ELEMENTS OF THE GRAMMATICAL THEORY OF TRANSLATION
(continued)

Hachatoor

The aim of this analysis is to present the complex sentence in the form of the simple sentence and to assess the capabilities of translating individual terms of a sentence. The absolute structures named *extended structures* are translated into Russian with subordinate clauses:

Le *repas terminé,* je me levai pour prendre congé *de* mes hôtes.[1]	*Когда окончился обед,* я встал, чтобы попрощаться со своими хозяевами.

The absolute structures are perceived within the frameworks of a simple extended sentence and are interpreted as a modifier or an adjective, rather than as a separate sentence. The tendency to perceive an absolute phrase as a member of the sentence is so powerful that some past participles have become prepositions through frequent use:

Tous sont venue*, excepté* mes soeurs*.	Все пришли *кроме* моих сестер.
Tous ont pris part a cette excursion*, y compris* les personnes les plus âgée*.	Все приняли участие в этой экскурсии*, включая* и самых старых.
Passé onze heures elle ne sortait jamais*.	Было уже *после* одиннадцати, а она не выходила.
Étant donné les circonstances, sa faute est pardonable.[2]	*Учитывая* обстоятельства, можно простить его вину.

The two latter cases are very idiomatic, so that the translation is not very precise. However, its clear that prior to the underscored groups having become prepositions, i.e. at the stage of development of the language when they still had been past participles, they could be interpreted as a verbal term of an absolute structure. To date they are prepositions used for connecting the elements of a simple sentence.

When translating into Russian from English, German, French or Armenian, it can be noticed that in those languages complex sentences are used less willingly than in Russian. Interestingly, Armenian in this regard shows more similarity with the West-European types that with Russian.

Translation into Russia will show the participial phrases, adverbial phrases, absolute and infinitive structures to be translated using a clause. Thus, a statistical research will have shown the clauses in the Russian translation to prevail over the original. Here are some examples:

The Armenian modifier of purpose with a postposition is a member of a simple sentence translated into Russian with a clause:

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[1] N. M. Steinberg, Grammaire française. Tome 1, Morphologie et syntaxe du discours, M.-L., 1966, p. 246.

[2] Ibid.

Գրոսլոուն, որ հավատացած չէր, թէ այդ երկու մարդը իրոք նրանք են, ում ինքը սպասում էր, սկզբում թաքնվեց այն թնդանոթներից մեկի ետևը, որոնք գետափին գետնի մեջ էին թաղված նավերը նրանցից կապելու համար:[3]

Грослоу, который не был уверен, что эти два человека - те, кого он ждал, вначале спрятался за одной из тумб, которые были закопаны на берегу для того чтобы за них привязывть корабли.

Here the Armenian text contains a substantive adverbial phrase *նավերը նրանցից կապելու համար*, substantive because *կապելու* is a substantivized infinitive, i.e., a noun transformed into an adverb by means of the postposition *համար*. The noun *կապելու* being a modifier and a member of a simple structure, has a nonetheless verbal origin governing the subordinates like a verb. Naturally, translating this substantive with a verb will place all subordinates into a clause, e.g.:

La pluie ne cessant pas, j'ai décidé de rester *à la* maison. [4]

Так как дождь не переставал, я решил остаться дома.

A modifier of purpose expressed by the infinitive can also be perceived within a simple sentence:

Նա կարող է այս աշխատանքը կատարել *իր ցանկացած ձևով:*

Он может выполнить эту работу *как пожелает.*

Here and elsewhere the Armenian text uses a substantive transformed into an adverb instead of a clause. This Armenian sentence can be presented in a way resembling the Russian translation:

Նա կարող է այս աշխատանքը կատարել *ինչպես ցանկանում է:*

Он может выполнить эту работу *как пожелает.*

This version however suggests the influence of the Russian substrate.

An absolute modifying phrase with the preposition *with* in the English text is perceived as a term of simple sentence:

It was found that at a traverse rate of 1/2 in/ per minute about 0/00002 in/ was being *removed* from the highs per pass *with very little removed from the lows*[5].

Оказалось, что при скорости поперечной подачи 0.127 см в мин. за один проход с высоких участков снимается около 0,000508 см, *а с низких участков не снимается почти ничего.*

The phrase with <u>with</u> cannot be regarded as a separate sentence, since the second *removed* is not a verb but rather an adjective (in the sense that it is an attribute). In the Russian translation the verbs *снимается* and *не снимается* are joined by an operation of connection, however forming separate sentences.

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[3] Դյումա Ա., Քսան տարի անց, Երևան, 1964, էջ 667:

[4] Steinberg N. M., op. cit., p. 239.

[5] Australian Mechanical Engineering, 5 June, 1961, p. 27.

The contrasting connection here is possible due to the semantic non-ambiguity of the verbal term *removed* (1) and *removed* (2), however if the latter verb had been something else, there would have been no contrasting, and the whole modifying phrase *with* would have been translated by a separate sentence containing the words *причем* or *при этом*, e.g.:

It was found that at a traverse rate of 1/2 in. per minute about 0.00002 in. was being removed from the highs per pass *with very considerable attention given* to the true grinding pressure.	Оказалось, что при скорости поперечной подачи 0,127 см. в мин. за один проход с высоких участков снимается около 0,0000508 см; *при этом очень большое внимание уделяется* поддержанию правильного давления шлифовального инструмента.

A modifier phrase with <u>with</u> can contain a formally unmarked contrasting shade:

This system operates on the same principle as the multi-lens technique *with the pinholes performing* the lens action.[6]	Эта система работает по тому же принципу, что и многолинзовая техника, *только здесь работу линзы выполняют* отверстия малого диаметра.

This usage of the preposition *with* has been pointed out by Jespersen in his book "The Philosophy of Grammar".

with both of us absent	когда нас обоих нет
I hope I am not the same now *with all the prettiness and youth removed*	надеюсь, я теперь не та же, когда нет уже красоты и молодости

The preposition *without* also governs the nexus:

Like a rose, full blown, but *without one petal* yet *fallen*	как роза, вся в цвету, но *без единого упавшего лепестка*

also: *with the hands empty* is meaningfully coincidental with a clause (while his hands were empty).

In the languages English, French, German and Armenian an infinitive or a verbal form can be used nominally connecting to sentence via a preposition:

He goes *without seeing me*	Il marche *sans m'apercevoir*	Er geht *ohne mich zu sehen*	Նա անցնում է *առանց ինձ գրեսնելու*

As shown by the Armenian example, the infinitive is morphologically substantivized. The substantivized infinitive joins its subordinate terms as a verb:

Er eilte davon, ohne *sich* noch *einmal umzudrehen.*[7]	Он быстро отошел, *ни разу не обернувшись.*

The tendency to using prepositions with infinitive is so strong, that it will also involve the clause[8].

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[6] Integrated Circuit Engineering, 3-rd Edition, USA, 1965, pp. 3-9.

[7] Worter und Wendungen, Leipzig, 1963, S. 434.

[8] Ditto, paragraph 119.

You don't know about me *without you have read a book* by the name of «The Adventures of Tom Sawyer»[9].

Вы не знаете меня, *если вы не читали* книгу под названием «Приключения Тома Сойера».

Er bot mir seine hilfe an, *ohne dass ich ihn erst darum bitten musste*[10].

Он предложил мне свою помощь, *причем я его даже не должен был об этом просить.*

Le temps s'ecoulait *sans qu'il en eut conscience*[11].

Время текло, *но он не сознавал этого.*

In the German text we can see a hierarchical connection of an attribute of the noun in the form of a participle having a modal meaning, translated into Russian using a clause having a modal meaning:

Die enzustellenden grossen Y und Z werden als Zahlenwerte in einem Rehmenschieber abgelesen.[12]

Величины Y и Z, которые нужно установить, нанесены в виде цифр на рамочном ползунке.

When translating, a situation is possible whereby an adverbial phrase is expressed by an adverbial participle, rather than by a clause. It is then not to be forgotten that the Russian gerund has an interesting feature: it can be governed by only a personal form of the verb used in an active diathesis[13], while in any other of the languages in question a form relevant to gerund can be subordinated to any form of the verb and can have a separate subject. this situation may result in a translation error.

If the verb is not in active diathesis, then the modifying phrase cannot be translated with the adverbial participle, but rather by using a clause, even in the cases when the foreign phrase is morphologically relevant to the Russian adverbial participle.

Participle turns with a separate subject occur in the Armenian language. Such cases resemble a French type of the sentence, meanwhile they rather differ from the Russian language:

... հետง *մի մուշկարի* ներս *մրնելիս,* մի բան պահանջելիս, երբ աշակերտները ուշ կշարժվեին, նա իսկույն աչքերը բաց կաներ, կասեր...[14]

... *Un client entre* pour acheter quelque chose, et si les apprentis ne s'empressent pas assez prestement a le servir, il ouvrait les yeux et il disait...

… *Если заходил кли-ент* и что-нибудь тре-бовал, а ученики поше-веливались медленно, он тут же открывал глаза и говорил...

In the Armenian text here, the participial phrase is close to the subordinate clause boosting the capacity and dynamism of the sentence.

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[9] Mark Twain, The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, Chapter 1.

[10] Worter und Wendungen, Leipzip, 1963, S. 434.

[11] Steinberg N. M., op. cit., p. 164.

[12] Werkstattstechnik, 12, 1961, S. 708.

[13] Language Typology and Language Universals: An International Handbook, ed. Martin Haspelmath, vol. 1, Berlin-New York, 2001, p. 313.

[14] Րաֆֆի, Ոսկի աքաղաղ, Երևան, 1954, էջ 58:

The tendency to using simple sentences in English is so strong, that complication can be generated not by using an additional predication, but rather by piling up the attributes upon a single simple term:

…but it was rough*… living in the house all the time…*[15]	… *все время жить в доме* было трудно…

The group *living in the house* is an attribute to the representant *it* in the utterly simple sentence it was rough. The tendency to evade the subordinated predication can be seen on the following examples:

il *croit voir*	ему кажется, что он видит
il *espere venir*	он надеется, что он придет
il *croit avoir vu*	ему кажется, что он видел

Here the second verb joins the first one as an actant. A similar example in an Armenian text:

Մի քանի րոպեից հետո տիկին Մարիամը հայտնվելով իր ամուսնու մոտ, նա ևս Միքայելի նման կանգնած, *սպասում էր լսել* նրա հրամանը[16]:	Через несколько минут г-жа Мариам предстала перед своим мужем и стоя, как и Микаэл, *ожидала* его распоряжений.

Here the verb լսել joins the verb սպասում էր as an actant. The English translation can reiterate the Armenian type:

սպասում էր լսել նրա հրամանը	*… waited to hear his order*

It should be remembered that the verb in nominal usage joins subordinate terms as a verb, rather than as a noun, i.e., after transformation the term will govern the same as before transofmation.

To conclude this subsection and to illustrate the presented ideas, see the argument by Hermann Paul on the complicated structure of a simple extended sentence: "Following the paraverbal and paranominal attributes having developed from former predicates and having stood out as autonomous formations, the sentence becomes even more complex. This complication of structure results from the word combinations, which already consist of one determinate and one determining element, can in their turn be determined by one more new element or can themselves pose as a determinant, or else in can result from one determinate element being able to combine with several determining elements, and one determining element with several determinate elements, in the same way as a predicate is connected with several subjects and one subject with several predicates".[17]

This argument by H. Paul clearly shows the reducibility of the two-term relation of predication to a one-term relation of determination, as well as reducibility of several already reduced categories to a position of a single term of relation. That suggests that

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[15] Mark Twain, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer…, M. 1948, p. 211.

[16] Րաֆֆի, Ոսկի աքաղաղ:

[17] Ditto, paragraph 99, M., 1960, p. 169.

the categories of word, simple sentence and complex sentence are divided by very vague delimitations. This is exactly the finding made by H. Paul: "We have previously trespassed the boundaries of the so-called simple sentence touching upon the complex sentence. It seems that within a truly psychological approach we cannot insist upon that delimitation. It is based on a premise that the primary distinction of a sentence is a verb in personal form. In the meantime, for some languages and epochs this statement absolutely inapplicable, for some others it is only partially true. Wherever a personal verb form is not distinctly shaped, the common discrimination between simple and complex sentences is untenable. Therefore the so-called complex and the so-called extended sentence are essentially the same"[18].

Grammatically homogeneous terms of the sentence can be semantically heterogeneous

The tendency to reduce a complicated idea into a single sentence can be discerned in English, German and French texts in one more remarkable phenomenon: connection of syntactically homogenous terms, which are semantically or even morphologically heterogeneous, e.g.:

Die Anlagen mit 3-6 Arbeitsaggregaten *werden* den Erfordernissen jedes Betriebes *gerecht* und *dienen* zum Bearbeiten von Querschnitten jeder Art mit ebenen Flachen[19].

Устройства с количеством рабочих агрегатов от 3 до 6 могут удовлетворить нужды любого производства. Они служат для обработки деталей любого поперечного сечения с плоскими поверхностями.

The latter sentence could be translated with the German substrate remaining intact:

Die Anlagen mit 3-6 Arbeitsaggregaten *werden* den Erfordernissen jedes Betriebes *gerecht* und *dienen* zum Bearbeiten von Querschnitten jeder Art mit ebenen Flachen.

Устройства с количеством рабочих агрегатов от 3 до 6 могут удовлетворить нуждам любого производства и служат для обработки деталей любого поперечного сечения.

In this latter version of the translation, it can be seen that the grammatically homogenous terms *могут удовлетворить и служат* are not semantically homogenous and their use as homogenous terms in the Russian text is stylistically inappropriate.

Some examples and arguments in this chapter confirm the thesis about the tendency in the English, French and German languages to generate simpler sentences than those in Russian, with the semantic capacity of the sentences unaffected and the meaning being deployed within the terms of the simple sentence. This finding can also be applied to the Armenian language, wherein the absolute structures, as well as the infinitive modifying and attributive structures show similarities with the relevant structures in the West-European languages.

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[18] Ditto, para. 100, M., 1960, pp. 171-172.

[19] Промышленный каталог, ФРГ, 1965.

The interpretation of the operation connecting homogenous terms as an operation that does not complicate the simple sentence is not coincidental with the interpretation by L. Tesniere[20] who thinks that it is the connection operation that transforms the simple sentence into the complex one. This is determined by an attempt to regard the formal connection of semantically heterogeneous as a part of a wider class of phenomena – the tendency of the sentence to retain a simple structure.

Transition of the predication into the substantive terms of the sentence

In the previous chapter, a thesis was put forward on the tendency in English, French, German and Armenian texts to produce simpler texts than their Russian translations. To understand the process of simplification of the sentence, it is necessary to trace the mechanism of shifting the meanings and saving the linguistic resources inside the sentence. In this regard it is interesting to explore the transition of predication into the attributes of the subject and of other substantives in the sentence.

The subject and the predicate form a complete utterance. A term with an adjective has no aspect of a complete utterance. Nevertheless, the same meaning can be located either in the predicate or in the adjective, e.g.: The dog *barks* – a *barking* dog. It can be suggested that predication is primary, while adjectivity is secondary.

Predication can be expressed in an adjective, while the adjective contains the predication in a removed aspect. The subject connected with this adjective does not form a complete utterance, close to this subject there is a place for a predicate, e.g.:

Этот человек *имеет длинные волосы - длинноволосый* человек.

In the text *длинноволосый человек* the predicate *имеет длинные волосы* is present in a removed aspect, so that the term *длинновноволосый* does not terminate the utterance, but merges with the term *человек* in a single term of the subject. In this way there is a process of pumping or accumulation of predication in the adjective. Theoretically this accumulation can be brought up to a very high degree, which becomes apparent in filling the subject with content.

Thus, in the development of thought, the following regularity is discerned here: Thesis - subject. Antithesis - predicate. Synthesis - subject with adjective containing in the removed form both thesis and antithesis. Subject with adjective (3) is return to the old (subject 1), but at a higher level.

Interestingly, in Armenian, the removal of predication into an adjective can occur without changing the form of the adjective. This phenomenon can be interpreted as predication removal at an early stage, e.g.: Subject and Predicate

Այս մարդը ունի երկար մազեր   Этот человек имеет длинные волосы

Subject with adjective generated from the meaningful part of predicate:

Մազերը երկար մարդ   длинноволосый человек

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[20] Ditto, para. 100, M., 1960, pp. 171-172.

Here one can see a part of the predicate, i.e., the predicate in the pure form. This complicated subject can be joined by any predicate. Generally, the subordinate terms do not simple join the principal ones, but sort of are included in them, or reduced to them. The reduced categories are recognized as a single body including all categories of the previous stages in a removed form[21].

According to O. Jespersen, a group of words representing one member of a sentence, is reduced to one term not in one word, but in the entire group: "Suit ("New English Grammar" § 122 и 120) noted that in the sentence there is thickening, whereby the word *what* performs the functions of two words simultaneously: it is an object to SAY in the subordinate sentence and also the subject to the verb IS in the principal sentence; in the sentence *what I say I mean what* is an object both in the principal and in the subordinate sentences, while in the sentence *what is done cannot be undone, what* is the subject introduced by such a condensed relative word which is commonly placed before the principal one, rather than after it, and if you change the order of sentences, then the absent relative word will be rehabilitated: *It is quite true what you say; if I say a thing I mean it*.

However, the latter sentence is not a grammatical equivalent of the sentence *what I say I mean*; it has no antecedent or a referent; as to the sentence *It is quite true what you say* the word *it* cannot be called the antecedent of *what* because it is impossible to say *it what you say*; … w*hat* cannot have an antecedent. The position before or after the principal sentence therefore is quite immaterial for the "condensed" pronouns: some of Suite's sentences show a common order with the subject in the first place, while in the sentence *what I say I mean* there is an emphatic positioning of the object in the first place: that is seen from a very natural sentence where *what* is a relative pronoun, though Suite does not recognize it as a "condensed" pronoun.

The principal objections against Suite's theory are different: it is odd to claim that *what* functions as two words at the same time; *what* per se is not the subject to *is true*: if you ask a question *what is true*?, the answer will by no means be only *what*, but rather *what you say*; in the same way the matter is with other sentences. *what* is an object to *say* and nothing more, same as *which* in the sentence "*The words which you say are true*". However, in the latter sentence, too, one can see the subject to *are* as *the words which you say*, rather than simply *the words*"[22].

Evidently, O. Jespersen will see the subject not as a referent only, but the whole clause, i.e., the subject of the principal sentence is the entire clause with its predicate. A diagram for the clause *what you say is true* will look like this:

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[21] Tesniere L., Elements de Syntaxe Structurale, Paris, 1966, p. 323, §§ 1, 2.

[22] Есперсен О., Философия грамматики, Москва, 1958, с. 117.
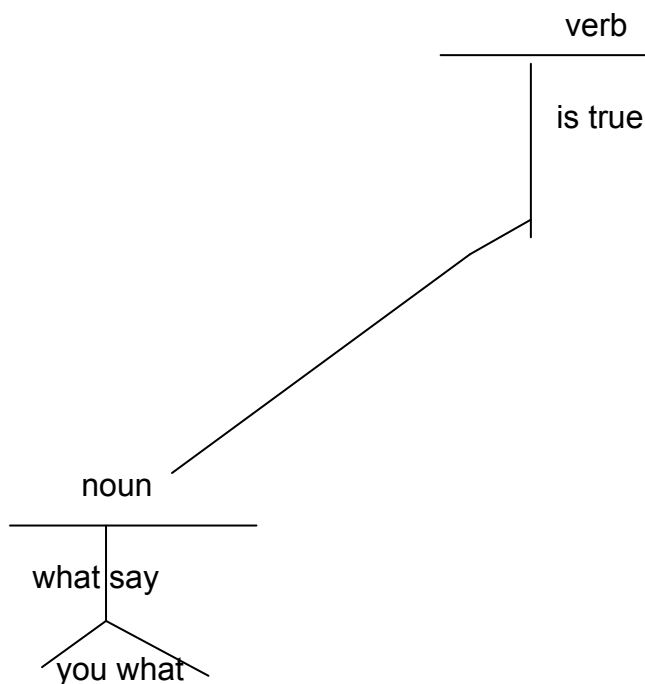
The diagram is interpreted as follows: *true* is an adjective transformed into a verb using the transformation indicator *is*; thus, the verb *is true* is the top of the sentence. To be analyzed not is the part *what you say. "You"* is the first actant, *what* is the second actant, and *say* is the verb. However the verb of the main sentence *is true* must have the first actant. As clearly shown by Jespersen, this first actant is not a separate term *what,* but rather the whole sentence *what you say*. This rule is not fit for structural analysis, for it is still needed to reduce the whole group to a single term. If a sentence has a verb, it can be easily turned into an actant only by transforming the verb into a noun. That is just what is shown on the diagram. The verb *say* is transformed into a noun and is governed from above as first actant on the part of the verb *is true*. As to governing downwards, the verb *say* as an ordinary verb governs two actants *you* and *what*.

The index of transformation here may be *what*, since prior to the analysis it was supposed that *what* was the first actant of the main verb *is true*. If we take this role away from him, we can at least leave him the role of the index showing transformation of the verb into the first actant and show with a dotted line its two roles: second actant of the verb *say* and the index transforming the verb *say* into noun.

So, let us return to the discourse on removal of the entire sentence in one term. By L. Tesniere, the verb is the main term of the sentence, and the removal takes place in it. Suite, criticized by Jespersen, did not see that removal ripping *what* out of the sentence to discern it separately. O. Jespersen indicated that this term should not be considered asunder, but rather, the whole clause should be regarded as subject. However, this solution has a generalized aspect, no fulcrum is seen for precision analysis. L. Tesnier points to this fulcrum - the verb and transformation of verb into a desired part of speech to construct the hierarchical chains of any lengths theoretically.

From the point of view of the Structural Syntax by L. Tesniere, the compound subordinate sentence shows the following regularly in the development of thought: (1) Thesis: word. (2) Anti-thesis: simple sentence. (3) Synthesis: transformation of simple sentence into a single term included into the sentence of a higher order. (4) Formation of a complete sentence consisting of the terms resulting from the removal of the sentence, i.e., formation of a simple sentence at a level higher than the sentence. The simple sentence is presented in a removed condition in one term. Term is negation of a simple sentence, while the sentence is negation of a simple term. Following the formation of term there occurs the negation of category, namely connection of terms into sentence. This sentence is simple in its structure, it has a complete structural similarity with the simple sentence. It differs from the simple sentence in that it contains the terms with the removed sentence inside them, while as the simple sentence contains simple terms wherein nothing is removed. Thus, the interrelationships of the mentioned categories may also be regarded as thesis - antithesis - synthes, namely: a simple sentence consisting of several simple terms; removal of a simple sentence in one term, formation of a single term having a complex content. The suggested schemes explaining the mechanism of predication removal and the mechanism of complication of a term of a simple sentence can considered in parallel, overlying each other.

Substantivized sentences

If accumulation of predication in an attributes does really take place, then provided the predicate follows the subject, the prepositional attributes are more economical than the postpositional ones. The postpositional attributes will impede the isolation of the predicate from the subject. In this connection the most informative structures are those having prepositional attributes. The mechanism of this heightened informative status can be explained in this way: a concept is fully formalized and becomes very distinct on the final word, the subject. Then follows the predicate, while the subject is still fresh in the memory. If the subject is followed by a postpositional attribute, it formalizes and clarifies the subject, however when the predicate appears, the subject recedes in the memory compared to the prepositional type, e.g.:

(1) Predication: This wasp is a parasite.
(2) Predication removed in a prepositional attribute: This parasitic wasp is a subject of investigation.
(3) Predication removed in a postpositional attribute: This wasp that is a parasite is a subject of investigation.

Evidently, removed predication in a prepositional attribute makes the sentence more perceptible. An attribute is perceived in a close unity with a substantive. Here we see a completely removed predication, whereas in the postpositional order, a removed predication can also be accompanied by an ordinary unremoved predication.

In a French text, where an adjective can be either in preposition or in postposition, a postpositional adjective is semantically closer to the meaning of the adjective in predication, than the same adjective in preposition, e.g.:

| un brave homme | чудак |
| un homme brave | храбрый человек |

The meaning of the adjective in the former case is identical to the meaning of the adjective in predication, i.e.:

| Cet homme est brave | этот человек храбр |
| un homme brave | храбрый человек |

In this connection it is interesting to quote E. Sapir who perceives this issue identically with regard to word formation: "In spite of my reluctance to emphasize the difference between a prefixing and a suffixing language, I feel that there is more involved in this difference than linguists have generally recognized. It seems to me that there is a rather important psychological distinction between a language that settles the formal status of a radical element before announcing it-and this, in effect, is what such languages as Tlingit and Chinook and Bantu are in the habit of doing-and one that begins with the concrete nucleus of a word and defines the status of this nucleus by successive limitations, each curtailing in some degree the generality of all that precedes. The spirit of the former method has something diagrammatic or architectural about it, the latter is a method of pruning afterthoughts. In the more highly wrought prefixing languages the word is apt to affect us as a crystallization of floating elements, the words of the typical suffixing languages[23] are "determinative" formations, each added element determining the form of the whole anew. It is so difficult in practice to apply these elusive, yet important, distinctions that an elementary study has no recourse but to ignore them[24].

Let us go back to the subject of predication transition into the substantive terms of the sentence, namely the first actant. The expression "predication transition" can be understood relatively, meaning "translocation of verb expressed by a verb into a substantive in another language, i.e., it is assumed here that the Russian text is primary and is correlated with the standard "syntactic consciousness", while the text in another language is secondary, e.g.:

| Limiting values of dv/dt have been raised from less than 100V per microsecond to between 200V and 1000V per microsecond by this simple device. *The consequent increased* forward voltage drop, slightly increased forward-gate current requirement and much higher reverse-gate current rearly lead to serious problems[25]. | При помощи этого простого устройства были повышены предельные значения dv/dt от менее чем 100в за МКС до 200-1000в за мкс. *Повышенное в результате этого* падение напряжения пропускания, повышенный уп-равляющий ток в проводящем направлении и значительно повышенный управляющий ток в запирающем направлении редко приводят к серьезным проблемам. |

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[23] E.g. Eskimo, Nootka.

[24] See Сепир Э., Язык, Москва, 1934, с. 99, cf. Greenberg, Order of Affixing, Essays in Linguistics, Chicago, 1957, p. 89.

[25] Engineer, U.K., No. 42, 1966, p. 722.

In the English text here the substantive manner of building up the grammatical structure becomes manifest in the noun *drop* being joined by two adjectives *consequent* and *increased*. Despite being semantically interconnected, they are used as mutually independent terms of connection. In the Russian translation this semantic connection is taken into account and the subordination of terms is not parallel, but rather serial. In view of this phenomenon the tendency of English towards substantive expression can be perceived in that the substantive functions as an important semantic unit. It tends to assume as much meaning and as many grammatical connections as possible and strives to release other categories of those functions. The next example clearly shows a transition of the substantive with an adjective into a verb with an adverb:

Such lenses, however are not yet available, with one *possible* exception.[26]	Таких линз, однако, еще нет на рынке, *разве что* за одним исключением.

A similar example:

This reduced penetration depth is shown to result from geometrical considerations *alone* if no modifications are introduced into the diffusion processes[27].	Оказывается, что эта сокращенная глубина прохода имеет место *только* по геометрическим причинам, если в диффузионный процесс не вносятся модификации.

As can be seen, in a sentence having a meaningful verb, this verb tends to evade the governance of terms getting as adjectives into a substantive unit. The more obvious manifestations of substantivity are cases whereby the meaningful verb is substituted with a meaningless verb governing a semantically loaded substantive.

H. Paul has commented on the transition of a predicate into the attribute of an actant: "The relation of the determining element to the determinant is similar to the relation of the predicate to the subject.

- … Indeed, an attribute is nothing else but a degraded predicate having no self-sufficient role in the sentence, so that after it has been uttered, the subject (object) can get connected with one more predicate.

Thus, an attribute to the subject was first initiated in sentences with a double predicate."[28]

Here H. Paul made an assumption on the primacy of predication compared to the attribute." Unlike H. Paul, here it is suggested to regard the conversion of the predicate into an attribute not as predicate degradation, but rather as predicate escalation, i.e., not as a low level compared to predication, but as a higher level compared to predication.

H. Paul also attested to the concept of increased capacity of a simple sentence on account of the subject's attributes, as shown in the previous discourse:

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[26] Semiconductor Products and Solid State Technology, USA, Aug. 1966, p. 26.

[27] IBM Journal of Research and Development, Jan. 1966, p. 12.

[28] Cf. Пауль Г., Принципы истории языка, Москва, 1960, §97, с. 165.

"One of the two predicates referring to a single subject, can become dependent upon the other, subjecting to it and thus turning into an attribute to the subject, while the three-term sentence becomes a two-term one."[29]

The phenomena of subordinating adverbs to nouns can be linked to the tendency of the language to the substantive expression, so that the groups of the type DIE TEILWEISEN VERBESSERUNGEN, SIE STUFENWEISEN FORTSCHRITTE, DIE STÜCKWEISE VERKAUF be treated as those obtained by analogy with the groups "verb-adverb". Merging an adverb with a noun can result in saving linguistic resources.

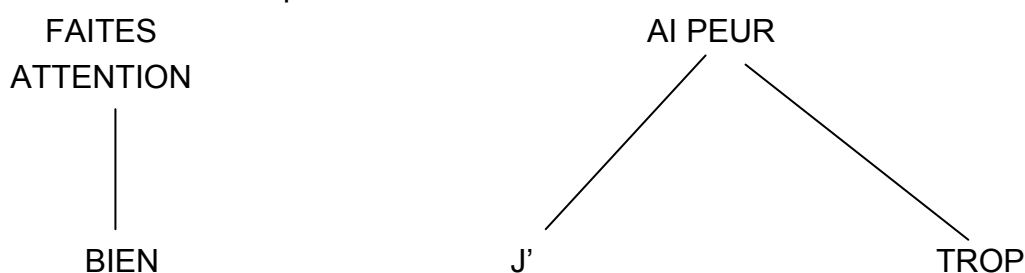|	
Der Turm *dort*, der Verschnorkelte, das ist der Rathausturm.[30]	*Вон та* башня с вычурными украшениями и есть ратуша.

Here the adverb *dort* is in actual fact a replacement of an entire attributive clause (the tower that is located there). With regard to the function, the adverb *dort* is an adjective subordinated to the word *Turm*.

When examining the facts of adverb-to-noun subordination, it is essential to distinguish the cases of adverb-to-adjective transformation from more complicated dependencies, when, i.e., the French adverbial modifier of manner modifies a verbal phrase, being placed between the two elements of this phrase:

Faites *bien* attention a ce que vous dites.	*Хорошо* следите за тем, что вы говорите.
J'ai *tres* envie d'allumer une cigarette[31].	Мне очень хотелось закурить сигарету.

In these French examples it is important to determine the subordination of the adverb, whether it is connected with the substantive term of the phrase or with the entire verbal phrase. The adverbs *bien* and *trop* are appropriate since they are subordinated to the entire verbal phrase:

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   FAITES                        AI PEUR
ATTENTION                       /      \
    |                          /        \
    |                        /            \
   BIEN                    J'              TROP
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The objections of stylists on using J'AI TRES ENVIE are probably based upon the idea that the adverb *tres* is perceived as a term subordinated to the substantive ENVIE, rather than to the entire verbal phrase. This usage may be regarded as normal provided, similarly with the previous examples, we treat the term *tres* as a unit subordinated to the entire verbal phrase '*ai envie* or as an adjective subordinated to the substantive *envie*. In the latter case the translation may be *у меня большое желание.*

We shall now return to the subject of removing predication in the substantive terms of the sentence. The subordinated and the governing terms of the sentence are in

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[29] Ibid.

[30] Arssenjewa M. G., Grammatik der Deutschen Sprache, M. 1963, S. 192.

[31] Steinberg N. M., op. cit., p. 265.

intricate interrelationships, and do replacements in the course of translation. Therefore, when analyzing translation, it is expedient to examine them in interaction. According to L. Tesniere, the **theory** of translation is based upon the parallel relations between the pairs of noun-adjective and verb-adverb, e.g.:

un diner leger   легкий обед

il dine legerement   он легко обедает[32]

This profound remark is associated with L. Tesniere's discourse on the substantive character of some languages[33].

M. Abeghyan understands the correlations between substantive and verb in the aspect of correlations between entire syntactic units, citing examples of correlations "verb-object" to "substantive-attribute".

Ամեն բան սպիտակեցնելը լավ չէ Ամեն բան սպիտակեցնելը

Տիեզերքի ստեղծող Աստված   Տիեզերք ստեղծող

Հիվանդի խնամքը   Հիվանդին խնամելը[34]

And similar correlations in the aspect of word formation:

Երկիրը շարժվում է Երկրի շարժվելը   Երկրաշարժ

արեգակը մտնում է արեգակի մտնելը արեգակնամուտ

աբյորը կանչում է   աբյորի կանչելը   աբյորականչ[35]

It can be seen here that when verb is substantivized, an actant becomes an attribute either as a noun in genitive of as a prepositional merging adjective. The merging adjective can also be an adverbial modifier, not only the first actant of the verb:

գործի մեջ կանչել գործի   գերիների դառնալը

մեջ կանչելը զորակոչ   վերադարձ[36]

Generally speaking, a verb with a complement is a unit, and dividing a text into the verb and the complement can often be seen as a morphologically accidental event. Thus, the verbs of the type *bringen* can be regarded not as autonomous verbs, but rather as part of a predicate: SOLCHE VERSUCHE BRINGEN UNS ERST DIE BESTÄTIGUNG DASS … The Russian translation of these verbs either retains the type as verbs with complements, e.g.: такие эксперименты *дают* нам подтверждение .... or makes use of one verb embracing the meaning of the former complement: Такие эксперименты *подтверждают* ...

The concept of grammatical ambiguity of verb is based upon replaceability of different verbal forms with invariant complements, e.g.:

It can be seen that in order to render the meaning of the text an exact rendering of the subordinate term *dans la suppression* proves to be more important than an exact

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[32] L. Tesniere, Elements de Syntaxe Structurale, Paris, 1966, p. 63.

[33] Ibid., p. 61, § 5.

[34] Աբեղյան Մ., Հայոց լեզվի տեսություն, Ե. 1965, էջ 422:

[35] Ibid, p. 204.

[36] Ibid.

rendering of the principal term - the verb *reside*). Moreover, an exact rendering of the subordinate term rules out an exact rendering of the principal term.

The same picture can be seen further on in the same sentence (*suppression des exitatrices* …). Here, too, the exact rendering of the subordinate term *exitatrices* proves to be more substantial than the exact rendering of the principal term *suppression*. The principal terms - nouns, both in the original and in the translation having verbal origin, and it can be seen that when replacing the main term with an ambiguous one (в отказе от...), the new main term matching the given subordinate term has the valency different from the original main term (*suppression*), which results in the genitive case being replaced by a prepositional phrase (*des exitatrices*).

The random morphological character of identifying the verb and the complement in the text is very elegantly noted by M. Abeghyan: "A noun or an adjective forms along with a verb a compound verb or predicate, e.g.: Ներսես Դ կոչվեց Շնորհալի. Here *կոչվեց Շնորհալի* is a verb-predicate, while the word taken separately is a link-related word. In this compound verb-predicate, the predicate is expressed not only by the meaning of the verb, nor by only the link-related word, but rather by both of them at once, as in the abovementioned example the predicate is not only an attribute provided by the verb nor it is the meaning of the word *Շնորհալի*, but rather both together, as if it could be said in a single compound verb Ներսես Դ շնորհալիակոչվեց.[37] As seen here, M. Abeghyan so clearly understands the random character of the concept being divided into a verb and link-related word that he suggests their substitution with an artificial term joining the two meanings together. Incidentally, this word has been devised only lexically, but grammatically this model does exist, e.g.: *կերպարանափոխել* (transform).

In German, too, there are verbal one-word terms containing complements and modifiers:

teilnehmen	take part
wetteifern	compete
freisprechen	to vindicate
frohlocken	rejoice
bekantgeben	inform
verlorengehen	to get lost
kaltstellen	to suspend

When translating verb and complement, the first one to be translated is the complement, and then the verb. A previous knowledge of the complement translation will considerably reduce the number of possible translations of a complement with a known verb, especially with regard to the context.

A. M. Peshkovsky and M. Abeghian corroborate the idea on the adjectival character of the adverb when subordinated to a noun: The word *вчера*, e.g., having no special form, is always related to a verb and is incapable of combining with nouns or

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[37] Ibid, p. 368.

adjectives. One can say *вчера приехали, вчера случилось*, etc., but not «*вчера приезд*», «*вчера случай*», etc. In the latter combinations, it is necessary to add the verb: *вчера приезд состоялся, вчера случай представился*, so that the word *вчера* will be related to this verb. If instead of *мы приехали вчера очень кстати* we said *наш приезд вчера был очень кстати*, connection between words would change: the word *вчера* would move away from the word *приезд* and would hitch to the words *был кстати*, i.e., with a verbal combination. Only by applying special intonation, joining the words *приезд вчера* and putting *вчера* under a stress followed by a stop, we could have managed to tear the word *вчера* from the verb fixing it to a fixing point extrinsic for him - to a noun (*ваш приезд вчера был очень кстати*, where *приезд вчера* would replace *вчерашний приезд*[38]. "When adverbs are used as attributes of the noun, they retain some adverbial-modifying meaning, which makes them differ from the true attributes of noun or adjectives, nevertheless, adverbs in this usage can no more be regarded as adverbs, but rather as adjectives"[39].

In German and French there is a tendency not only to convert the attributive adverbial elements into adjectives, but also to abbreviate the attributive adverbial groups or adjectives containing adverbial elements down to pure adjectives, e.g.:

междуэлектродное поле   elektrodenfeld
ткань под карбид кремния   silkarbotuch
                                             toile silcarbo

In the former example the word *междуэлектродное* is grammatically an adjective, though containing an adverbial element *между*, one can even imagine the adjective *междуэлектродный*, expressed by an adverb: поле *между электродами*.

It can be suggested that the capacity of adjectives to subordinate adverbs is an evidence of the verbal origin of the adjective corroborating the hypothesis of the removal of predication in the adjective. If we assume that the adjective originated in the form of a predicate, rather than an epithet, then it must have subordinated the adverbs quite naturally, like a verb. In the same natural way, having moved to the class of the epithets, it fetched along the adverb, i.e., the ability to govern the adverb. The predicate, i.e. the verb, is removed in the adjective, being subordinated at this stage to the noun.

Assuming the verb and the predicate to be at the same syntactic level, the verb should be considered a term subordinated to the noun, like the adjective, only the adjective is a term subordinated after removal, while the verb is the term subordinated before removal

While the verb is removed in an adjective, the verb with a complement is removed in a compound adjective: *Человек любит трудиться - трудолюбивый человек*. Arm. *մարդասեր* - человеколюбивый - a compound adjective, derived from a verbal form with a complement *մարդ սիրող* (любящий человека). Arm. *չափանաս*

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[38] Пешковский А. М., Русский синтаксис в научном освещении, Москва, 1935, с. 89.

[39] Աբեղյան Մ., Հայոց լեզվի տեսություն, Ե., 1965, էջ 394:

(совершеннолетний) - a compound adjective, derived from a verbal form with a complement: *չափի հասած* (word for word: достигший размера). The verb with an adverbial modifier can be removed in a compound adjective or in an adjective with an adverb. Arm. *ձյունապատ* (заснеженный) - a compound adjective, derived from a verbal form with an adverbial modifier: *ձյունով պատած* (покрытый снегом); Arm.: *խավարաբնակ* (живущий во мраке) - a compound adjective, derived from a verbal form with an adverbial modifier *խավարում բնակվող*.

A special case is removal of an adverb of comparison in a compound adjective, e.g.: *արծաթափայլ* (блестящий как серебро).

A certain group of German compound adjectives are translated into Russian using an adjective with an adverb of comparison: *sonnenklar* - ясный как солнце, *steinhart* - твердый как камень. When a Russian equivalent is stylistically unavailable, one has to revert to an adverb of degree: *federleicht – очень легкий*

steinalt - очень старый.

In light of the structural syntax, the groups like *как серебро, как камень, как солнце* are viewed as homogeneous members with regard to the object that is being compared[40]. Schematically it can be presented in this way: *хлеб твёрд и камень твёрд*. Here one can see the operation of connecting two homogenous terms, the element КАК being equivalent to the marker И of connection. Thus, removal of the adverb of comparison in a compound adjective can be presented as removal of a connection operation in a compound adjective. Incidentally, an adverb of comparison can be removed not only in a compound adjective, but also in a compound adverb.

In contrast to compound adjectives, in compound nouns removal does not occur, but rather there is a compression of the adjective. While prior to forming the compound noun there was a simple noun with another simple or scattered attributive term, after forming the compound noun this term becomes its part, i.e. the first part of the compound noun is an adjective converted from a genitive case of a noun or from a relational adjective indicating material:

from a genitive of a noun:

ehrsucht	тщеславие
rabenvater	жестокий отец

From a relational adjective:

Pelzhut	меховая шляпа
Glasscheibe	оконное стекло
Goldring	золотое кольцо
Gummiball	резиновый мяч
Laubhütte	хижина из листьев
Lorbeerkranz	лавровый венок

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[40] Tesniere L., Elements de Syntaxe Structurale, Paris, 1966, p. 351.

Papiergeld	бумажные деньги
Apfelbaum	яблоня
Rosenbusch	куст розы
Kartoffelsuppe	картофельный суп
Nußtorte	ореховый торт

the first part shows the place where the second part is located:

Bergbahn	горная дорога
Fussbank	скамейка для ног
Waldbaum	лесное дерево
Waldblume	лесной цветок

the first part shows time:

Winteranzug	зимний костюм
Mailuft	майский воздух
Julihitze	июльская жара
Nachthemd	ночная рубашка

the first part shows the object targeted by the second part:

Bierfaß	пивная бочка
Wasserflasche	бутылка с водой
Mistgabel	навозные вилы
Weinglas	бокал для вина

It can be seen here that the adjectives making up the first part of compound nouns have been transformed from the adjectival and prepositional attributive phrases.[41] In the latest examples it can be noted that a simple *parataxe*[42] of speech elements may have various relations unmarked formally.

Die Bedingungen, welche dazu veranlassen dergleichen Sätze zu er-zeugen und es dem Hörenden ermöglichen die nicht ausgedrückte Beziehung der Begriffe zu erraten, sind natürlich nicht bloss in den Anfängen der Sprechtätigkeit der Einzelnen oder der Menschheit vor- handen, sondern zu allen Zeiten.	«Условия, побуждающие индивидов строить предложения по принципу соположения слов и способствующие тому, что слушающий отгадывает невыраженные в них отношения понятий, имеются не только на первоначальных ступенях речевой деятельности отдельного индивида или же всего человечества, но и во все времена»[43].

The German nouns containing adjectives are translated into Russian using prepositional phrases:

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[41] Paul H., Deutsche Grammatik, Band V, Halle, 1959, S. 8.

[42] La Parataxe: Tome 1. Entre dépendance et intégration (Sciences pour la communication) (French Edition), 1st Edition, by Marie-José Béguelin (Editor), Mathieu Avanzi (Editor), Gilles Corminboeuf (Editor), Peter Lang AG, Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften, 2010.

[43] Пауль Г., Принципы истории языка, Москва, 1960, с. 148-149.

Das stadtlische Treiben gefiel ihm und liess ihn die vielen Monate Kuraufenthalt in einem langweiligen *herzbad* vergessen.	Городской шум и суета были ему приятны и заставляли позабыть о долгих месяцах пребывания на скучном курорте для сердечно-больных.
Leutearger, Steuerarger, Geldarger, Handwerkarger (und der schlimmste von allen war der Schwiegerarger.	неприятности с людьми, неприятности из-за налогов, из-за денег, из-за мастерских (и самое худшее - неприятности с тестем).[44]

The Russian prepositional phrase has a more precise meaning than the German word, allowing no ambiguous interpretations. Translation of compound nouns with prepositional phrases is widely used in the language of technical documentation.

The German noun is very compact and can be reiterated any number of times without overloading the text. In translation this compound noun is bound to be handed down using several words. Meanwhile, the translation can be relieved by omitting definitions and using only the main noun, e.g., the technical term *Ausgleichebene* when frequently used can sometimes be translated not in full as *плоскость балансирования,* but simply *as плоскость*.

L. Tesniere noted that one of the important features of the theory of translation is the substitution of the substantive unit for the verbal one. This remark is clearly associated with the assumption that most languages on the globe have no verbal unit in the sentence. All meanings of those languages are located in the substantives.

When analyzing texts and their translations, it can be noticed that in the accessible languages the distribution of meanings in sentences is very irregular. Ignoring the exotic substantive languages mentioned by L. Tesniere, it is difficult to imagine substantive sentences completely devoid of verbs. However, in familiar languages one can see a tendency to forming substantive sentences having a verb, however, but that verb is formal and is not loaded semantically, e.g.:

Դուք, երևի այս գիրքը կարդացած կլինեք	Вы, наверно, читали эту книгу.

In the Russian sentence the verb *читали* is the principal verbal term, at the same time carrying the main semantic load, i.e. being the predicate. In the Armenian sentence the verb with a complement *գիրքը կարդացած կլինեք* is conveyed using the complement *գիրքը*, and all that group of participle with a complement can be regarded as an attribute of the noun *դուք* in the same way as in the text *գիրքը կարդացած մարդ*. Thus, in the Armenian sentence we have already denoted the substantive and the attribute. It remains to clear out, how the predication is expressed. We see that the role of the predicate is played by the verb *be* (*կլինեք*). This verb is a formal predicate providing the sentence with tense and mood, while the semantic content goes into the sentence per se. This concept of the verbal unit is in agreement with the interpretation given by Zh.Vandries to the Sanscrit verbal forms: "In classical Sanscrit and in the

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[44] Федоров А. Ф., Немецко-русские языковые параллели, Москва, 1961, с. 64.

language of Mahabharata we already see the tendency of substituting verbal forms with participles, sometimes accompanied by a sort of link. This is not so much to replace he nominative phrase with the verbal phrase, but rather a deployment of one phrase into another, since the concepts to be expressed belong to the verbal domains: it is either action or condition, rather than quality"[45].

The cited substantive interpretation of this sentence does not stand if we consider the group *կարդացած կլինեք* a verbal form with an auxiliary verb. In the example

Նա այնպես էր փաթաթվել թիկնոցի մեջ, որ *ճանաչելու ոչ մի հնար չկար*[46]:

Он так завернулся в плащ, что *узнать* его *было невозможно*

i.e., the subject *հնար* + verb *չկար* = the short form of an adjective in the predication *было невозможно*

Here in the Armenian sentence there is a substantive with and adjective *ճանաչելու հնար* and all meaning is located in these elements. The verb *չկար* provides formal predication. The next Armenian sentences also have a substantive character:

Այդ հին գայլը մտքում դրած ուներ մի մեծ ճարակ ստանալ հանգուցյալ աղայի կայքից, որից ամեն մարդ իր կողմն էր քաշում:[47]

Этот старый волк надеялся получить большую долю имущества покойного хозяина, от которого каждый старался что-нибудь урвать.

Նրանք ազատ էին իրենց ծնողների հոգսերից, որովհետսն դեռ ոչ որբի պարտամուրhակ տված չունեին[48]:

Они были свободны от забот своих родителей, потому что еще никому *не давали* вексель.

Խելքի մոտիկ բան չի լինիլ, հիշել նրա անունը կտակի մեջ[49]:

(Ему) и в голову не пришло бы упомянуть его имя в завещании.

In the following Armenian sentence example use is made of a formal noun with little content and a formal verb:

Այդ ձեր գիտնալու բանն է, պատասխանեց տիկինը ...[50]

Это вы должны знать об этом, ответила мадам.

The main semantic load of the sentence falls on the attribute of the noun.

English and French easily form the substantive type of sentence similar to Armenian:

This is *a thing* for you *to know*   C'est   *une chose* pour vous *a connaitre*

One can quote an Armenian sentence with the central node governing like a verb:

...ինքն էլ մասնակից էր այն ուրախությանը[51]:

...он сам тоже *участвовал* в этом торжестве.

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[45] Вандриес Ж., Язык, Москва, 1937, с. 123.

[46] Դյումա Ա., Քսան տարի անց, էջ 502:

[47] Րաֆֆի, Ոսկի աքաղաղ, Երևան, 1954, էջ 184:

[48] Ibid., p. 14:

[49] Շիրվանզադե, Քաոս, Երևան, 1950, էջ 54:

[50] Րաֆֆի, Ոսկի աքաղաղ, էջ 120:

[51] Ibid, p. 75.

Here the node մասնակից էր has a verbal nature and requires using a dependent to fill in the free valency; however, this dependent is used not in accusative, but in genitive, as is due to a dependent of the noun. The central node of the Armenian sentence can also be an adjective with a meaningless verb, just like the noun in the former example is translated into Russian using a single meaningful verb:

Նա ինձանից խո մեծ չէ ... վերմակի տակից լսելի եղավ Կալոյի լալագին ձայնը[52]:	...он же не старше меня!... *послышался* из-под одеяла голос Кало.

Substantivation can be accompanied with a simplification of the sentence compared to the verbal type.

... *Քաղաք գնալդ էր* պակաս[53] ...	... еще тебя нехватало в городе...

Trying to translate the Armenian sentence with a better precision will have to deploy the substantivized infinitive գնալդ into a clause.

... *Քաղաք գնալդ էր* պակաս...	... нехватало (еще), чтобы ты шел в город!

The first actant *գնալ* becomes the verb *шёл*, while the attribute – adjective of the first actant becomes the first actant of the clause. Thus, in the Armenian text here there occurs simplification of the sentence compared to Russian and removal of the verb and actant into the substantive with attribute. The mentioned substantivized infinitive is a substantive to such a degree that it can be transformed into adjective modifying another substantive.

The adjective adduces the subordinate terms like the verb whence it comes, therefore, a complicated content can be conveyed with one single sentence, a sentence having a predication done with a meaningless verb, while the main meanings are expressed by substantives and their attributes, e.g.:

... Ախար նրա ի՛նչ *քաղաք գնալու ժամանակն է* ... [54]	Ну что за *время* (сейчас), *чтобы* он *шел в город*?

Armenian uses sentences with the infinitive in the substantive form playing the role of an object. This infinitive as a noun can have adjectives, while as a verb it can have objects. The simultaneous subordination of both complements and adjectives to a single term creates great potential in the capacity of a simple sentence. This model translates into Russian with a compound subordinate clause:

Որպես ձիերը, նույնպես շները, կատուները և բոլոր ընտանի անասունները ունեն առանձին նշաններ, որոնցով ճանաչում են նրանց չար կամ բարի *ազդեցություն ունենալը* տիրոջ բախտի վրա[55]:	Как лошади, так и собаки, кошки и все домашние животные имеют особые признаки, по которым можно определить, дурно или хорошо *они влияют* на судьбу своего хозяина.

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[52] Ibid, p. 10.

[53] Ibid, p. 9.

[54] Ibid.

[55] Րաֆֆի, Ոսկի աքաղաղ, էջ 48:

Here, the substantivized verb *ունենալը*, being a verb, governs the object *ազդեցություն*, and being a noun, governs the adjective *նրանց*.

The substantive manner of expression can be perceived in the Armenian combinatorial verbs like *թույլ վալ* (to allow), *սիրտ անել* (to take heart), *շուռ վալ* (to turn over), *մուր գալ* (to come up), *քարշ վալ* (to drag along), et cet. In this way the vocabulary resources of the language are expended very economically. In Russian those combinations are expressed with separate verbs.

A substantive phrase can be a modifier:

| *Ուզածս ժամանակ* կարող եմ այցելել նրան | Я могу прийти к нему, *когда я захочу* |

In the Armenian text here compared to Russian one can see a removal of the verb and adverb into the noun and adjective, while the substantive, through syntactic condition is subjected to indexless transformation into an adverb. This results in the transformation of the compound subordinate clause into a simple sentence. In the next example one can also see the folding of predication in the substantive modifying phrase:

| *Նախքան գնալս*, զեներալ... ես կուզենայի մի քանի հարց տալ ձեզ ...[56] | *Перед тем как я уйду*, генерал, мне бы хотелось задать вам несколько вопросов. |

A subordinate clause is also appropriate when translating this Armenian sentence into English:

| *Նախքան գնալս*, զեներալ... ես կուզենայի մի քանի հարց տալ ձեզ | *Before I go*, General, I should like to ask you a few questions. |

In English, substantive sentences occur quite frequently, their translation being not too easy with regard to finding formal correlations, e.g.:

| Plan your evenings in advance. *Having something to look forward to* can do a lot to stave off fatigue from boredom[57]. | Заранее планируйте вечер. *Если есть на что надеяться*, то это поможет не уставать от скуки). |

The subject *having* of the second English sentence is a substantivized verb. At the end of the sentence there is also a substantivation compared to the Russian translation.

| to stave off *fatigue* from boredom. | это поможет *не уставать* от скуки |

A literal translation: …to drive away the fatigue from boredom.

| This distortion arises from the *use of* a low angle *bevel* which magnifies the dimension perpendicular to the semiconductor surface …[58] | Искажения происходят от того, что *используется фаска* с малым углом. Фаска увеличивает размер, перпендику-лярный поверхности полупроводника ... |

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56 Դյումա Ա., Քասն տարի անց, էջ 242:
57 Popular Science, USA, June 1966, p. 188.
58 IBM Journal of Research and Development, USA, Jan. 1966, p. 12.

In the latter example, the English structure employs the name of action *use* with an adjective *of a bevel*; when translating with the aid of a clause use is made of the verb *используется* with the object *фаска*[59].

The phenomenon of wrapping up a predication in verbal substantivations is noted by A.V. Fiodorov. Verbal substantivations with the preposition *bei*, expressing the modifier of time, are matched by the Russian clauses with the conjunction *«когда»*, while the lexical meaning of the substantivized infinitive is expressed in the personal form by the predicate of the clause, the subject being the word indicating the actual doer or the source of action (*Bei dem knarren – когда ступеньки заскрипели*, *beim abgleiten – когда он скользил*)[60].

A.V. Fiodorov confirms the hypothesis uttered in this discourse on formal predication of verbal substantivations by means of lexically meaningless verbs:

War es wirklich die Schlacht vor Verden die die Schulbuben horten, wenn sie sich hinter Zahlbach auf die Erde Legten, oder nur *das fortwahrende zittern* der Erde unter den Eisenbahnsugen und Marschen der Armeen?	Неужели это бой под Верденом слышали школьники, когда за Цальбахом прикладывали ухо к земле, или это только *непрерывно дрожала* земля под колесами поездов и шагами марширующих армий?
Er musste im einschlafen gewesen sein. Er erwachte vor Schreck.	*Вероятно, он задремал* – и вдруг проснулся в ужасе.

In the former example: War es wirklich die Schlacht vor Verdun… oder nur das fortwahrende Zittern der Erde… the substantivized infinitive *zittern* is the predicative of a nominal predicate, with the main (lexical) content expressed by substantivation, the verb *sein* carrying grammatical attributes.

The same can be said of the latter example with the combination *einschlafen* making up the main content of the predicate group, while the conjugated verb will express tense, modality or other grammatical categories[61].

A similar German example with a meaningless verb *haben*:

Und das Anschnurren der Riemen sitterte ihm bis in die Haarwurzeln. Jetzt *hatte* der Riemen schon *ein* belles, endgultiges *surren*.	Начавшееся шуршание приводных ремней пронизало его дрожью до корней волос. Но вот они *зажужжали* ровно и звонко.[62]

Here an attempt has been made to outline some issues of the verb transitioning to substantive in translation. It is to be noted that L. Tesniere regarded this subject one of the main problems of the theory of translation. Regarding the layout of the material, the article favors the deductive principle, rather than inductive.

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[59] Пешковский А. М., Глагольность как выразительное средство, Сборник статей, Л., 1925.

[60] Федоров А. Ф., Немецко-русские языковые параллели, с. 78.

[61] Ibid, pp. 74-75.

[62] Ibid, p. 76.