes within the country. All language specialists need to monitor closely the EU terminology in order to maintain consistency and avoid misunderstandings in communication.

The spoken, everyday Ukrainian has seen an increased use and productivity of the component evro ‘euro’. In our research we analysed many examples with this component in the present-day Ukrainian media: evroremont ‘lit.: euro-refurbishment’, evroservis ‘euro-service’, evrovalyuta ‘euro-currency’, evroshyna ‘euro-tyre’, evrodosvid ‘euro-experience’, evroviza ‘euro-visa’ and many others which so far have not been registered in Ukrainian dictionaries (Kochan, 2004: 52). The most frequent and perhaps one of the most established terms has been evroremont ‘euro-refurbishment’, ‘euro-repairs’, or ‘euro-decoration’. Literal translation of the term into English does not mean much to an English speaking audience, and translators or interpreters have to resort to describing or explaining the term in the target language as, for example ‘high quality refurbishment’. However, for a Ukrainian speaker the term describes ‘a complete refurbishment of the property using the best construction materials, equipment and the latest technologies’ and is often associated with double-glazing, new plumbing and possibly installation of individual gas/electric central heating system.

The term evroremont ‘euro-refurbishment’ has eventually acquired a wider use in the present-day Ukrainian media and is often used metaphorically to express significant changes in almost all spheres of life, for example:

Kabinet bez evroremontu. (7/10/2005 Dzerkalo tyzhnya)²
Lit: The cabinet without euro-refurbishment.
Proposed translation: No major changes in the government.

Akademiya v ochikuvanni evroremontu? (19/05/2006 Dzerkalo tyzhnya)³
Lit: Is the Academy expecting a euro-refurbishment?
Proposed translation: Does the Academy expect drastic changes?

This lexical item can be found in combination with geographical names, such as towns and cities, and even schools and hospitals, for example vseukrayins’kyj evroremont ‘all-Ukrainian euro-refurbishment’, evroremont po-ternopil’kyj ‘euro-refurbishment Ternopil style’, evroremont shkoly ‘school euro-refurbishment’, evroremont mista ‘town euro-refurbishment’.

² http://www.dt.ua/search/?ChosenDay=10&ChosenMonth=10&ChosenYear=2005
³ http://www.dt.ua/search/?ChosenDay=19&ChosenMonth=5&ChosenYear=2006
The lexical item evroremont and other derivatives with the ‘euro’ component are often used in combination with adjectives expressing positive connotation such as bahatyj ‘rich’, feshenebel’nyj ‘luxury’, krytyj (slang) ‘rich and daring’, dushevnyj ‘pleasant; close to one’s heart’, blyskuchyj ‘brilliant’, ekolohichnyj ‘ecological’, rishuchyj ‘decisive’. However, there are cases when adjectives with negative connotations are used as well, such as vul’harnyj ‘vulgar’, nedoroblenyj ‘unfinished’.

The component evro ‘euro’ has been used productively in forming new items such as evro-viddilennya lit. ‘euro-ward’ in hospitals when users want to describe a luxury ward or evrostandarty lit. ‘euro-standards’ in describing high standards. This semantic development of the word evroremont in underlying the highest quality of refurbishment has been eventually transferred in semantic fields of other lexical items with the ‘euro’ component, for example evroservis lit. ‘euro-service’, evrostandart ‘euro-standard’ and evroshyna ‘euro-tyre’, whereas євродосвід ‘euro-experience’ or ‘European experience’ has literal meaning in Ukrainian with an additional positive connotation.

At the same time, terms like evrovalyuta ‘euro-currency’ or ‘European currency’, evrofederalizm ‘euro-federalism’, evro-karta ‘euro-card’ and evroviza ‘euro-visa’ or ‘European visa’ have retained the original meaning of the component ‘euro’ as ‘belonging to Europe’. They may appear in texts either as they are spelled in English or transliterated in Ukrainian.

‘Euro’ has become one of the most productive components in the formation of new lexical items in combination with Ukrainian and already established international words in the language. Such acceptance of the component by its users allowed further new borrowings from English with the ‘euro’ component: evro-foby ‘euro-phobes’; evrotresh ‘Euro-trash’. In the latter example one can trace the influence of the British culture and specifically the programme on British television which approached various items of the European culture with some humour.

4. Conclusions

Translating between languages in the East and West has not become easier in view of foreignisation, the flood of borrowings and innovations brought into languages due to a series of reasons discussed in this paper. On the contrary, because the norms in many languages have become eroded by a significant influx of new linguistic means which are not readily accepted and adopted in the target language, the work of translators and interpreters has become even more challenging in achieving the right balance of faithfulness and acceptability by the target audience.
Translators and interpreters are not idle bystanders in the process of language planning. On one hand, they often contribute to the creation of new means and, on the other hand, they often find themselves engulfed in the constant flow of linguistic innovations. This does not lead to the simplification of semantic disambiguation in the process of translating since new borrowed items may either alter the original meaning of the source language or be used in only one specific meaning in the target language, while other meanings may be covered by native or other already established borrowed lexical items. The issues related to semantic disambiguation are particularly important to language and translation/interpreting training since trainers need to encourage their trainees to analyse the context in which a particular lexical item was used rather than relying on an automatic association of words or phrases of the source language with another word or phrase in the target language based solely on dictionary definitions. Language specialists and trainees find that due to rapid developments in languages, many borrowed lexical items analysed in our present research have not been registered in dictionaries. Translators and interpreters need to develop and update their own vocabularies based on examples from source and target texts.

The expanding use of Noun+Noun constructions in some Slavonic languages opened new possibilities for expressing a wide range of meanings and creating phrases in a less complicated and more transparent way without resorting to the transformation of modifying nouns into adjectives and agreeing them in grammatical gender and number with the modified nouns.

In our analysis globalisation is not considered as a straightforward process. It consists of various strands, for example Americanisation, Westernisation and Europeanisation. More specifically, we analysed the impact of the process of Europeanisation on corpus planning in languages and provided specific examples from Ukrainian media.

In most cases the practical input of translators and interpreters in shaping new linguistic items enables them to bridge the gap between East and West in developing new approaches and formulating new ways of expression. The creative role of translators/interpreters in our globalising world lies in the development and modernisation of languages and linguistic norms which allow effective communication between speakers belonging to various cultures. At the same time, translators and interpreters take into account “the range and knowledge available to his/her target ‘audiences and the expectations they are likely to have’ about such things as the organisation of world, the organisation of language in general, the organisation and conventions of particular text types” (Baker, 1992: 222).
BIBLIOGRAPHIE


