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**CULTURAL ISSUES IN TRANSLATING INFORMATIVE TEXTS**

UNDERGRADUATE THESIS

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Supervisor: Mgr. Andrew Tollet, M.Litt.

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Prohlašuji, že jsem bakalářskou práci vypracovala samostatně s použitím uvedené literatury a pramenů uvedených v seznamu, který je součástí této bakalářské práce.

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## ABSTRACT

Jitka Štěpánová. University of West Bohemia. June, 2016. Cultural issues in translating informative texts.

Supervisor: Mgr. Andrew Tollet, M.Litt.

This undergraduate thesis primarily deals with translation of culturally bound words from Czech to English. The Theoretical background chapter contains a brief description of translation and definitions from multiple linguists and translators. Included is also division of translation from various points of view. Where possible authors own examples are accompanied. Next part explores the cultural barriers of translation, which are divided into subchapters and detaily depicted. Focus is also on the differences between Czech and English.

Further, the informative writing style is shortly explained for the purpose of the practical part of the thesis. The work does not only contain theory but also a thorough analysis of excerpts from tourist brochures, official Pilsen's websites and other sources of informative texts, which puts theory into practice. The examples are chosen to contain cultural phenomena connected to food and dishes, parts of the city or names. They are then further explicated and different possible translations are offered if necessary. Everything resolves in the final chapter. Appendix consists of texts from internet sources which illustrate the problematic of translation of culturally bound words.

*Keywords: "translation", "cultural barriers", "translation methods", "translation approaches", types of translation", "translation procedures", "differences between Czech and English", "equivalency", "translating names"*

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Throughout history there have always been languages which dominated international trade and intercultural communication. In ancient times a major role in European communication was played by Latin. Supposingly, only few people would argue, that lingua franca of the 21<sup>st</sup> century is not English. Because of globalisation, increasing immigration, free trade and open state borders, a common language is needed more than ever. In this age people are likely to encounter not only different languages, but also cultures, habits, religion and different beliefs every day. When this happens, knowing how to manage these differences effectively and avoiding misunderstandings is needed.

The main objective of this thesis is to present the topic of cultural issues in translating informative texts; furthermore, to highlight problematic parts caused by cultural differences reflected in language, to show strategies and methods of translation as well as to give concrete examples and their potential translations. The main source of the this thesis was *K Teorii i praxi překladau* by Dabmar Knittlová, *Překládání a Čeština* by Zlata Kufnerová et al. and *A Textbook of Translation* by Peter Newmark.

The first chapter is an introduction where content of individual chapters is stated and the sources are defined. The chapter of the thesis consists of a theoretical background containing definitions of translation and a brief history. Also translation methods, procedures and approaches are described here from various points of view, divided by many authors. Because translators approach their tasks in many various ways, every method cannot be represented in this thesis. Therefore only few, subjectively the most important, are presented. Further, the thesis engages with cultural barriers and their division according to Newmark. The problematic of translating names are also revealed in this chapter. The differences between English and Czech are revealed also in the theoretical background. To fully understand the language during translation is necessary. To understand it also means to know what language family it belongs to, what type of language it is, how the word classes are created, how does the sentence structure belong. All units mentioned are described in this chapter. To emphasize the English language structure, it will be compared to Czech language. The following section is very briefly

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describing informative texts and how are they different from other texts, because these are the type of texts which are analysed in the practical part of this thesis. This chapter should specify and determine what is meant when using the term informative texts in this thesis. The third chapter – Text analysis - is related to the evaluation of texts from tourist brochures, official city websites and other internet sources. The purpose of the analysis is neither to seek for mistakes in translation nor to correct them. The analyses should only highlight places of possible confusion and suggest a better or just different point of view or different possible translation. Only texts challenging to translate should be presented. Following chapter contains the conclusion where everything is summarised and resolves. References, resume in Czech and also appendices can be found in the final chapters.

## 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### 2.1 About Translation

Although, present-day international communication depends heavily on translation and “documentary evidence of translation can be tracked back for at least two millennia” (Bell, 1991, p. 3), translation is a relatively new field of academic discipline. Traditionally, translators were concerned mainly with the literary and aesthetic aspect of the text in target language (TL). It was not before the 20th century when translation gained more of linguistic approach. The first translation-oriented linguistic papers were published in the 1930s. Then in the 1960s a large number of linguistic works about the translation theory were written.

According to Bell (1991) the word ‘translation’ is itself ambiguous.

Why is it that, in spite of having been a hotly debated topic over such a long period of time, translation still seems to be a mysterious phenomenon which defies understanding and still lacks a comprehensive theory which can explain what it is and how it happens. (p. 4)

Dubois (1973) in Bell’s (1991) translation: “Translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences.” (p. 5)

The definition of Hartman and Stork (1972) is more concerned in the matter of equivalence:

Translation is the replacement of representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language. Texts in different languages can be equivalent in different degrees (fully or partially equivalent), in respect of different levels of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of semantics, of grammar, of lexis, etc.) and at different ranks (word-for-word, phrase-for-phrase, sentence-for-sentence). (p. 713)

Back in Classical times Cicero 46 BC believed that translation is a choice between word-for-word translation (literal translation) or meaning-for-meaning (free translation).

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For the contemporary American linguist and translation theorist Eugene Nida translation is more complex, it defines as a transfer of the original text from the superficial level into the depth level. Only after releasing the importance of the utterance, it can be formulated on a superficial level of the target language. According to Nida, the primary purpose of a translation is the transfer of information within form and content. During translation the nature of the utterance should be taken in account as well as the aim of the author and the addressee to whom is the text intended. Important is the selection of the words and their stylistic arrangement. What should be kept in mind is that in different languages and cultures there exist different stylistic standards, which the translator should always follow.

Mary N. Layoun (1995) presents translation as “but not only, the putative transfer from one language and culture to another, It is, but not only, the interpretative re-presentation of the strange and foreign as, if not familiar, at least plottable and arguably comprehensible in more or less familiar terms.” (p. 269) Layoun also considers the relationship between translation and communication: “It has become clear that translational thinking is fundamental to all of human communication and that indeed all acts of communication are acts of translation.” (p. 267)

Of course, more definitions, points of view and opinions could be presented; however, the used examples were hopefully sufficient to gain a notion about what a translation is and how diverse it can get. At the end of this summary it is suitable to quote Mounin’s complaint perhaps to help the future generation of translators: “The only pity about a translation is that it is not the original. A translator’s basic job is to translate and then, if he finds his translation inadequate, to help the reader to move a little nearer to the meaning.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 5)

## 2.2 Varieties of Translation

According to Savory (1957) “There are no universally accepted principles of translation.” (p. 48) However there are already many approved techniques, principles and rules for translation and they still continue appearing. Although one might see translation as a pure transfer of texts into a different language, there are quite a few types, names and methods which should be mentioned regarding translation.

Spivak argues that the “translator needs to earn the right to become the intimate reader of a text and this can occur only through the close acquaintance, association, or familiarity that makes intimacy possible.” (Dingwaney, 1995, p. 28)

### ***2.2.1 Translation Approaches***

Until the beginning of the 19th century free translation was preferred. Newmark (1988) explains “the spirit, not the letter; the sense not the words; the message rather than the form; the matter not the manner.” (p. 45) In the 19th century there was an appeal made to have as literal translation as possible. Knittlová (2010) states: “The translated text has of course its form and meaning; from this fact is derived the existence of two main types of translation: translations oriented to the form (form-based) and translations oriented to the meaning (meaning-based).” (p. 16) A need for order is essential therefore some translation approaches based on Newmark are introduced in the following chapters provided with examples from other linguists and also author’s own examples.

#### *2.2.1.1 Word-for-word Translation*

Word-for-word translation is also called the interlinear or literal translation. In this approach the translator maintains the word order of the SL and the choice of words is to have the most common meaning out of the context. Cultural words are also translated literally. The advantage of this method is that the readership is able to understand the mechanics of the source language. Therefore it is often used by linguists and also in the pre-translation process. This translation does not respect the grammatical system of the TL. For example, I want to come with you - Já chci jít s ty/tebou.

#### *2.2.1.2 Semantic Translation*

It is expected that the translation has the same meaning as the original text. The translator focuses on the source text and to some point ignores the real usage in the target culture. This can be a case of proverbs, which can be translated grammatically correctly but still not being understood by the target readership. Semantic translation takes more account of the aesthetic value - the beautiful and natural sounds of the SL text, compromising on 'meaning' where appropriate. It is also more liberal when translating cultural words.

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It rather finds culturally neutral or functional terms. Semantic translation is more flexible, “admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity and allows for the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 46)

### *2.2.1.3 Adaptation*

Adaptation depends on the particular market or style. “This is the 'freest' form of translation.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 46) It is mostly applied in plays where the poetry, comedy, themes, plot and characters are preserved, but the text rewritten. Adaptation can also work when the SL and TL are the same. For example, today’s youth might favour the film adaptations of Shakespeare’s dramas rather than the theatre adaptations.

### *2.2.1.4 Free Translation*

“Free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 46) The translator is given a great freedom of expression. Some may even call a free translation paraphrasing. Does not take in notice the register, style nor connotation of the SL text. It is weak in transferring the aesthetic qualities of the SL text.

### *2.2.1.5 Idiomatic Translation*

The main purpose of idiomatic translation is to mediate the message of the original. It transforms the original phrases into contemporary or colloquial expressions with familiar phonic and rhythmic patterns to be more readable for the TL audience. It uses idioms which do not exist in the SL, but are well understood by the TL readership. Some authors would call this approach *idiomizing*; and an *idiomatic* translation would be the one which would sound natural and normal to a native speaker, that means more approaches could correspond here.

### *2.2.1.6 Communicative Translation*

Communicative translation is closely connected with pragmatics. Priority of this translation is the effectiveness of the message on the TL readership. It takes in account the readability, context and naturalness of the translated text. It is frequently used with advertisements, tourist brochures, product descriptions or manuals where the form of the original is not closely bound to its intended meaning. “Communicative translation attempts

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to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 41) For example, ‘dobrý den’ does not have an total equivalent in English, therefore, it is translated as ‘good morning or ‘good afternoon’ depending on the context.

### *2.2.1.7 Functional Approach*

The first linguist to introduce this approach and who discovered that the language means of SL and the TL do not have to be the same was John Cunnison Catford. The major importance is that the SL and the TL perform the same function.

Also a Czech linguist and prosaic Zbyněk Fischer is sympathizer of this approach. He states that unlikely other translation theories which are based on concept of equivalence, this has an opposite goal. Previous translation experts considered it necessary for the translation to have the same impact on the recipient as the original had. Furthermore, the translation should arrange the same relation as the reader of the original had with the author. Fischer, however, disagrees with this concept and argues that it is not possible in this modern time to try to evoke the same relation Shakespeare had with his audience in the 16th century. Fischer suggests realizing what function the text should have for the reader. If translating literary texts, the translator must use his/hers own creative skills. Then the dominant figure in such a translation would be aesthetics. Yet, if the reader is a linguist and is interested in all the morphological, syntactical language structures, literal or so called linguistic translation would be preferred. To translate rhymed poetry a translator must use the poet’s thoughts through his own language with his own skills that he masters (Překlad jako kreativní proces, 22<sup>nd</sup> February 2010).

### **2.2.2 Translation Methods**

The Polish theorist Lucjan Feliks Malinowski claims that a literal translation is incomprehensible. Too loose translation does not, under some circumstances, capture adequately the cultural background of the SL. This issue can be solved also by the translation with additional commentary. One of possible comments is, for example, in Czech ‘Svatoň’ can be used, but in English a comment must be ad otherwise nobody would understand what

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'Svatoň' is; solution would be to use 'Svatoň hill'. Contemporary linguists defined seven core methods solving the problem of missing equivalents in the target language.

### 2.2.2.1 *Calque*

Calque is also called loan translation or through translation because it works with the literal meaning of common collocations, names of organisations and phrases and transfers it often word by word into the TL. Examples are (Author's own and from Knittlová): skyscraper – mrakodrap, world war – světová válka - Weltkrieg, superman - nadčlověk - Übermensch, blue-blood – modrá krev, rain forest – deštný prales - Regenwald, grandparents - prarodiče - Großeltern, flea market - bleší trh - Flohmarkt.

### 2.2.2.2 *Transliteration*

Transliteration occurs when the translator transcribes the sound of the word in SL into the TL. The transcription is written in a different way and often with different script in various languages however important is to maintain the pronunciation in all cases. Transliteration is often used with proper names and names of people. As examples may function: jeans - džíny, management - manažment, cashmere - kašmír, handicap - hendikep, toast - toust, couch - gauč, essay - esej, juice - džus, spaghetti - špagety. (Authors own examples)

### 2.2.2.3 *Substitution*

Substitution is also called adaptation or equivalence. Even though there is no formal synonym, it is possible to substitute a TL statement for a SL statement which accounts for the same situation. In this method the TL must express the same idea, although in a different way. Newmark defines the term *cultural equivalent* which functions on a similar basis. When communicative situations are difficult to understand in the culture of TL or when the situation of the SL does not exist in the TL another equivalent situation has to be created or replaced by an analogous situation of the TL.

### 2.2.2.4 *Transposition*

Transposition is also called a shift or recategorization. "It is the necessary grammatical changes due to a different language system." (Knittlová, 2010, p. 19). Newmark (1988) argues that transposition consists of four types of grammatical changes.

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The first type concerns words' form and position. (p. 85-86) To clarify the following examples are listed: information - informace; homework - domácí úkol(y); evidence - důkaz(y); luggage - zavazadlo/zavazadla; money - peníz(e); list - leave(s); křoví - bush(es); koření - spice(s); zelenina - vegetable(s) (author's own examples). Here, it is obvious that the English singular words are changed to plural forms in Czech and vice versa. Second type concerns the position of the adjectives. The next type of transposition is usually used when the TL does not have the equal grammatical structure of the SL. Here, the translator looks for other options that help conveying the meaning of the ST. The fourth type occurs when the translator uses a grammatical structure as a way to replace a lexical gap. In short, transposition concerns the changes of grammatical categories in translation.

### 2.2.2.5 Modulation

Modulation makes a semantic change alters the point of view allows the expression of the original phrase in a different way. For example: elbow of the pipe - koleno potrubí (Knittlová, 2010); a different feel to this country - zcela jiná tvář země (Jak na překlad, n.d.).

### 2.2.2.6 Equivalence

Newmark claims that achieving the equivalent effect is the main purpose of translating. Both Knittlová and Newmark deal with classification of equivalence. Generally, lexical and grammatical equivalence is differentiated. Knittlová further distinguishes lexical equivalency into: *total equivalence* (parts of body, animals, time expressions), *partial equivalence* (differing typologically, culturally, historically or geographically) and *zero equivalence*, when the translator has to use different methods. The purpose is to remain the equivalent in the TL. Both texts must be parallel (almost like synonyms) with the same validity in both languages. It is important to remember that the equivalence is sought not for the words, but for their meanings. It is often used with idioms. Far far away - za devatero horami a devatero řekami; prší jako z konve - it is raining cats and dogs; you are welcome - není zač; are examples of easily replaceable phrases suitable for the same situations.

### 2.2.2.7 *Adaptation*

Newmark calls adaptation and cultural equivalent. Adaptation tries to replace the situation of the TL when such a situation does not occur in the TL and therefore would not be understandable. The socio-cultural reality is replaced from the SL with the reality known to the TL audience. Here are author's own examples of phrases which are strictly culturally bound and on that account must be replaced by a phrase understandable for the target audience: Holka z E55 – a girl from the red light district, Baťovské ceny – tricky prices that seems like a good catch, nedělej Zagorku – don't play a hard to get (don't be a Gaga), Václavovo Věčko – V for victory, byl to kameňák – it was a cheap folk humor, byla to hotová ladovská zima – it was a lovely winter like from a picture book, to nebyl pes ale maxipes Fík – it wasn't a dog it was a Beowulf, ječí jako Viktorka u splavu – she screams like a Mandrake, vysmátý jak lečo – laughing like a Cheshire cat, vaří jako pejsek a kočička – he cooks like a Mr.Bean, zarostlý jako krakonoš – bearded like Hagrid, oprsklá jako lázeňská veverka – cheeky like a raccoon in a camp, je tak stará že si pamatuje Šemíka jako hříbě - she is so old that she could tell you the details of the Battle of Hastings (or she is so old that she remembers when the Dead Sea was still alive).

### 2.2.3 *Other methods of translation*

Terms like Divergence, Convergence, Reduction, Condensation, Diffusion and Reordering were introduced by Joseph Malone. Within *divergency* there is more than one way of translating an expression from the SL to TL. The choice is then upon the translator according to the meaning and the context. It is e.g. the contrast between addressing someone formally or informally – in English: you and in Czech: ty, vy. (Brůčková, 2010) *Convergence* does in fact the opposite of Divergency offering more equivalents from the SL and having only one possible translation in the TL. The principle of Reduction is based on shortening the text in the TL, which can make it more concentrated in meaning. The process of amplification is the opposite to the process of the reduction. (Brůčková, 2010) During the process of *condensation* occurs a compression of the text in the TL. For example: s modrým hřbetem – blue-backed. And again, *diffusion* is the opposite to Condensation expensing the translated text. For example: tongue-heavy – mít těžký jazyk. *Reordering* is then only a rearrangement involving a change of the word order.

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Many translators define their translation methods differently. A new translation concept created by an American linguist Gerardo Vázquez-Ayora is sectioned into: *amplification* (when the text in TL is larger than the original one), *explicitation* (explaining possible difficulties in translation), *omission* (leaving out the redundant information during translation) and *compensation* (placing an element from a SL to a better place of text in the TL). (Brůčková, 2010)

### 2.2.3.1 Translation Procedures

V. Straková in Kuffnerová et.al (1994) divides the translation activity into three parts: a) understanding the text in the source language syntactically, morphologically and lexically as well; b) translating the text into mother tongue in which is the translator the most confident and can well associate or have a notion about how frequently words are used, about their stylistic values, standards etc.; c) searching for the suitable equivalents in the TL.

According to Newmark (1988) there are two translation procedures. The first available is *transference*, which some would not call a translation procedure, because it focuses mainly on the culture and omits the message. In literary text it highlights the local colour and atmosphere; however, in the specialist texts it makes it difficult for the readership to recognise the referent. The second procedure is then the *componential analysis*. This is the most exact translation procedure, “which excludes the culture and highlights the message”. During componential analysis the component in the SL exists and is common also in the TL.

“Inevitably, a componential analysis is not as economical and has not the pragmatic impact of the original. Lastly, the translator of a cultural word, which is always less context-bound than ordinary language, has to bear in mind both the motivation and the cultural specialist (in relation to the text's topic) and linguistic level of the readership.” (p. 96)

### 2.2.3.2 Types of Translation

Translation is a very broad term which can be looked upon from many perspectives. Skoumalová (in Kuffnerová, 1994) focuses firstly on semiotic matter of the SL and the TL; a) weather translation happens in the same language, for example by

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replacing a construction with a semiotic similar one. This is also described by a Russian linguist Roman Jakobson and is called the 'Intralingual translation'. Semiotic matter is also considered if b) the translation happens between two different languages which are still semantically similar, like in the case of English to Czech translation. Jakobson names this 'Interlingual translation' and it is also called translation proper. Jakobson's 'Inter-semiotic translation' is c) if the translation is done into a different semiotic language, for example from a constructed language or from the language of music. This translation is in fact used every day without even realising it; for example when reading symbols on clothing tags related to appropriate way of washing clothes; symbols on a calculator; currency symbols; a clock etc.

Secondly, the relationship or the typography of the two languages should be taken in account. Further the focus can be on territorially close languages - oriental, African or languages from some era - antique languages. This issue will be dealt with in chapter 4.

Thirdly, the type of the text should be considered during translation. Different focus will be places while translating poetry, than while translating academic writings. In some texts the content would want to be more highlighted than the form of the text. In chapter number 6 informative texts will be described because these would be the type of texts analysed later in the practical part of the thesis.

Fourthly, prestigious or preferred languages might also be translated into less known languages, which can reveal problems related with that. Skoumalová also deals with to what extent the translated text differs from the original. In this case the translation can be divided into adequate, substandard, rough, faithful, literal (word-for-word) or of-the-same-genius (if the translator is expected to apply also his creativity) or free.

### **2.3 Cultural Barriers**

Since the beginning of humankind, a language has been one of the most important tools for people: it is connected with the dawn of development of human society and its culture. Culture is according to Vermeer (as cited in Nord, 2001, p. 33) "the entire setting of norms and conventions an individual as a member of his society must know in order to be 'like everybody' - or to be able to be different from everybody." Since each ethnic group has evolved in a different place and under various conditions, the mentality or

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perception of everyday reality and world differ from one nation to another. Moreover, of course, it is the language, the most noticeable symbol of this diversity, which is used as a means to express surrounding reality. Claire Kramsch (2005) claims that language expresses, embodies and symbolizes cultural reality. This statement is clearly visible when we compare how two languages as English and Czech describe identical voices of nature. While an English pig makes: "Oink, oink!", Czech children learn: "Chro, chro!". An English cock crows: "Cock-a-doodle-doo!", while his Czech counterpart cries: "kikirikí!". When even onomatopoeic words differ in every language, it is clear that man-made lexicon, where each unit carries a soul and national identity, would also differ. As Franz Boas (1911) the father of modern anthropology states: "the form of the language will be molded by the state of the culture." (Katan, 2004, p. 7)

Nida also sees a connection between culture and language. Both are adopted in childhood and do not change much during the later years. Both, according to Nida, "seem to be frozen by upper adolescence after which time most people find it difficult to learn a foreign language without noticeable accent." (Nida 2001, p. 14) Newmark (1988) distinguishes three types of language - cultural, universal and personal. 'Monsoon', 'steppe', 'dacha' are all considered to be cultural words when 'breakfast', 'embrace' are considered universal. Personal words are then those which express one personal self often called idiolect, like "he is a 'monologger'" meaning he never finishes a sentence. Universal words should not create a problem in translation, but the others often do. There can be more than several sub-cultures within one language. Dialect is though not assumed to be a cultural word if it describes universals (e.g. 'loch', 'moors'). In general a problem with translation is everywhere where there is some sort of cultural focus. Cultural focus creates a gap or distance between the SL and the TL. For instance, each nation or community has a different cultural focus and therefore a broader lexis of that matter. English has a large vocabulary describing sports, French is supposed to be the language of administration and also food, Eskimos have many terms for snow and Arabs for camels.

Note that operationally I do not regard language as a component or feature of culture. If it were so, translation would be impossible. Language does however contain all kinds of cultural deposits, in the grammar (genders of inanimate nouns), forms of address (like Sie? usted) as well as the lexis (the sun sets). (p. 95)

Adapting Nida, Peter Newmark (1988, p. 97) in his Textbook of translation categorises cultural words in 5 sections.

### **Ecology**

Flora, fauna, local winds, mountains, ice, hills, plains: 'savanna', 'paddy field

### **Material culture** (artifacts)

Food: 'zabaglione', 'sake', Kaiserschmarren

Clothes: 'anorak', kanga (Africa), sarong (South Seas), dhoti (India)

Houses and towns: kampong, bourg, bourgade 'chalet', 'low-rise', 'tower'

Transport and communication: 'bike', 'rickshaw', 'Moulton', cabriolet

'tilbury', caliche

### **Social culture**

Work and leisure: 'reggae', 'rock'

### **Organisations, customs, ideas, activities, procedures, concepts**

Political and administrative

Religious: 'karma', 'temple'

Artistic

### **Gestures and habits**

'Cock a snook', 'spitting'

#### **2.3.1 Ecology**

Words fitting into this section are strictly geographically related. For example, "many countries have 'local' words for plains - 'prairies', 'steppes', 'tundras', 'pampas', 'savannahs', 'llanos', campos, paramos, 'bush', Veld - all with strong elements of local colour." The same is when talking about local fruits and other plants which might not be known in other countries and in different languages. If they happen to occur in the same culture they are usually not translated or the Latin botanical classification can be used. Words related to season might also be a problem during translation. It is possible to explain how does a hurricane looks like, but if people living all their lives in a desert truly understand is not certain. Nida has pointed out that television will soon be a worldwide clarifying force for certain ecological features.

### **2.3.2 Material Culture**

“Food is for many the most sensitive and important expression of national culture; food terms are subject to the widest variety of translation procedures. Various settings: menus - straight, multilingual, glossed; cookbooks, food guides; tourist brochures; journalism increasingly contain foreign food terms.”

(Newmark, 1988, p. 97)

Many food-related words are used in French although there often exist a suitable word in the TL. It is because French cuisine is prevalent for prestige reasons. Newmark does not see this fact as a problem if they are explained in the recipes. However, it is not only the lexis that could be the problem of translation. David Katan (2004) in *Translating cultures* deals with a issue of perception. Western nations often find the smell and taste of Asian specialty, the Durian fruit, unpleasant. “Most westerners describe the experience of eating it as a cross between gum and inhaling lavatory cleaner.” (p. 73). Yet, this fruit is very popular among Asians especially in Malaysia. The British have a stereotypical opinion on Mediterranean (particularly the French) smell of garlic. “Garlic for British collocates with the verb ‘to reek’ . (Katan, 2004, p. 73) Newmark (1988) continues with his finding, that “traditionally, upper-class men's clothes are English and women's French (note slip, bra) but national costumes when distinctive are not translated, e.g., sari, kimono, yukata, dirndl, kaftan jubbah, jeans (which is an internationalism, and an American symbol like 'coke’).” (p. 97) These words can be further described (basque skirt, shintigin trousers...) or is they are not of special interest they can be also replaced with generic words of the TL. Apart from food and clothing other words are related to material culture such as houses.

Every culture and language has its typical name for a house which remains untranslated. ‘Palazoo’ is an Italian word for a large house, ‘chalet’ is also called Swiss chalet and it is a type of building or house, native to the Alpine region (Wikipedia - Chalet, 26<sup>th</sup> October 2015), ‘bungalow’ is deriving from the Gujarati and it is a type of building, originally from South Asia, with verandas and being low-rise (Wikipedia - Bungalow, 20<sup>th</sup> May 2016), ‘hacienda’ is derived from Spanish and is mostly popular in Bolivia, Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico and Peru. Transport is also a rank of material culture. Newark states that American English has 26 words for a car including some neologisms such as: 'lay-by’, 'roundabout', 'fly-over’ and ‘interchange’. However,

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names of planes are often internationalisms for those who take an interest in such matters ('jumbo jet', '747' etc.).

### **2.3.3 Social Culture**

In social culture there must be distinction between denotative (= having power to have a mark or sign of) and connotative (= signifying or suggestive of an associative or secondary meaning in addition to the primary meaning) problems of translation. Words related to people, classes and wealth, leisure, lifestyle and national sports will fit in this category.

#### *2.3.3.1 Social organisation - political and administrative*

Terms to describe heads of the state, such as 'king', 'president' etc., are usually transparent and easy to translate. For administrative purposes, usually a recognised official translation of parliament is given rather than the not easily translatable name, for example 'German Federal Parliament' for Bundestag). Different would be the transfer for educated readership, where the original name could stay untranslated. For general readership it would be as 'West German Parliament'. Government can be also addressed by the name of the house in which it functions, such as 'White House', 'Pentagon', 'Westminster'. Names of ministries are suggested to be literally translated. Where office's name is not clear the translator should search for a possible recognised translation and consider if it will be understood by the readership. However, if the translator decides that the setting is not appropriate, the name should be transferred and a functional, culture-free equivalent given. (Newmark, 1988, p. 99)

#### *2.3.3.2 Artistic terms*

For Artistic terms are considered names of movements, processes, styles and organisations. The translator relies on the putative knowledge of the readership. Names of buildings, museums, theatres, opera houses, are likely to be transferred as well as translated, since they form part of street plans and addresses. Many terms in art and music remain Italian, but French in ballet. 'Art nouveau' in English and French becomes 'Jugendstil' in German, 'secese' in Czech and 'stile liberty' in Italian. (Newmark, 1988, p. 102)

### **2.3.4. Gestures, Habits, Behaviour**

There are some gestures and habits which are very typical for country and which are not usually for another country or culture. There is a saying in Czech: 'Different country, different customs.' Translating a text containing such a habit might cause a major confusion or even disgust for a readership of a different cultural background. These habits or gestures could be for example: "if people smile a little when someone dies, do a slow hand-clap to express warm appreciation, spit as a blessing, nod to dissent or shake their head to assent, kiss their fingertips to greet or to praise, give a thumbs-up to signal OK." (Newmark, 1988, p. 102) Another example might be the way of raising children. In the Czech Republic it is quite normal to slap a disrespectful child whereas in Great Britain and also the USA this behaviour is out of question and can be recognised as child abuse. In English there is no equivalent for the continental invitation to 'have a good appetite'. There is a tradition among the theatre actors in the Czech Republic. To wish each other luck the actors would gesture spitting and kicking each other's bottoms. While this is accepted as a friendly act in the Czech theater it would probably cause a wave of displeasure in other countries. Here more than in any other translation it depends on the readership. Whether it is an expert, educated or uninformed and according to them adjust to translation. To this matter Katan (2004,74) points out the tendency to make assumptions and stereotypes, which is "totally natural and normal, though not particularly useful for cross-cultural encounters." (p. 74)

Eugene Nida who, for example, translated the Bible into Inuktitut did very challenging translations. One of them was the translation into language of the Inuit people, who live in the Canadian Arctic. It is because the Bible is set in a sandy desert with donkeys, goats and olive trees. "You can't translate without cultural context", as Nida explains. He spent 24 years to complete the translation or as he says to "transform it by its message". Nida strongly believed that "Meaning is found not in the dictionaries, grammars and encyclopaedias, nor in texts nor even in contexts, but in our heads." (The Reverend Eugene Nida, 1<sup>st</sup> September 2011)

### **2.3.5 Names**

Translation of Proper names and culturally bound names is an issue which deserves its own chapter. Primary, two types of names should be distinguished: geographical and personal names. When it comes to translating names of states, cities and regions, translator should always be aware of the recent changes and should stay up to date. He or she should know that Mumbai was previously called Bombay, Chemnitz is no longer Karl Marx Stadt, Peking renames to Beijing and so on. Usual practise of translating names is transcription, for example: New Orleans - New Orleans; New York - New York but New Zealand - Nový Zéland. Newmark (1988) advises:

Do not normally call Polish or Czechoslovak towns by their German names: Breslau/Wrocław, Karlsbad/Karlovy Vary (The Polish Minister of Information rightly protested to the West Germans about this habit recently.) Check the existence of any place name used in a work of fiction, encourage the tendency of place-names to revert to their non-naturalised names (Braunschweig, Hessen, Hannover), do not take sides on any political disputes about place-names. Check the spelling of all proper names - this is where misprints are most common. Where appropriate, you have to 'educate'. Austerikz is Slavkov, a town in Czechoslovakia; Auschwitz, the most terrible word in any language, is Oswiecim. (p. 35)

Czech pupils in English classes are especially fond of finding how their name is translated to English. Although, this is an easy way to spend the time of the whole English lesson in translation it is preferred to preserve their nationality. This tendency of children and also some school teachers may carry a problem when, for example, a child is being asked on the border to a different country or at an airport to give its name. If the child's reply consist of an English name (like George) and the person in charge looks into the child's identification card and sees a whole different name (like Jiří) it will create at least a confusion. Regardless of that, transparent names of saints, monarchs, popes and other prominent figures are translated. Some names, like the names from classical Greece are naturalised. More complicated translation of names occurs in fairy tales, allegories and comedies where also the meaning and sound of the name must be considered and its connotation in the text.

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Leppihalme (1997, p. 79) introduces new strategies for translating proper names:

### **Retention of the name:**

1. Using the name as such.
2. Using the name, adding some guidance.
3. Using the name, adding a detailed explanation, for instance, a footnote.

### **Replacement of the name by another:**

1. Replacing the name by another SL name.
2. Replacing the name by a TL name

### **Omission of the name:**

1. Omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means, for instance by a common noun.
2. Omitting the name and the allusion together.

### **2.3.6 Cultural context and allusion**

Povejšil (1994) considers the cultural context and allusion to be one of the problems of translation. It is probable, that allusions are mostly dealt with in fiction and less in informative texts. To translate a cultural allusion without an annotation is, according to Povejšil, possible only when having knowledge about the whole story. Before, the allusions were limited only to biblical or ancient stories, but nowadays the spectrum of cultures and national literatures is wider. Thus, the difficulties with translation grow to different dimensions. Even the best translators can sometimes miss an allusion and the ones they do not miss can often be re-interpreted only to some extent without explaining in the footnotes. One of possible allusions is when a name of a song appears in a text, which carries a meaning and is chosen for a reason. An always possible option is to add a footnote with explanation. Another possibility is to find a similar song in the TL which could have the same or at least similar function in the text. As allusions can be also considered words with double meanings in the SL. Important is to realize what function the concrete allusion has. Then the translators should decide if they can leave it out, if they must add explanation or if a substitute is possible. The theorists and translators already accepted the fact that during translation (especially fiction and poetry) some information of the original text vanishes. It does not always have to be the fault of an incapable translator neither the insufficient language means of the TL but the deeply anchored original text in tradition of the national literature. (p. 155 - 158)

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There are also phrases, which cannot be translated without losing their form or content. This is the case of word plays, especially those which are based on homonyms, polylexie, synonyms, rhyme or rhythm. Kufnetová (1994) gives an example of a poem title 'Exits' which in medical terms also means 'exodus'. Regarding the context this word cannot be translated by into Czech by just one word without losing a part of its meaning. The possible translation given by Kufnerová will consist of two words is 'Exit a východy' or 'Odchody a východy'.

### **2.4 Differences between Czech and English**

This chapter outlines the basic differences between English and Czech, although, not all the differences later presented can be called cultural or culturally related. Regardless, the border in distinguishing cultural and other differences is sometimes very thin. Still, to know the two languages well with all the nuances and to know where they differ and what mistakes often occur in other translations is important to prevent possible confusion and misunderstanding regardless.

Nord (1997) explains the following:

In traditional translation classes, the procedure has usually been to start from source-language elements and transfer the text sentence by sentence or, more frequently, phrase by phrase or even, if possible, word by word. ... This 'bottom-up' process works from the linguistic text-surface structures to conventions and finally to pragmatics. ... In the bottom-up approach, translating is seen as a code-switching operation where lexical or syntactic equivalences play the most important part. Students are thus tempted to keep as close to the source-text structures as possible, which leads to linguistic interferences and mistakes even when translating into one's native language. At the same time students often lose sight of how the text as a whole functions in its communicative situations. (p. 67)

The main objective of this work is to present the differences between English and Czech. To understand how a language functions and how its function's different from other language can help avoid future problems with translation. At first sight it appears that there are two main sources of problems. The first difficulty is the foreign language, in this case

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English, and the diversity between it and the mother tongue. The second problem might be the culture, affecting the communication.

Every language and culture is different. The same can be said about English and Czech culture and language. If both countries were not situated in Europe the scope of differences would be larger. Yet there are odds ought to be mentioned.

The topic of the following chapter is the differences between Czech and English language. There is no doubt that the different system of the native language influences the speakers, who then use structures of their mother tongue also in the foreign language. This might be a problem and could cause misunderstanding and embarrassment. The differences in these two languages can be looked upon from various aspects, for example: typological, morphological, syntactical, lexical, phonological, typographical etc. It is beyond the scope of this work to analyse every single difference between these two languages and so only representative samples are mentioned.

### **2.4.1 Typology**

There are many ways to divide languages. Both English and Czech are Indo-European languages, which mean they are related through descent from a common ancestor. However, Czech is a Slavic language, furthermore a western Slavic language. English, on the other hand, has Germanic roots.

According to Skalička's typology English belongs to analytic or also called isolating languages, in which each morpheme (basic linguistic unit) tends to form a separate word. One morpheme carries one meaning. During declination the form of words stays the same and does not attach any suffixes. That is the reason why the word order in a sentence is very important. Smolka (2007) states, "Sentences are composed of words in the form of ready-made blocks that do not need to be shaped further." (p. 33) Also the word classes are relatively flexible which allows the words to convert to different word classes without changing the structure; for example - *She drinks only water. I need to water the plants every day. This artist paints only with watercolours.* (Author's own examples)

Whereas, Czech is a fusional / synthetic language, which allows it to have a free word order. Smolka (2007) mentions the following: "In Czech, the role of words in the sentence can only be revealed from affixes attached to their roots or stems. The system of affixes is rather complicated, irregular, and each affix may be multifunctional, i.e. a single

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verbal ending may simultaneously convey the categories of person, number, gender, tense, aspect and mode, which stretch the learner's memory to the limit, and often beyond." (p. 33) A Czech stem can also connect more than just one affix like *ne/po/po/strk/á/vat*. Even if one affix is removed right after another the word will still make perfect sense. The affixation also allows the word to just slightly modify its meaning, where a whole word would have to be used in English; for example - *in a little bitty while: za chvíl/in/ku, chvíl/ič/ku, chvíl/in/ku, chvíl/ililín/ku*. (Author's own examples)

It is important to add, that there is no language which carries the features of only one language type. Skalička, however, divides the language according to what language type features dominates.

### **2.4.2 Morphological Aspect**

From a morphological point of view one might say English is simpler than Czech - perhaps, because English has almost no inflections. One major problem for Czech students learning English may be the complicated English tense system. While Czech has just three grammatical tense, there are twelve tenses in English. It is not surprising that Czech students often make mistakes.

Smolka (2007) focuses on the problem of verbs.

Verbs derived from a single Czech verbal root can express through affixation or alterations of the stem not only a single event vs. state, limited or unlimited action, but also beginning or termination, completion or incompleteness of verbal action, repetition, frequency, as well as e.g. direction and some other modifications of meaning. The possibilities are virtually endless, the alterations are, however, morphologically rather irregular, and therefore almost impossible to master for a non-native speaker of Czech. The English verb is by nature more neutral in terms of its exact aspectual meaning, and sometimes these meanings are only made clear by syntactic devices, i.e. complementation of the verb by adverbials, singular or plural objects, etc. (p. 36)

Both languages also differ with their use of plural and singular number. Czech student is very likely to translate 'Krkonoše byly a stále zůstávají velkým

fotografickým tématem.’ like ‘Krokonose have been and still remain a sizeable photographic subject.’(appendix 1) However ‘Krkonoše’ as well as ‘Pardubice’, ‘Lidice’ and many other areas should be translated as singular into English. Another problematic is the gender differences, which can be also considered as cultural.

Suitable example is the word ‘death’. In many languages ‘death’ is considered to be masculine (German ‘der Tod’), anyhow, in Czech it is feminine ‘smrt’. The same can be applied on the word ‘sun’ and ‘moon’ which are in most languages feminine, however, in Czech both are masculine. Even though, English does not define gender as unequivocally as Czech or German, some nouns are generally (within one culture) assumed to be feminine (ships, countries) or masculine.

### **2.4.3 Syntactic Aspect**

As was already mentioned, Czech has not got any strict rule of word order because the role of each word is signalled by its inflection, rather than by the position within the sentence. English speakers mostly lack freedom in word order, yet occasionally there is some latitude. Usually, the rule ‘*subject-verb-object-adverbial of manner-place-time*’ need to be followed. To compare on an example - in Czech it is possible to say ‘*lovec zabil medvěda*’: ‘*medvěda zabil lovec*’ and both clauses state the same reality, but in English to shift the subject and object would create a clause with a different meaning - ‘*the hunter killed the bear*’: ‘*the bear killed the hunter*’ or compare - ‘She brought the tray empty’: ‘She brought an empty tray’ (examples are from Dušková, 2012, p. 518)

According to Knittlová (2000) English tends to condense sentences, which is related to the nominal character of English and its density and economical expression. This is achieved by infinitive, gerund and participle structures. Conversely, Czech expresses itself more through verbal constructions. Some of examples from Dušková (2012, p. 417) - *to have a smoke: to smoke; to take a walk: to walk; to give a call: to call; she made no reply = neodpověděla; I must do some shopping = musím nakoupit; I made a wrong guess = hádal jsem špatně.*

### **2.4.4 Lexical Aspect**

Even though the study of a foreign language is not the study of its stock of words as many people might still think, this chapter will introduce some problems with lexicology of a foreign language.

The biggest problem when learning new words in a different foreign language is the connotation or a notion the words carry. Ideally, it would perhaps be better to learn foreign words in a context rather than just by associating them with words from one's mother tongue. Anyhow, the most common way of learning new words is to find their foreign language equivalents. This can be tricky because no words, not even the closest equivalents can carry the exact same meaning, feeling or evoke the same notion to a student as they do to the native speaker. Just to demonstrate the problem, a casual example would be - the English word '*rock*' is something hard, cold, big or small and can also represent a mountain or it is possible to emphasize one person's strength by calling him/her a rock; the first Czech equivalent that will probably come to mind is '*kámen*' which is rather small, cold, a mountain cannot be called like that; next equivalent could be '*balvan*' a huge, cold, heavy and more round; then also '*šutr*' can be used as an equivalent belonging more to colloquial language, meaning a rather small, hard piece of something, which bothers when it gets into one's shoe; another word with a similar meaning is '*skála*' but that presents only a hard, cold mountain which can be climbed upon but never something small. Even within the same language differences in perception of a word can be found, when it is used in two different countries. For example the word '*republican*' in American English describes a person who is in favour of one of the two biggest parties in the USA - the Republican Party. Meanwhile, calling someone '*republican*' in Great Britain would almost be the same as calling him or her rebellious or anarchist since the Great Britain is a Kingdom. (Author's own examples) The same would apply on the term '*capitalism*' for one nation it would mean 'freedom to manage property for profit' and for another 'the exploitation of man by man'; one may recognise 'the IRA' as 'terrorists' and other as 'freedom fighters'. (Katan; 2004, 83)

Translation becomes difficult when there is not suitable word in the target language (the language into which we want to translate the text) such as '*ruka*' in Czech means both an *arm* and a *hand* in English. The same when it comes to lower limbs. When a Czech child tells a doctor "*zlomil jsem si nohu*" the English orthopaedist would be confused,

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deciding whether to take an X-ray of its *foot* or *leg*. On the other hand Knittlová (2010) states her believe that “Czech words are semantically richer, especially the ones describing actions or a mental process”. (p. 34)

Many English words of Latin origin have become international so it is easy to deduce their meaning. ‘*False friends*’ is a term used to call two words, each from different language, which look and sound the same but have different meanings. Czech and English do not share many such words. Words which are confused the most are:

<u>English (Czech translation)</u>	<u>Czech (English translation)</u>
traffic = dopravní zácpa	trafika = small shop usually selling newspaper
eventually = posléze, nakonec	eventuelně = alternatively
preservative = konzervační prostředek	prezervativ = condom
chef = šéfkuchař	šéf = chief, boss
abstinent = střídavý, zdrženlivý	abstinent = nondrinker
actual = platný, běžný, pravý	aktuální = current, timely
control = řízení, vedení	kontrola = correction
dress = dámské šaty	dres = jersey
present = přítomnost, přítomný	prezentovat = to give a presentation

### **2.4.5 Punctuation**

Even if the translation is grammatically, syntactically and lexically correct, sometimes it can still seem rather strange to a native speaker. That can be a result of missing or incorrect punctuation, which is different for almost every language. While dealing with punctuation, like during any other translation phrase, it is recommended to remain consistent. If a person is translating from Czech into English the text should also adapt the English punctuation rules. Otherwise the text might have an ‘exotic appearance’ and not be very attractive for a reader. The reader can easily get lost in the text, as just like words also punctuation helps clarify meaning.

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Without the knowledge of typography of the specific language, it is very likely to happen that a contract worth 30,000 Euros becomes after its translation to Czech suddenly worth only 30 Euros. And that is certainly worth the attention. In English numerals in large numbers are divided with commas for better orientation and a full stop is used to differentiate the decimals; whilst Czech uses a non-breaking space to distinguish thousands and a commas for decimals. Also writing ordinal numbers can be tricky. Czech uses full stops after the ordinal numbers while English prefers to use *st*, *nd* *rd* and *th* after the number; for example *1st*, *2nd*, *3rd*, *4th* or *1<sup>st</sup>*, *2<sup>nd</sup>*, *3<sup>rd</sup>*, *4<sup>th</sup>* instead of *1.*, *2.*, *3.*, *4.*.

Secondly, English defines between single and double quotation marks while Czech has only the double. Furthermore, English puts upper quotation marks both to open and to close the utterance, whereas the Czech utterance starts with lower quotation marks.

### **2.4.6 Other Aspects**

#### *2.4.6.1 Capital Letters*

A Further issue is the capitalisation in titles. While Czech capitalises the initial letters just in the first word of a title (if the first word is a preposition then also in the second word of the title), English uses initial capital letters in all the words of the title except, obviously, for prepositions and conjunctions. If one gets confused by these rules it never hurts to capitalise all the letters in the title. This appears to be gaining popularity, anyway. Generally, English uses more capital letters than Czech does; for example in general terms such as days in the week, months, languages, titles etc.

#### *2.4.6.2 Addressing*

One of the first things that a student learns in his/hers English class is that English does not define between a polite and formal salutation and a salutation informal. This brings almost no problem for Czech students learning English, meanwhile it means quite a big problem for English learning Czech.

Rudolf Haňka, professor at Cambridge University explains in his interview for Česká televize 24 that Czech nation is very fond of using academic degrees. This is unlike in England where around one half of the population owns a bachelor degree but nobody cares to boast about it according to Rudolf Haňka the professor of University of Cambridge in his interview for Hospodářské Noviny . This might not seem as a problem, but it is often

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confusing to translate these degrees into a different language. There occur academic titles in the one country which might not be understood in another country and vice versa. To give an example - in the Czech Republic two doctor degrees are distinguished - a '*small doctor degree*' (malý doktorát) and a '*great doctor degree*' (velký doktorát). This is however different in the Great Britain where a doctor degree is a doctor degree and does not further vary as neither small nor big. There are many sources on the internet which allow finding an English counterpart for a Czech degree. However, it is still questionable whether or not the titles should be translated. One argument is that Czech graduates should not appear to have a degree from an English university if they never studied there.

### 2.4.6.3 *Measurement System*

By measurements is understood weight, temperature, length but also (for purposes of this thesis) currency. Although measurement signs might not be frequently discussed among translator, they are apparently something that every translator encounters. Crossing a border to a different country means not only adapting to different language, food, habits but also conventions. Measurements can undoubtedly be considered as conventions applied within the one country. Europe is quite unit about what measurements are used and with European Union also currency is becoming undifferentiated. However, there are still differences, for example Great Britain uses inches, feet and yards to measure distance, while in the Czech Republic centimetres, meters and kilometres are preferred. UK measures weight with ounces and pounds while the Czech Rep. with grams and kilos. When then in summer there is 30°Celsius in Europe in the USA there is 86 degrees Fahrenheit. The same applies to currency (1 GBP = 33 CZK, 1 USD = 24 CZK, 1 EUR = 27 CZK), but also numbering the sizes of clothing. (75 E in the Czech Rep. = 32 DD in the UK).

The ideal translator should be aware of the convention and should estimate the possible knowledge of the TL readership. Perhaps, transferring measurements is not necessary when translating fiction, because the function of fiction is not usually to convey metric information, but use measurements for description, illustration and comparison within the story. In fiction stress is being laid on the author and his origin, the place of the story and the historical era. It would distract attention to read, for example, about how many Czech crown Oliver stolen in the Oliver Twist novel from Charles Dickens. Where

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measurements gain greater importance is in informative and informational texts, which function to transmit as much information as possible. Measurements in such texts should be transferred into the TL conventions. When reading a manual, it is essential to understand the text fully. For example, for Czechs it is more comfortable to set the oven in Celsius instead of recounting and calculating from Fahrenheit. However, English tourists in Pilsen might appreciate when the tourist guide includes all the prices in Czech crown, because this is the currency they will use during their trip. The best solution here would be to also include the currency rating.

### **2.5 Informative texts**

The aim of the practical part of this thesis is to analyse informative texts with the focus on cultural words which may cause a difficulty during translation. People learn by reading every day and often also unconsciously. Instruction manuals, tourist brochures, leaflets, company catalogues, pamphlets and any other nonfiction writings build upon the knowledge and convey basic, factual and formal information. These texts are written in a simple way that allows the reader to easily find key information and understand the main topic. “Primary purpose of these texts is to provide information through explanation, description, argument, analysis, ordering and presentation of evidence and procedures. These texts include reports, explanations and descriptions of natural phenomena, recounts of events, instructions and directions, rules and laws, news bulletins and articles, websites and text analyses. They include texts which are valued for their informative content, as a store of knowledge and for their value as part of everyday life.” (Glossary, Board of Studies Teaching, 24<sup>th</sup> June 2016) These types of text will be named informative texts for the purpose of this thesis.

## **3 TEXT ANALYSIS**

During the practical part of this thesis, informative texts will be analysed. Focus will be on the cultural phenomena which might be difficult for translation. The text were taken from printed brochures, city guides etc. but also from internet sources like Pilsen’s official websites, restaurant menus, Wikipedia etc.

## CULTURAL ISSUES IN TRANSLATING INFORMATIVE TEXTS

Perhaps the first topic to be discussed in every translation seminar or workshop is the complexity of the translator's role. "They usually bring with them the common, unexamined assumption that translation is primarily a question of substitution and unavoidable betrayal." (Kramasch, 2005) This assumption however falsifies the activity of a translation. Carol Mainer a teacher of translation describes his students "For what impresses them is not so much the difficulty of finding 'equivalents' at the opportunity to explore available possibilities and to discover new ones." (Kramasch, 2005) This indicates that in translation there is always more possibilities of translation and furthermore there is no right and wrong, maybe just good and better. The practical part of this thesis will be done having this in mind. Rather than correcting the translation, different and perhaps better options of translation should be given. Also it will be described why the given possibilities of translation are assumed to be more suitable.

This following practical part is divided into 3 sub-chapters based on Newmark's division. Each dealing with different cultural phenomena. The first will be about dealing with names of dishes and food. Second chapter is engaged in parts of the city. Finally, the focus will be on proper and personal names.

### 3.1 Food and Dishes

With roasted pork or other meats, you can have many different types of dumplings. Of the almost 40 known varieties, *ubrouzkové* (napkin), *špekové* (bacon), and *sklářské* (glass-maker) dumplings can be had at numerous restaurants. The *sauerkraut* served with roasted pork usually comes from well-known local supplier in *Křímice* near Plzeň. Very popular ate dishes from raised potato dough. The speciality of the Pilsen region is raised potato pancake called *toč*. Trout from Šumava streams are absolutely delicious. Regarding dessert, you should try fruit dumplings or *strudel*. (*Pilsen Region, Come and have a drink; brochure*)

This text consists of a few tricky terms, which are however well described and can be in the context well understood. Problem might raise when such traditional food names, like 'toč' or 'ubrouzkové' dumplings are not in the menu well described. Even here in the text only one word 'napkin' is given to help the reader understand, which in many cases is still not sufficient. It is quite difficult to associate the word 'napkin' with the word 'dumpling' for those who are not familiar with the process of making such dumplings.

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Perhaps more useful would be to add further explanation. On the other hand, if the readers are interested in the connection of a napkin and a dumpling, they can always search for explanation or try them themselves, which might also be the point of tourist guides and brochures.

‘Sauerkraut’ is a German word which was also accepted by the English. One might wonder why such a transparent collocation is not translated into English using English words and an English spelling. Possible solution would be ‘sour-cabbage’. Despite the German spelling and vocabulary the English adapted to this word and use it as theirs. The same can be applied on the Czech and German speciality ‘strudel’ which is a German word but can be found in English dictionaries and is pronounced according to the German spelling. Sauerkraut from a local supplier in Křimice is sometimes referred to in menus as ‘Křimice sauerkraut’ which can be confusing for the reader who can wonder if it describes a special type of cabbage, specially prepared cabbage or just branded cabbage. This text, however, gives a nice clear explanation. Some menus refer to this type of cabbage also as ‘boiled sauerkraut’ or ‘Křimice cabbage’ viz. menu of Restaurant Na Spilce in the appendix.

### Svíčková na smetaně

Literally translated it means ‘tenderloin on cream’. It’s usually made with somewhat tougher beef than tenderloin however (unless you’re paying in excess of 250Kč for the dish, don’t expect fillet beef). You may see it translated on menus as ‘beef in candle-sauce’. The sauce is not, fortunately, made from candles, but a mixture of pureed vegetables and sour cream. Usually served with bread dumplings and a dollop of cranberry sauce.

*(Czech Food Primer. JayWay, 15<sup>th</sup> August 2011)*

Not only the meal, but also the term ‘candle sauce’ gain quite a popularity. Although ‘svíčka’ can be translated as ‘candle’, the courses name comes from ‘svíčková’ which is in English ‘tenderloin’. Even though many Czechs are not aware of how was the name of their traditional dish formed and many times they do not know that ‘svíčková’ is a part of beef meat, translator should always search for the explanation and for the hidden meanings. However is the transformed name ‘candle sauce’ amusing, it is not the correct translation.

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Another problematic feature of translated menus is the tendency to associate some foods and drinks with cities and states where it is believed, often falsely, they originate from. Turecká, vídeňská, irská nebo alžírská káva (Turkish, Viennese, Irish or Algerian coffee) belong to well known and often offered drinks in Czech restaurants. However, they rarely have something in common with the places included in their names. It would not be surprising if Turks were shocked how Czechs prepare the so called 'Turkish coffee' without their special long-handled pot made from copper or brass called 'cezve'. It may be popular in Vienna to drink coffee with whipped cream on the top, but it is not called Viennese coffee there nor anywhere else except the Czech Republic. The Irish would probably disagree that the Irish coffee served in the Czech Republic is prepared the original way. The Czech people are well aware of what type of coffee will be served to them if they order such coffees, but foreigners might get easily confused. Although, there can be some kind of connection to the cities and states, the preparation process of the coffees in Czech restaurants and cafés is usually very different. The picture with hot beverages menu in the appendix would probably be vague for foreigners. Assumingly the best solution would be to add an explanation of the beverage or to find a suitable, more obvious substitute, like egg nog latte instead of Algerian coffee.

This problem is not concerning only coffee but also other food. Tourists may find in the menus of Czech restaurants 'maďarský guláš' (Hungarian goulash), 'americké brambory' (American potatoes) which are actually called potato veggies in the USA, or 'frankfurtské párky' (Frankfurter sausage) which history begins originally in Vienna and therefore if called 'Wienerwurst' or only 'Wiener' in Germany.

Misunderstanding can also happen among the Czechs when dining in an English restaurant. While 'pudink' in the Czech Republic is always a sweet dessert, in the UK 'pudding' can be also sour, bitter or salty depending on the many types. Some dishes which would never be called as puddings in the Czech Republic are: Yorkshire pudding, black pudding, Suet Pudding or Steak and Kidney Pudding.

### **3.2 Parts of the City**

Hrad z roku 1356 je dominantou celého Plzeňska. Je odtud nádherný kruhový rozhled na Plzeň, *Starý Plzeňec s Hůrkou* a rotundou *sv. Petra a Pavla*, na lovecký

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*zámek Kozel a při dobrém počasí i na Svatobor, vzdálené hřebeny Šumavy a Českého lesa.*

This castle dating back to 1356, dominates the whole Pilsen Region. It offers a wonderful view on Pilsen, the nearby town *Starý Plzenec* with its *Hůrka Hill* and *St. Peter and St. Paul* Rotunda, the Kozel hunting *chateau*, and weather permitting, also the *Svatobor Hill* and the distant mountain ranges of *Šumava* and *Bohemian Forest*. (*Places of interest; brochure*)

It this text quite a few names and can be analysed. Firstly the small town near Pilsen - Starý Plzenec is not translated and its original name is used in the English translation. However, this name especially could be translated as 'Old Pilsen' for example, if the fact is considered that it was the first inhabited land in the whole surrounding and it has a longer history the Pilsen. This might also prove the fact, that the local St. Peter and St. Pavel Rotunda is the oldest building in the Pilsen Region. The name Old Pilsen is also explained on the Wikipedia website and also on the official website of Starý Plzenec.

Hůrka Hill is in the Czech text names only Hůrka. The same case is Svatobor Hill. Whereas it can be obvious for Czech readership what Hůrka and Svatobor is, the English readership might have a difficulty understanding that is why the comment 'Hill' seems to be the right completion. Also the diacritic was not omitted in the English text.

It can be sometimes a problem to distinguish the French word *chateau* and the word *castle*. Some say *chateau* is a rural setting. It can also imply a larger country house and most notably, wine estates. There are many *chateaux* in the Czech Republic and some are referred to as *castles*. Another curiosity is that in some texts the word 'château' appears with diacritic above the first letter 'a' and sometimes it is written without it. *Castle* is primarily considered to be a fortified structure built in the middle Ages by nobility in Europe and Middle East.

Whereas Šumava is translated to German as *Bömerwald*, in English it stays Šumava. Nonetheless Wikipedia translates it as *Bohemian Forest*. The same is used also on the Šumava's official websites, but only as a possible translation, it is not used in the titles nor when further referred in text.

The next illustration (appendix 6) is from the official website of the Sport Hotel Zruč near Pilsen. English has many terms concerning sports. There at least 6 equivalents of

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the Czech word 'hřiště'. In the illustration example there are terms like: tennis courts, volleyball fields, artificial ground, grass and multifunctional field. All would be translated to Czech as 'hřiště' (accept tennis court, that could be translated as 'tenisový kurt' also). Easy mistaken can be any translator from Czech to English with no further knowledge of English sport terminology. In the very beginning of the illustrational picture '2 volleyball fields' are mentioned. Perhaps, it would be proper to use the term 'court' instead of 'field' here. Both volleyball and beach volleyball are played in a 'court' Next illustration was taken from the Cs.bab.la online dictionary. It can be easily noticed, that almost every sport has its own term for the place where it is played.

### **Example of short bike trip from the city centre (slightly hilly terrain)**

#### 1. Around Bolevecké rybníky (ponds) (4 hours)

Štruncovy sady (park) - from the confluence of the Radbuza and Mže rivers. Across a footbridge and through a fields to Bolevecký pond (swimming area). Past the Velký Bolevecký dam (largest pond) to Košinář rybník (pond). Along Senecký rybník (pond), around the top of Okrouhlík hill past the municipal transport terminus in Košutka to viewing tower Sylván (free access). Downhill to Radičice (refreshments) and floodplain of the river Mže around Kalikovský mlýn (restaurant) to the city centre (with tha possibility of stopping at the Pilsen Zoo) (*Biking, 2015 Pilsen European City of Culture, n.d.*)

The translator or creator of this article had chosen commenting in parenthesis as a way of explaining the cultural word in this case parts of the city. For someone readers the commenting of translation and also the same way expressed advices (swimming area, free access, refreshments) can be a little puzzling. Considering, that the article is meant to be for foreign tourist enjoying biking around Pilsen and possible orienting themselves with a map, the official Czech names should be maintained, but English translation should be also included for better understanding. Instead of using parenthesis, the words can be integrated in the text. For example, 'the park Štruncovy sady', 'to the pond Košinář', 'along the pond Senecký rybník'. This text also includes attributes in post modification which is more usual for Czech then for English. Although the position of the attributes is grammatically correct, it would seem perhaps more pleasant to change the position, such as, 'rivers Radbuza and Mže' instead of 'the Radbuza and Mže rivers', 'hill Okrouhlík' instead of 'Okrouhlík hill'. Another unclarity is 'the Velký Bolevecký dam (largest pond)' which is officially names

‘Velký bolevecký rybník’. Thus, it is not a dam. Also, the inconsistency is visible in this example. Throughout the author uses the official names, perhaps for better orientation in the map, however in this case the author changes the name and also includes the redundant information ‘dam’.

### 3.3 Names

This chapter deals not only with problematic of names, but also with translation of places which are named after important personalities. Such occurrence can be seen also in the previous chapter - Parts of the City, where the extract mentions the rotunde of Peter and Paul.

The Czech name of the rotund is ‘rotunda sv. Petra a Pavla’ so the change of the names is obvious. It most probably, because Christian names are often translated, moreover the names of saints. An example from Pilsen Square of Republic is the St. Bartholomeus Cathedral which is named ‘katedrála sv. Bartoloměje’ in Czech. These names are usual in every Christian country and therefore also language. The places or buildings adopt the names with and also their foreign name versions.

The same is applied on names of important personalities such as emperors, kings, warriors, martyrs or other people who had larger impact in multiple countries.

#### **Václav II. (1271 - 1305)**

Český král z rodu Přemyslovců, zakladatel města Nová Plzeň (r. 1295)

#### **Wenceslas II (1271 – 1305)**

Czech king of the Premyslid family, founder of the town of New Pilsen in 1295.  
(*Celebritie*;, 2015 Pilsen European City of Culture)

‘Václav II.’ as an emperor and also having a Christian name was translated as ‘Wenceslas II.’ Also the dynasty’s name was translated as ‘Premyslid’. Since the dynasty ruled not only Bohemia and Moravia but also parts of Hungary, Silesia, Austria and Poland; the dynasty is called ‘Przemyslids’ or ‘Premyslids’ in English, ‘Premysliden’ in German and ‘Przemysłidzi’ in Polish. (*Přemyslid dynasty, Wikipedia, 22<sup>nd</sup> June 2016*)

#### **Václav Koranda (asi 1424 - 1519)**

Radikální husitský kazatel působící několik let v Plzni. V r. 1420 odešel do Tábora.

#### **Vaclav Koranda (approx. 1424 – 1519)**

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Radical Hussite preacher who worked in Pilsen for several years. He left for Tabor in 1420. (*Celebritie*; 2015 Pilsen European City of Culture)

In the next extract the name 'Václav' is not translated however. Perhaps, because of his influence on other countries was not so important or because his name was not throughout the years mentioned many times in foreign print. Seemingly, nobody defined a norm or set clear rules for name translation.

Another possible factor why some names are not translated is that the sound of the first name and surname together would be rather strange. Like in the case of 'Jan Žižka' who twice unsuccessfully attempted to capture the city Pilsen. 'Jan' can be easily translated as 'John' but the connection John Zizka is quite strange. The same would probably be for 'Jiří Trnka' as 'George Trnka' or 'František Křižík' as 'Francis Krizik'.

### **Martin Kopecký (1777 - 1854)**

Purkmistrem města v letech 1828 - 1850, postaral se o významné stavební reformy ve městě, mimo jiné odstranění hradeb a vybudování sadů na jejich místě. Pomník v Kopeckého sadech a u Lochotínského pavilonu.

### **Martin Kopecky (1777 - 1854)**

Kopecky, the Pilsen burgher-master from 1828 to 1850, undertook several important constructional reforms in the city. He had the city fortifications demolished and had parks created in their stead. A memorial to Kopecky can be found in the Kopecky Park. Another one is situated near the Lochotin pavilion.

(*Celebritie*; 2015 Pilsen European City of Culture)

Another problem could occur when focusing on the endings of the names. Some endings are morphological and carry the meaning of gender, like *-ká*, *-ka*, *-ová*, *-ý* etc. Should these ending be included in the TL if they do not carry the meaning as in the SL. In the example above the translator chose to keep the ending and also keep it in the name of the park 'Kopecky Park'. Probably, no linguist would translate otherwise. Yet, the female ending *-ová* was always in question. English does not distinguish female male names so notably as Czech and it is impossible to recognise gender in English surnames. Because there is no unit rule, there are many options in translating the name of well known Pilsen singer 'Radka Fišerová' - firstly without the feminine ending 'Randka Fiser', secondly with an English smelling to preserve the pronunciation 'Radka Fisher' and so on. Some people

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are strongly against adding this Czech female suffix on the end of English women's name in Czech texts, for example 'Angelina Jolieová', 'Emily Bluntová' or 'Michelle Obamová'.

Further issue is the pronunciation when the Czech diacritics are removed. The diacritics also tend to create problems also when not removed, because the TL readership normally does not know how the pronunciation changes with the diacritic. On the other hand, when there is no diacritic, the TL readership might also pronounce the name incorrectly because their language system combines letters in order to create a different sound. Martin Stránský, a great Pilsen actor, would probably be mispronounced in Germany, because the two letters 'st' create one consonant [ʃ]. Also English 'ei' is pronounced differently than in Czech. These are, perhaps, unavoidable consequences of translation. Everything depends on the awareness of the readership.

Some names might tempt to be translated according to their meaning. That is however not a standard method and functions more or less for humorous situations. For example, 'Emil Škoda' as 'Emil Damage', 'Josef František Smetana' as 'Joe Francis Cream' or 'George Bush' as 'Jiří Křoví' and 'Eva Green' as 'Eva zelená'.

## 4. CONCLUSION

What makes communication easier is the common ancient root (the fact that many words have their Latin origin especially English), globalisation and permanent cultural interactions. However there are “distinct words” which have their own culture full of specific traditions, national food, holidays, ideologies etc. The object of this thesis was to outline the problematic of translation, to define methods and techniques of translation, which was accomplished alongside with the description of cultural phenomena and its difficulty in translation. The practical part demonstrated the problematic of culturally bound words underlining three areas (food and dishes, parts of the city and names).

After examining a great amount of brochures, *consistency* is something that should be emphasized. In many of printed leaflets, brochures and city guide websites was visible the number of translators participating on the translations. Multiple styles of translation were visible in every prospect. The major problem was not the challenging cultural words, but the inconsistency which was obvious. When describing places, some were translated some were left in their original Czech name. When an unusual word occurred, comments of English description followed only in some cases. Translators were also not unit when it came to diacritic, some Czech words were left with all punctuations, some with none, some with only a dash, and some were transcribed phonetically. Even though, there are no official standards to unite such obstacles, at least within one source or text the nonconformity should be avoided and the form united.

I have noticed that informative texts do not convey many cultural words. The only problems I suppose were geographical names as well as names of traditional costumes, dishes, celebrations and parts of the city, which were almost always explained in the texts so there was no need to struggle with translation and explanation. I believe translating fiction and poetry is far more challenging than the translation of informative texts when it comes to culturally bound words. What makes the informative texts easies to translate is the lack of authors artistic voice.

The search for culturally bound words in various informative texts was time consuming. However, I consider this research useful and interesting. While working on the

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theoretical background of this thesis I have extended my knowledge of translation practice, especially with I got familiar with all the approaches and methods of translation. In addition, I have enriched my vocabulary. In my opinion all objectives of my Bachelor thesis were successfully fulfilled.

To close this thesis I would like to present a rhetorical question from Smolka (n.d): “Is even the concept itself of ‘knowing’ a foreign language culturally bound or strictly individual?”

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## RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá překladem kulturně zabarvených slov z češtiny do angličtiny. Teoretická část stručně popisuje překlad a udává definice několika lingvistů a překladatelů. Součástí práce je také rozdělení překladu z mnoha úhlů pohledu. Kde je to možné autorka udává vlastní příklady. V další části jsou rozebrány kulturní bariéry překladu, které jsou rozděleny do kapitol a detailně rozebrány. Pozornost je věnována též rozdílům mezi angličtinou a češtinou. Dále je krátce popsán informativní styl pro účely praktické části. Tato práce se však nezaměřuje jen na teorii ale i na analýzu úryvků z turistických brožur, oficiálních webových stránek města Plzně a jiných zdrojů informativních textů, čímž dochází k uplatnění teorie na praktických příkladech. Příklady textů jsou zvoleny aby obsahovaly kulturní slova spojené s jídlem a pokrmy, částmi města a jmény. Příklady jsou dále rozebrány a kde nutno, je nabídnut i vhodnější nebo odlišný překlad. Vše je shrnuto a zhodnoceno v poslední kapitole. Příloha práce je tvořena originálními texty z internetových zdrojů, které ilustrují problematiku překladu kulturních slov.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1

Traveling in Pardubice; buddy.upce.cz

#### By bike

Pardubice are flat and not big, you can get everywhere by bike in less than 15 minutes. 19% of all trips in Pardubice are made by bike. It is the highest number among Czech cities with 100 000 or more people. But there is much more potential compared to the Netherlands where 22% of trips are made by bike in whole country. Dutch make more than million cycle trips every hour.

### Appendix 2

Krkonoše na nejstarších fotografiích; baset.cz

#### BLÍŽE O KNIZE

Krkonoše byly a stále zůstávají velkým fotografickým tématem. Fotografie Krkonoš patří k těm nejstarším v historii fotografie v českých zemích, neboť vedle Prahy a lázeňských měst Karlových Var a Teplic byly právě Krkonoše tím regionem, na který fotografové soustřeďovali svou značnou pozornost. Zároveň je pro středoevropský prostor typické, že se jednalo jak o fotografie mluvící česky, tak německy. Naše kniha chce upozornit na počátky fotografování v Krkonoších, tedy i na dobu před rozmachem pohlednice a amatérské fotografie, a uvádí vedle sebe nejvýznamnější autory české i slezské, a to až do roku 1918. Kniha se snaží zachytit také vývoj v přístupu fotografů. Je tedy knihou o fotografech a fotografování, nikoli pouze o místopisu Krkonoš.

Kniha obsahuje český, anglický a německý text.

#### Krkonoše in the oldest photographs

Krkonoše have been and still remain a sizeable photographic subject. Photographs of Krkonoše belong to the oldest ones in the history of photography in the Czech lands, because next region where photographers concentrated their considerable interest. In addition, as is so typical for the Central European territory, they were photographers who spoke not only Czech but also German. As result of an encounter of various photographic influences are Krkonoše very interesting from the historical perspective and deserve a first-rate attention in our intended edition. A book, containing 62 photographs from the period lasting almost half a century, has to be in a first place an inspiration for further more complex exploration and for a search of other photographic evidence. Let's remind ourselves that a charming book *Album from old Krkonoše* from 1982 brought many unique views, especially of an amateur character and from the times when photography was becoming a hobby. Missing are however not only references of Silesian or German authors, but also about the first great Czech authors – J. Eckert, J. Langhans or F. Krátký, who photographed Krkonoše already during the eighties of the 19th century. From another point of view perceives the pictorial testimony from the highest Czech mountains *Album from old Krkonoše postcards*, published in 1999. Our book has a different aim than both of the Czech publications mentioned: it wants to show the beginnings of photography in Krkonoše, therefore also in the time before the expansion of postcards and amateur photography and wants to introduce both the most significant Czech and

### Appendix 3

Menu; baloonface.cz

Turecká káva	33 Kč
Vídeňská káva	48 Kč
Irská káva	66 Kč
Alžírská káva	55 Kč

## Appendix 4

Hot beverages; purkmistr.cz

Hot beverages

7g	Turkish coffee	CZK 35
7g	Espresso	CZK 38
7g	Cappuccino	CZK 45
7g	Latté macchiato	CZK 49
7g	Cafe Viennese	CZK 49
7g	Cafe Algerienne	CZK 59
7g	Cafe Irish	CZK 70

## Appendix 5

Czech Cuisine; naspilce.cz

Czech Cuisine <http://www.naspilce.com/cz/stala-nabidka/>

150 g	"Prazdroj" goulash, with a variety of dumplings	149 Kč
200 g	Roasted pork shoulder with onion, garlic and cumin, boiled sauerkraut, bread and potato dumplings with fried onion	149 Kč
150 g	Beef sirloin with cream sauce and cranberries, bread dumplings	149 Kč
150 g	Shoulder of wild boar with rosehip sauce and potato and bread dumplings	189 Kč
2 pcs.	Potato dumplings with smoked meat filling, pickled cabbage	99 Kč
1 pc.	Duck leg Confit of caraway lard with ginger, braised red cabbage, potato dumplings	249 Kč
1 pc.	Marjoram lamb shank with root vegetables and potato patty	329 Kč
100 g	Traditional fried breaded cheese, homemade tartar sauce, chips	149 Kč

Chef's Tip

180 g	Pork cubes roasted with onion and dark beer, Křimice cabbage and red cabbage, potato and Bohemian dumplings	149 Kč
1 pc.	Rare pork knee slowly roasted at a low temperature and served with onions and garlic, fresh horseradish, mustard and pickles, bread	289 Kč

ČESKÁ KUCHYNĚ

150 g	Guláš „Prazdroj“, variace knedlíků	149 Kč
200 g	Selská vepřová plec s cibulí, česnekem a kmínem, křimické kysané zelí, houskové a bramborové knedlíky	149 Kč
150 g	Svíčková na smetaně s brusinkami a houskovými knedlíky	149 Kč
150 g	Kančí plec na šípkové omáčce, bramborový a houskový knedlík	189 Kč
2 ks	Plněné bramborové knedlíky s uzeným masem, křimickým kysaným zelím a smaženou cibulkou	99 Kč
1 ks	Kachní stehno konfitované v kmínovém sádle se zázvorem s dušeným červeným zelím, chlupatými a bramborovými knedlíky	249 Kč
1 ks	Jehněčí kolínko na majoránce s kořenovou zeleninou, presovaný brambor	329 Kč
100 g	Tradiční smažený sýr s domácí tatarskou omáčkou a smaženými bramborovými hranolky	149 Kč

TIP ŠÉFKUCHAŘE

180 g	Vepřové špalky pečené s cibulí a černým pivem s křimickým kysaným zelím, hlávkovým červeným zelím, bramborými a chlupatými knedlíky	149 Kč
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## Appendix 6

Sportovní areál; hotelsportzruc.cz

Sports centre facilities:

- 5 clay tennis courts
- 2 volleyball fields
- Artificial ground (lining for all ball games)
- Grass field
- Multi-functional field

## Appendix 7

Česko-anglický překlad pro „hřiště“; cs.bab.la

☛ baseballové hřiště	baseball diamond, baseball field
☛ domácí hřiště	home ground
☛ fotbalové hřiště	football pitch
☛ golfové hřiště	golf course, golf links, links
☛ střed hřiště	midfield
☛ tenisové hřiště	tennis court
☛ venkovní hřiště	sports field
☛ část hřiště	outfield
☛ hřiště na kriket	cricket pitch
☛ hřiště na americký fotbal	gridiron