

ŠIAULIAI UNIVERSITY  
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

JURGITA BERNOTAITĖ

# Translating the Infinitive and Infinitival Constructions

MASTER THESIS

Research Advisor: Assist. Dalia Roikienė  
Consultant: Assoc. Prof. Česys Grenda

Šiauliai, 2005

ŠIAULIŲ UNIVERSITETAS  
HUMANITARINIS FAKULTETAS  
ANGLŲ FILOLOGIJOS KATEDRA

JURGITA BERNOTAITĖ

# Bendraties ir jos konstrukcijų vertimas

MAGISTRO DARBAS

Vadovas: asist. Dalia Roikienė  
Konsultantas: doc. dr. Česys Grenda

Šiauliai, 2005

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## INTRODUCTION

In the process of such a rapid exchange of information and for the purpose of improving cultural contacts, one thing is inevitable, and that is translating. Therefore, 'once perceived as a marginal activity, today translation began to be seen as a fundamental act of human exchange ... thus, interest in the field has never been stronger and the study of translation is taking place alongside an increase in its practice all over the world' (Bassnett, 2003:1). Furthermore, translation is also a subject of great interest to linguists, who approached it from different points of view, but one thing which is reflected in their approaches is obvious – they all equally agree that translation is a complicated phenomenon involving linguistic, psychological, cultural, literary and other factors.

According to Harmer (1993), people who learn languages encounter a number of problems, especially with the grammar of the language which can be complicated and which can appear confusing. For many centuries grammarians have tried to discern a basic grammatical system that would be valid for all languages at all times. Unfortunately, this search for a universal grammar has proved futile. There is a great variety of grammatical categories which may or may not be expressed in different languages. Kufner (1963) proved that each language has evolved its own grammatical system and this system serves the needs of this particular language.

Armalytė and Pažūsis (1990) claim that translation from one language into another is impossible without distinct changes, known as grammatical transformations. Catford (1965) defines those transformations as 'shifts', saying that these are translation procedures involving a change in the grammar from the source language into the target language. In fact, in the theory of translation, grammatical transformations are inseparable from lexical transformations and are sometimes referred to as lexico-grammatical ones. Nevertheless, Barkhudarov (1975) emphasizes, that it would be reasonable to analyse them apart from lexical constructions, because grammatical choices are largely obligatory, while lexical choices are comparatively optional.

Even though grammatical categories might seem to be identical in both languages, however, they differ in their functions and the extent of lexical items. Thus, translators frequently face a dilemma: on the one hand the lack of grammatical device in a given language makes the translation a sophisticated matter; on the other hand, a translator can always employ different strategies of using parallel forms and various transformations.

The difficulties that translators might encounter while rendering the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian, could be the fact that the infinitive has

different forms and functions in a sentence. Therefore, a keen awareness of the varieties of the infinitive forms and infinitival constructions, as well as their functions, and their translation into Lithuanian are important not only for language learners but for anyone who teaches foreign languages or is involved in producing teaching materials or reference books for learners. What is more, it is important for the translators to be circumspect in the process of translation and avoid violating the norms of the target language. Hence, the necessity to investigate the above mentioned phenomenon is evident, that is why it has been chosen as the subject of our work.

The issue of translating the English infinitive and infinitival constructions has been discussed by both, foreign (Gouskova, Zrazhevskaya, 1986; Guzejeva, Troško, 1992; Komissarov, Koralova, 1990, Mensching, 2000; Nasu, 2002) and by Lithuanian authors (Pažūsis, Rosinienė, Žemaitienė, 1993; Mažeikienė, 2000; Tekorienė, 1977) in various aspects and in various contexts. However, it must be admitted that the phenomenon of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian has not been given a thorough academic approach and therefore needs further investigation.

The **object** of this research is the phenomenon of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

The **aim** of this study is to investigate the ways the infinitive and infinitival constructions are rendered from English into Lithuanian and to discuss what changes/or similarities they undergo in the process of translation.

To achieve this aim the following **objectives** have been set:

1. To review the main differences in the grammatical systems of the two languages put under investigation and discuss the ways grammatical meanings are rendered from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL).
2. To provide a brief literal review of the infinitive and infinitival constructions.
3. To analyse the ways the infinitive and infinitival constructions are rendered from English into Lithuanian and illustrate them by the selected examples from fiction.

The **novelty** of the present work is a detailed analysis of the phenomenon of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

The **practical value** of the present research is a thorough presentation of the ways the English infinitive and infinitival constructions are rendered into Lithuanian in the process of translation. We presume that our research and the data collected for it might be useful for students conducting their research in comparative linguistics or translation, as well as for foreign language learners/teachers and translators.

The **hypothesis** of the research is as follows: both, English and Lithuanian verbs have their infinitive forms. The analogy, however, does not preclude a number of formal and functional differences that must be taken into account in the process of translation.

The present research employs the following **research methods**:

1. Linguistic – theoretical literature analysis provided a possibility to review numerous issues concerning translation theory and to perceive the significance of the application of various translation techniques.

2. Contrastive linguistic analysis has proved its usefulness in studying and comparing different language structures.

The work includes an introduction, four parts, conclusions, a list of abbreviations, references and a summary. The introduction is intended to present a concise description of our research. *The first part* of our study provides some ideas on the interrelation between contrastive linguistics and translation, the necessity/or irrelevance of translation theory and its pertinence to translation practice. The readers are also introduced to the main difficulties translators might encounter while rendering grammatical meanings from the source language into the target language. *The second part* focuses its attention on the examination of the phenomenon of the infinitive and infinitival constructions, providing the reader with a sufficient theory analysis and examples. *The third part* contains information concerning the ways of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian. *In the fourth part* the results of translation experiment are discussed. This is done in order to provide evidence that due to the differences existing in the systems of two languages, there may occur translation mistakes that could violate the target language norms. Finally, in the next section we draw conclusions. All the references and sources are listed in the alphabetical order. A brief summary of the research is presented at the end of the work.

The corpus of the English infinitive and infinitival constructions and their translation into Lithuanian is 757. The presented examples in the study have been selected from the world known fiction pieces: London, J. “The Sea Wolf”, Fitzgerald, F. S. “The Great Gatsby”, Galsworthy, J. “The Forsyte Saga” and their translations into Lithuanian. In addition to this, we have also provided several figures and tables in order to make the apprehension of the described phenomenon utterly clear.

An overview of literature on the translation of the infinitive and infinitival constructions as well as the research results, were presented at the students’ conference at Šiauliai University in March 2005.

## 1. CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION

'Language is an essentially perfect means of expression and communication among every known people' (Sapir, 1964:1), or as Olsson (1961:16) observes, 'it is one of the many manifestations of human life'. However, different communities use different languages and so have different linguistic means with which to give form to their emotions and thoughts. Therefore, according to Pravackaitė and Sakalauskienė (2002), seeking to understand each other and to be able to analyse the similarities and differences of the languages compared, we may employ a study, called contrastive linguistics. Hoeye and Houghton (2001:45) claim that 'the study of two languages in contrast has been referred to by a variety of names'. One can find the following terms used: contrastive studies, contrastive linguistics, contrastive analysis and others. According to Stankevičienė (2002), the latter terms are used interchangeably.

Generally speaking, people have been interested in their languages since very ancient times. As one of the most remarkable, complex, and familiar of human attainments, language has excited their curiosity. Thus, it is obvious that the roots of serious language study lie deep in the past.

According to Krzeszowski (1990), contrastive linguistics focuses on pairs of languages and explores similarities as well as differences between them. It has a very long history, for grammarians quite early became interested in discovering what various languages have in common, in the belief that making such similarities explicit for the learner may facilitate the process of foreign language learning. Malmkjær (2004) points out, that one of the aims of contrastive linguistics is to compare the grammatical systems of languages with a view to predicting difficulties which might face native speakers of one language trying to learn another.

Concerning contrastive linguistics and translation, it must be mentioned that some scientists argue about the interrelation between the two disciplines and there is felt a kind of contraposition about the matter. For example, Bell (1994) suggests that translation seems to be permeated by misunderstanding on both sides, linguists tending to misconstrue the objectives and methods of translation theory and translation theorists to demonstrate a far from adequate grasp of the principles of linguistics and its methods of investigation. Generally speaking, the relationship between translation and linguistics has never been easy. If we take a brief turn back into the past, we will see that in the late 1970s, translation began to be taken seriously, and was no longer seen as an unscientific field of enquiry of secondary importance. Hence, in the early years, when translation studies were establishing, its advocates positioned themselves against both, linguists and literary scholars. They argued, that linguists failed to take into account broader contextual dimensions and that literary scholars were obsessed with making pointless

evaluative judgements. Besides, 'translation studies have even suggested that comparative linguistics be considered a branch of translation studies, and not the other way round' (Hatim, 2001:9). In one way or another, we must admit that today translation studies are better able to engage in borrowing from and lending techniques and methods to other disciplines. Moreover, the important work of translation scholars based in linguistics has done a great deal to break down the boundaries between the disciplines and to move translation studies on from a position of possible confrontation. Thus, once seen as a sub-branch of linguistics, translation today is perceived as an interdisciplinary field of study. What is more, many outstanding linguists, and among them Catford (1965), claim that any theory of translation must draw upon a theory of language – a general linguistic theory. Snell–Hornby (1995) also speaks about the interrelation between the two disciplines and notes that insights into the language systems – as provided by contrastive linguistics – could provide a valuable reference for translator in constructing his text. One more outstanding linguist, such as Baker (1999:4), states that linguistics should have a great deal to offer to 'the budding discipline of translation studies'. It can certainly offer translators valuable insights into the nature and function of language.

It must be observed, that comparing and contrasting two or more languages at various levels of linguistic description has interacted with translation studies in two basic ways. Firstly, according to Nida (1964), it has provided explanations for and solutions to problems, encountered in translation practice, and secondly, says James (1980), it has in turn received from translation a range of theoretical and practical insights, as well as actual data and specific information. Consequently, it would be unreasonable to deny the interrelation between the latter disciplines.

As it was already mentioned, contrastive analysis is regarded as a milestone in translation theory and practice. It helps to reveal similar and different features of language systems on the whole and their constituent elements in particular. Due to this fact, it becomes possible to confront particular components of the original and its translation, to clarify translation mistakes and their sources, and to find their appropriate equivalents in the target language. Thus, it is obvious that the elucidations of non-equivalence between the languages under investigation are of paramount importance in translation studies. Such an approach could be justified by the fact that the cases of non-equivalence violate the inner system of any natural language and that is what any translator seeks to avoid. In the translation process, the translator has to communicate a message which he himself has to understand first; therefore he must have a feeling for language, linguistic knowledge, grammatical skill, language creativity, intuition, analytical skills, experience and method. Hence, many works on translation highlight that translators must perfectly master both languages and be well aware of all the possible differences between the



systems of those languages in order not to violate their norms. To achieve the best results while rendering the source text into the target language, and to facilitate the very process of translation, some translation theorists argue about the necessity of translation theory. Practitioners, on the other hand, claim that translation actions are rather intuitive, and one does not need any theories. A brief introduction on the ideas about translation theory and practice will be presented in the next chapter of our study.

### **1.1. Translation Theory vs. Translation Practice**

‘Translators through ages have looked upon their job as one that can be both, extremely rewarding and disparagingly frustrating’ (Neubert, 1985:7). Over the centuries, scholars have tried time and again to define or settle what translation is. Is it rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text? Is it some kind of science, pure or applied, prescriptive or descriptive, or is it a practical art or craft? Does it depend on some theory of similarities and contrasts between languages? These are just several questions from many more that, perhaps, bother all language learners and translators. Some of them are more difficult to answer than others. In one way or another, the voluminous literature on translation proves that the term really lacks a generally agreed definition. What is more, some linguists even claim, that although much is being written by professional translators about many aspects of translation, no satisfactory general theory of translation exists capable of explaining the baffling but daily experience of professional translators whereby you can take an idea conveyed by words in a given language and express it in another language. The first serious attempts to formulate a theory of translation were made in the fifteenth century by a French humanist Etienne Dolet. He published a short outline of translation principles, entitled *La manière de bien traduire d’une langue en autre* (How to Translate well from one Language into Another) (as cited in Bassnett, 2003:58). In his book he established five principles for the translator:

- (1) The translator must fully understand the sense and meaning of the original author, although he is at liberty to clarify obscurities.
- (2) The translator should have a perfect knowledge of both source language and target language.
- (3) The translator should avoid word-for-word renderings.
- (4) The translator should use forms of speech in common use.
- (5) The translator should choose and order words appropriately to produce the correct tone.

Current translation theories cover many areas and many translation theorists are trying to develop their own translation theories, which consequently results in confusion and righteous indignation with translation practitioners. According to Nida (2001), the lack of a fully acceptable theory of translation should not come as a surprise. Since translating is essentially a very complex phenomenon, the insights concerning this interlingual activity are derived from a number of different disciplines, such as, linguistics, psychology, sociology, communication theory, literary criticism, semiotics, etc. The fact that there is no generally accepted theory for any one of these disciplines, should be a sufficient reason to realise that 'there is nothing basically inadequate about translating simply because those who translate cannot explain by means of a comprehensive theory precisely why they do what they do' (Nida, 2001:114). Besides, according to Baker (1999), translation is a very young discipline in academic terms. It is only just starting to feature as a subject of study in its own right. A famous linguist Shveitser (2004) also states that translation theory is subdivided into general theory, the one that deals with the general characteristics of translation, regardless of its type, and special branches, concerned with a theoretical description and analysis of the various types of translation, such as the translation of fiction, poetry, technical and scientific literature, official documents, etc.

Common sense tells us that translation ought to be simple, as one ought to be able to say something as well in one language as in another. On the other hand, translation is a rather complicated process, facing many opposing forces. Thus, a translator, perhaps more than any other practitioner of a profession, is constantly faced with choices. And in doing so, a translator according to Newmark (1998), is intuitively or consciously following a theory of translation. However, at this point the views of different linguists part, because to translate is one thing, while to say how we do it, is another. As it has been noted in the previous chapter, there is a confrontation between translation theorists, who believe that translation theory can help translators, and practitioners, who claim that all those theories are just a waste of time. The reasons for that lie deep in the past, because poets, scholars and men of letters, creators and critics, all of them producers and/or users of translation have never tired of propagating endless lists of rules or maxims about how or how not to translate. The sheer magnitude of the task of translation and the seemingly innumerable methods of approaching it has resulted in the deplorable situation that translators have freely contradicted one another about almost every aspect of their art. The thing is that the proponents of a theory go about their business of classifying and categorising with explicit disregard of the contradictory statements made by the practicing translators. Such an outstanding linguist as Baker (1999) states that translation is an art which requires aptitude, practice, and general knowledge – nothing more. Therefore, many professional translators argue vehemently that translation theory, and even any kind of formal

training, is a waste of time. The ability to translate is a gift they say - you either have it or do not, and theory is consequently irrelevant to the work of a translator.

We have noticed that many students find that theories are the least helpful as well, because as it was mentioned above, it is considered that the process and procedures in translating are basically skills, and not compilations of information. However, according to Shuttleworth (2001:499), 'there is of course the simple fact that some students will like to be told that there is one 'correct' solution to every problem and will be confused if they are presented with a range of possibilities each of which has a degree of validity'. Thus, it is evident that there is a clear gap between translation theory and practice. As Wagner (Chesterman and Wagner, 2002) points out, there can be few professions with such a yawning gap between theory and practice. Chesterman (1999) suggests that the reason for this gap between theory and practice is due to the stress given in much recent work to a descriptive approach, as opposed to a prescriptive one. Garre (1999) states, that the relationship between translation theory and practice is not always relevant. Theories can exist without being applicable and in practice translators can work without following specific theories. Notwithstanding the fact, many translators admit the necessity of such a theory, but do not agree on its aim. It has been thought for a long time, that the aim of translation theory was to state what translators should do. Today most modern translation theorists find this view very odd. To them it seems to represent an old-fashioned prescriptive approach, an approach which sets out to state what translators should do. That is why for several decades now, mainstream translation theory has tried to get away from this approach. It has been thought unscientific, unempirical, while it should seek to be descriptive, to describe, explain and understand what translators actually do, not stipulate what they ought to do. According to Chesterman (2000), 'descriptive scholars do not see it as part of their job to hand down useful guidelines; for them, professional translators and their products are the *object* of research, that which is to be described and explained'. Most translators, on the other hand, would be happy 'to have some concrete advice and guidelines, even doctrines, as long as they are practical and realistic' (Chesterman and Wagner, 2002:4).

Consider our case with the infinitive and infinitival constructions. Perhaps, it would be quite easy to render them into Lithuanian if we had concrete rules how to do that. Translators could look at some references and find out how to translate, for example, the three types of infinitival constructions, in order not to violate the norms of their mother tongue. On the other hand, according to Roberts (1988:171), 'each new text to be translated has its own set of traps and the solutions are not necessarily the same as those used in the previous translation'. Thus, to define what is it to translate or to tell somebody else how to do it requires a lot of knowledge about this process. However, this does not mean that a detailed and comprehensive study of

what translators actually do is irrelevant. On the contrary, such scientific studies are extremely important and could help a great deal to language learners and translators, because translation theory involves the general principles that organise the procedure and explains the mental process enabling the transfer of text content from one language into another. It also covers the most important issues raised in the field of translation, such as fidelity, the problem of translatability, the relationship between the translation and proximate disciplines. Thus, to sum up, it must be said that translation theory is the body of knowledge that we have about translating, extending from general principles to guidelines, suggestions and hints, only it should be presented in an understandable language and carefully integrated into creative process. As Larson (1991:1) puts it, ‘good theory is based on information gained from practice and good practice is based on carefully worked-out theory’. The two are interdependent. Besides, every practitioner and theoretician should be aware of the fact that the process of translating from one language into another could only partly be captured by precise, fixed rules.

In the next chapter we will take a brief look at the variety of grammatical categories which may or may not be expressed in different languages and the way this area of language structure affects decisions in the course of translation.

## **1.2. Grammar and Translation**

*‘The background linguistic system (in other words, the grammar) of each language is not merely a reproducing instrument for voicing ideas but rather is itself the shaper of ideas, the program and guide for the individual’s mental activity, for his analysis of impressions, for his synthesis of his mental stock in trade’ Benjamin Lee Whorf (as cited in Carroll, 1956:212).*

It has been proved long time ago, that languages are different from each other; they are different in form having distinct codes and rules regulating the construction of grammatical stretches of language and these forms have different meanings. As over 60% of the world is bi- or multi-lingual, so translation is an everyday activity for many people, with extremely practical applications. One of the problems encountered in the process of translation is that of rendering grammatical meanings. It must be noted, that translators constantly face the problem of choice of the grammatical equivalent in the target language, which is predetermined by several factors, such as the meaning inherent in the grammatical form itself, the lexical character of the word or word-group used in this or that form, style and frequency of use.

As mentioned above, grammar is a basic part of any language system. All language is, by nature, structured: it would be hard to understand what people said or wrote if it were not. It follows then that ‘the structure of a language is supported by the existence of rules which allow

us to say whether something is acceptable or unacceptable within the structural framework of the language concerned' (Arndt, Harvey, Nuttall, 2000:47). However, a curious paradox exists in regard to grammar. On the one hand it is felt to be the dullest and driest of academic subjects, on the other, it is a subject upon which professional grammarians hold very dogmatic opinions and defend them with considerable emotion. Notwithstanding the fact, we must still admit that grammar is the skeleton of a text. It gives us the general and main facts about a text. Furthermore, it indicates who does what to whom, why, where, when, how, and reveals the relations between different parts of speech.

If people speak differently, this is due to the fact that they think differently and that is because 'their languages offer them different ways of expressing the world around them' (Kramersch, 2000:11). That is why somewhere in the development of Western culture grammar became a tool for teaching a foreign language. It was proved that grammatical forms of different languages only very seldom fully coincide as to the scope of their meaning and function. In translation, grammar often has 'the effect of a straitjacket, forcing the translator along a certain course which may or may not follow that of the source text as closely as the translator would like it to' (Baker, 1999:85). On the other hand, Newmark (1998) notes, that grammar is more versatile and flexible than lexis. It always has more alternative forms, therefore, one can render the sentence in many versions. Some linguists say that in many cases, equivalence in translation can be best achieved if the translator does not try to mirror the grammatical forms in the source text. Due to the many discrepancies between the meanings and structures of different languages, some of the scientists tend to insist that translating is impossible. Yet more and more translation is done and done well, because professional translators are well aware of the fact that choices in language can be expressed either grammatically or lexically, which depends on the type and range of linguistic resources available in a given language. The subject of the next chapter will be namely those choices in language and their expression.

### **1.2.1. Rendering Grammatical Meanings in the Process of Translation**

According to Gleason (1965), language is an important feature of human life. It is an intricate complex of patterns, controlling the forms of words, of sentences, and of whole discourses. All these patterns are hold together about a systematic core of patterns, the grammar of the language. Thus, the grammatical structure of the language is an important part of its overall system, no less important, in fact, than its lexicon or vocabulary. The elements of the grammatical structure, such as affixes, forms of inflection and derivation, syntactic patterns,

word order, functional words, etc. serve to carry meanings which are usually referred to as 'grammatical' or 'structural', as distinct from lexical meanings. The rendering of such meanings in the process of translation is an important problem relating to the general problem of translation equivalence.

For centuries people wrote grammars, and for centuries they were interested in the reasons and motives for the application of various transformations in the process of translation. Generally speaking, even the simplest, most basic requirement we make of translation cannot be met without difficulty. Sometimes it is difficult to match the content of a message in the source language by an expression with exactly the same content in the target language, because what can be expressed and what must be expressed is a property of a specific language in much the same way as *how* it can be expressed. The famous linguist Newmark (1998) admits that despite the disparities existing in the source language and the target language, a translator cannot afford the luxury of saying that something cannot be translated. He claims that everything without exception is translatable, though he admits that it may for various reasons not have the same impact as the original. Therefore, we can state that translation is a creative process of search and discovery, and that it takes much ingenuity and effort to apply the general principles of the translation theory to the practical problems.

Grammar is the set of rules which determine the way in which units such as words and phrases can be combined in a language. According to Newmark (1998), as translators, we are interested in grammar as a transmitter of meaning.

Long time ago it was believed that such notional categories as number, gender, and time must be common to all languages. However, it appeared later that those basic categories are not in fact universal and that languages differ in the range of notions they choose to make explicit on a regular basis.

It can be stated, that two languages can seldom fully coincide in their grammatical structure, for alongside with common grammatical traits they have a number of grammatical differences as well. As a rule, there is only partial equivalence, that is, grammatical meanings expressed by grammatical forms, though seemingly identical, of two different languages coincide only in part of their meaning and differ in other parts. Therefore, it is apparent, says Bell (1994:6), that 'the ideal of total equivalence is a chimera'. Languages are different from each other, so it is natural that in some cases there are no substitutes in the target language for the source language items.

The grammatical similarities between English and Lithuanian are interesting and significant. However, the differences also call for our attention, and therefore, must be accounted for. For example, the gender. In Old English nouns were divided into masculine,

feminine, and neuter. Formal, or grammatical, gender disappeared with the loss of inflections. The category of gender in Modern English is inherently semantic therefore, English nouns are not regularly inflected to distinguish between feminine and masculine. It follows, then, that many nouns in English are not marked and can be used as masculine or feminine depending on the context; for example, *teacher, lawyer, parent, singer*, etc. In some cases, however, there are certain indications and they are expressed by lexical means: *man – woman, actor – actress, boy-friend – girl-friend*, etc. Meanwhile in Lithuanian, each noun has either a feminine or a masculine gender: *mokytojas, mokytoja; advokatas, advokatė*, etc. Thus, in cases when in the English sentence there are no indications of gender, but they are to be necessarily expressed in the Lithuanian sentence, the translators, according to Armalytė and Pažūsis (1990), should refer to a wider context or situation. And if even after that the gender of the person does not become clear, the choice could then be predetermined by the translator's intuition.

A lack of equivalence in the English and Lithuanian systems can be also exemplified by the article, which is part of the English grammar and is absent in Lithuanian. It is a structural word used as a determiner of the noun. 'The category of definiteness and indefiniteness in Lithuanian is expressed by word order and various restrictors (pronouns and quantifiers)' (Paulauskienė and Valeika, 1994:33). In Lithuanian, nouns occurring in initial position are usually conceived to be definite and nouns occurring in final position – indefinite. For example:

„*Knyga yra ant stalo.*” ‘*The book is on the table.*’

„*Ant stalo yra knyga.*” ‘*There is a book on the table.*’

Thus, one of the possible solutions to the problem could be to render the articles with the help of lexical means. Cf. *At last the day came. Galų gale atėjo lauktoji diena.* In the latter case *the day* is rendered into Lithuanian with the help of pronominal form, i.e., *lauktoji diena*.

Considering the category of number, we know that both, English and Lithuanian nouns have the category of number, i.e., singular and plural. It must be admitted that the category seems to coincide in both languages and, indeed, does coincide in very many cases of their use; cf. *table – stalas, tables – stalai*, etc. However, there are many instances where this is not the case, in other words, where an English plural form is rendered through a Lithuanian singular form and vice versa; this is especially common among the so-called Singularia and Pluralia Tantum, that is, those nouns that have only a Singular or a Plural form, whose distribution is often arbitrary and motivated only historically. Compare: *door – durys, year – metai, hair – plaukai, furniture – baldai, contents – turinys, troops – kariuomenė, spirits – nuotaika*, etc.

The differences between the two languages become even more obvious when we face the difficulty in finding the direct equivalent considering the category of tenses. For example, the verb in the Lithuanian language has got two forms of the past tense, i.e., the Simple Past Tense

and the Frequentative Past Tense. There are no such morphological forms of the verb in the respective system of the English language. However, according to Armalytė and Pažūsis (1990), this should not bring much confusion among translators. The Lithuanian sentence „*Jis kartais verkdamo*” would be translated into English as follows: *He used to cry sometimes*. As you can see from the example, in Lithuanian, the repetitious action is expressed by the formant – *dam* – (*eidamo, dainuodamo*), while in English it is/would be rendered by the construction *used to + infinitive, would + infinitive*.

Furthermore, the object of our study is the infinitive and infinitival constructions, which also belong to the same group of grammatical meanings and, therefore, cause some difficulties for the translators. It is evident, that both English and Lithuanian verbs have their non-finite forms, referred to as the infinitive. Notwithstanding this fact, according to Pravackaitė and Sakalauskienė (2002), they do not fully coincide, not to mention about their rendering from one language into another. More information on the phenomenon will be provided in the following sections of the research.

Considering the discrepancies that exist between English and Lithuanian, as well as between other languages, it follows then that there are no permanent grammatical equivalents and ‘the translator can choose between the parallel forms and various grammatical transformations’ (Komissarov, Korolova, 1990:98). He may opt for the latter for there is never an absolute identity between the meaning and usage of the parallel forms in the source language and the target language.

Thus, summarising all the above mentioned facts, it must be borne in mind that the content, which is expressed grammatically in one language may be expressed lexically in another language. If no grammatical forms are available in the target language, the translator must look for lexical means to render the same semantic content.

A brief review of the phenomenon of the infinitive, both in English and Lithuanian, will be provided in the next section.



## 2. THE PHENOMENON OF THE INFINITIVE

Historically the infinitive is a verbal noun. Hence it has double nature: it combines the features of the verb with those of the noun. According to Valeika and Buitkienė (2003), it is the form of the verb which expresses a process in general, i.e. a process that is not restricted by person, number, tense, and mood. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics gives the following definition of the infinitive: ‘it is a non-finite form of a verb characteristically used in clauses and in other constructions subordinate to another verb’ (Matthews, 1997:178). It denotes an action and is the most verbal of all the non-finite forms of the verb.

As the aim of the present research is to deal with the English infinitive and infinitival constructions and their Lithuanian equivalents, it would be reasonable to provide the Lithuanian definition of the infinitive as well. Thus, Paulauskienė and Valeika (1994:77) define the infinitive in the following way: ‘the infinitive is the form of the verb which expresses existence, process or action without reference to person, number or tense’. „Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos gramatika“ (1994:383) provides the following definition of the infinitive: ‘it is a non-finite form of the verb which expresses action without reference to tense, voice, person and number’. Having compared the above presented definitions, we can trace many common features of the phenomenon. However, there are some differences as well and they should be taken into account. For example, Lithuanian is an inflective language, therefore the ending of the Lithuanian infinitive is *-ti*. According to Paulauskienė (1971), there are two forms of the infinitive used in standard Lithuanian (both in spoken and written): *-ti*, and *-t*, for example, *eiti/eit*, *nešti/nešt*. Still, it must be mentioned that the ending *-ti* is more frequent in written language, while *-t* is more often used in spoken Lithuanian. Apart from those two endings, the Lithuanian infinitive may also have a reflexive form. It is formed with the help of formative *-s(i)*, for example: *sukti/sukti-s*, *prausti/prausti-s* (Lietuvių kalbos gramatika, 1971:398). Meanwhile the English infinitive has two presentation forms: *marked* and *unmarked*. The marked infinitive is distinguished by the grammatical word-morpheme *to*, historically a preposition. It is an analytic grammatical form. The other form of the infinitive is unmarked and is usually called *the bare infinitive*. In addition to the simple form, the infinitive has also analytical forms. Thus, we can claim that formally the English infinitive is much more complicated than the Lithuanian one. It has even six ‘morphological forms’ (Tekorienė, 1977:45). The latter will be discussed in the next part of the research.

## 2.1. Forms of the Infinitive

Because of its general process meaning, the infinitive is treated as the head form of the whole paradigm of the verb. Thus, we derive the majority of forms of the verb from the infinitive in English and a number of finite and non-finite forms of the verb in Lithuanian.

As it has been mentioned in the previous chapter, apart from its simple form, which is referred to as Present Infinitive, the English infinitive has also got analytical forms. Furthermore, the infinitive has also active and passive forms, but lacks the forms of person and number, that are characteristic of the finite forms. The forms of the English infinitive are summed up in the following table.

	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
<i>Present Infinitive</i>	<i>to ask</i>	<i>to be asked</i>
<i>Perfect Infinitive</i>	<i>to have asked</i>	<i>to have been asked</i>
<i>Continuous Infinitive</i>	<i>to be asking</i>	–
<i>Perfect Continuous Infinitive</i>	<i>to have been asking</i>	–

Table 1. Simple and analytical forms of the infinitive.

The Present Infinitive refers to the present or future:

*I am glad **to see** you.*

*I hope **to be accepted** for the position.*

The Perfect Infinitive refers to the past and shows that the action of the infinitive happened before the action of the verb:

*He claims **to have finished** the report.*

*The report seems **to have been finished**. (Passive).*

The Continuous Infinitive refers to an action happening at the time of speaking:

*She appears **to be studying** at the moment.*

*It's nice **to be sitting** here with you.*

The Perfect Continuous Infinitive refers to the past. It emphasises the duration of the action of the infinitive, which happened before the action of the verb:

*He appears **to have been waiting** a long time.*

*I'd like **to have been sitting** there when she walked in.*

It must be mentioned that some of the above presented forms of the infinitive in English are absent in the respective grammatical category in Lithuanian. For example, the idea of priority or non-performed action expressed by the Perfect Infinitive in English is not present in the meaning of the Lithuanian infinitive and has to be rendered in translation by some other means. Thus, translators have to employ a number of transformations in order to render those grammatical meanings from one language into another. However, we should consider the fact, that of all the forms of the infinitive, the most common are non-perfect non-passive forms. The principle is: the more simple the form is, the more common it is.

Having discussed in brief the phenomenon of the infinitive, both in English and Lithuanian, we can now summarise their similarities and differences and present them in the following table.

English infinitive	Lithuanian infinitive
1. It is the form of the verb which expresses a process in general, i.e. a process that is not restricted by person, number, tense, and mood.	1. It is the form of the verb which expresses existence, process or action without reference to person, number, tense and voice.
2. The English infinitive has two presentation forms: <i>marked (preceded by the unstressed particle <b>to</b>)</i> and <i>unmarked (bare infinitive)</i> .	2. There are two forms of the infinitive used in standard Lithuanian <i>-ti</i> , and <i>-t</i> ( <i>eiti/eit, nešti/nešt</i> ). The Lithuanian infinitive may also have a reflexive form ( <i>suktis, praustis</i> ).
3. It has active ( <i>to ask</i> ) and passive ( <i>to have been asked</i> ) forms.	3. The Lithuanian infinitive has no voice.
4. The infinitive has the following analytical forms: <i>Continuous Infinitive – to be asking;</i> <i>Perfect Infinitive – to have asked; Perfect Continuous Infinitive – to have been asking;</i> <i>Simple Passive – to be asked;</i> <i>Perfect Passive – to have been asked.</i>	4. -

Table 2. The similarities and differences of the infinitive in English and Lithuanian.

Let us now turn to the syntactic functions of the infinitive and infinitival constructions.

## 2.2. Syntactic Functions of the Infinitive and Infinitival Constructions

As it has already been stated, the infinitive combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun and, consequently, can perform the syntactic functions of both the noun and the verb. The latter feature is characteristic to the English as well as to the Lithuanian language. However, it must be noted that though the infinitive is characterised by almost identical functions in a sentence, still, some of its lexico-grammatical meanings are considerably broader in English than in Lithuanian. According to Grenda (2001), the Lithuanian infinitive may function as almost all parts of the sentence. Performing syntactic functions of the verb, the Lithuanian infinitive is used as the predicate of the sentence, while in the function of the noun it functions as the 'subject, object, attribute or an adverbial modifier' (Paulauskienė, 1971:135). Valeika and Buitkienė (2003) claim, that semantically and morphologically, the English infinitive is much more similar to the verb than to the noun. This is due to the fact that verbal features of the infinitive outweigh its nominal features.

Thus, it is evident that the infinitive may have purely verbal functions. This occurs in the following cases:

- a) it may occasionally, in certain sentence patterns, serve as the predicate of the sentence:

*Why **not go** with me (Conc.)?*

- b) in the absolute majority of English sentences the predicate is expressed by a finite verb. But the infinitive may serve to express a second action, accompanying the action expressed by the predicate verb:

*I woke **to find** Maud cooking a meal (= and found) (Lo 205).*

As a verb form, the infinitive may also have an object (*to write a letter to a friend*) and it may be defined by an adverb (*to run quickly*). Furthermore, in some of its functions, the infinitive is lexically dependent, which means that its use is required by quite definite verbs, nouns and adjectives. Besides, in some of the functions, it is also structurally dependent.

Concerning the Lithuanian language, it must be noted that 'having no forms of voice and tense, the infinitive usually adjoins finite verbs and other words functioning as the predicate of the sentence' (Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos gramatika, 1994:383). The infinitive is the most important and essential means in expressing an action with verbs that require additional information, i.e., verbs denoting the beginning or the ending of an action (*pradėti, imti, liautis*), wish, ability, need (*norėti, galėti, turėti, bandyti, mėginti*), etc. The infinitive also adjoins impersonal verbs, for example, *reikėti, tekti*, etc., neuter adjectives and other forms expressing

state. Hence, it is obvious that in some of its functions the infinitive, both in English and Lithuanian, is lexically and structurally dependent.

What reminds us of the noun is the syntax of the infinitive. Similar to the noun, the infinitive can be used as:

a) the subject

***To go on** like this was dangerous* (Gal).

***To be raised** above others would be undemocratic* (Conc.).

But 'it is more usual to place the pronoun *it* first, and move the infinitive or infinitive phrase to the end of the sentence' (Thomson and Martinet, 1990:213).

*It was necessary **to get** the new data* (Conc.).

*It seemed impossible **to save** money* (Conc.).

Concerning the Lithuanian language, the infinitive, according to Grenda (2001), may also function as the subject of the sentence.

***Važiuoti** buvo labai smagu* (DLKT).

*<...> **maudytis** vonioje tuo metu buvo madinga <...>* (Gol 56).

b) the infinitive may also have adjective functions and is then used in the function of an attribute:

*He was not a man **to do** rash things* (Conc.).

*Ha was touched by the man's desire **to help** him* (Conc.).

*<...> it afforded him pleasure **to continue** a member in the teeth of principles so opposed to his own* (Gal).

Although the infinitive mainly serves as an attribute to nouns proper, it is also freely used with certain noun equivalents, and therefore, can modify the indefinite pronouns *somebody*, *nobody*, *anybody*, etc., as well as the interrogative pronouns *what* and *who*.

*Have you got anything **to eat*** (Conc.)?

*"I haven't finished yet." "What is there **to finish**?"* (Conc.).

The infinitive is also freely combined with ordinal numerals and the substantivised adjective *the last*, which always have the function of the predicative in the sentence.

*He was always the first **to enter** the dining-room and the last **to leave** (Conc.).*

*The Latvian delegation was the first **to arrive** (Conc).*

*Your last letter **to reach** me was two months old <...> (Conc).*

The infinitive may also serve as an attribute to pronouns and pronominal expressions of quantity such as *much, little, enough*, etc.

*I thought you had quite enough **to do** looking after the house and so forth (Conc.).*

*You've got so much **to learn** (Conc.).*

The infinitive in the function of an attribute is characterised by specific meanings, which are determined by the relation between the head-word and the infinitive. These relations may be of two kinds:

1) the head-word may be either the subject or the object of the action expressed by the infinitive.

*He was not the man **to draw back** when his dignity was concerned (Conc.).*

*There was really nothing **to fear** (Conc.).*

2) the head-noun may be neither the subject nor the object of the action expressed by the infinitive as an attribute. In this case the infinitive serves to explain the meaning of its head noun and therefore, is lexically dependent.

*He had a keen desire **to learn** (Conc.).*

*He's given me permission **to talk** to you yourself (Conc.).*

According to Grenda (2001), the Lithuanian infinitive in the function of an attribute is used relatively rarely. This is due to the fact that there is a limited number of nouns that precede this type of the infinitive.

*Pirmąkart gyvenime man kilo noras **nužudyti**, - "kraujo troškimas", kaip vaizdingai pasako kai kurie mūsų rašytojai (Lon 49).*

*Somsas vos užgniaužė netikėtai užėjusį norą pašokti ir gerai tam belgūi įspirti (Gol 666).*

c) Furthermore, the infinitive can also perform adverbial functions, i.e., it may serve as an adverbial modifier to a verb. In this function the infinitive is used to express purpose (a), consequence (b), comparison (c), condition (d), and exception (e):

a) *He put his head out of the window **to get** some fresh air (Conc.).*

b) *He had only to open the door **to find** them anxiously waiting for him (Conc.).*

c) *She seemed more anxious to listen to the troubles of others **than to discuss** her own (Conc.).*

d) ***To hear** him talk, you would think he was a celebrity (Conc.).*

e) *There was nothing to do **but escape** (Conc.).*

The Lithuanian infinitive also performs the function of an adverbial modifier. According to Grenda (2001), the infinitive may be used in the function of an adverbial modifier of purpose. It then has two meanings, those of striving (answers to the question *ko?*) and of purpose (answers to the questions *kam? kuriam tikslui? kuriam reikalui?*).

*Jis norėjo išsakyti daugybę dalykų <...> (Gol 36).*

*Leisdamasis į kajutę gulti <...> (Lon 93).*

d) The infinitive may also be used as an object to a verb or to an adjective. It is then lexically dependent.

*She wanted **to push** him away from her <...> (Gal).*

*<...> he had been careful **to take** no lunch (Gal).*

The use of the infinitive in the function of an object in Lithuanian is semantically rather restricted (Grenda, 2001:274).

*Išalko juodu valgyt (DLKT).*

*Pasiėmė valgyti ir gerti (DLKT).*

Concerning infinitival constructions, it must be mentioned that the subjective with the infinitive, as well as the objective with the infinitive, are lexically dependent. It means that they are used after a number of transitive verbs in the passive (subjective with the infinitive) or in the active, followed by an object which is expressed by a noun or a pronoun (objective with the infinitive).

*We can't force you **to stay** here (Conc.).*

*He ordered the door **to be thrown** open (Conc.).*

In the function of subjective predicative, the infinitive is often used in its different analytical forms.

*He was believed **to be preparing** a report on the incident (Conc.).*

*The new system is intended **to be applied** in a month (Conc.).*

*The victim is believed **to have been poisoned** (Conc.).*

Summing up, it must be said that these were the most frequent syntactic functions of the infinitive and infinitival constructions in English and Lithuanian. The subject matter is thoroughly discussed in various grammars. Our aim was to provide the reader with a brief description of the phenomenon, necessary for the general understanding of the matters studied in the research. Notwithstanding the fact, it is obvious that translation of the infinitive and infinitival constructions should hinge not only on their structural, i.e., paradigmatic forms but also on their nature. Consequently, the ways of rendering the meanings must be predetermined by some factors which include:

- a) the structural form;
- b) the function of the infinitive and infinitival constructions in the sentence.

The ways of rendering lexico-grammatical meanings and functions of the English infinitive and infinitival constructions will be the subject of the next part of our study.

### **2.3. Methodological Principles of the Research**

Before we proceed with the empirical part of the investigation, we presume it would be reasonable to present and explain in brief the method that we are going to employ in the process of the analysis of the English infinitive and infinitival constructions and their equivalents in Lithuanian.



As mentioned out above in the first chapter of the research, contrastive linguistics is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their differences and similarities. According to Sirtautas (1981), the latter are of particular significance as they reveal the essential features of the subject-matter or the phenomenon being under investigation. Languages can be compared for many practical purposes such as supporting foreign language learning, writing bilingual dictionaries or translating.

According to the famous linguist Golovinas (1982), the term method, employed by a particular science, means the way to cognise and explain different phenomena.

On the whole, there is a number of different methods one can employ and the choice actually depends on the researcher, as well as on the subject of the investigation itself. We endeavour in our research to investigate the English infinitive and infinitival constructions and the ways they are rendered from English into Lithuanian, the phenomenon which is to be ascribed to the field of contrastive linguistics and translation. Therefore, the present research employs a contrastive method. It is a widely used method in various spheres of research and it is effectively adopted in the process of our investigation as well. Adopting the method of contrastive analysis, the scholar not only gains an insight into the specificity of the languages contrasted, but also reveals the similarities and differences between them.

Concerning the methodology of the work, it must be reminded that the presented examples have been selected from the world known fiction pieces and their translations into Lithuanian. The corpus of the English infinitive and infinitival constructions and their translation into Lithuanian is 757. Employing the method of contrastive analysis, we contrasted the sentences (both in English and Lithuanian) containing the infinitive and infinitival constructions seeking to identify the similarities and/or differences they undergo in the process of translation. In order to be sure the norms of the target language are not violated, we consulted the Lithuanian language grammars. Having carried out the research, we settled the possible ways of rendering the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

Summing up, we presume that the research carried out with the help of contrastive analysis is especially useful for translation theory and practice, as well as for foreign language teaching. Still, we fully apprehend that the results of the present research may have to be modified in the course of time due to a well-known characteristic of language to change at every turn of its living.

### 3. TRANSLATING THE INFINITIVE AND INFINITIVAL CONSTRUCTIONS FROM ENGLISH INTO LITHUANIAN

'Obtaining grammatical and syntactical equivalence is not something that can be taken lightly' (Birbili, 2000). In his attempt to transfer the meaning from one language (SL) into another (TL) by means of the universally known practice of translation, the translator faces a number of cultural, stylistic and linguistic problems. In this regard, Popovic (1970:79) confirms that this 'transfer is not performed directly and is not without its difficulties'. It means that the act of translation can be analysed along a range of possibilities, which brings about a number of shifts in the aesthetic, intellectual and linguistic values of the source text. Thus, the occurrence of shifts or transformations in the process of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions, as well as in any other translational activity, is an unavoidable phenomenon. Furthermore, we stick to the opinion that translation is a highly complex phenomenon, which involves a large number of variables other than linguistic ones. In this regard, we define shifts as follows: shifts are all the mandatory actions of the translator (those dictated by the structural discrepancies between the two language systems involved in this process) and the optional ones (those dictated by the personal and stylistic preferences of the translator) to which he resorts consciously for the purpose of natural and communicative rendition of a source language text into another language. This process of rendition should be carried out in accordance with the norms and principles of translation science in addition to those inherent to the language systems involved in this process. 'Shifts do not occur because the translator wishes to 'change' a work, but because he strives to reproduce it as faithfully as possible and to grasp it in its totality' (Popovic, 1970:80). Psychologically, the occurrence of these shifts reflects the translator's awareness of the linguistic and non-linguistic discrepancies between the source language and the target language. Jakobson (1959) suggests that from the grammatical point of view languages may differ from one another to a greater or lesser degree, but this does not mean that translation is impossible. It has been proved that no translation is ever completely equivalent, because languages are different in form and therefore, provide different means of expression. Therefore, translators should remember that translation involves far more than step-by-step procedures for producing a translation from a source text into a target text. What is more, the translator should keep to the norms of grammar, lexis and stylistics of the target language and, at the same time, seek to sound naturally.

### 3.1. Ways of Rendering Lexico-Grammatical Meanings and Functions of the Infinitive

As pointed out in the second chapter, translation of the English infinitive is greatly predetermined by its form and sometimes by its function in a sentence. Therefore, functioning as a single part of the sentence, i.e., not being a component of a secondary predication complex, the infinitive may have different equivalents in Lithuanian. For example, the infinitive has direct equivalents when it functions as:

#### 1. The Subject.

In this function the infinitive is always used with the particle *to*. Cf.:

*To shut up a lion or tiger in confinement was surely a horrible barbarity* (Gal).

*Uždaryti liūtą arba tigrą į narvą – neapsakoma barbarystė* (Gol 130).

*To talk about them was as near as they could get to the possession of all those children and grandchildren <...>* (Gal).

*Kalbėti reiškė beveik tą patį, ką ir turėti tuos vaikučius ir anūkėlius <...>* (Gol 110).

*To rattle ahead of everything is not a proof of maturity* (Gal).

*Skubėti kaip akis išdegus nėra brandumo įrodymas* (Gol 640).

As we can see, in all of the above presented examples, the English infinitive, functioning as the subject, is translated into Lithuanian as the infinitive. What is more, the latter also performs the same function in a sentence, that of the subject.

According to Mažeikienė (2000), translators can also render such infinitives by verbal nouns. However, the cases are relatively rare.

*To break up a home is at the best a dangerous experiment, and selfish into the bargain* (Gal).

*Šimos išardymas geriausiu atveju – pavojingas eksperimentas, be to, egoistiškas* (Gol 164).

It must be mentioned that the use of the infinitive as the subject is mainly found in literary English but even there it is infrequent.

## 2. Part of a compound predicate/or predicative.

The infinitive is generally preceded by the particle *to* in the function of the predicative and in most cases expresses an action which follows that of the link-verb. The link-verb in sentences with the infinitive functioning as the predicative is always *to be*. The infinitive in this function always has appositive meaning, i.e., it explains the meaning of the subject of the sentence. Hence, sentences of this kind have the following structural peculiarity – the subject of the sentence can be expressed only by a limited number of nouns. The most commonly occurring of these nouns are: *act, action, advice, aim, ambition, answer, business, consequence, custom, desire, difficulty, duty, function, habit, hope, idea, instruction, intention, job, method, need, object (=aim), order, plan, policy, problem, purpose, reason, requirement, role, rule, task, thing* (usually with an attribute), *thought, way, wish, work*, and some others. The English infinitive, functioning as the predicative, is usually rendered into Lithuanian with the help of an adjectival phrase followed by the infinitive, in this case *neuter adjective + infinitive*. Cf.:

*The practical thing was **to find** rooms in the city <...> (Fit 7).*

*Praktiškiausia būtu buvę **nusisamdyti** butą miesto centre <...> (Fic 9).*

*The thing to do is **to forget** about the heat, said Tom impatiently (Fit 133).*

*Geriausia **užmiršti** karštį, - piktai pasakė Tomas (Fic 117).*

It must be noted, that the function of the infinitive has changed in the process of translation. It now (in the Lithuanian sentences) performs the function of the subject, while in the English sentence it is used as the predicative. Besides, concerning the first example, we can observe numerous transformations employed in the process of translation. First of all, *to find* is translated as *nusisamdyti*. Similarly, *in the city* is rendered as *miesto centre*. The latter are the cases of concretisation. Furthermore, we can also observe the discrepancy in the category of number, i.e., the English noun in the plural form is rendered into Lithuanian in the singular form: *rooms - butą*.

It is worth mentioning, that the infinitive functioning as a part of a compound predicate is lexically dependent, and is therefore used after quite definite verbs. The infinitive is used in this function after the following intransitive verbs: *to seem, to appear, to turn out, to prove, to happen, to chance*. These verbs may be followed by different analytical forms of the infinitive with *to*. The translation into Lithuanian is then by parenthesis. Cf.:

*All his bluster had gone and he **seemed to have caught** the contagion of preternatural calm (Lo 12).*

Visas jo smarkumas praėjo, ir **atrodė**, jis **užsikrėtė** antgamišku ramumu (Lon 8).

*And asleep, a sentinel on the-top of the rise, he **appeared to rule** over this prospect <...> (Gal).*

<...> *ir miegantis Svidinas, lyg sargybinis kalvos viršūnėje, **rodės, valdė** visą šį reginį <...> (Gol 104).*

As it was pointed out above, the sentences are translated with the help of parenthesis (*atrodė, rodės*) and the Perfect Infinitive (*to have caught*), as well as the Present Infinitive (*to rule*), are rendered into Lithuanian as the finite forms of the verb (*užsikrėtė, valdė*). It must be noted that in Lithuanian the position of parenthesis is not clearly defined, therefore, it can be used either in the middle (see the examples above), or at the beginning of the sentence as in the following examples. Cf.:

*"She **seems to have made** quite a conquest of you, any way," drawled Aunt Hester from her corner (Gal).*

- ***Atrodo**, ji visai tau galvą **apsuko**, - lėtai tardama žodžius iš savo kampo atsiliepė teta Estera (Gol 103).*

*He **seemed to hang** on George Forsyte's lips <...> (Gal).*

***Rodėsi**, jis **neatitraukia** akių nuo Džordžo Forsaito burnos <...> (Gol 621).*

<...> *she **seemed to be falling** into line with the idea of the new house (Gal).*

<...> ***atrodo**, jai **pradedama patikti** namo statybos idėja (Gol 79).*

In the last example the Continuous infinitive is conveyed into Lithuanian with the help of a verbal phrase followed by the infinitive (*pradedama patikti*). It is worth mentioning that the Lithuanian infinitive forms tight-knit phrases with verbs denoting the beginning of the action (*pradėti, imti*), the ending (*baigti, liautis*), or continuance (*likti, nesiliauti*).

The infinitive as the predicative, unlike the infinitive as the subject, is found not only in literary style but also in spoken English.

### 3. The object.

When used as the object, the infinitive is again lexically dependent, therefore we find it after certain verbs, such as: *to agree, to ask, to arrange, to begin, to care, to cease, to come, to decide, to expect, to fail, to forget, to hate, to help, to hope, to love, to long, to want, to try, to offer, to plan*, and some others. The same case is observed in Lithuanian. Being the non-finite form of the verb, but having a substantive lexical meaning of its own, the infinitive adjoins the finite forms of the verb that have fully or at least partly lost their substantive lexical meanings. According to Paulauskienė (1971), together with these verbs, the infinitive makes phrases where one of the elements complements the other. The finite form of the verb here performs the role of an auxiliary, while the infinitive denotes the lexical meaning of the combination. Just like in English, the infinitive in Lithuanian also has a tendency to adjoin to the verbs denoting various states (*desire, mental/physical perception*, etc). Cf.:

*They wanted **to live**, they were helpless, like rats in a trap, and they screamed* (Lo 13).

*Jos norėjo **gyventi**, jos buvo bejėgės, kaip žiurkės spąstuose, ir jos klykė* (Lon 10).

*Father agreed **to finance** me for a year <...>* (Fit 7).

*Tėvas sutiko vienus metus mane **parenti** <...>* (Fic 9).

*He had determined, <...>, **to give** Bosinney a chance <...>* (Gal).

*Džeimsas mintyse nusprendė <...> **duoti** Bosiniui progą <...>* (Gol 115).

*He did not wish **to rub** his nieces, he had no quarrel with them <...>* (Gal).

*Senasis Džolionas nenorėjo „**duoti** garo“ dukterėčioms, su jomis jam nebuvo reikalo pyktis <...>* (Gol 141).

In all of these sentences, the English infinitive is translated into Lithuanian by a verbal phrase followed by the infinitive, where the infinitive performs the function of the predicative. It must be mentioned, that in combinations together with such verbs as *norėti, saugotis, bijoti, gėdytis, tikėtis, viltis, siekti, atsisakyti, atsižadėti*, the infinitive takes the position of genitive. Similarly, the infinitive may also stand in the position of other cases, such as dative or accusative.

Furthermore, the infinitive may also be used as an object to an adjective. It is lexically dependent in this case too and is used after various kinds of adjectives. The most commonly occurring of them are: (*un*) *able, afraid, anxious, careful, certain, difficult, easy, free, good,*

*happy, liable, likely, lucky, proud, ready, surprised, etc.* In cases like this, the English infinitive is translated by either an adjectival or verbal phrase followed by the infinitive. Cf.:

*The man of the world was more than ever determined **to see** what she was made of* (Gal).

*Draugijos žmogus buvo tvirtai pasiryžęs **susipažinti** su Irena iš arčiau* (Gol 155).

*He was prepared **to offer** excuses for his words* (Gal).

*<...> buvo pasirengęs **atsiprašyti*** (Gol 182).

*In consequence I'm inclined **to reserve** all judgements <...>* (Fit 5).

*Todėl aš ipratau **susilaikyti** nuo bet kokių vertinimų <...>* (Fic 7).

*And, conscious that his voice was not too steady, he was careful **not to speak*** (Gal);

*Ir, jausdamas, kad liežuvis nebelabai jo klauso, Dartis stengėsi **tylėti** <...>* (Gol 156).

Considering the last sentence, the infinitive here is used in the negative form *not to speak*; while in the translation it becomes positive *tylėti* and acquires a slightly different meaning. It is obvious, that the translator employed one of the many transformations, known as antonymic translation. The essence of it is the transformation of positive constructions into negative ones and vice versa. Generally, it is applied in cases where translators are not able to find an equivalent to one or another verb. Thus, the antonym with negation occurs the simple way out of the situation.

In a sentence pattern with a formal *it* as the subject, the infinitive (with the particle *to*) as an object is also found after a considerable number of adjectives, adjectivised participles and *-ing* forms. The most commonly occurring of them are: *absurd, awful, bad, correct, curious, dangerous, difficult, easy, embarrassing, essential, foolish, hard, impossible, interesting, pleasant, strange, (un)wise, wrong, etc.* It is worth mentioning that structurally the infinitive has its direct equivalents in translations, however, in some of the cases the translator shifts the semantic meaning of the words. Cf.:

*It was pleasant **to think** that in the after life he could get more for things than he had given* (Gal).

*Malonu **jausti**, kad po kiek lako gali gauti už daiktą daugiau nei buvai mokėjęs* (Gol 25).

*It was hard **to realize** that a man in my own generation was wealthy enough to do that* (Fit 10).

*Net sunku **įsivaizduoti**, kad mano kartos žmogus turėtų pakankamai pinigų tokiems dalykams* (Fic 12).

*It had been impossible **to seriously confide** in June his conviction that property in the Soho quarter would go up in value* (Gal);

*Juk neįmanoma **prisipažinti** Džunei, jog neabejoti dėl Soho žemės sklypų kainų kilimo; <...>* (Gol 36).

*It was vulgar **to be** stout <...>* (Gal).

*Kaip vulgaru **būti** storam <...>* (Gol 39).

As we can see from the examples, the English infinitive here in the function of the object is again translated into Lithuanian with the help of an adjectival phrase followed by the infinitive, which serves as part of the predicative and is preceded by neuter adjectives *malonu*, *sunku*, *neįmanoma*, *vulgaru*.

#### 4. An attribute.

The infinitive in the function of an attribute immediately follows its head-noun and is used with the particle *to*.

Cf.: *He felt as though someone had threatened his right **to invest** his money at five per cent* (Gal).

*Jis jautėsi taip, tarsi kažkas būtų pasikėsinęs į jo teisę **investuoti** pinigus ir gauti penkis procentus pelno* (Gol 45).

*Bosinney having expressed the wish **to show** them the house from the copse below, Swithin came to a stop* (Gal).

*Bosiniui pareiškus norą **parodyti** jiems namą nuo giraitės pakalnėje, Svidinas sustojo kaip įkastas* (Gol 103).

*Not that he had any desire **to spy** on her actions, but there was no harm in thus unexpectedly surveying the scene* (Gal).



*Jis visai nenorėjo užklupti jos iš netyčių, bet kartais ne pro šalį parsirasti netikėtai* (Gol 165).

In the two former examples the infinitive in the function of an attribute has direct equivalents in Lithuanian, i.e. the infinitive, which is preceded by modal (*noras*) and abstract (*teisė*) nouns. While in the last example, though structurally the infinitive has its direct correspondence, the semantic meaning is altered by applying by far the most common type of grammatical transformations, known as replacement. Thus, the cause in the English sentence is replaced by the result in the Lithuanian sentence (*to spy – užklupti*) and the English noun, derived from the verb and denoting an action is replaced by the Lithuanian verb. Therefore, *had any desire* is translated as *nenorėjo*. Having in mind that the Lithuanian language is more verb based, the latter transformations are rather frequent in the process of translation.

Furthermore, it is also typical of the infinitive to modify the indefinite pronouns *somebody*, *nobody*, *anybody*, *everyone*, *something*, which are translated as *kažkas/kas nors*, *niekas*, *kas nors/niekas/bet kas*, *visi/kiekvienas*, *kažkas/kas nors* (speaking about inanimate things) etc. Their translation hinges on the type of the sentence, whether it is negative, interrogative or affirmative. Cf.:

*“Shall we take anything **to drink**?” called Daisy from an upper window* (Fit 126).

*Gal pasiimsim ko nors išgerti, - šūktelėjo Deizė iš viršaus pro langą* (Fic 111)?

The infinitive is also freely combined with ordinal numerals, mainly with *the first*. Cf.:

*Swithin had been the first **to arrive**, and seated torpid in a red satin chair with a gilt back, he gave every appearance of lasting the others out* (Gal).

*Svidinas šį kartą **atvažiavo** pirmas ir dunksojo tarytum katinas raudono atlaso krėslė su paaukuota atkalte, visa savo išvaizda bylodamas, jog pakils iš čia paskutinis.* (Gol 134).

*The next **to arrive** was Roger <...>* (Gal).

*Antras **atvyko** Rodžeris <...>* (Gol 83).

In both of the examples the English infinitive is rendered into Lithuanian as the finite form of the verb – *atvažiavo*, *atvyko*. *The next*, in the second example, is translated as *antras*.

However, in cases like this, the translator should consider the context, because the translation of *next* could vary from situation to situation.

According to Mažeikienė (2000), some English attributive syntaxemes can be conveyed in Lithuanian with the help of an attributive subordinate clause:

<...> *there were no sails to carry away* (Lo 107).

<...> *nebeliko nė vienos burės, kurią vėjas galėtų nuplėšti* (Lon 119).

#### 5. An adverbial modifier.

In this function the infinitive is used to express purpose, consequence, comparison, condition, exception and as in the majority of previous cases, is translated into Lithuanian with the help of a verbal phrase followed by the infinitive. The latter denotes the action as the purpose. Cf.:

*I guess your friend Walter Chase wasn't too proud to come in on it* (Fit 141).

*Jūsų draugas Volteris Čeisas taip pat nepasibodėjo prisidėti prie mūsų* (Fic 124).

<...> *quite a lot of people came to congratulate her* (Gal).

<...>  *tiek žmonių atėjo jos pasveikinti <...>* (Gol 20).

<...> *walked up to the ticket office to take his stall <...>* (Gal).

<...> *nuėjo į kasą nusipirkti bilieto parteryje <...>* (Gol 31).

<...> *he went to the dining-room to wait for dinner <...>* (Gal).

<...> *senasis Džolionas nuėjo laukti pietų į valgomąjį <...>* (Gol 72).

*He bent down to lift the cup of milk for her from the hearth <...>* (Gal).

*Senasis Džolionas pasilenkė prie židinio paimti puodelio su pienu <...>* (Gol 99).

There are also cases, when we translate such infinitives into Lithuanian by adverbial clauses of purpose, consequence, comparison or condition + *kad*, where the infinitive turns into the subjunctive mood. Cf.:

*I had backed away from him, almost weeping at my inability to shoot him, but not fool enough to put down the gun* (Lo 187).

*Aš ataturpstas žengiau nuo jo, vos neverkdamas, kad neprisiverčiau jo nušauti, bet vis dėlto nebuvo toks kvailas, kad **nuleisčiau** šautuvą (Lon 214).*

*Irene came close, **to prove** to him that he was in error (Gal).*

*Irena priėjo arčiau, kad Džeimsas pats **pamatytų**, jog klysta (Gol 64).*

*They came round in order **to see** their old friend (Fit 75).*

*Jie užsuko, kad **pasimatytų** su senu draugu (Fic 86).*

It must be mentioned that the latter sentence can also be translated in the following way:

*Jie užsuko **pasimatyti** su senu draugu (Fic 86).*

In this case the infinitive is conveyed into Lithuanian with the help of the infinitive, functioning as an adverbial modifier of purpose.

In some cases the infinitive may serve as an adverbial modifier of consequence to an adjective preceded by *too* or modified by *enough*. Cf.:

*<...> too cautious **to descend** into the inferno of passion <...> (Lo 89).*

*Jis buvo per daug atsargus ir **nenusileido** į tą aistrų pragarą <...> (Lon 98).*

*They are the young bulls, not old enough **to have** harems of their own (Lo 179).*

*Tai jaunikliai patinai, kurie **dar neturi** savo haremu (Lon 204).*

The latter examples show that there is one more way to render the English infinitive in the function of an adverbial modifier and that is with the help of a finite form of the verb.

Thus, these were the main Lithuanian semantic equivalents for single English infinitives performing different functions in a sentence.

Having analysed the examples, we can summarise the possible ways of translating single infinitives (performing different functions in a sentence) into Lithuanian. The latter are presented in the following figure.

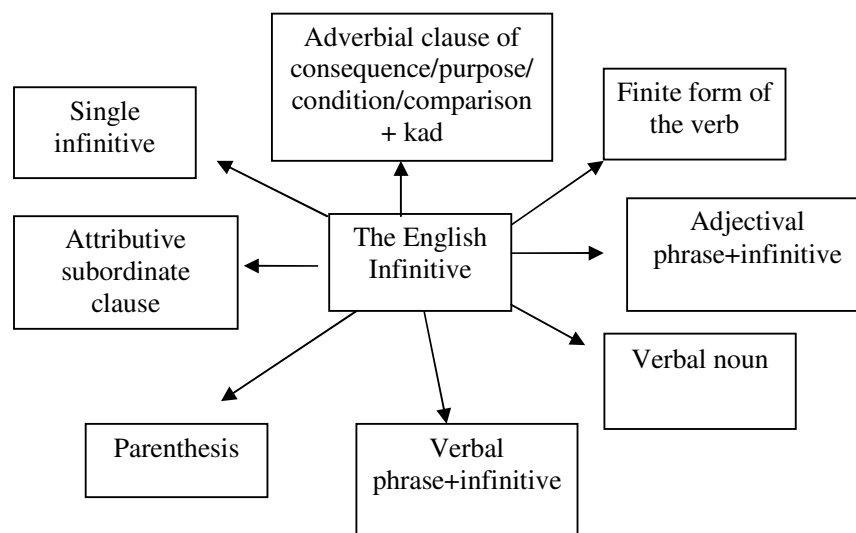


Figure 1. Translating single infinitives performing different functions in a sentence.

### 3.2. Ways of Rendering Infinitival Constructions

Concerning infinitival constructions, it must be mentioned, that there are three types of infinitival complexes in present-day English, which are often referred to as *secondary predication constructions*:

1. The for-to-infinitival complex.
2. The objective with the infinitive (Complex Object).
3. The subjective with the infinitive (Complex Subject).

Each type of these predicative constructions has some explicit and implicit grammatical characteristics of its own. Since translation of these complexes is often predetermined by their nature and structure, it would be expedient to dwell upon each of them separately.

#### 3.2.1. Translating the For-to-Infinitival Constructions

These secondary predication constructions (*for + noun (pronoun) + infinitive*) are used in their active and passive forms which does not influence their functioning as various complex parts of the sentence. Depending on its function in the sentence and on the voice form (active or passive) of the infinitive, this secondary predication word-group may have different equivalents in Lithuanian. According to Mažeikienė (2000), we should translate these constructions with the help of an adjectival or verbal phrase followed by the infinitive. Thus, the following

example is the case when the for-to-infinitival construction, performing the function of the subject, is translated into Lithuanian by the infinitive, preceded by a neuter adjective, in this case – *neįmanoma*.

*It is impossible for you to diminish your principal* (Lo 61).

*Jūsų kapitalo neįmanoma išeikvoti* (Lon 65).

A similar situation is observed in the other two examples; however, here the infinitive is preceded by verbs denoting ability. Cf.:

*<...> so that it would have been impossible for me to have fallen <...>* (Lo 107).

*<...> kad, rodos, net ir norėdamas nebūčiau galėjęs nukristi* (Lon 119).

*The bulkhead was too thick for us to hear what he said <...>* (Lo 142).

*Pertvara buvo per stora, ir mes negalėjome išgirsti, ką jis kalbėjo <...>* (Lon 161).

One more way to render the for-to-infinitival construction into Lithuanian, is with the help of subordinate clauses. Cf.:

*Oars were shipped, and its occupants waited for us to heave to and take them aboard* (Lo 112).

*Paruošę irklus, valtyje esantieji žmonės laukė, kol mes leisimės į dreifą ir juos įkelsime* (Lon 126).

*We were waiting for him to do something <...>* (Lo 191).

*Mes laukėme, kad jis ką nors imtų veikti <...>* (Lon 219).

*So I did not wait a second time for Maud to send me* (Lo 191).

*Taigi, aš nelaukiau, kol Mod pasiųs mane antrąkart* (Lon 219).

In all of the above presented examples, the construction is rendered with the help of an object clause. The infinitive is translated by the finite form of the verb referring to the future. The next example indicates that the for-to-infinitival construction may also be rendered with the help of an adverbial modifier of purpose (consequence):

For the reaction **to take place**, two conditions are necessary (Mažeikienė, 2000:47).  
*Kad įvyktų reakcija, reikia dviejų sąlygų* (Mažeikienė, 2000:47).

However, the same sentence may also be translated into Lithuanian as follows: *Reakcijai vykti reikia dviejų sąlygų*. The infinitive then has its direct equivalent.

The following group of examples indicates that there is one more way of rendering the for-to-infinitival construction from English into Lithuanian, and that is *dative case + infinitive*.

*There was nothing else for him to do* (Lo 118).

*Jam nieko daugiau nebeliko daryti* (Lon 132).

*Yes, all said and done, I think it vastly better for you to remain, and sleep, and rest, and do nothing* (Lo 173).

*Šiaip ar taip, manau, jums kur kas geriau likti čia, pamiegoti, pailsėti ir nieko neveikti* (Lon 198).

*I hope it will not be too dreadful a hardship for you to make yourself a dress or two* (Lo 123).

*<...> ir, manau, jums nebus labai sunku pasisiūti vieną kitą suknelę* (Lon 138).

Summing up, we made an attempt to design a figure that presents the above described ways of translating the for-to-infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

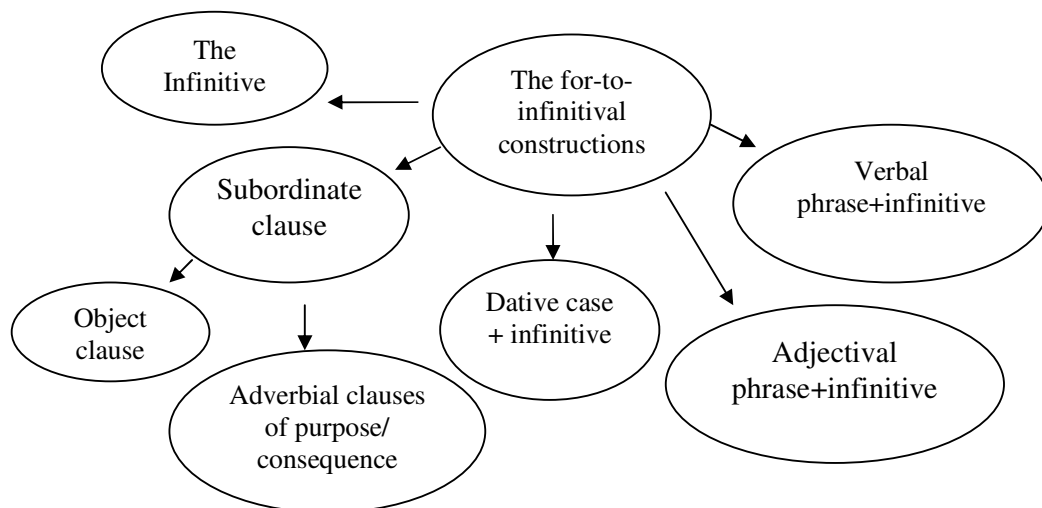


Figure 2. Translating the for-to-infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

### 3.2.2. Ways of Rendering the Objective with the Infinitive

Complex Object is the construction containing *a verb + noun in the common case/a pronoun in the objective case + infinitive*. Unlike the poly-functional for-to-infinitive constructions, the objective with the infinitive complexes can have mostly one function in the sentence – that of the complex object. Despite this, the semantic equivalents of this construction in Lithuanian are often different.

First of all, it must be noted that the infinitive as objective predicative is lexically dependent therefore, it is used after a number of transitive verbs in the active followed by an object which is expressed by a noun or a pronoun. Most of these verbs require the infinitive with *to*. The most frequently occurring of them are: *to advise, to allow, to ask, to believe, to cause, to consider, to encourage, to expect, to find, to get, to hate, to intend, to know, to like, to love, to mean, to order, to prefer, to realise, to suppose, to teach, to tell, to wish* and some others. There are also a few verbs in English after which the infinitive as objective is used without the particle *to*. They are: *to feel, to have (= to get, to make), to hear, to know (= to experience), to let, to make, to notice, to see, to watch*.

According to Pažūsis, Rosinienė and Žemaitienė (1993), we should translate the objective with the infinitive constructions (Complex Object) into Lithuanian as follows:

1. Sometimes the objective with the infinitive constructions may have direct equivalents in Lithuanian and then they cause no trouble for the translators. Cf.:

*Old Jolyon told him to put his dress clothes out* (Gal);

*Senasis Džolionas paliepė jam paruošti fraką* <...> (Gol 28).

<...> *and induced him to dust his patent leather boots* <...> (Gal).

<...> *o sykį paskatino nusivalyti dulkes nuo lakuotų batų paviršiaus* <...> (Gol 56).

If we have a closer look at the last example, we will see that the pronoun in the objective case in the English sentence disappears in the translation. It might be that the translator did that intentionally, seeking to avoid the repetition of pronouns and having in mind the fact that the subjective reflexive verbs in Lithuanian carry the meaning of an action directed to the very subject performing that action (Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos gramatika, 1994:407). However, such omissions can be performed only with regard to the context in order to avoid various misunderstandings.

Thus, it is evident that one of the ways to render the objective with the infinitive constructions is with the help of the infinitive preceded by verbs denoting person's will (*liepimą, įsakymą, leidimą, patarimą, siūlymą*, etc.). However, this is not always possible.

2. Then, according to Mažeikienė (2000), we should translate the construction with the help of an object clause, introduced by the conjunction *kad*. Consider the following examples:

*I didn't want you **to think** I was just someone nobody* (Fit 71).

*Nenoriu, **kad** jūs **pamanytumėte** apie mane dievaižin ką* (Fic 65).

As we can see, the construction is conveyed into Lithuanian by an object clause and the infinitive turns into the subjunctive mood - *pamanytumėte*. The following examples are of the same type:

*<...> they were now in the natural course of things members of the Church of England, and caused their wives and children **to attend** with some regularity the more fashionable churches of the Metropolis* (Gal).

*<...> o dabartiniai Forsaitai, savaime suprantama, buvo anglikonų bažnyčios nariai ir žiūrėjo, **kad** žmonos bei vaikai reguliariai **lankytų** madingas sostinės bažnyčias* (Gol 22).

*I've spent a lot more than I intended on this house, and I want the position **to be** clear* (Gal).

*Namui aš išleidau žymiai daugiau negu buvau ketinęs ir norėčiau, **kad** reikalas **būtų** aiškus* (Gol 126).

*I wanted her **to see** the doctor, but she won't* (Gal).

*Norėjau, **kad** **pasirodytų** daktarui, - bet kur tau* (Gol 130).

*„And tell Johnson **to douse** him with a few buckets of salt water“, he added, in a lower tone for my ear alone* (Lo 54).

*Ir pasakykite Džonsonui, **kad** **šliūkštelėtų** keletą kibirų sūraus vandens, - pridūrė jis tylėsniau balsu, kad girdėčiau tik aš vienas* (Lon 57).

*“He wants her **to see** his house“, she explained* (Fit 84).

*Jis nori, **kad** ji **pamatytų** jo namą, - paaiškino Džordana* (Fic 75).



The following group of examples indicates the same situation, only the infinitive here, i.e. in Lithuanian translation, becomes a finite form of the verb. Cf.:

*He had met a townsman, a couple of years before, in some sailor-boarding-house in Chile, so that he knew his mother **to be** still alive (Lo 85).*

*Prieš porą metų jis buvo sutikęs vieną savo tautietį kažkokiuose jūrininkų nakvynės namuose Čilėje ir sužinojo, **kad** jo motina **tebėra** gyva (Lon 93).*

*Soames noted his dress clothes **to be** well cut <...> (Gal).*

*Jis taip pat atkreipė dėmesį, **kad** Bosinio kostiumas **guli** gerai <...> (Gol 43).*

*I had come down to the deck, and I saw Horner and Kerfoot vainly **protest** against the attempt (Lo 108).*

*Nusileidęs ant denio pamačiau, **kad** Horneris ir Kerfutas veltui **priešinasi** šiam mėginimui (Lon 120).*

*“I think he half expected her **to wander** into one of his parties, some night”, went on Jordan <...> (Fit 84).*

*- Man atrodo, kad jis vis laukė, **kad** vieną gražų vakarą ji **užklys** pas jį su kitais svečiais, - kalbėjo Džordana <...> (Fic 75).*

3. The objective with the infinitive may also be translated into Lithuanian by an object clause or by complex object. Cf.:

*Soames, glancing at her beneath his eyelids, nodded, and he saw Irene **steal** at him one of her unfathomable looks (Gal).*

*Somsas linktelėjo ir, dirstelėjęs į ją iš po nuleistų blakstienų, pastebėjo, **kaip** mįslingas Irenos žvilgsnis **nuslydo** jo veidu (Gol 23).*

*He saw him **turn** to Irene <...> (Gal).*

*Somsas matė, **kaip** Bosinis **pasigrėžė** į Ireną <...> (Gol 43).*

*Soames saw his father and Nicholas **glance** at each other anxiously (Gal);*

*Somsas matė, **kaip** neramiai **susižvalgė** jo tėvas ir Nikolas <...> (Gol 47).*

<...> before a great multitude assembled on Speech Day to hear him **recite** Moliere (Gal).

<...> prieš visą publiką, susirinkusią paklausyti, **kaip** jis **deklamuos** Moljerą (Gol 56).

June saw Irene **look up** at him through her screen of blossoms (Gal).

Džunė matė, **kaip** Irena **pažvelgė** į jį virš azalijų žiedų (Gol 93).

As mentioned above, the same construction is also rendered into Lithuanian by complex object. For example:

Swithin heard her **ask** <...> (Gal).

Svidinas išgirdo ją **klausiant** <...> (Gol 108).

He heard them **laugh** <...> (Gal).

Paskui, išgirdęs juos **juokiantis** <...> (Gol 77).

<...> I heard Latimer **shout** down the scuttle <...> (Lo 89).

<...> išgirdau pro liuką **šaukiant** Letimerį (Lon 98).

I don't know sir. I saw him **go** for'ard a little while ago (Lo 86).

Nežinau, sere. Neseniai mačiau jį **nueinantį** į baką (Lon 94).

I had never seen him **dance** before (Fit 112).

<...> aš nebuvoau jo matęs **šokant** (Fic 99).

Note, that only the first sentence retains its elements in the same positions, while the rest of the sentences are translated by employing numerous transformations, for example, omissions (*I heard* – *išgirdau*, *I saw him* – *mačiau jį*), etc. However, these shifts change neither the content of information contained in the original, nor the rendition of the infinitive. Moreover, it must be mentioned that the latter sentences could also be translated by an object clause: *Išgirdau pro liuką, kaip šaukė Letimeris.* / *Nežinau, sere. Neseniai mačiau, kaip jis nuėjo į baką*, etc. It depends on the translator's choice, as both variants are possible. On the other hand, some might argue that the semantic meaning of those sentences is then changed as the conjunction *kaip* implies the meaning 'the way something is done'. Furthermore, there are cases where *make* in such constructions is not translated into Lithuanian and the infinitive is

rendered by the simple predicate, or in other words, by a finite form of the verb. Consider the following examples:

*James had always been exceedingly liberal to his children, and the consciousness of this made him **feel** it all the more deeply* (Gal).

*Džeimsas niekada nevaržė savo vaikų ir dėl to dar stipriau **juto** Džunės akiplėšiškumą* (Gol 45).

*<...> but it made him, indeed, **suspect** that she could give as well as receive* (Gal).

*<...> dėl to jis **manė**, kad Irena gali ne tik gauti, bet ir duoti <...>* (Gol 49).

*Irene's eyes made him **feel** uncomfortable* (Gal).

*Nuo Irenos žvilgsnio jis **pasijuto** nejaukiai* (Gol 59).

Summarising all the above mentioned examples, we can now state that translation of the Complex Object may be predetermined not only by the nature and meaning of the finite verb/predicate, which may have various implicit dependent grammatical meanings (those of physical or mental perception, verbs of saying, etc.), but also by its syntactic function, by the translator's choice of the equivalent and by the stylistic aim pursued in the sentence.

The following figure summarises the ways the objective with the infinitive constructions are rendered from English into Lithuanian.

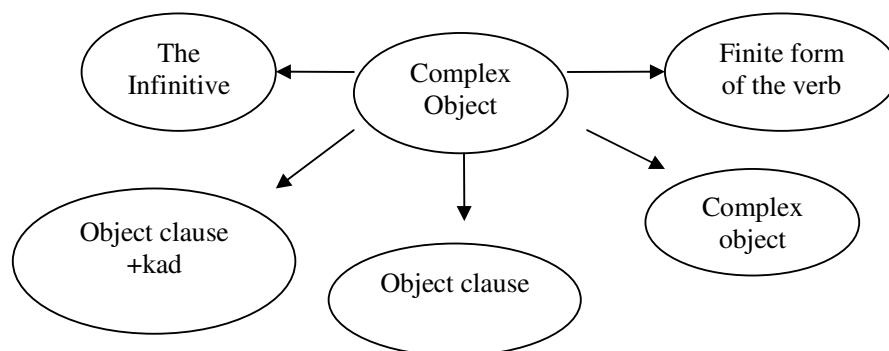


Figure 3. Translating the objective with the infinitive constructions.

### 3.2.3. Ways of Rendering the Subjective with the Infinitive

The predicative infinitive construction or complex, as it is often referred to in grammars, consists of the secondary subject, usually noun or pronoun, and secondary predicate expressed by the infinitive. The latter is mostly separated from the nominal part of the complex by the primary predicate. For example: <...> *for this additional proof that her **life was to be passed** amongst 'lame ducks' worried him* (Gal). The secondary subject may often be expressed by the anticipatory pronoun *it*.

Translation of the infinitival complexes into Lithuanian depends on or is predetermined by some factors, such as:

- a) the lexical meaning of the verb or rather the semantic group to which the verb belongs;
- b) the voice form of the subjective infinitive;
- c) the structure of the parts of the sentence and that of the sentence itself, which may be simple or composite;
- d) the translator's choice of the means and language units conveying the meaning of the subjective with the infinitive constructions.

Mažeikienė (2000) suggests rendering the subjective with the infinitive into Lithuanian in the following ways:

1. With the help of an impersonal sentence, introduced by such words as *manoma, sako/sakoma, kalba/kalbama, pranešama, žinoma*, etc., followed by the subordinate clause. Cf.:

*He is said **to have remarked**, when he put them in, that he preferred turning her over to losing the sticks* (Lo 41).

***Sakoma**, kad, juos statydamas, Larsenas **pareiškęs**, jog geriau esą apversti škuną, negu dar kartą netekti stiebų* (Lon 42).

*And behind this outburst the inarticulate violence of primitive generations seemed **to mutter** and grumble* (Gal).

Ir **atrodė**, kad neaiškiai **urzgia** ir murma įniršusios pirmykštės kartos (Gol 41).

<...> *I'm supposed **to look** like him* <...> (Fit 7).

<...> ***sakoma**, kad esu į jį panašus* <...> (Fic 9).

As mentioned above, the three sentences are translated into Lithuanian by an impersonal sentence, followed by the subordinate subject clause, introduced by the conjunctions *kad* or *jog*. It must be observed, that the English sentence is a simple one. However, it turns into a complex sentence in the process of translation. It is a very common transformation known as replacement, i.e., a simple sentence is replaced by a complex one and vice versa. Therefore, while translating from English into Lithuanian, it often becomes necessary to render English constructions with the infinitive by means of subordinate clauses, thus turning a simple sentence into complex ones.

2. Another way to translate the subject complex is with the help of parenthesis. As mentioned earlier, the position of parenthesis is not clearly defined in Lithuanian, therefore it can be used either in the middle or at the beginning of the sentence. The infinitive here turns into the finite form of the verb, or it is rendered as the infinitive, preceded by verbs denoting various states. Cf.:

*A sudden emptiness seemed **to flow** now from the windows and the great doors <...>*  
(Fit 60).

*Netikėta tuštuma, **rodos, sruveno** pro langus ir plačiai atvertas duris <...>* (Fic 55).

*He had no doubt been obliged **to look** into himself a good deal in the course of those fifteen years* (Gal).

Jam, **matyt**, ne kartą per šiuos penkiolika metų **teko gilintis** į save (Gol 34).

*The young fellow seemed **to have recovered** his composure, for he answered steadily enough <...>* (Lo 86).

*Jaunasis jūrininkas, **atrodo, spėjo atsipeikėti**, nes atsakė gana ramiai <...>* (Lon 94).

*Her figure swayed, so balanced that the very air seemed **to set it moving*** (Gal).

*Jos kūnas lengvai siūbavo, **rodės, menkiausias oro gūsis jį išjudins*** (Gol 16).

*<...> she listened to you, and seemed **to understand** what you were saying* (Gal).

*<...> atidžiai klausosi ir, **atrodo, supranta** viską, ką sakai* (Gol 65).

*<...> all these unnumbered generations seemed **to sit** there with him on the top of the rise* (Gal).

<...> visi šitie nesuskaitomi protėviai, **rodės**, susirinko ir **susėdo** kartu su Svidinu kalvos viršūnėje (Gol 104).

*He seemed to be pleading* (Gal).

*Atrodė, Bosinis kažko maldavo* (Gol 117).

*Bosinney did not seem to hear* (Gal).

*Bosinis, rodės, nė neišgirdo jo žodžių* (Gol 166).

When used with the verbs expressing *permission, request, intention, order, compulsion* (*to allow, to permit, to order, to force, to make, to request, to intend, etc.*), the subjective with the infinitive construction may be rendered into Lithuanian by the passive construction:

<...> *and Wolf Larsen was compelled to brush him away* <...> (Gal).

<...> *ir Vilkas Larsenas buvo priverstas jį nustumti* <...> (Gol 83).

*Soames was forced, therefore, to set the blame entirely down to his wife* (Gal).

*Taigi Somsas buvo priverstas kaltinti vien žmoną* (Gol 48).

*The case of Forsyte v. Bosinney was expected to be reached on the morrow, before Mr. Justice Bentham* (Gal).

*Byla „Forsaitas prieš Bosinį“ buvo paskirta nagrinėti rytojaus dieną, teisėjaujant misteriiui Bentemui* (Gol 209).

While analysing the ways the subjective with the infinitive is conveyed from English into Lithuanian, we have observed one more case of rendering the construction. It must be noted that after such words as *likely/unlikely, sure, certain*, the action expressed by the infinitive usually refers to the future. The words *likely/unlikely, sure, certain* are translated as *tikriausiai/vargu ar, turbūt, būtinai*. Cf.:

<...> *he's not likely to part with it except at a good price* (Gal).

<...> *tikriausiai nenorės atiduoti jo pusvelčiui* (Gol 237).

The following figure illustrates the ways the subjective with the infinitive is translated from English into Lithuanian.

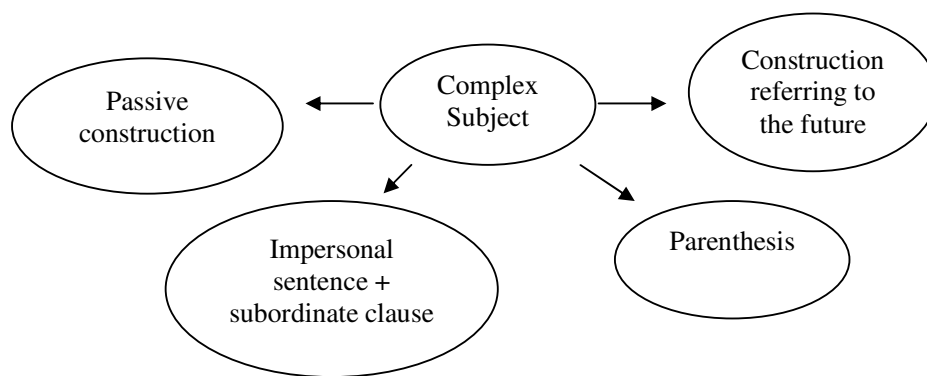


Figure 4. Translating the subjective with the infinitive constructions.

Having presented the possible ways of rendering the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian, we can now summarise translation results in the following figure:

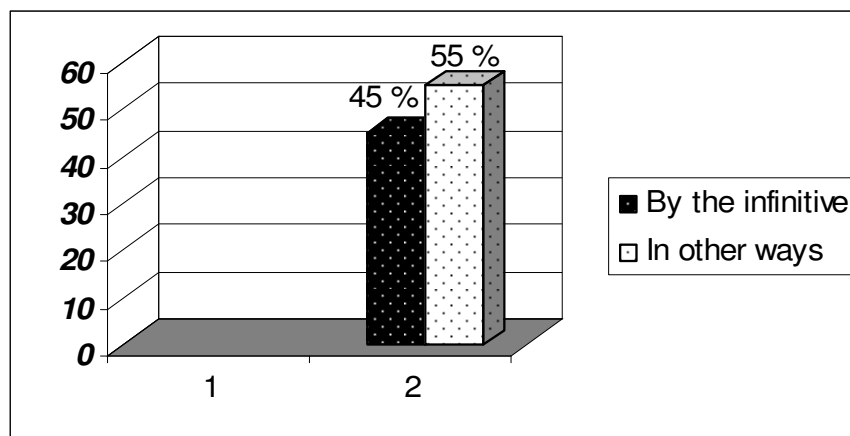


Figure 5. Total results of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions.

Before carrying out the research, we faced the belief that there is nothing confusing about translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian. It was considered that the infinitive always has direct correspondences in the target language. However, the case proved to be different. The results of the research indicate that 45% of the cases were translated with the help of the infinitive, while 55% of the rest translations were performed employing other, before-mentioned linguistic means.

Summing up, it must be said that any attempt at word-for-word translation (apart from very simple and short sentences) is doomed to failure. In the course of translation, it is always

necessary to perform various grammatical and lexical changes, referred to as transformations or shifts to achieve translational equivalence. But even then the translator should bear in mind the fact that in translation there is rarely the only 'right' answer, though there might be several wrong ones. The translator should always try to extend his knowledge and improve his means of expression.



#### 4. THE RESULTS OF TRANSLATION EXPERIMENT WITH THE ENGLISH-LITHUANIAN INFINITIVE AND INFINITIVAL CONSTRUCTIONS

Seeking to investigate and illustrate the types of difficulty that the learners of the English language or translators might encounter due to the discrepancies in the grammatical systems of the source and the target languages while rendering the infinitive and infinitival constructions, and at the same time, aiming to justify the importance and necessity of our research, we have decided to carry out translation experiment.

The data corpus collected comprises 20 sentences with the English infinitive and infinitival constructions, which were singled out from the whole empirical material.

Twenty sentences with the infinitive and infinitival constructions subjected to the experiment vary in the degrees of difficulty. Some of them are considered to cause no difficulties in the process of translation, while others require a high proficiency both, in English and Lithuanian. As the aim of our experiment was to investigate the ways students translate the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian and not to test their vocabulary, thus, they were allowed to use dictionaries. The respondents were presented the list of twenty sentences containing different types of infinitival complexes (*the for-to-infinitival complex, complex object, complex subject*) and the infinitive functioning as an adverbial modifier of purpose, or as an attribute to a noun predicative, modified by an adjective that is preceded by *too* (the infinitive then has the meaning of consequence). Here is the list of all twenty sentences presented to the respondents:

1. *"I like you too well to hurt you" he said softly <...>.*
2. *It is too dangerous for you to attempt alone.*
3. *I was waiting for him to take the initiative.*
4. *It will make it easier for you to act your part.*
5. *Johansen called vainly for him to come down.*
6. *He was too discreet and cautious a man to incur Wolf Larsen's anger at a time when that anger could be expressed in terms stronger than words.*
7. *But as I descended the companion stairs to clear the table I heard him shriek as the first bucket of water struck him.*
8. *It was plainly Thomas Mugridge's intention to make me pay for those three days.*
9. *Leach <...> begged me to leave a few remnants of the cook for him.*
10. *"I suppose she wanted me to buy a picture," he said at last.*
11. *All his bluster had gone, and he seemed to have caught the contagion of preternatural calm.*
12. *For, going down into the cabin to turn in, I decided that it was too stuffy to sleep below.*

13. *Johnson seems to spend all his spare time there or aloft at the crossrees, watching the Ghost cleaving the water under press of sail.*
14. *His victory over Death Larsen seemed to have had a remarkable effect upon him.*
15. *The young fellow seemed to have recovered his composure, for he answered steadily enough <...>.*
16. *I paused to listen for the breathing of the men, but there was no breathing <...>.*
17. *An almost funeral gloom seemed to have descended upon the Ghost.*
18. *Aunt Ann did not ask him to explain this strange utterance.*
19. *I nearly met you, once, in Philadelphia, some Browning affair or other – you were to lecture, you know.*
20. *She waited for me to go on.*

There were three groups of respondents:

1. The first year students of Šiauliai University, who study for the Bachelor Degree in English Philology. This group comprises 28 students who are supposed to have an upper-intermediate/advanced level of English.

2. The students of Year 4 of Šiauliai University, studying for the Bachelor Degree in English Philology. The second group comprises 13 students with an advanced level/fluent knowledge of English.

3. The third group consists of 9 students of Year 5 of Šiauliai University, who study for the Bachelor Degree in English Philology and have an advanced level/fluent knowledge of the English language.

We have chosen students with different level of knowledge of the English language on purpose, thus seeking to investigate the ways different groups of respondents deal with various difficulties in the process of translation. Thus, 50 respondents were given the list of 20 sentences with the English infinitives and infinitival constructions and were asked to translate them into Lithuanian. As it was mentioned above, our students were allowed to use dictionaries because some of the sentences might have contained unfamiliar vocabulary for them. However, none of the respondents was informed about the essence of the experiment and the object of the research in advance.

Having analysed the results, we may now claim that the experiment was successful. Our proposition, that the English infinitive and infinitival constructions, though at first sight so simple, still are a source of difficulties and mistakes, was justified. The results of the experiment are presented in the following table:

Sentences in English	Correct translation	Erroneous translation (1)	Erroneous translation (2)	No translation
1.	41	6	2	1
2.	40	10	0	0
3.	41	9	0	0
4.	32	18	0	0
5.	46	4	0	0
6.	32	12	0	6
7.	22	18	0	10
8.	39	6	0	5
9.	24	2	0	24
10.	46	3	0	1
11.	26	10	0	14
12.	33	5	4	8
13.	37	8	2	3
14.	35	11	0	4
15.	38	9	0	3
16.	39	1	4	6
17.	34	12	0	4
18.	36	10	0	4
19.	20	26	0	4
20.	31	14	0	5

Table 3. The results of the experiment with the English-Lithuanian infinitive and infinitival constructions.

Erroneous translation (1) – mistakes caused by the inaccurate/or faulty interpretation.

Erroneous translation (2) – mistakes violating the norms of the Lithuanian language.

As we can see from the data in the table, the results of correct translation of different types of infinitival constructions, as well as of the infinitive performing different functions in a sentence, are distributed more or less equally; therefore, it is difficult to set which constructions were the most difficult or the easiest ones to translate. For example, sentence 5 seems to have caused the least confusion as even 46 translations provided by our respondents, were correct. The same is with sentence 10, though the construction there was different from that in sentence 5. Concerning the cases with mistranslations, it is evident that sentence 19 (26 erroneous translations (1)) made the language learners (even with a very good/fluent knowledge of both languages) confused, and consequently, gave a rise to an erroneous translation. The

construction is quite simple and is frequently met in the English language. It expresses ‘arrangement, command, or predestined future’ (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1972:89). However, the respondents of our research provided either wrong translations or no translations at all (4 cases). Cf.: *you were to lecture* (=turėjai skaityti pranešimą) was translated as *buvai paskaitoje, buvai dėstyti, buvai pasimokyti, or skaitei pamokslą*. Surprisingly, even 24 language learners provided no translations for sentence 9, though the rest of the sentences with the same construction were translated relatively well. On the other hand, if we have a closer look at the results of sentence 7 (the same construction), we will see that only 22 cases of all translations of that sentence were correct. 18 respondents translated it in a wrong way and 10 of them provided no translations at all. This leads to the conclusion, that, perhaps, the construction referred to as complex object was one the most confusing. Furthermore, as we expected before carrying out the research, some of infinitival constructions do cause certain difficulties in the process of translation. The latter are mistakes that violate the norms of the target language, in our case, the norms of the Lithuanian language. The results of our research indicate that while rendering the infinitive that serves as an adverbial modifier of purpose, the respondents made the above mentioned mistakes. Cf.: *I paused to listen <...>* (= *aš stabtelėjau pasiklausyti*) was translated as: *sustojau, kad pasiklausyti*. Though the construction seems to be of rather simple nature, however, both translators and language learners should note, that the most common equivalent of such constructions in Lithuanian is the infinitive. This is due to the fact that it is inappropriate to use conjunction *kad+infinitive* to express purpose in Lithuanian. Though the number of mistakes of this type is rather small, still it means that the case requires attention.

The following figure shows total results of the experiment with the English-Lithuanian infinitives and infinitival constructions expressed in percentage.

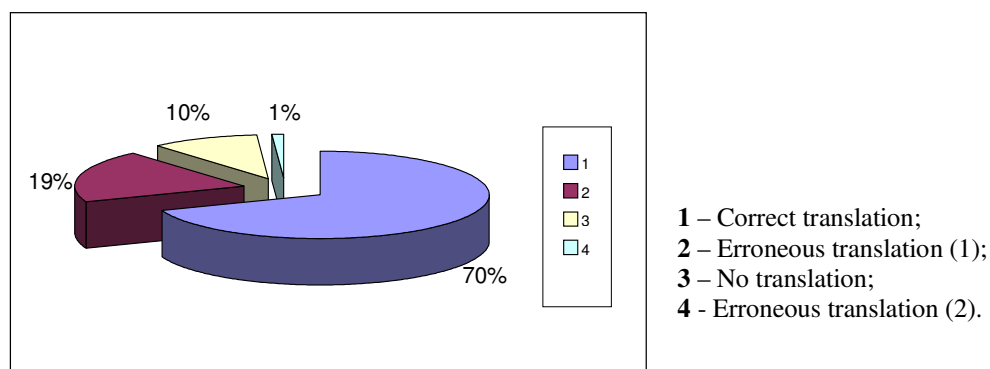


Figure 6. Total results of the experiment with the English-Lithuanian infinitive and infinitival constructions.

As we can see from the figure, the majority of translations, even 70 %, were performed correctly. 19 % of the respondents provided erroneous translations, the reason for that being faulty/or inaccurate interpretation of the construction and its elements. Cf.: the sentence *she waited for me to go on* was translated as follows: *ji laukė manęs, kad galėtų padėti, ji laukė manęs, kad galėtų tęsti* or *ji laukė manęs, kad galėtume eiti kartu toliau*. One more example of the same type of misinterpretation was as follows: *I was waiting for him to take the initiative* was translated as *aš laukiau jo, kad galėčiau perimti iniciatyvą*. Obviously, all of the translations are wrong. Similarly, a number of students misinterpreted the fifth sentence providing such translations as: *Johansenas veltui jam skambino, kad nusiramintų* or *Johansenas veltui prašė jo nusiraminti* (*Johansen called vainly for him to come down*). It is evident that the respondents mistook the phrase *calm down* for *come down*, which consequently resulted in numerous mistranslations. 1 % of students made mistakes that violated the norms of the target language, i.e. Lithuanian. Furthermore, even 10 % of our respondents provided no translation at all, which makes us think that the learners of English have insufficient knowledge of the phenomenon of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions. It follows then, perhaps, that teaching of the subject deserves special attention in the process of foreign language acquisition.

Notwithstanding the fact that the majority of respondents provided correct translations for the above presented sentences, the red, yellow and blue columns (see the figures bellow) indicate, that the cases of mistranslations are also quite numerous. Let us now look at the answers of the respondents, who have various command of the English language, individually.

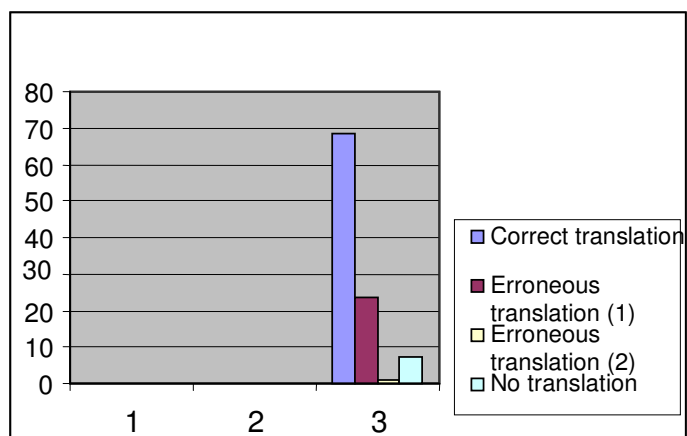


Figure 7. Translation results by 1st year students.

As pointed out above, the first group comprised 28 first year students, who study for the Bachelor Degree in English Philology and are supposed to have an upper intermediate/advanced

level of English. Surprisingly, the results of the latter group of respondents were rather good in comparison to the results presented by the fourth year students.

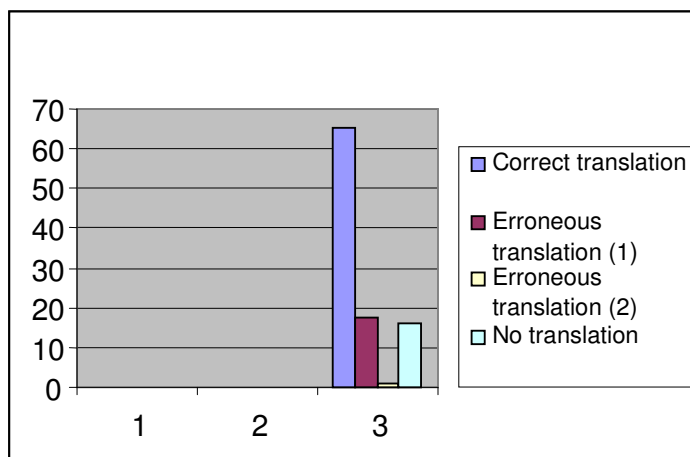


Figure 8. Translation results by 4th year students.

For example, the first year students provided 68, 4 % of correct translations, while the fourth year students – 65, 5 %. On the other hand, the second group of respondents provided less mistranslations, only 17, 4 %, respectively the first group presented even 23, 4 % of erroneous translations. Concerning mistakes violating the norms of the Lithuanian language, the results of both groups are almost the same – 0, 9% and 0, 8%. Apart from the above mentioned mistakes (*kad+infinitive*), the students also violated the norms of the target language by providing such translations as: *Džonsonas, matomai, ten praleidžia visą laisvalaikį* (*Johnson seems to spend all his spare time there <...>*). It must be noted that *matomai* is not used in the meaning of parenthesis *matyt*. Speaking about the cases when no translation was performed, it must be admitted that the fourth year students have the highest percentage, and that is 16, 3 %.

The results of the fifth year students are better than the results of the previous groups in almost all aspects. The following figure supports our claim.

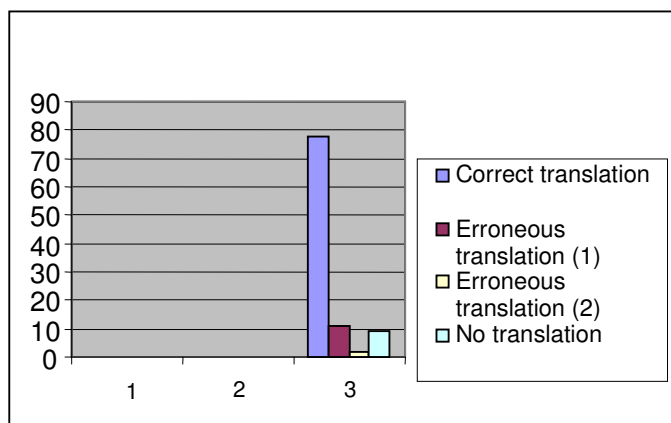


Figure 9. Translation results by 5th year students.

They provided 77, 8 % of correct translations and 11, 1 % of erroneous translations (1). The blue column indicates the cases where no translation was performed, and that makes 9, 4 %. Finally, the yellow column indicates that the respondents of the latter group violated the norms of the target language while searching for the equivalents to the presented infinitival constructions (1, 7 %). For example, they provided the following translations: *Stabtelėjau, kad paklausyti* (sentence 16), <...> *nusprendžiau, kad apačioje per daug tvanku, kad pamiegoti* (sentence 12), <...> *nusileidau laiptais, kad nuvalyti stalą* (sentence 7). Thus, we can draw the conclusion, that the fifth year students either have an insufficient knowledge of the target language or they were too much influenced by the English language systems, which consequently gave a rise to the erroneous translations.

Having analysed the results, we would like to revert to the main aim of our experiment, which was to investigate the ways our students render the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian. Hence, the following table summarises the ways our respondents dealt with the phenomenon.

The infinitive and infinitival constructions translated by:	Answers	Percentage
Infinitive	210	30,3%
Adverbial clause of purpose (result)	88	12,7%
Dative case + infinitive	118	17,1%
Object clause	91	13,2%
Complex object	12	1,73%
Impersonal sentence	121	17,5%
Parenthesis	40	5,78%
Finite form of the verb	12	1,73%
Total:	692	100%

Table 4. Ways of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian.

It must be admitted that the data presented in the latter table indicate, that in cases of correct translations, the respondents of our research employed almost all of the same ways of

rendering the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian, like those, proposed by linguists Mažeikienė (2000), Pažūsis, Rosinienė and Žemaitienė (1993) and discussed earlier in our study.

Finally, the last figure shows that only 30 % of the English infinitive and infinitival constructions were rendered into Lithuanian as the infinitives and 70 % were translated in other ways. It follows, that ‘it is difficult to find a notional category which is regularly and uniformly expressed in all languages’ (Baker, 1999:85).

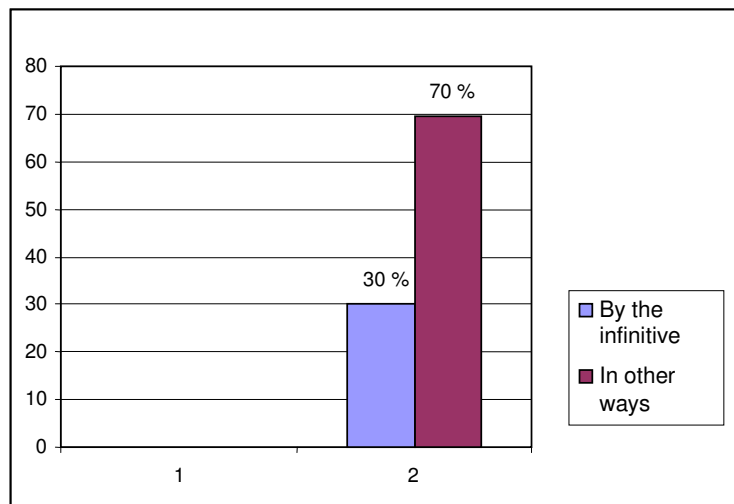


Figure 10. Translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions.

To sum up, the cases of erroneous translations of the infinitive and infinitival constructions are relatively numerous. Obviously, they are typical both, for the beginners and for the language learners with an excellent command of the English language. Unfortunately, it is not enough to master the foreign language says Calzada Pères (2001). Translators should also be well aware of the grammatical rules of their own language, or as Nida (2001) puts it, they must have a good command of both languages, which is the key to successful translating. One way or another, both, language learners and translators should remember that there is never any one correct translation. There are many reasons that influence translations, thus, they have a tendency to vary over time. We stick to the view, that even the same translator may translate a text differently at different times, depending on inspiration, fatigue, etc. Thus, by carrying out our research, we did not strive to determine certain rules on how to translate the infinitive and infinitival structures from English into Lithuanian. Our aim was to provide the guidelines, to present some of the possible ways of dealing with the subject matter. However, we admit that the phenomenon of translating the infinitive and infinitival constructions from English into Lithuanian could be further investigated in various aspects and various contexts.



## CONCLUSIONS

The investigation of the subject matter, which was carried out by means of contrastive analysis, has led us to the following conclusions:

1. The source language may have a number of grammatical forms and structures which have no analogues in the target language. It is a common phenomenon as two languages can seldom fully coincide in their grammatical structure.
2. Choices in language can be expressed either grammatically or lexically. If no grammatical forms are available in the target language, the translator must look for lexical means to render the same semantic content.
3. Translators are to employ a number of transformations while rendering grammatical meanings from the source language into the target language.
4. Even though grammatical categories might seem to be identical in two languages, they differ in the extent of lexical items and functions. Thus, the latter conclusion proves our hypothesis, that though both, English and Lithuanian verbs have their infinitive forms, the analogy, however, does not preclude a number of formal and functional differences that must be taken into account in the process of translation.
5. Translation of the English infinitive is greatly predetermined by its form and function in a sentence. Generally, the infinitive has direct equivalents in the Lithuanian language, and thus causes no difficulties for the translators. In cases where no direct equivalents are available, the translator is to employ various transformations. In doing this, the translator should seek to retain the same meaning, as well as to sound naturally.
6. Translation of secondary predication constructions (infinitival complexes) is often predetermined by their nature and structure.
  - 6.1. Depending on its function in a sentence and on the voice form (active or passive) of the infinitive, the for-to-infinitival construction may have different equivalents in Lithuanian.
  - 6.2. Translation of the subjective with the infinitive depends on the lexical meaning of the verb or rather the semantic group to which the verb belongs.
  - 6.3. Translation of the objective with the infinitive constructions may be predetermined not only by the nature and meaning of the finite verb/predicate, which may have various implicit dependent grammatical meanings (those of physical or mental perception, verbs of saying, etc.), but also by its syntactic function in a sentence.

7. Translation of the secondary predication constructions is predetermined by the translator's choice of the means and language units conveying the meaning of that construction and by the stylistic aim pursued in a sentence.

## ABBREVIATIONS

1. Conc. – Concordance for Windows Version 2.0.
2. Fit – F.S. Fitzgerald (original text)
3. Fic – F.S. Ficdžeraldas (translated text)
4. Gal – J. Galsworthy (original text)
5. Gol – Dž. Golsvortis (translated text)
6. Lo – J. London (original text)
7. Lon – Dž. Londonas (translated text)
8. DLKT – Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos tekstynas.

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## SUMMARY

Pasak Robinson (2003), sparčiai vystantis mokslui, technologijoms, plečiantis kultūriniais, ekonominiais ir politiniams ryšiams tarp šalių, vis labiau domimasi įvairiais vertimo klausimais. Pasaulyje egzistuoja gausybė kalbų ir kiekviena jų turi savas gramatines formas, struktūras bei raiškos priemones. Savo gramatine sandara dvi kalbos labai retai visiškai sutampa, taigi akivaizdu, kad gramatinės sandaros skirtumai lemia tam tikrus vertimo proceso sunkumus.

Mūsų darbo objektas yra bendraties ir jos konstrukcijų vertimas iš anglų į lietuvių kalbą. Darbo tikslas – išnagrinėti pagrindinius bendraties ir predikatinių bendraties konstrukcijų vertimo būdus. Siekiant šio tikslo, darbe pirmiausia pateikiama mokslinės literatūros apžvalga. Darbe naudojamas lyginamasis metodas padeda atskleisti bendraties ir jos konstrukcijų vertimo ypatybes. Empirinėje darbo dalyje pateikiami ir aptariami pavyzdžiai, analizuojami jų vertimo būdai. Atlikus tyrimą paaiškėjo, kad originalo kalboje gali egzistuoti gausybė įvairių gramatinių formų ir konstrukcijų, kurios neturi atitikmenų vertimo kalboje. Tačiau vienokių ar kitokių gramatinių priemonių nebuvimas vienoje iš kalbų nėra neįveikiama kliūtis. Tokiais atvejais siūloma išeitis – gramatinės reikšmės perteikti leksinėmis reikšmėmis. Vadinasi, norėdami perteikti originalo kalbos gramatinės reikšmės vertimo kalboje, vertėjai yra priversti taikyti įvairias transformacijas. Taip pat nustatyta, kad net tais atvejais, kuomet viena ar kita gramatinė kategorija yra būdinga abiem kalboms, tai dar nereiškia, kad ji yra tapati, nes be tam tikrų gramatinių bendrybių, be abejo, esti ir tam tikrų gramatinės sandaros skirtumų. Pastaroji išvada patvirtina mūsų hipotezę: nors bendraties formos yra būdingos ir anglų, ir lietuvių kalbai, tačiau iš tikrųjų jos iš dalies skiriasi. Akivaizdu, kad siekdami išsaugoti gražią kalbą bei išlaikyti vertimo ekvivalentiškumą, vertėjai privalo gerai išmanyti ne tik originalo, bet ir savo kalbą bei vengti klaidų. Taip pat nustatyta, kad bendraties vertimą lemia jos forma bei atliekamos funkcijos sakinyje. Reikia paminėti, kad daugeliu atvejų anglų kalbos bendratis ir jos konstrukcijos yra verčiamos ekvivalentiškai, nesukeldamos sunkumų vertėjui. Tačiau kai to padaryti neįmanoma, vertėjas yra priverstas parinkti tokias gramatines struktūras, kurios neprieštarautų lietuvių kalbos normoms. Predikatinių bendraties konstrukcijų vertimas taip pat priklauso nuo leksinės veiksmažodžio reikšmės ar semantinės grupės, kuriai jis priklauso, nuo konstrukcijos tipo, struktūros ar atliekamos funkcijos. Galiausiai vertimas priklauso nuo to, kokias kalbos raiškos priemones ir vienetus pasirenka pats vertėjas, nes kaip jau buvo minėta anksčiau, reikšmės, kurios vienoje kalboje turi gramatinę raišką, kitoje kalboje gali turėti leksinę raišką, ir atvirkščiai.