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INTRODUCTION

The title of the paper is the problems of ambiguity during language translation. Ambiguity may challenge even the most qualified translators as sometimes it is not adequate to be aware of the possible translations of a word. There are numerous definitions of ambiguity but the most straightforward is that ambiguity occurs when the meaning of the word is vague due to its polysemic meaning. The types and reasons of ambiguity will be discussed later in the thesis.

The “obscurity of meaning” dates back to the ancient times. Aristotle also had discourses on the topic. Since then, several assumptions and publications arose around the topic in different fields of study like philosophy, logic, pragmatics and so on (Boyarskaya, 2019). The significance of the topic is unquestionable thus finding the most appropriate method for disambiguation can facilitate the translators’ daily tasks.

In relation to ambiguity several studies were published. Researchers made several attempts at dissecting the possibly emerging ambiguous problems during translation. Defining the pitfalls plays a crucial role as it can contribute to the identification and the correct translation of the ambiguous expression. What is more, sometimes ambiguous expressions are hardly recognised. For instance, low-frequency idioms might be translated literally instead of their figurative meaning because the translator may not be familiar with its possible interpretations (Zabotkina et al. 2017, 2018). Translators deal with ambiguous expressions on everyday basis since some languages are notoriously famous for being polysemous (Traxler, 2012). However, not only idioms that may give a headache to translators when dealing with expression with multiple meaning. Other cases of ambiguity are mentioned in the second part of the thesis.

The object matter of the present paper is the examination of ambiguous utterances in different interviews published in the “5 perc angol” magazines.

The subject matter of the thesis is to determine how could translators copy with ambiguous utterances and what methods were used in the process of their resolution.

The aim of the present study is to discover how ambiguous words are translated from one language to another and to find out how translators can copy with ambiguous words, what methods do they use and how can they convey the same meaning as well as to reveal those problems which may emerge in this process. The study makes an attempt at comparing and examining interviews and select those sentences that contain ambiguous expressions or other hidden challenges for translators to cope with them and analyse their resolution.

In this study, a systematic approach is outlined to achieve meaningful results. Initially, a comprehensive review of relevant literature is planned, focusing on the theoretical background of

translation and ambiguity. This foundational step is crucial for the first two parts of the thesis, as it aims to clarify basic concepts, summarise key publications, and highlight essential terminology. Such an endeavour is indispensable in laying the groundwork for a thorough understanding of the subject matter.

In the present study the following hypothesis was formulated: the main reason of ambiguity stems from polysemic words and grammatical differences. The other hypothesis and questions will be later discussed in the thesis in Part III.

The main objective of the thesis is to identify those utterances that may sound ambiguous, to examine if the translator took into consideration the possible pitfalls of the particular ambiguous expression as well as to analyse the outcome of the translation.

In the thesis qualitative method is used as well as the results are discussed by comparative analysis.

The theoretical value of the thesis lies in the collection of those publications that are essential to include and summarise to get a comprehensive picture of the subject. It focuses on gathering all the relevant information about the topic.

The practical value of the study may contribute to the correct translations of ambiguous words by defining those problems that translators may face. It can also emphasise those areas where ambiguous words play a more important role (i.e. translating a political text and a joke do not represent the same level of importance). In the thesis for instance such interviews are analysed that were conducted orally in English and then translated to Hungarian. The interviewees are from foreign countries so their use of speech may differ from the vocabulary that is spoken by Hungarians who speak English (they might not be familiar with cultural references because these expressions may not be present in their language).

Several outstanding scholars and linguists are mentioned in the thesis who strongly contributed to the development of translation and ambiguity. Scholars like House (2016), Catford (1965), Nida and Taber (1969), Jakobson (1959), Klaudy and Simigné (2000) and their viewpoints about translation were included in the first part. Whereas in the second part we have quoted Varga's (2010), Lyons' (1995), Katz's (1971) and Nerlich's (2003) ideas about the notion of ambiguity.

The present study consists of three parts as well as it also includes an introduction, conclusion, reference list, appendix and a summary in Ukrainian language.

The first- and second-part deals with the theoretical outline of the topic where the relevant publications are discussed. Part I concentrates on the essentials of translation including its definition, classification, transfer operations and other relevant topics. The second part sheds light on ambiguity, its identification, classification and on the methods of their resolution.

The third part encompasses the practical implications of the thesis. It summarises all those steps that were taken to conduct the empirical research. Describes the process of the research, lists all the sentences which were selected for further analysis as well as includes explanation after each sentence or sentence group.

The outcome of the analysis is given in the conclusion part where all the questions are answered, and all hypotheses are commented.

The significance of this thesis lies in its compilation of materials, which may aid other researchers in conducting relevant literature reviews. Additionally, it can serve as a valuable resource for students unfamiliar with the analysis and comparison of sentences, providing guidance on what aspects to consider during such examinations.

PART I

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF THE THEORY OF TRANSLATION

Even though it has been two thousand years since mankind has been developing theories about translation, the term science of translation emerged only in the XX. century.

It is possible to define translation as a creative activity from the perspective of its nature. Before translating a sentence, a translator has to face several decisions. These are subjective but not merely subjective decisions. When different translations are paralleled of the same text, there will be both identical and dissimilar solutions too. Thus, it can be concluded that those subjective decisions are made on the basis of objective ones. This basis has been researched during the years by translators when they wanted to reason their own outcomes either because they had to reply to the criticism or because they wished to pass their experience to the posterity (Klaudy, 1994, p.19).

Translation brings up different things for different groups of people. For non-professionals it just means a text although for professionals it is primarily an activity. This activity includes doing research, networking, translating words, phrases, and registers, editing the translation and so on (Robinson, 2003, p.5). As Anna Bernacka (2012) considers translation is more complex than just substituting the items of the source language with the items of the target language. David Katan (2004) has put out an interesting definition of translator in *Translating Cultures*. He said that: "... the translator is a bilingual mediating agent between monolingual communication participants in two different language communities" (p.16).

Translation includes the transfer of meaning of one set of language signs into another by professional use of dictionary and grammar as well as the progress also involves a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria (Bassnett, 2002, p.22).

In the forthcoming section of the thesis the relevant publications will be discussed. The first part will deal with the importance of translation, its definition, techniques, pitfalls, and challenges.

1.1 The basic concepts of translation

As Hatim and Munday (2004) suggested in order to define translation in a most straightforward way, its definition should be looked up in a dictionary like the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2004): "**translation** *n.* **1** the action or process of translating **2** a text or word that is translated" (p. 1532).

The first of the previous definitions describes translation as a process while the second refers to its product. Hence it can be determined that the term translation entails different perspectives. The first definition sheds light on the role of the translator i.e. the translator turns the text of the SL into the text of the TL. The second sense highlights the outcome of the translator i.e. the product (p.3). Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997) devoted special attention to the distinction between the process and product by saying that: “Translation - an incredibly broad notion which can be understood in many different ways. For example, one may talk of translation as a process or a product, and identify such sub-types as literary translation, technical translation, subtitling and machine translation; moreover, while more typically it just refers to the transfer of written texts, the term sometimes also includes interpreting” (p. 181).

As Hatim and Murray (2004) continue by saying that this definition brings in additional factors, starting with the categorization of 'sub-types.' These sub-types encompass not just conventional written outputs like literary and technical translations but also include newer forms of translation that have emerged in recent years. An example is audiovisual translation, where the written product is viewed alongside an image on screen, as seen in cinema, television, DVDs, or computer games (p. 4).

However, the former senses are not the only definitions of translation that were established. Translation can be looked upon as the replacement of something that existed before. Following this idea translation as cross-linguistic and cross-cultural communication is often seen as the ‘second best’ instead of the ‘real thing’ causing losses of what was originally ‘meant’. J. House (2016) commented that in spite of the fact that translation can be viewed as a secondary communicative event, it provides an important service in that it mediates between languages and bridges linguistic and cultural barriers.

Translation may be interpreted as intercultural communication as it provides communication between different cultures who have supposedly got dissimilar social rules. These cultures can be either groups at national level or linguistic minorities (p. 14).

J. C. Catford’s definition (1965) of translation was made from a linguistic-textual viewpoint: “Translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another” (p.1). He also defined translation as follows: “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)” (p. 20). Catford’s abbreviations SL (source language) and TL (target language) are still used in terminology.

Eugene Nida and Charles Taber (1969) explained translation as follows: “Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style” (p.12). According to

J. House (2016) what is worth mentioning in this idea is that the authors emphasised both the SL message and its style and the recognition of the importance of the receptors paying special attention to the equivalents that should be ‘natural’ (p. 18).

Scholars not only defined translation but also formed different graphic representations about it. Nida and Taber devised a model of translation. According to them, translation process can be divided into the phase of analysis, transfer, and restructuring. Nida described the model (Figure 1.1) as it follows: Translators have to analyse the message of the SL as simply and clearly as possible, then transfer this message and restructure it to the level that corresponds to the audience of the receptor language whom the translator is trying to address (p.33).

Another well-known representation of translation is the model (Figure 1.2) where the translational communication is considered as bilingual communication and it is divided into three phases (Kade, 1968, p.55). According to J. House (2016) Koller (2011) criticised the model by saying that it does not express adequately the specificity of the translational communication process and the complexity of the translators’ actions. According to him the translator’s bilingual and bicultural competence makes him/her another type of receptor (p.20).

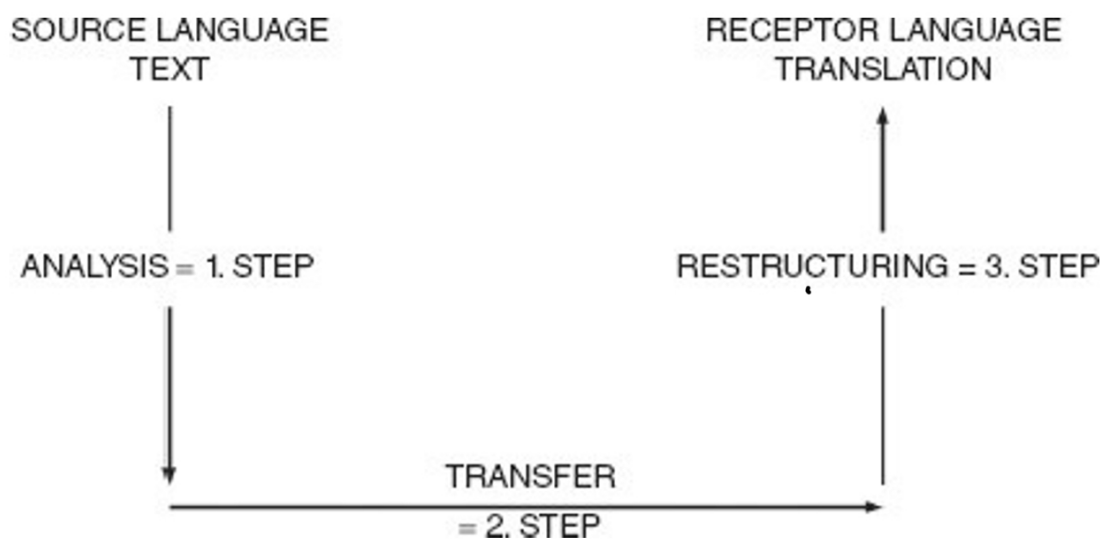


Figure 1.1 – Model of translation process by Nida and Taber (1969) p. 33

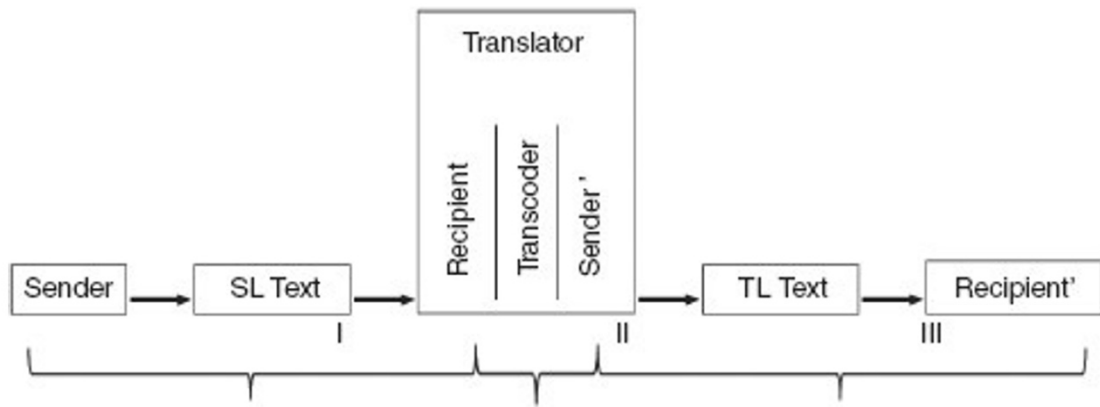


Figure 1.2 – Model of translation process by Kade (adapted from House, 2011, p. 20)

Edward Sapir (1956) asserted that people are depended on language as it has become the medium between societies, and he also commented that language habits of the community have strong influence on experience and each separate structure represents a separate reality.

“No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached” (p.69).

Roman Jakobson (1959) differentiated three types of translation in his article “On Linguistic Aspects of Translation”.

- 1) Intralingual translation – also known as rewording that is an interpretation of verbal signs by the help of other signs in the same language.
- 2) Interlingual language – also known as translation proper that is an interpretation of verbal signs by another language.
- 3) Intersemiotic translation - also known as transmutation that is an interpretation of verbal signs through signs of nonverbal sign system (p.233).

Having laid down the preceding types, Jakobson commented that the translation proper (2) that involves the translation process from SL to TL, has a central problem. He asserted that despite of the fact that the message is the acceptable interpretation of the code units, there will not be full equivalence. Synonymy that is apparent will not result in full equivalence neither. Jakobson also demonstrated that even single units necessitate the combination of code units in order to achieve the interpretation of its meaning. Dictionaries of synonyms may help finding the best version of a given word although in spite of their usage, there will not be full equivalence as the units entail a set of non-transferable associations and connotations. Bearing in mind these findings, Jakobson

declared that poetic arts are technically untranslatable: “Only creative transposition is possible: either intralingual transposition—from one poetic shape into another, or intralingual transposition—from one language into another, or finally intersemiotic transposition—from one system of signs into another, e.g. from verbal art into music, dance, cinema or painting [...]” (p.238). In case of “no equivalence” the translator has to look for a combination of unit that satisfies the at least approximate equivalent level.

1.2 The significance of translation

Translation is a phenomenon that strongly affects our everyday life. According to Hatim and Munday (2004) the importance of translation can range from outstandingly serious matters as the translation of a key international treaty to a poster that welcomes the guests at a restaurant in multiple languages (p.3).

In today's translation industry, technology has a greater influence than ever before on the role of information distribution through translation. Translation can be seen as something essential regarding the multilingual news on the Internet, the social media blogs, television channels etc. Whenever the information of a certain subject gets in, there is necessity of the quick distribution of the message throughout the world in different languages, translation is vital in operations like these. Another noteworthy field where translation is indispensable is tourist guiding (information should be available in tourists' native language) and information flow in globalised companies (House, 2016). According to Bührig and Böttger (2010) in many companies English has become the bridge language instead of the native one in order to improve sales potentials.

To offer a product in multiple languages, it needs to undergo localization through translation. This operation is similar to House's (1977) determination about 'cultural filtering' that is vital in covert translation. In a nutshell covert translation refers to a translated text that assumes the role of an original in the receiving linguaculture, without being pragmatically identified as a translation. To cater to the specific requirements of the new audience, the translator must consider distinct cultural presuppositions and construct an equivalent speech event in the target culture. To accomplish this, a 'cultural filter' is employed (p.23).

House (2016) stated that translation can be seen as something that lies in the centre of global economy nowadays. On the World Wide Web the appearance of non-English speaking users has led to the boost of translation.

E-learning has also contributed to the significance of translation. The connection between translation and today’s global economy is discoverable in the spread of digital industries that focus on e-learning and other educational forms that appeared on the internet in multiple languages.

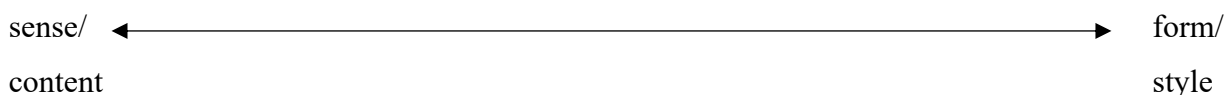
1.3 Transfer operations

Even the simplest sentence translation entails elaborate sequence of operations. These operations may include the following: the replacement of the units of the source language with the units of the target language, the restructuring of sentence structure, the changing of word order, the omission of the elements of SL and adding new ones to the TL without their presence in the SL. Operations like restructuring may seem to be a less effortless procedure although the lexical system of the TL often offers more options hence the translator must choose according to various viewpoints. The choice between these viewpoints must be listed among the sequences of operations which are performed by the translator. These operations (replacement, restructuring, omission, addition ...) are known as transfer operations.

One of the significant branches of translation theory is the description, classification, and explanation of transfer operations. The former belongs to a wider scope of translation procedures (Klaudy, 1994, p.93).

1.3.1 The function of transfer operations

Roman Jakobson (1959) made a statement that “all cognitive experience and its classification is conveyable in any existing language” (p.238). He added then that only poetry is untranslatable because its verse and form of words. In translation there is a classical duality between sense/content on the one side and form/style on the other.



There is a possibility of translating the sense whereas the chance of the translation of the form is low. We can talk about untranslatability when there is a relation between sense and form. This is a typical characteristic of poetry, song, advertising, puns etc. In these types of translation, the sound and rhyme as well as double meaning can be hardly translated to the target language. In

Hatim and Munday's (2004) book, there is an interesting example from Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets, where one of the character's name is Tom Marvolo Riddle however his name is also a riddle as it is an anagram of 'I am Voldemort'. In cases like this the translator of the other language would have to be very creative to find a way to convey the same form-content pair or one of them should be abandoned (p.10).

1.3.2 The classification of transfer operations¹

As Klaudy and Simigné (2000) discussed transfer operations can be grouped by different ways: according to the cause, aim, level, nature etc. of operations. Because of the elaborate characteristic of translation there can be found different classifications of translation however they are a mixture of different aspects. In Vinay and Darbelnet's study "equivalence" is among the seven main translation procedures. The following classifications have got both advantages and disadvantages.

- **Obligatory and optional transfer operations:** obligatory transfer operations are those procedures that are performed due to the differences between the grammatical and lexical systems of two languages. They are obligatory as their omission would result either meaningless or grammatically incorrect sentence in the TL. Optional operations are those that are performed over the obligatory ones. One pitfall in this division lies in the vagueness of what the word "obligatory" refers to: does it refer only to the transferable form of the target language or also to the proper selection of the equivalent of the target language?
- **Automatic and non-automatic transfer operations:** operations are considered automatic when the systematic differences between the languages obligate its performance by the translator. For instance, in translations from English to Hungarian, translators automatically transfer the omission of prepositions and insert Hungarian inflections etc. Whereas the translation of infinitives and participles by finite verb phrases is not obligatory in every case. What's worth mentioning here is, that while certain transfer operations are done automatically by the translators, sometimes even the seemingly easiest operations (e.g., omitting an article) may cause difficulties. It frequently happens to novice translators when translating from Hungarian to English that they tend to overuse articles. Hence the degree to which a transfer process can be deemed automatic relies heavily on the competence of translator.

¹ the classification of transfer operations (1.3.1) contains mainly the original translations of the author based on Klaudy and Simigné's (2000) publication in Hungarian language.

- **Classification according to level of operation:** transfer operations can be distinguished based on the level of operation. According to this they can be the following: word-level, phrase-level, sentence-level, and discourse-level. The pitfall of this division is sometimes even a passive-active change may determine a whole text even if it refers only to a sentence.
- **Classification according to the scope and cause of the operation:** one of the most common divisions in the theory of translation are the lexical, grammatical, and possibly stylistic or pragmatic transfer operations. The lexical transfer operations are usually the following:

- 1) differentiation and specification
- 2) generalisation
- 3) conceptual expansion
- 4) antonymous translation
- 5) total transformation
- 6) compensation

The grammatical transfer operations can be divided into four groups:

- 1) replacements
- 2) transpositions
- 3) insertions
- 4) omissions

Stylistic transfer operations are involved when the outcomes of the lexical and grammatical transfer operation should be observed from a different point of view, whether it corresponds to the requirements of certain genres. For instance, despite the fact that in English-Hungarian translation the passive verbs are replaced by active ones, this operation cannot be applied regardless of the genre.

Pragmatic transfer operations are involved when the outcomes of the lexical and grammatical transfer operation should be observed from the viewpoint of culture of the target language: the habits of the TL readers, or their background knowledge (pp. 14-18).

There can be found several classifications of transfer operations in the theory of translation, this work will be carried on by following the preceding viewpoints as well as in the research part there will be indications that will refer to this classification.

1.4 Equivalence

“Anything which can be said in one language can be said in another unless the form is an essential element of the message” (Nida and Taber, 1969, p.4).

The term “equivalence” is connected to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) and Jakobson (1959) who have introduced it in the 1950s. On one hand Vinay and Darbelnet defined equivalence as the following: “the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording” (p. 342). On the other hand, Jakobson (1959) perceived the term as a process of translation that embraces two equivalent messages expressed by various code units. He added then that “there is ordinarily no full equivalence between code units” (p. 233).

Albert (1988) determined equivalence as something that can be seen differently by the reader or listener who presupposes the equivalence, by the translator who creates it, and by the researcher whose task is to analyse equivalence.

Catford (1965) defined equivalence as a “key term” in translation and also as the source of the central problem of translation-practice because translators always strive for finding the TL translation equivalent (p.21). Catford views about equivalence is similar to Vinay and Darbelnet’s definition, they all tried to define the term as the “sameness of situation” (p.52). According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) it is the stylistic impact that has to be preserved and equivalence needs to be assessed in relation to the surrounding context, namely the situation. While Catford (1965) emphasizes that equivalence involves contextual meaning, and additionally, he highlights that achieving correspondence can vary in degree across different ranks, and it's not necessary to achieve it simultaneously at all ranks (Korkuz, 2022).

Nida (1964) approached translation equivalence from a different point of view. He differentiated formal and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence serves the purpose of showing the content and form of the original message as much as possible. While in case of dynamic equivalence the emphasis is put on the receptor response instead of the source message (pp. 165-166). Korkuz (2022) summarised Nida’s theory by saying that it is mainly about finding the closest natural equivalent.

Hatim and Munday (2004) in case of translatability and comprehensibility also Nida’s classification followed. They added that formal equivalence also known as “structural correspondence” refers only to the “formal” replacement of the words. Munday highlighted Nida’s viewpoint about formal and literal equivalence, who said that two terms should be used separately. He explained this comment by saying that although literal translations generally instinctively maintain formal characteristics, a 'formal' translation is typically driven by contextual

considerations. Formal features are retained only when they convey contextual values that contribute to the overall meaning of the text.

After exhausting all the formal possibilities, the translator may turn to a more dynamic approach. In case of the lack of transparency in the TT, the translator has to interfere and resort to a more dynamic form of equivalence. Dynamic equivalence allows for the accommodation of a diverse range of contextual values and effects inherent in utterances within texts, effects that would be compromised by a literal translation. These effects are more related to content than to form. In other words, varying degrees of dynamic equivalence are chosen when the form is not crucial for conveying a specific meaning, making a formal rendering unnecessary (pp. 42-43).

Bassnett (2002) in her book quoted Popovič and introduced his classification of equivalence. He distinguished four types:

- 1) Linguistic equivalence – happens when there is word-for-word translation as there is homogeneity between the SL and the TL.
- 2) Paradigmatic equivalence – happens when there can be found equivalence between the grammatical structures of the two languages.
- 3) Stylistic (translational) equivalence – happens when the “functional equivalence of elements in both original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning” (p.33).
- 4) Textual or syntagmatic equivalence – it happens when there is equivalence between the form and shape (Bassnett, 2002 quoted Popovič, 1976, p. 33).

1.4.1 Equivalence at word level

The lexical meaning of a word can be understood as something specific or unique that a word possesses. Cruse (1986) differentiated four types of meaning in words/utterances: propositional meaning, expressive meaning, presupposed meaning, and evoked meaning.

Propositional meaning – this type of meaning refers to the world and its speakers as they perceive it. Here utterances are always judged as true or false. In case of incorrect translation, propositional meaning is the first that needs to be observed.

Expressive meaning – this meaning does not work on the base of true or false judgement. The reason of this is that expressive meaning refers to the speaker’s feelings and attitude and not to what it refers to in the real world.

Presupposed meaning – originated from the co-occurrence of restrictions. There are two types of them: selectional (the function of the propositional meaning of a word) and collocational (arbitrary restrictions).

Evoked meaning – derived from dialect (a language variation that is preserved by a certain group of people) and register (refers to the vocabulary that is used by language users in a specific situation). Dialect can be divided into three groups: geographical, temporal, and social. While register has other subtypes: field, tenor, and mode.

1.4.2 Equivalence above word level

Words that stand alone are very hard to find, most of the time they are connected to other words. It is not possible to combine the words randomly, there are restrictions that have to be followed. Some restrictions can be applied on individual words rather than on word classes. Lexical patterning deals with word classes that can be identified as recurrent patterns in the language. Collocation and fixed expression belong to this group.

Collocations can be identified as words that often co-occur in a language. The co-occurrence of certain words can be explained by their propositional meanings. According to Baker (2018) “When two words collocate, the relationship can hold between all or several of their various forms, combined in any grammatically acceptable order” (p.54). Although there are exceptions when words collocate with other words however not with their other forms.

Idioms and fixed expressions – idioms almost never allow changes in their form. Fixed expressions or proverbs function the same way. These expression in the English language are not as flexible as collocations. The only difference between idioms and fixed expressions/proverbs is that the meaning of the latter can be deduced because of its transparent meaning. However, any recurring pattern of the language has to be understood as one unit to establish meaning.

1.5 Non-equivalence

Bearing in mind the content of the former topic, it is also noteworthy to mention what types of non-equivalence can be present and how should translators cope with them. The selection of an appropriate equivalent is contingent not only on the linguistic system or systems handled by the translator but also on how both the source text writer and the target text producer (i.e., the translator) decide to manipulate the linguistic systems involved. It relies on the expectations,

background knowledge, and biases of readers within a specific temporal and spatial context. Furthermore, it depends on the translator's own interpretation of their task, including their judgment of what is suitable in a given situation. Various constraints in a particular environment at a specific moment, such as censorship and interventions by parties other than the translator, author, and reader, also play a role.

There are some common types of non-equivalence at word level:

- culture-specific concepts – they can be defined as words that cannot be understood by the target culture as they are not present in their language. These words can be either abstract or concrete as well as may refer to religious belief, food or to something else. Baker (2018) determined the word “privacy” is difficult to translate to other languages as these languages have no equivalent for the word.
- the source language concept/word cannot be found in the target language – in this case, the TL is not lexicalised which means that in spite of the fact that the concept can be understood, the word is not “allocated” in the TL.
- the SL word is semantically complex – A solitary term comprising just one morpheme may occasionally convey a more intricate range of meanings than an entire sentence. Baker (2018) found a Brazilian single word which translation to English is almost 30 words long: *arruação* – “clearing the ground under coffee trees of rubbish and piling it in the middle of the row in order to aid in the recovery of beans dropped during harvesting” (p.20).
- there are different distinctions in the SL and TL – while a distinction in the SL may be relevant, it may not interest the audience of the TL and this works vice versa.
- there is no superordinate in the TL – it is also possible that the TL lacks a general word that is present in the SL.
- there is no hyponym in the TL – there is a chance that the TL lacks a specific term that is present in the SL.
- the significance of physical perspective can vary between languages. It pertains to the spatial relationships between objects, individuals, or a location, as indicated by word pairs like come/go, take/bring, arrive/depart, and other similar expressions.
- the propositional meaning is the same but has a different expressive meaning. These differences can be either considerable or subtle.
- there might be also differences in form. For instance, in English there are different prefixes and affixes that convey meaning and have no equivalents in other languages.
- there are certain forms in English which equivalent is present in the other language however it is not used as frequently as it is used in the SL.

- loan words in the SL – they also pose a big challenge for translators. They are usually used to sound more sophisticated. However, this is often lost in translation (Baker, 2018 pp. 19-23.).

1.6 Translatability and untranslatability

The question of translatability and untranslatability makes it possible for the translators to share their views about the relationship between language and reality. It seems to be a fundamental truth that reality is the same for all of us; only the linguistic tools for its expression differ. Yet, the idea resurfaces time and again among linguists and other social researchers that language must somehow influence reality as well. For instance, it surely plays a role in how we perceive the external properties of objects, depending on the words our native language has for describing these properties.

Languages express reality in different ways as the audience of each language form divergent world concept. While in some cultures a piece of reality is represented in a very detailed way, it may be not interesting to the other, so a more general term is used instead of a specific one. Typical instances include the extensive range of snow terminology found in the Eskimo language and the diverse array of colour descriptors used by Argentinean gauchos to identify horses.

Another reason that confirms the idea of untranslatability is realia also known as names that are used by certain group of people. If realia are directly translated into the target language, the translation would lack coherence unless supplemented with footnotes. However, if the translator attempts to substitute similar realia from the target language, it jeopardizes the informative and culturally enriching aspect of translation. Realia carry rich information about the culture, lifestyle, habits, self-perception, and more of the language community. Thus, at times, the goal of translation is specifically to convey this wealth of information (Klaudy²², 1994 pp. 32-43.)

According to Catford, there two types of untranslatability: linguistic and cultural. Linguistic untranslatability occurs when there is no equivalence on the lexical/syntactical level of languages. Cultural untranslatability may happen due to the differences in a particular situational feature in the SL and TL. Popovič on the other hand, made an attempt at defining untranslatability without separating its linguistic and cultural approaches. He defined the first as follows: “A situation in which the linguistic elements of the original cannot be replaced adequately in structural, linear, functional or semantic terms in consequence of a lack of denotation or

²² the translatability and untranslatability (1.6) contains mainly the original translations of the author based on Klaudy's (1994) publication in Hungarian language.

connotation.” The second: “A situation where the relation of expressing the meaning, i.e. the relation between the creative subject and its linguistic expression in the original does not find an adequate linguistic expression in the translation” (both Catford and Popovič were quoted by Bassnet, 2002, pp. 39-42.).

Summary of Part I

In the preceding part the fundamental concepts of the theory of translation were summarised, paying special attention to the most frequent concepts. Transfer operations and the notion of equivalence/non-equivalence were dissected since these notions/operations are indispensable to reach goals in translation. Finally, the concept of translatability and its counterpart, untranslatability were explained by referencing the publications of such outstanding figures as Catford, Bassnett and Klaudy.

In the next section the concept of meaning will be elucidated moving slowly towards the concept of ambiguity. Ambiguity plays the central role in the second part since it is the topic of the paper. The notion of ambiguity, its types and different disambiguation methods will be clarified in order to impeccably discuss the topic.

PART II.

THE CONCEPT OF AMBIGUITY

Translators face ambiguity and the challenges of its translation on everyday basis. There is a quote from Umberto Eco, who said: "It sometimes happens that one of my translators will ask me the following question: "I am at a loss as to how to render this passage, because it is ambiguous. It can be read two different ways" (Confessions of a Young Novelist, 2011, p. 33). Ambiguity is frequently described as the "disease of language" as it cannot be avoided, it is a part of human communication (Graham, 2011). Translators convey a quite complex decision-making process when they decide how to cope with an intralingual or interlingual translation that is abound in ambiguous words.

Different studies about ambiguity and its sources can be found in the times of Antiquity. According to Aristotle three types of ambiguities can be distinguished:

1. the word or phrase possesses two or more meanings,
2. when by modification we use them so
3. the word itself has only one meaning however when it is combined with other words, it can result ambiguity.

Since this vague meaning has never stopped, the problem of ambiguity and its research was continued in different other fields such as: philosophy, logic, lexical and cognitive semantics, pragmatics, psychology, automated text analysis and natural language processing for AI. (Boyarskaya, 2019).

Quiroga-Claire (2003) stated that ambiguity arises when something can be interpreted in multiple senses or manners. If this uncertainty lies within a single word, it's termed as lexical ambiguity, while in a sentence or phrase, it's structural ambiguity.

Instances of lexical ambiguity are abundant, with nearly every word possessing multiple meanings. For example, "note" can signify either a musical tone or a brief written record, while "lie" can denote either a false statement or the act of reclining flat. Even the term "ambiguity" itself illustrates this concept, encompassing indecision regarding meaning, an intention to convey multiple ideas, the likelihood of multiple interpretations, and the existence of various meanings within a statement. The frequency of usage often correlates with the degree of ambiguity.

2.1 The concept of meaning

Riemer (2010) explained the notion of meaning by the representation of the following example. Picture explaining to a kid what a pen is. You might say it's a long, thin tool for writing. But then they might ask what writing is. So, you'd explain it's a method where symbols stand for language. Then comes the question: what's language? This dilemma is called the definitional circle. It's tricky to define something without relying on other terms that also need defining.

According to Varga (2010) semantics can be defined as “the study of the meaning of meaningful units” (p. 68). The concept of meaning dates back to Greek times and comes from the word *sēmantikos* (meaningful, significant).

Meaning cannot be considered homogeneous. The primary and central type of meaning is referred to as cognitive meaning. For declarative sentences, it signifies the state of affairs described, determining its truthfulness. This meaning is often termed propositional meaning or proposition. When it comes to words, cognitive meaning pertains to the consistent contribution a word (lexeme) offers to the cognitive meaning of sentences. This aspect of meaning for lexemes is also known as sense. Apart from cognitive meaning stylistic, emotive (affective) as well as speech act meaning also belong to the concept of meaning however they are rather concerned with pragmatics (pp. 68-69).

Dostert (1955) defined translation as: “that branch of the applied science of language which is specifically concerned with the problem – or the fact – of the transference of **meaning** from one set of patterned symbols[...]” (p.124).

Catford (1965) also tried to explain the notion of meaning. He said that translation theory must rely on a theory of meaning. Without it, crucial aspects of the translation process remain undiscussed, and statements like Dostert's cannot be properly assessed. Based on the theory of meaning utilised here, the notion that source language (SL) and target language (TL) texts "have the same meaning" or that "meaning transfers occur in translation" is not sustainable (p.35).

2.1.1 Traditional theory of meaning

Numerous theories attempted breaking the previously mentioned definitional circle however all of them have got strengths and weaknesses. The theory of reference aims at approaching the meaning of a word from what it refers to. Kempson (1977) described this theory as it follows: “In its simplest form this theory would claim that reference picks out elements in the

real world” (p. 13). This theory highlights the referents of lexemes. Saeed (2016) illustrated with the following table that this theory works with the following proper and non-names:

proper names	<i>denote</i>	individuals
common names	<i>denote</i>	sets of individuals
verbs	<i>denote</i>	actions
adjectives	<i>denote</i>	properties of individuals
adverbs	<i>denote</i>	properties of actions (p. 30)

The theory of relevance can be connected to several scholars however it was Gutt (2000) who first used the theory in his dissertation in 1989. Zachar (2012) cited Wilson and Sperper’s idea by stating that the central idea of the relevance theory is that information can be considered relevant when it somehow related to one’s assumption about the world (p.269). A fundamental principle of the theory posits that information becomes significant only when the energy expended in its interpretation is justified for the reader (Heltai, 2005, p.32). Communication is viewed through a cost-benefit lens, where the relevance of a statement increases with the contextual impact and decreases with the processing effort required (Heltai, 2009).

The problem with this theory is that there might be lexemes that used to exist in the past so they cannot refer to anything in the extralinguistic world. Function words another example for the weakness of this theory because they perform grammatical functions and do not refer to anything in the world however, they mean something (Varga, 2010).

2.1.2 Conceptual theory of meaning

The conceptual theory (also known as mental representation) suggests that the meaning of a word corresponds to the concept it represents in our minds. According to the concept theory of meaning, the meaning of a linguistic expression is linked to the concept it embodies. Concepts serve as fundamental elements of thought, enabling us to comprehend the world surrounding us. The concept theory of meaning offers several advantages compared to the referential theory of meaning. Firstly, it can explain the meaning of abstract nouns, which lack real-world referents. Secondly, it can accommodate the various referents of a single linguistic expression. Thirdly, it can elucidate the meaning of grammatical words, which lack specific denotations (Hassan, 2023).

On the other hand, Varga (2010) commented there are also problems in the conceptual theory. One prominent observation is the existence of numerous lexemes devoid of conceptual associations. The presence of function words significantly influence sentence meaning (e.g., "if," "very," "why," "and," etc.) without being definable in terms of concepts or their essential attributes.

What is meant by sentence meaning is something that refers to the interpretation of a sentence independently, regardless of the surrounding text. It encompasses the significance derived solely from the words and grammar within the sentence itself, a domain referred to as semantics. Utterance meaning, on the other hand, reflects the intended meaning of an utterance within a particular context, considering the speaker's or writer's intentions and the contextual setting. This aspect, known as sense, falls under the realm of pragmatics.

7 types of meaning can be differentiated:

- **conceptual** (denotative or cognitive) **meaning**: the central meaning of a word. For instance: a dog is a four-legged furry mammal.
- **connotative meaning**: encompasses the communicative significance inherent in an expression based on its reference. It denotes the real-life experiences associated with the expression when used or heard.
- **social meaning**: refers to the information about the social context conveyed by a piece of language.
- **affective meaning**: the individual emotions of the speaker, including their attitude towards the listener or the subject of discussion. It is frequently expressed through the conceptual or connotative aspects of the language employed, yet it can also be conveyed through politeness, intonation, and voice quality.
- **reflected meaning** occurs when a word or phrase carries multiple conceptual meanings, leading one sense of the word to influence our understanding or response to another sense. This phenomenon involves a single word or phrase being associated with more than one sense or meaning.
- **collocative meaning** encompasses the associations a word develops due to the meanings of words that commonly appear in its vicinity or context.
- **thematic meaning** refers to what a speaker or writer conveys through the organisation of their message, including the arrangement, focal points, and emphasis placed on different aspects (Hassan, 2023).

2.2 The notion of ambiguity

The group of those words, concepts, terms that are undefined, possess more than one definition or lack obvious definition and result in a misleading meaning, can be judged ambiguous. A word, phrase, sentence, or other form of communication is deemed "ambiguous" when it can be understood in more than one way. Ambiguity frequently occurs in everyday speech however it cannot be recognised so easily due to the contexts that selects only one possible meaning (Sundos and Istabraq 2009-2010).

Empson (1930) approached the notion of ambiguity from the side of poetry. He said that ambiguity cannot be considered as a figurative speech and utilised as a way of decoration. It can be looked upon as natural characteristic of language which is considered more important in verse.

According to Moore (2004) numerous instances of translation of ambiguity exist, with some of the most notable cases occurring when a word has several potential translations due to conceptual difficulties in transferring it to another language. A striking example to depict the previous definition is the word "gezellig" in Dutch that has at least four interpretations in English however one of them may fit into the context the best. The English "to be" can also be considered ambiguous when translating to Spanish (it can indicate either "ser" or "estar") since Spanish has a conceptual distinction that cannot be found in English (Tokowicz, 2014).

Lyons (1995) commented that natural languages are known as ambiguous languages on different levels. From a semantic point of view a single word may possess different meanings and they may belong either to the same or different grammatical categories or parts of speech.

Chierchia and Ginet (1992) define ambiguity as the situation where a single word is linked within the language system to multiple meanings. According to Kriedler (1998), ambiguity occurs when any linguistic form can be interpreted in two or more ways. This condition presents a challenge for readers who cannot directly discern the intended meaning from the writer due to the presence of multiple interpretations within a sentence.

Additionally, Bach (1994) posits that a word, phrase, sentence, or any form of communication is considered ambiguous if it possesses more than one meaning. However, this definition lacks specification regarding the meanings themselves or the criteria for determining them. In a specific language, this information is typically provided by a grammar, which systematically pairs forms with meanings, including ambiguous forms with multiple interpretations. For instance, the word "light" can signify either "not very heavy" or "not very dark."

Katz's (1971) perspective on ambiguity suggests that it arises when distinguishing between two entities becomes problematic. Specifically, he notes that semantic ambiguity occurs when

there are two distinct meanings involved, leading to uncertainty or difficulty in interpretation. Katz also emphasizes the importance of accurately reflecting the degree of ambiguity by assigning the appropriate number of interpretations to each constituent.

Last but not least according to Kempson (1977) ambiguity can exist in both individual words and entire sentences, with the linguistic rules established by a linguist needing to accurately identify which words and sentences possess multiple meanings in each language. In cases where a sentence is ambiguously interpreted in two ways, it necessitates two semantic representations to fully capture its dual meanings.

2.3 How are ambiguous words identified?

Zhang (1998) wrote about four concepts that should be clarified and distinguished: fuzziness, vagueness, generality, and ambiguity. According to her confusing the former concepts may cause problems for lexicographers since they have to decide whether one or more dictionary entry should be juxtaposed to a given word. All of these concepts have something in common, that is imprecise/unspecified information, but it is also necessary to differentiate these concepts in order to correctly categorise them.

Zhang (1998) said that an expression exhibits fuzziness when it displays referential opacity, such as in the case of "about 20 students." Although its broad meaning—around 20, give or take—might not seem fuzzy, determining its exact denotation can introduce a blurred peripheral zone. Does the number 14 fall within the scope of "about 20"? The response fluctuates depending on the context and the individual interpreting it.

Generality is the meaning of an expression is characterized by its generality, indicating a lack of specific details; essentially, generality involves a degree of unspecified aspects. For instance, the term "city" is general because it doesn't specify whether the city is large or small, modern, or ancient. Similarly, "my friend" is general, encompassing the potential for a female friend, a male friend, or simply a friend from New Zealand.

Zhang (1998) continued her article by defining vagueness. She said that vagueness can be compared to polysemy since both expressions have more than one possible interpretation. For instance, good can be interpreted different ways: good weather, good student, good legs, etc. Tuggy (1993) the contrast between ambiguity and vagueness hinges on whether multiple meanings linked to a particular phonological form are separate (ambiguous) or grouped together as undistinguished variations of a broader meaning (vague). For instance, the word "bank" can refer to a "financial institution" or the "land at a river edge," with these meanings being distinctly separate. On the

other hand, consider "aunt," which can mean "father's sister" or "mother's sister"; here, the meanings are intuitively merged into a single concept, "parent's sister." Thus, ambiguity entails the separation of meanings, while vagueness involves the amalgamation of different meanings into a unified concept.

According to traditional definitions (e.g., Lyons 1977, Zwicky and Sadock 1975), lexical ambiguity (or homonymy) involves two distinct lexemes, polysemy refers to a single lexeme with multiple distinct senses, and vagueness describes a lexeme with a single but unspecified meaning. In other words, the lexeme may contain additional meanings, but these meanings are not differentiated from each other or from the broader "true" meaning. Therefore, polysemy represents an intermediate stage between ambiguity and vagueness. Deane (1988) suggests that "In effect, the three types form a gradient between total semantic identity and total semantic distinctness" (p.327), and "Polysemy seems somehow to straddle the border between identity and distinctness" (p. 345).

Kilgarriff (2011) also stated that there have been several attempts at differentiating the three concepts: polysemy, ambiguity, and vagueness. Although no one could prove that the outcome was reliable since the participants who took part in the tests believed in their own perception.

In everyday language, ambiguity often suggests having more than two possible interpretations or senses of a word. Nevertheless, contemporary lexicographic definitions, such as Princeton University's WordNet 3.1, offer insight into distinguishing between ambiguity and vagueness. Ambiguity is characterized as 1) an expression whose meaning cannot be inferred from its context, and 2) a lack of clarity due to having multiple meanings. In contrast, vagueness implies 1) a lack of clarity due to being poorly expressed or lacking coherence in meaning. From cognitive and pragmatic perspectives, the definitions provided offer an intriguing perspective on analysing ambiguity and vagueness: vagueness is portrayed as a negative phenomenon due to its association with being poorly expressed and lacking coherence, while ambiguity proper is viewed with a degree of tolerance, as it entails unclarity stemming from having multiple meanings (Boyarskaya, 2019).

Since this subtitle was started with Zhang's (1998) definitions, it will be finished by her last concept: ambiguity. It arises when a phrase or expression can be interpreted in multiple ways, and those interpretations are semantically unrelated. The example of "flying planes" encapsulates this concept well, as it can be understood as both "planes that are flying" and "the act of flying planes by people," two meanings that are distinct from each other. This demonstrates how ambiguity can occur when a single expression can be paraphrased in multiple ways that do not correspond to each other.

2.4 The classification of ambiguity

Bach (1994) distinguished two types of ambiguity: lexical and structural. According to him, lexical ambiguity is the most common and include words like chip, pen, suit, call etc. Whereas structural ambiguity can be defined as something (phrase or sentence) that has more than one underlying structure. For instance, the following phrase: “*Tibetan history teacher*” can be interpreted in two different ways:

1. *Tibetan history // teacher*
2. *Tibetan // history teacher*

The presence of such uncertainties offers compelling proof of a certain depth of underlying syntactic arrangement.

Katz’s (1971) division of ambiguities consisted of four types: phonetic, structural, lexical, and referential.

He said that phonetic ambiguity happens during sound production. Listeners perceive the same sound in an expression but may interpret it differently. Katz (1971) suggests that because speech operates in breath groups, comprised of various words, they can become homonymous and thus prone to ambiguity. This ambiguity arises primarily in spoken language contexts, such as direct conversations or speeches, where a speaker and listener are involved.

Structural and lexical ambiguity has been already defined; it is similar to Bach’s (1994) viewpoint.

Referential ambiguity happens when it is not obvious what a referring expression is referring to. This can be a pronoun for instance “it” or “they”. Referential ambiguity arises when a speaker intends a specific referent for a definite expression.

There is another division where researchers differentiate language ambiguity and speech ambiguity (Tuggy 1993). Zaliznak (2007) determined that language ambiguity is the group of those words that have distinct senses whereas speech ambiguity is its recognition in utterance. Traxler (2012) stated that some languages are known as polysemous hence they are more likely contain ambiguous words. Some authors even determined that more than 40 % of English words can be considered as polysemous. Bearing in mind this fact, it can be also concluded that the occurrence of ambiguity in language and speech is not as rare as it might be imagined.

Zabotkina et al. (2017, 2018) also reflected on the classification of ambiguity. Approaching language mechanism, there are lexical, morphological, and syntactical ambiguities. Lexical ambiguity is one of the most difficult to copy with, they may occur either as a result of polysemy or as a result of homonymy. Translators have to pay special attention to auto-antonyms or Janus words since they are polysemous words that possess contrasting and seemingly unrelated

meanings. Both auto-antonyms and idioms may pose a problem for the translators/interpreters (especially interpreters) because they have to disambiguate the phrase in a short period of time. Low-frequency idioms may be easily misinterpreted if the translator is not aware of the meaning of the idiom and literally interprets it.

Syntactic (structural) ambiguity happens because of the structure of an utterance that is ambiguous. Even excerpts from the Bible contain structurally ambiguous sentences: “And all the people saw the thundering, and the lightning, and the noise of the trumpet, and the mountain smoking: and when the people saw it, they removed, and stood afar off” (The Bible). In the former sentence the pronoun “it” can be referred to three things (thundering, lightning, noise). This type of ambiguity is less difficult to solve in translation.

Another form of ambiguity is morphological, wherein one part of speech can substitute for another. For instance, in the phrase "*no road works*," the word "*works*" can morphologically represent either a plural noun or a verb. As a result, the sentence could be understood as either indicating the absence of repair projects or implying that none of the roads are in suitable condition for use.

Lyons (1975) introduced another type of ambiguity that is transformational ambiguity which usually occurs out of context for example: "*the shooting of the hunters*". (Boyarskaya, 2019).

Event-referential ambiguity was mentioned by Boyarskaya (2019), that can be developed from events that are poorly expressed or when message have more than one interpretation depending on the viewpoint of the reader/listener. Event-referential ambiguity can arise from distinct words (polysemy and homonymy), unclear morphological and syntactic structures. It might stem from a lack of clear conceptual cues or manifest as ambiguity throughout an entire sentence or text, such as in cases of scope and transformational ambiguity.

From a pragmatic perspective, translators must discern between intended and unintended ambiguity. Intended ambiguity aims to evoke specific pragmatic effects, influencing how the source text is understood, interpreted, and perceived by the audience. The translator needs to distinguish between the intentional ambiguity of the speaker (or author) and that inherent to the translated text itself.

Certain types of discourse, such as advertising, politics, minority issues, and diplomacy, often exemplify intended ambiguity. Diplomacy, in particular, is renowned for its ambiguous statements, as illustrated by the frequently cited aphorism: "When a diplomat says yes, he means 'perhaps'; when he says perhaps, he means 'no'; when he says no, he is not a diplomat." (Voltaire, as quoted in Escandell, 1993, translated from Spanish.) Unintended ambiguity occurs when the

language user is not proficient and chooses the wrong expression. The proofreading of such writing may cause difficulties for the translators (Boyarskaya, 2019).

Varga (2010) classifies ambiguity to sense relations and distinguishes two types of it: homonymy and polysemy. The former notions have been already mentioned in the work several times however their definitions were not clarified yet. Homonymy (also known as perfect ambiguity) occurs when two or more lexemes share identical phonological and orthographic forms but have entirely different, unrelated meanings. For instance, "*ball*" refers to a round object used for throwing or kicking, while "*ball*" denotes a social event for dancing. On the other hand, polysemy, or imperfect ambiguity, involves a single lexeme having multiple related meanings, often extended metaphorically. For example, "*leg*" can refer to a body part or a support for a table. (pp. 71-72).

Varga (2010) later added that sentences can also be ambiguous, their structure can be the same however their meaning may differ from each other. This can occur because of lexical reasons, structural differences or because of different functions a particular constituent can perform like in the sentence: "The lamb is ready to eat". The former sentence can be interpreted in two ways:

- 1) "*The lamb is ready to eat. = The lamb will eat.*"
- 2) "*The lamb is ready to eat. = Somebody will eat the lamb*" (p. 75).

2.5 Disambiguation methods

Nerlich (2003) determined that in case of ambiguity the translators have two options. They can either clarify the meanings of polysemous words or leverage them for conversational advantage, despite the cognitive effort involved in managing multiple interpretations.

If ambiguity arises from polysemy, then the presence or absence of contextual clues for a specific meaning serves as a means of disambiguation. Conceptual cues aid in this process. Every word is linked to various cognitive contexts containing substantial conceptual data, spanning relevant conceptual domains essential for discerning a particular sense of the word.

Varga (2010) commented that ambiguous utterances are often clarified by the surrounding linguistic context. This context, formed by the words accompanying the ambiguous term, helps distinguish between different meanings. Take for example the word "*bank*," which can refer to a riverside or a financial institution. In sentences like "*The right bank of the River Danube in Budapest is nice and hilly*" and "*The bank has announced an increase in interest rates*", the context clarifies which meaning of "*bank*" is intended (p. 77). Furthermore, a translator can also

disambiguate by discourse what means the “physical product of language use in a particular situation; it consists of all the utterances made in the same situation” (p.78).

The physical context serves as another disambiguating factor. For instance, when the word *"BANK"* is observed on the front of an elegant building in a city, it can be inferred that what is being observed pertains to an institution dealing with financial matters rather than the edge of a river. Additionally, there are utterances containing pronouns and pronoun-like place- and time-adverbials, whose reference to the personal, locational, and temporal characteristics of the situation is relative and can only be interpreted if the speaker's immediate physical context is known. Such pronouns and pronoun-like elements are denoted as deictic expressions.

Summary of Part II

This segment of the thesis illuminates the concept of ambiguity, exploring its various dimensions, classifications, and methods of resolution. It lays the groundwork for the empirical section, introducing concepts essential for referencing later in the study. Ambiguity is dissected from multiple perspectives, drawing from the insights of prominent scholars to define and classify it comprehensively. This foundational understanding is crucial for identifying ambiguous constructs across different sentence types. Additionally, the role of disambiguation is underscored, elucidating how translators navigate and resolve ambiguous expressions.

The section made an attempt at summarising all the relevant information that was inevitable to mention before moving on to the third part of the work that will concentrate on the practical implications.

PART III.

METHODOLOGY AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH

The whole work took a year and a half to complete. During this period the theoretical material was collected and examined several times to find the relevant information that will be inevitable to corroborate the findings. In the following section the empirical research is discussed, its planning, methodology, process as well as the findings. In the research several interviews were examined from the website www.5percangol.hu that is an educational site for English learners. English was considered the source language and Hungarian the target language. The main aim of the examination of these interviews was to find ambiguity in them, to find out how ambiguity was resolved as well as the transfer operations that were predominantly used during the process of translation.

In order to conduct the former tasks, the following questions were made:

- What caused ambiguity in the selected words/utterances?
- Did the translator take into consideration ambiguity (for instance an idiom)?
- How was ambiguity resolved and what methods were used to disambiguate?

Bearing in mind these questions, the following hypothesis were formulated:

- The main reason of ambiguity stems from polysemic words and grammatical differences.
- The context contributes to the elimination of ambiguity.
- Idioms and fixed phrases are translated adequately avoiding their literal interpretations.

In order to successfully answer the previously mentioned questions and corroborate the hypothesis, a comparative analysis was conducted. After the analysis, the obtained outcome can contribute to fulfil the forementioned tasks. In the next part the whole process of the research will be explained.

3.1 Methodology

This part is subdivided into several subsections so the process of the whole research can be clearer and more understandable. It follows the steps in order they were made starting from the planning of the research up to the discussion of the findings.

Methodology plays a crucial role in research like this thus it underlies the basic structure of practical part of the thesis.

3.1.1 Planning the study

When it was time to start writing the empirical part of the thesis, I knew that I would look for something that I am familiar with and something that I can navigate effectively. I have been teaching English for four years now both within classroom environment and by giving private lessons. After spending days of looking for the best material for the empirical part of my thesis, I found the magazine that I have used frequently during my teaching before, the “5 perc angol” magazine by Nóra Szalai. This magazine is aimed at teaching EFL (English as a foreign language) students and contains levels from beginner to advance. Some of the magazines end with an interview conducted with people who teach English or somehow connected to education and these interviews are usually translated to Hungarian. The interviews were very informative and besides of collecting data for my study, I have learned a lot from them since most of them concentrated on effective English teaching.

3.1.2 Corpus and Research Instruments

As previously mentioned, data were collected from various interviews. Not every magazine provided bilingual interviews, necessitating extensive revision to accumulate a substantial dataset. Due to financial constraints, purchasing the last thirty or forty issues was not feasible. However, I resolved this limitation by subscribing to the digital content, thereby gaining access to the entire archive of published magazines. Finally, fourteen interviews were collected. The interviews were conducted in English and then translated to Hungarian so altogether twenty-eight interviews were taken under investigation. I have started collecting the data from the latest issue and continued until I found fourteen bilingual interviews. This number of magazines were enough to provide the adequate quantity of material for my research. These interviews were published between 2024 and 2021.

The central theme of the selected material revolved around education, particularly exploring how individuals from diverse backgrounds teach English as a foreign language. It was intriguing to observe the transmission of information in instances where its equivalent term was absent in the target language or had multiple interpretations.

Given that I only had access to the interviews in written form, I resorted to capturing screenshots, editing them, and compiling them into a PDF document. This allowed me to keep track of which magazines had already been examined. Then I converted the PDF document into a

Microsoft Word file, enabling me to easily extract and organise the sentences I wished to further analyse in Microsoft Excel.

I have been using Microsoft programmes for years now, so it was obvious that I will use some of them when writing my thesis, they are also free to use and user-friendly.

3.1.3 Procedure of the Research

In the first phase of the thesis writing a lot of time was devoted to the examination of literature. This was followed by the choice of the appropriate and relevant articles/books and including their main elements in the work. Hence, in the first two parts (Part 1, Part2) of the thesis one can find the summary of the relevant academic literature. In the Part 1 section the significance and notion of translation was clarified that led to transfer operations. Then the function of transfer operations was discussed followed by the classification of it. We paid special attention to equivalence since this notion is one of the most important in translation theory. We discussed the difference between equivalence and non-equivalence either. In the last part of the first theoretical section the notion of translatability and untranslatability was explained. In the second part we approached ambiguity from different sides. Several scholars published about ambiguity, some of the most widespread ideas were included. This was followed by the explanation of the types of ambiguity. It was inevitable to mention how ambiguity can be recognised and what are the methods to disambiguate. After dwelling on the former topics, we moved on to the practical implication of the thesis. In the empirical research those interviews were taken under investigation that were translated into Hungarian. Finally, fourteen interviews were examined from 2024 to 2021. However, the articles could only be read so the next step was to make a screenshot of each interview. Then they were converted into pdf format as well as into word format. This was followed by the selection of the sentences and their copy into Microsoft Excel because this way it was easier to compare and analyse them. The last step contained the comparison of the selected sentences and their further analysis in relation to ambiguity.

3.1.4 Data Analysis Methods

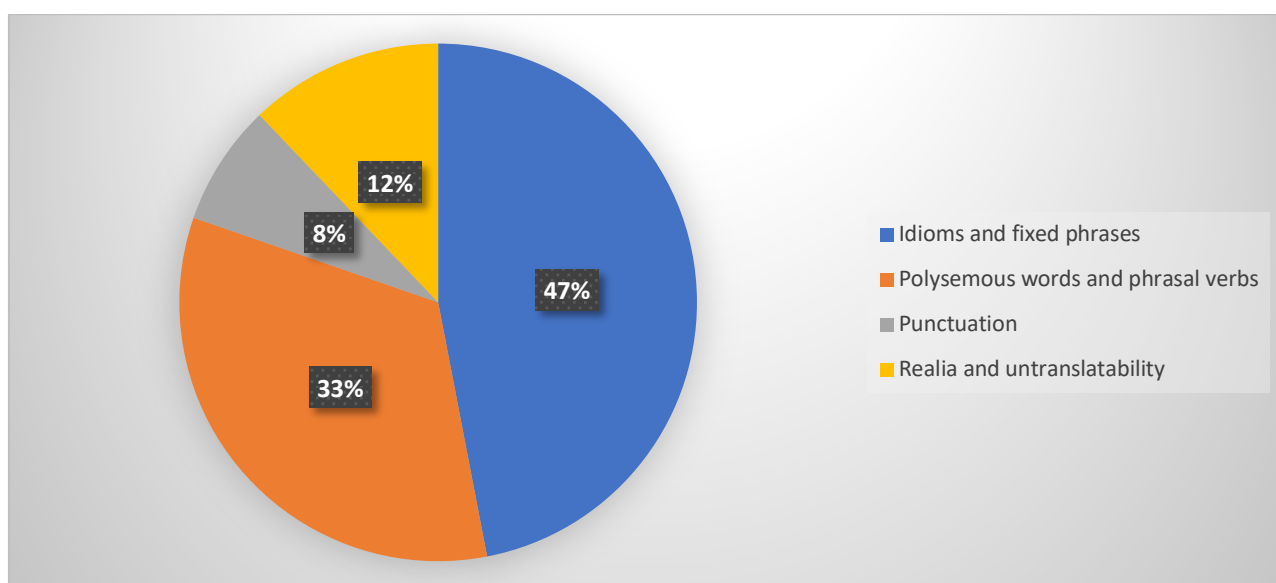
In the empirical part of the research analytical descriptive methodology was applied. Ambiguity, its recognition, and types were mentioned by several scholars in the thesis (Varga 2010, Boyarskaya 2019, Zabotkina 2017 etc.) and their ideas contributed to the corroboration of the

findings. Varga (2010) offered several disambiguation methods that were also utilised in this part. The former authors mentioned that we can talk about ambiguity because of lexical, syntactical, and morphological reasons and their classification was applied in the process of analysis. Since ambiguity can be considered as a challenge for translators, during the process of the selection of ambiguous sentences, some other sentences were also chosen that were unaccomplishable to translate and were considered as noteworthy examples of untranslatability and realia.

3.2 Findings

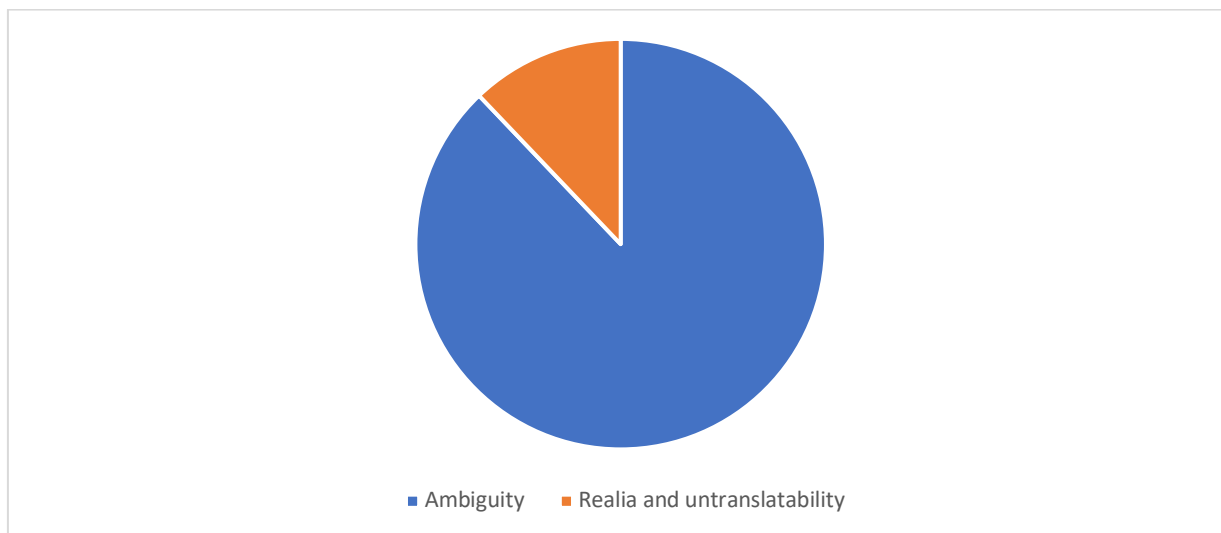
The examination of the fourteen articles resulted sixty-six examples when the translator faced challenge either because of ambiguity or due to the untranslatability of the word in the source language. The interviews were translated form English to Hungarian. In some cases, ambiguity was less recognisable so the message could hardly be misinterpreted however in other cases the translator had to bear in mind the possible interpretation of the word and disambiguate the sentence in a most effective way. The sixty-six sentences were put into categories according to their content, type of ambiguity and factors of untranslatability. Based on the selected sentences, the following categories were identified: idioms and fixed phrases, polysemous words and phrasal verbs, punctuation as well as realia and untranslatability. The representation of the former categories can be seen in Diagram 3.2. As we can see most of the selected sentences (47 %) are idioms and fixed phrases, polysemous words and phrasal verbs occur in the 33 % of the data.

Diagram 3.2.1 Categories of ambiguity and untranslatability



However, the former categories can be approached from a different point of view (see diagram 3.2.2). In this representation the emphasis is put only on the distribution of ambiguous utterances and untranslatable phrases.

Diagram 3.2.2 The distribution of ambiguous and untranslatable utterances



3.2.1 Translation of idioms and fixed phrases

As it was mentioned in the 1.4.2 (Equivalence above word level) subsection, idioms, fixed phrases, or proverbs allow no changes in their form. (Baker 2018). They cannot be considered as flexible as collocations in the English language. We have also mentioned Zobotkina's (2017, 2018) viewpoints in subsection 2.3 (The classification of ambiguity), that these utterances in a language may also pose a problem for translators (especially for interpreters) who have to resolve the prevailing problem as quick as possible. What is more, low-frequency idioms can be easily misinterpreted if the translator is not familiar with its figurative meaning. Unfortunately, idioms express meaning that one cannot find out by understanding each word in a sentence. Baker (2018) also offered some cases that might trap translators in case of idioms:

- if the idiom has both a reasonable literal and figurative (idiomatic) meaning. This way if the reader or translator doesn't familiar with the idiom, he/she may miss the play on the idiom.
- another possible mistake be taken when the idiom in the source language may have a close meaning in the target language, however their interpretation is not the same.

Since idioms and fixed phrases may be interpreted differently or they can be even misunderstood and may not be comprehended, they can be considered ambiguous. For instance, there is a colloquial term in English *sit on one's phone*. However, if someone hears this expression for the first time, may easily translate the following sentence differently than a native speaker would do:

*The man has been searching for his phone for hours when he saw his son **sitting on it (on his phone)**.*

The expression *sitting on one's phone* can have multiple interpretations. It could mean physically sitting on the phone, unaware that it is beneath someone, or it could mean spending a lot of time on the phone, absorbed in its use.

In the selected articles thirty-one sentences were chosen and categorised as ambiguous idioms and fixed phrases, some of them may not be interpreted differently however can be hardly understood if the person does not familiar with its idiomatic meaning.

(1) *I have always been a very intuitive and holistic learner, who is less interested in understanding by analysis and is quite effective in **soaking things up** (‘Én mindig is nagyon intuitív és a dolgokat egészében szemlélő tanuló voltam, akit kevésbé érdekel az elemzés útján történő megértés, és aki elég hatékonyan **magába szívja a dolgokat**’).*

Soaking things up may not have a direct equivalent in Hungarian that captures both the ease of absorption and the potential lack of analysis. The Hungarian translation *magába szívja a dolgokat* captures the idea of absorbing things, but it may not convey the nuanced meaning of the original English idiom.

(2) *I took a "**busman's holiday**" for the first time in years, a tour of underground Roman tunnels. (‘Évek óta először voltam **részvevőként egy idegenvezetésen**, egy sétán a földalatti római alagutakban’).*

In this case *the busman's holiday* in Hungarian reference may be misinterpreted as taking part in a kind of holiday that is usually organised for men whose job is driving a bus. However, if we look up in a dictionary, we will find that busman's holiday means: “a holiday where you do something similar to your usual work instead of having a rest from it” (Cambridge online dictionary). The interview was conducted with a man, whose full-time job was tourist guiding, so the Hungarian

translation perfectly disambiguated the expression by including the job of the interviewee in the translation.

(3) *I am an English teacher, and trainer from Oxford who has 'been around the block' a fair bit having taught both here in Hungary and back in Oxford. ('Oxfordi angoltanár és oktató vagyok, aki már elég sok mindent megélt, hiszen tanítottam itt Magyarországon és Oxfordban is').*

In Hungarian there is no similar idiom that can express the same message as the English counterpart. *Have been around the block* according to Collins dictionary means: "To have had real life experiences, especially worldly-wise". If someone has not met this expression before might easily think, that the person spent a lot of time playing around the block in his childhood.

(4) *However, just like with any subject, being an English teacher is not a bed of roses right now, either in Hungary or in most other places. ('Azonban, mint minden más tantárgy esetében is, angoltanárnak lenni jelenleg sem Magyarországon, sem a legtöbb helyen nem fenékig tejfel').*

Even if the expressions completely differ from each other, they do share a common idea, that is being a teacher is not entirely smooth or trouble-free. While the English idiom *not a bed of roses* is widely understood, the Hungarian equivalent *nem fenékig tejfel* might be more culturally specific. However, it effectively communicates the idea of difficulty or challenge.

A bed of roses might seem positive at first glance because roses are associated with beauty and pleasantness. However, the thorns on roses can represent challenges or difficulties. In this case, a non-native speaker might interpret *not a bed of roses* literally, assuming it means something difficult or unpleasant, which aligns with the intended meaning of the idiom.

(5) *Digital literacy is a hot topic. ('A digitális írástudás nagyon aktuális téma').*

Digital literacy is a hot topic is relatively straightforward and does not inherently contain ambiguity. It clearly communicates that digital literacy is a widely discussed and important subject. However, ambiguity could arise if there is uncertainty about what *hot topic* means in this context. While it is commonly understood to mean a subject that is currently popular or widely discussed, someone unfamiliar with the phrase might interpret it differently. They might wonder if *hot topic* refers to a controversial or divisive issue instead.

What is more, *hot* in Hungarian can be interpreted in many ways. The Cambridge Dictionary also provides several definitions: “having a high temperature”, “used to describe food that causes a burning feeling in the mouth”, “used to describe a subject that causes a lot of disagreement or discussion”, “new and exciting”, “sexually attractive, or feeling sexually excited”.

Hence it can be concluded that an idiom that contains a polysemous word might cause the misinterpretation of the whole idiom in the process of translation. Even if the translator would not miss the play on this particular idiom, a non-professional who is in the process of language learning might easily be trapped by it.

(6) *I soon realised that what I spoke was tantamount to holiday Hungarian... ('Hamar rájöttem, hogy amit beszélek, az egy „nyaralási” magyartudással ért csak fel... ’).*

The Hungarian translation managed to capture the essence of the English sentence by indicating a limited level of proficiency in the language. However, there might be some ambiguity or uncertainty about the exact meaning of *nyaralási magyartudással* for those not familiar with Hungarian language learning contexts.

(7) *It was just high time we interviewed him about it. ('Eljött az idő, hogy interjút is készítsünk vele erről’).*

High time is an idiom that might be confusing for non-native speakers. This expression means that “the latest possible time; a time that is almost too late” (Collins Dictionary). However, its meaning is not immediately transparent from the words themselves. Non-native speakers might interpret *high time* literally, associating it with something lofty or elevated in position. Without understanding the idiomatic meaning, they might miss the sense of urgency or overdue action implied by the phrase.

(8) *I was known as 'Aussie Tom', and I had the chance to meet Hungarians there who I always got along with swimmingly. ('Aussie Tom" néven ismertek, és Ott volt alkalmam magyarokkal is találkozni, akikkel mindig remekül kijöttem ’).*

Swimmingly is an idiomatic expression that means “successfully and without any problems” (Cambridge Online Dictionary). There is no close counterpart in Hungarian language however the translation conveys the idea that the speaker got along well with the Hungarians they met.

However, like the English expression *swimmingly*, the phrase *remekül kijöttem* might not be immediately transparent to non-native speakers of Hungarian.

There might be another option that could be: *simán kijöttem* but this is mainly used in colloquial Hungarian. In a few words there is no equivalent that can be compared to swimming to avoid the misinterpretation of the idiom.

(9) *I like how you can **build words**, so it feels like you can communicate things with quite a lot of nuances in one word. ('Szeretem, ahogy a **szavakat össze lehet rakni**, mert az ember úgy érzi, hogy rengeteg árnyalatot ki lehet fejezni egy szóval').*

The expression *build words* is not necessarily ambiguous in English, but it could be interpreted in different ways depending on context and the reader's understanding. *Building words* might refer to the construction or arrangement of words to convey meaning, nuance, and complexity. It implies the process of forming words into meaningful structures to express thoughts and ideas effectively. However, without additional context, *build words* could also be interpreted more literally, suggesting the creation or formation of new words.

(10) *And what do you like about Australia and the language **down under**? ('És mit szeretsz Ausztráliában és az ottani nyelvben')?*

The language down under might not immediately be clear to all readers or listeners, especially those less familiar with English idioms. *The language down under* refers to Australian English, and while this is a common colloquialism, it might not be universally understood, particularly by non-native English speakers. Therefore, some clarification or context could enhance understanding, especially if the audience is not familiar with this specific idiom.

(11) *[...] my mind is **working on all cylinders** at that moment to give the appropriate pause at that time. ('[...] akkor az agyam abban a pillanatban **teljes gőzerővel dolgozik**').*

Working on all cylinders is commonly understood to mean operating at maximum capacity or efficiency, it originates from the operation of an internal combustion engine, where all cylinders firing optimally result in maximum power output. However, this origin might not be immediately clear to all readers or listeners. In Cambridge Dictionary only the “be firing on all cylinders” expression can be found, and it is defined as follows: “to be operating as powerfully and effectively as possible”. The Hungarian translation *teljes gőzerővel dolgozik* successfully interprets the idea of the mind working at full capacity and provides the intended meaning of the English phrase.

(12) *We both seem to enjoy the absurd and sarcasm, so in that sense, we're two peas in a pod.* (‘Úgy tűnik, ugyanúgy élvezzük az abszurdot és a szarkazmust, úgyszólván ebben az értelemben **úgy hasonlítunk, mint két tojás**’).

According to Cambridge Dictionary the idiom *like two peas in a pod* means “very similar, especially in appearance”. While in Hungarian language eggs are compared. In both languages the idioms can be translated both literally and figuratively.

(13) *These emotions speak directly to the hearts of the listeners and in this sense, it's quite infectious — you can't help but start tapping your foot to that upbeat gospel beat.* (‘Ezek az érzelmek közvetlenül a hallgatók szívéhez szólnak, és ebben az értelemben eléggé ragadósak — **önkéntelenül** is elkezdted ütni a lábaddal a ritmust a pörgős gospelre!’)

Can't help is a common idiom that native speakers would readily understand to mean that the action described is involuntary or unavoidable. Although someone may interpret *can't help* more literally, without fully grasping its idiomatic meaning. This could lead to confusion about why someone *can't help but start tapping their foot*.

(14) [...] - *they would stand out like a sore thumb!* ([...] nyilvánvalóan **kilógna a sorból**)

Collins Dictionary say that “if you say that someone or something sticks out like a sore thumb or stands out like a sore thumb, you are emphasizing that they are very noticeable, usually because they are unusual or inappropriate”. In Hungarian whereas there is nothing that can be similar to its English equivalent. Literally the idiom can be translated as a physical injury rather than understanding it as a metaphor for something that is noticeably different.

(15) *I have learnt Hungarian off and on, in classroom and one-to-one settings as well as on Duolingo.* (‘Magyarul tanultam **több-kevesebb rendszerességgel**, tantermi és egyéni keretek között is, valamint a Duolingo segítségével’):

The expression *off and on* means intermittently or inconsistently, suggesting that the learning of Hungarian occurred periodically rather than consistently over time. It implies that there were periods of learning followed by periods of not learning or practicing. Learners might be confused by seeing this expression and would not immediately perceive what is meant by *off and on*. The

translation whereas, grasps the meaning by substituting the expression with an adjective that expresses the same thing.

(16) *Writing creatively **gives a headache** to many people. ('Kreatívan írni komoly **fejtörést okoz** sok embernek').*

The expression *gives a headache* is idiomatic and commonly understood to mean that something is difficult, frustrating, or challenging. It implies that writing creatively is mentally taxing or stressful for many people. In this case however, the whole sentence can be misunderstood and interpreted as real physical headache rather than indicating mental challenge. The translation successfully disambiguates the idiom by using *fejtörést okoz*.

(17) *Another challenge is delivering tours to groups of bored teenagers on school trip Who have been made to attend and are **just killing time** until they go to see "The Lion King" in the West End. ('Egy másik kihívás az iskolai kirándulásokon részt vevő unatkozó tinédzserek csoportjainak vezetése, akiket kényszerítettek a részvételre, és csak az időt **akarják elütni**, amíg megnézhetik az Oroszlánykirályt a West Enden').*

Kill time is a common expression in English, it might carry a more literal or negative connotation for some readers, implying a sense of wasting time or being unproductive. The Hungarian translation effectively conveys this meaning, but without additional context or familiarity with the English idiom *kill time*, some readers might interpret it more negatively.

(18) *I think my **knee jerk reaction** is so often "No." ('Szerintem nagyon gyakran a **reakció** kapásból az, hogy „nem”).*

There are phrases that cannot be deduced from their meaning. In my opinion the former is one of them. When someone hears something like this for the first time, even if the person speaks the language, would not be able to understand it, unless the concept makes it clear.

Knee jerk reaction refers to an immediate and automatic response to a stimulus, often without much thought or consideration. It can be also interpreted as an actual physical reaction involving the knee.

(19) *Everyone should **give it a shot**, especially with your kids. ('**Mindenkinek ki kellene próbálnia**, különösen a gyerekeivel').*

Give it a shot is a colloquial expression that means to try something or give something a try. It is commonly understood to encourage attempting or experimenting with something, even if the outcome is uncertain. While literally one may think about shooting something with a gun. In the Hungarian sentence there are no guns or shooting implied, it is solved by suggesting trying or experimenting with something.

(20) *In the bigscreen adaptation, also co-produced by Garry she plays Allison, a stressed-out mother whose three children call her a "fun killer."* ('A moziváltozatban, amelynek co-producere szintén Garner volt, játssza Allisont, egy stressztől megviselt anyukát, akinek a három gyereke **ünneprontónak** hívja őt').

If one says *fun killer* in English, he/she will probably refer to a person who ruins enjoyable or exciting experiences for others, typically by being too serious or strict. On the other hand, one may also think, it refers to someone who physically harms fun or entertainment.

(21) *Face to face learning will never become obsolete... A személyes találkozáson keresztül történő tanulás soha nem lesz elavult...*

In certain contexts, *face to face* might imply confrontation or conflict rather than direct communication in a learning setting. It may also mean looking at someone's face or facial expressions. While its idiomatic meaning straightforwardly refers to learning that occurs through direct, in-person interaction between teachers and students.

The following examples were selected to illustrate how the translator managed instances of translation difficulty, rather than due to their potential ambiguity.

(22) *Truth be told, it's really more about a kid getting to just bend the everyday rules.* ('Az igazat megvallva inkább csak arról van szó, hogy a gyerek **átalakíthatja a mindennapi életet**').

(23) [...] *but through a series of spectacular set pieces, all hell breaks loose.* ('[...] **ám érdekes epizódok látványos sorozatán keresztül elszabadul a pokol**').

In the former examples both sentences contain an idiom. Their translation on the other hand might not be the easiest part since their Hungarian counterpart differs from the English. They are not necessarily ambiguous however can be very challenging to translate them if the translator cannot

find a target language equivalent. In example (22) it might be confusing to read about bending rules for the first time, but the Hungarian counterpart clarifies its meaning. In the next sentence (23) the translator provided a perfect Hungarian idiom.

(24) *The Australian accent is a **hard nut to crack**. ('Az ausztrál akcentus **kemény dió**).*

(25) *Perhaps the main take-away from Duolingo is that **regular practice makes perfect**, or close to it. ('A Duolingóból talán a legfontosabb tanulság, hogy a **rendszeres gyakorlás teszi a mestert**, vagy legalábbis visz közel ahhoz a szinthez').*

(26) *Of course, it is an artificial situation but that's **one of the hoops we have to jump through** in order to demonstrate our competence. ('Természetesen ez egy mesterséges helyzet, de **ez egy olyan akadály, amin át kell ugranunk**, hogy bemutassuk az alkalmasságunkat').*

In the sentences above the main goal was to find a similar proverb (25) or idiom (24,26) that carries the same message as their original counterpart. Even if several words were not translated (e.g., crack, perfect, hoops), the Hungarian translations flawlessly reflect the message of the original sentences.

(27) *He was animated, clear and vivid in his explanations, **injected humour** into the tour at various points [...] ('A magyarázatai élettel teliek, világosak és szemléletesek voltak, a séta különböző pontjain **humorral fűszerezte** a vezetést [...]).*

(28) *I know that my grammar isn't the best, but I am able to **get my point across** most of the time. Tudom, hogy a nyelvtani tudásom nem a legjobb, de legtöbbször **meg tudom értetni magamat**.*

(29) *This is **second-nature to teachers** of very young learners. Ez a kisgyerekeket tanítóknak szinte **a vérükben van**.*

The preceding examples cannot be considered ambiguous however for a beginner translator could give a headache because if they would be translated literally, the target audience would not understand the message. For instance, in example (27) the basic meaning of inject according to Cambridge Dictionary is "to use a needle and syringe (= small tube) to put a liquid such as a drug into a person's body". Containing this in the translation would sound meaningless. In cases like

this, translators aim at looking for another definition, for instance “to introduce something new that is necessary or helpful to a situation or process” (Cambridge Dictionary). Then they have to find its closest equivalent in the target language. In the former examples in spite of the challenging expressions, the translator managed to transfer the message but at the same time preserve the nuanced meaning of the sentences.

(30) *So they contacted me and it was just a **no-brainer**. (‘Így hát felvették velem a kapcsolatot és innentől már **nem is kellett gondolkodni rajta**’).*

(31) *[...] watching a student who you've been working with **flourish** and develop in confidence is probably the best! (‘[...]a legjobbak valószínűleg az olyan hétköznapi pillanatok, amikor az ember látja, hogy a diák, akivel dolgozik már egy ideje, **ki tud bontakozni és magabiztosabbá válik**’)!*

The selection of the final two examples aims to illustrate the importance of describing phrases when no direct equivalent exists in the target language. Rather than omitting or disregarding such phrases, they can be effectively addressed through description. Although this approach may not always be the most efficient, it allows the translator to maintain the essence of the original message. In sentences (31, 32), the translator encountered difficulties finding Hungarian equivalents for *no-brainer* and *flourish*, prompting the use of descriptive definitions instead.

3.2.2 Translation of polysemous words and phrasal verbs

Polysemous words, as we mentioned before in 2.3 (The classification of ambiguity) are single lexemes that possess more related meanings, and these meanings are usually extended metaphorically such as a person’s leg or a leg of a table (Varga 2010). Nerlich (2013) advised two options for translators in case of ambiguity: they can make the polysemous words clear, or they can also utilise them for conversational advantage (2.4 Disambiguation methods).

Polysemous words quite often occur in jokes and advertisements for entertaining purposes or in case of ads to draw attention to something. This type of ambiguity on the other hand is very difficult to reproduce because the translator has to maintain the form, content, and message.

In the selected articles twenty-two sentences were found and categorised as polysemous. They are single words, compound words as well as phrasal verbs.

(32) *I think that the skill in **running an English class** today is not about teaching at all. ('Azt hiszem, hogy egy **angolóra megtartása** ma nem is a tanításról szól').*

(33) *"Mark Andrews, a British friend and colleague, and **I used to run teacher training courses for Sharing One Language (SOL) in Devon, England.**" ('Mark Andrews brit barátommal és kollégámmal korábban tanárképző tanfolyamokat tartottunk a Sharing One Language (SOL) számára az angliai Devonban').*

(34) *I now know a lot more about the way **the country is run.** ('Mostmár sokkal többet tudok arról, hogyan irányítják az országot').*

All of the former examples contain the word *run* however their translation differs from each other (except from 32, 33) and none of the translation contain the basic translation of the word *to walk fast*. Cambridge Dictionary provides several definitions to the word *run*:

- run verb (GO QUICKLY) - (of people and some animals) to move along, faster than walking, by taking quick steps in which each foot is lifted before the next foot touches the ground;
- run verb (TRAVEL) - to (cause something to) travel, move, or continue in a particular way;
- run verb (OPERATE) - to (cause something to) operate;
- run verb (FLOW) - to (cause something to) flow or produce liquid;

With polysemous words (but not merely with them), the translator has to be up to date with all of the possible translations of the word, their collocations, figurative meanings, phrasal verbs, the latest slangs etc. to avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding.

If we look up the word *run* in a bilingual dictionary, we will get the same results as we get with the monolingual, *run* has a plenty of equivalents in Hungarian language either. The most important things to bear in mind is to choose that particular translation which corresponds with the original message and does not sound foreign for the target audience. In the preceding sentences the translator fulfilled these requirements.

(35) *National Geographic Learning is the **educational arm** of the National Geographic Society. ('A National Geographic Learning a National Geographic Society **oktatási ága**').*

The ambiguity in this sentence arises from the polysemous nature of the word *arm*. In the Cambridge Dictionary we can find several definitions for the word. I am going to present only the most frequent ones:

- arm noun (BODY PART) - either of the two long parts of the upper body that are attached to the shoulders and have the hands at the end;
- arm noun (WEAPONS) - weapons and equipment used to kill and injure people;
- arm noun (OF ORGANIZATION) - An arm of an organization is a part of it that is responsible for a particular activity or place;

Someone unfamiliar with this usage might interpret the sentence as stating that the educational division of National Geographic is somehow related to the physical limbs of the National Geographic Society, which doesn't make much sense. But with the correct interpretation, we understand that *arm* here means a branch or division of the organization.

(36) Our **materials** are designed for all English learners [...] ('*Kiadványaink minden angolul tanulónak szólnak [...]*').

(37) [...] from kindergarten through to adult, we have **materials to suit** every student. ('[...] az óvodásoktól a felnőttekig mindenki számára vannak **megfelelő anyagai**').

In both sentences, the ambiguity arises from the polysemous word *materials*. *Materials* could refer to “a physical substance that things can be made from” or to “information used when writing something such as a book, or information produced in various forms to help people or to advertise products” (Cambridge Dictionary). In these sentences, however, the context suggests an educational context, so the more common interpretation would be related to educational resources rather than physical substances. But without explicit clarification, there's a potential for ambiguity, especially if the context isn't clear or if the reader interprets *materials* in its broader sense. So, it's essential to consider the context to determine the intended meaning.

(38) It's called *The Duke's Portrait* and it's a comic **piece set** in 1937. ('*„A herceg portréja” a címe. Ez egy komikus mű, ami 1937-ben játszódik*').

In sentence (38) there are two sources of ambiguity. The word *piece* can refer to either a physical object or a work of art or literature. In this context, it's likely referring to a literary work, but without further context, it could be interpreted as a physical object like a painting. While the word *set* can mean to physically place something or to indicate the time period in which something occurs. Here, it is used to denote the time period, but it could be also understood as physically positioning the piece in 1937.

(39) SOL is a **warm** and engaging environment where students and teachers are valued greatly. ('A SOL egy **barátságos** és motiváló környezet, ahol a tanárokat és a diákokat nagyra értékeli').

In one sense, *warm* can describe a physical temperature, indicating comfort or cosiness. However, *warm* can also describe a friendly, welcoming atmosphere or demeanor. Someone might interpret the sentence as suggesting that the SOL environment is physically warm, providing comfort to students and teachers. However, the intended meaning is likely that the SOL environment is characterized by a friendly and welcoming atmosphere, making it a pleasant place for students and teachers.

(40) In the **bigscreen adaptation**, also co-produced by Garry she plays Allison, a stressed-out mother whose three children call her a "fun killer." ('A **moziváltozatban**, amelynek co-producere szintén Garner volt, játssza Allisont, egy stressztől megviselt anyukát, akinek a három gyereke ünneprontónak hívja őt').

(41) You might not need the **sunscreen**, but we will get you as close to the beach as possible! ('Lehet, hogy **naptejre** nem lesz szükséged, de a tengerpartot a lehető legközelebb hozzuk hozzád')!

(42) You have also dealt with the authenticity of **language testing**. ('Foglalkoztál azzal is, hogy a **nyelvvizsgák** mennyire autentikusak').

Compound expression pose another chance to ambiguity hence if the first part of the sentence ambiguous, there is a possibility of making the whole expression vague. On the other hand, sometimes the other non-ambiguous part of the expression may resolve the existing problem.

In (40), the compound expression *big-screen adaptation* could potentially be ambiguous if the reader is not familiar with the term. Without context, one might interpret *big-screen* as referring to the physical size of the screen rather than the cinematic adaptation of a literary work.

In (41), while *sunscreen* is a commonly understood term, there could still be ambiguity if the reader interprets it in a literal sense as a screen to block the sun, rather than the protective lotion intended in this context.

In (42) *language testing* might be interpreted as referring to a variety of activities, such as assessing the linguistic proficiency of individuals, evaluating the effectiveness of language learning programs, or even testing the linguistic capabilities of artificial intelligence systems.

(43) *As for starting the videos, I've always been an avid writer and curious about the digital media, so when YouTube was starting to **blow up**, I thought I'd give it a whirl. ('Ami a videók elindítását illeti, mindig is nagyon szerettem írni, és érdekelt a digitális média, így amikor a YouTube kezdett **felpörögni**, úgy gondoltam, kipróbálom én is').*

(44) *But I **pick up** what I can and I more or less manage to get by, at least for basic things. ('De **felszedem**, amit csak tudok, és többé-kevésbé elboldogulok, legalábbis az alapvető dolgokban').*

(45) *For example, someone who is really **put off** by learning in a group may always find it hard and inefficient to be stuck in one. ('Például, aki nagyon **idegenkedik** a csoportban való tanulástól, az mindig is nehéznek és eredménytelennek találhatja, ha egy csoportban ragad').*

In the preceding sentences the phrasal verbs contribute to ambiguity due to their multiple meanings. Sentence (43) contains the phrasal verb *blow up* that may be interpreted in different ways. It can mean “to destroy something or kill someone with a bomb, or to be destroyed or killed by a bomb”, “to become suddenly very angry” or “to fill something with air” etc. (Cambridge Dictionary). Although none of the definitions could fit into the target language sentence. In the translation *blow up* was transferred as to *become busy, frequently visited and quoted* by saying Youtube was starting to *speed up*. It is noteworthy to mention here and to conclude as well, that even if the exact definition cannot be found in the monolingual dictionary, the translator must find the closest equivalent to transfer the message.

The next sentence (44) contains *pick up* that means “to learn a new skill or language by practising it rather than being taught it”. For example, *picking up* a new skill or piece of information. However, *pick up* also has other meanings, such as “to lift someone or something using your hands” (Cambridge Dictionary). Without understanding the idiomatic meaning of *pick up* in this context, someone might interpret it literally as physically collecting objects from the ground. This could lead to confusion regarding the intended meaning of the sentence, which is about acquiring or learning what one can, rather than engaging in physical actions like picking up objects.

In (45) *put off* can also be interpreted in multiple ways: “to decide or arrange to delay an event or activity until a later time or date”, “to make someone dislike something or someone, or to discourage someone from doing something” (Cambridge Dictionary). In this particular sentence the latest definition was used, and it perfectly fit into the sentence.

(46) The **trainer part** of my professional life came much later [...] (*‘A tanárképzés sokkal később jött a szakmai pályafutásomban [...]’*)

The term *trainer* could encompass various types of training, such as vocational training, corporate training, sports coaching, or educational instruction. Without additional information, the reader may not know precisely what type of training the speaker is referring to, which could lead to ambiguity or misunderstanding. However, in this context, *trainer part* likely refers to a role or aspect of the speaker's professional life related to providing training or being involved in training activities.

(47) Another challenge is **delivering tours** to groups of bored teenagers on school trips [...] (*‘Egy másik kihívás az iskolai kirándulásokon részt vevő unatkozó tinédzserek csoportjainak vezetése [...]’*).

Primarily, *delivering* can mean transporting goods or items from one place to another. Without considering the broader context, someone might interpret *delivering tours* as physically transporting tours or materials to a destination. Here in the sentence *delivering* refers to the action of providing or leading tours for groups of bored teenagers on school trips.

(48) **Rejecting cookies** and using private browser tabs so your behavior is not tracked for ad targeting can also be a good idea. (*‘A süti elutasítása és a privát böngészőfülek használata, hogy a viselkedését ne lehessen nyomon követni a célzott hirdetések célzása érdekében, szintén jó ötlet lehet’*).

In this (48) sentence, there is no difference between the highlighted expressions in both the source and in the target language. In a case like this the readers of both cultures may misinterpret the meaning of the sentence. Only the context can clarify examples like this. *Rejecting cookies* typically refers to the action taken by a user to decline or refuse the storage of cookies, which are small pieces of data stored on a user's computer by websites for various purposes, including tracking user behavior.

(49) [...] at this point in my career I am **enjoying the fruits of my labour**, and all that comes with that if you like. ('[...] a pályámnak ezen a pontján **élvezem a munkám gyümölcsét**, és mindazt, ami ezzel jár, ha úgy tetszik').

The term *enjoying the fruits of my labour* could potentially introduce ambiguity. This expression means reaping the rewards or benefits of one's hard work or efforts. It suggests that the speaker is experiencing positive outcomes or achievements as a result of their past work or endeavours. On the other hand, the words *fruits* and *labour* might be interpreted literally, and one might translate the sentence by enjoying edible fruits that they have produced through their work, rather than metaphorically referring to the rewards or benefits of their efforts.

(50) Because there are only about 30 Regional English Language Offices in the world, we usually **cover** multiple countries. ('Mivel nagyjából csak 30 Regionális Angol Nyelvi Iroda van a világon, általában több ország is **tartozik** hozzánk').

Cover has multiple meanings, including providing protection, hiding, or concealing something, or including or encompassing something. In this sentence, the term *cover* is used to convey the idea of jurisdiction or responsibility. It also indicates that the Regional English Language Offices typically have responsibility for or jurisdiction over multiple countries.

(51) Nobody is (okay, few people are) upset that we are not speaking **perfect Middle English** today [...] ('Nincs senki (na jó, vannak páran), aki azon bosszankodna, hogy ma már nem beszélünk tökéletes **középkori angolsággal** [...]').

Speaking perfect Middle English refers to using the language as it was spoken during the Middle English period, which lasted roughly from the 12th to the late 15th century. It's characterized by significant differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar compared to modern English.

However, without understanding the context or the historical reference, someone might interpret *speaking perfect Middle English* differently. They might think it refers to speaking English flawlessly or without any errors in grammar or pronunciation, rather than specifically referring to the historical form of the language.

(52) *Do you think technology will transform the English teaching **landscape** even more?*
(*'Mit gondolsz, a technológia még jobban át fogja alakítani az angoltanítás általános **képét**'*)?

In the context of English teaching, *landscape* typically refers to the overall picture or scenario of the field, including its current state, trends, and practices. It's often used metaphorically to describe the broader context or environment in which English teaching takes place, but *landscape* can also refer to physical landforms or scenery, such as mountains, valleys, or forests.

(53) *He invited me **to serve as a missionary** [...] ('Ő hívott meg, hogy a gyülekezetben **szolgáljak** misszionáriusként [...])'*

This sentence was chosen because *serving as a missionary* typically refers to engaging in religious or charitable work, often in a foreign or unfamiliar context, with the aim of spreading religious beliefs or providing humanitarian aid. But it can also mean providing military or diplomatic service in a foreign country, rather than engaging in religious or charitable activities.

3.2.3 Differences between English and Hungarian punctuation and their contribution to ambiguity

Hungarian language notoriously uses more punctuation marks than English does. This is the reason why English sentences can be misunderstood or result vague meaning. Differences in punctuation conventions can lead to ambiguity when speakers or writers of one language apply their native language's conventions to another language. For example, misplacing quotation marks or using commas differently than the conventions of the target language can lead to confusion or misinterpretation.

In the selected interviews five sentences were chosen. The reason of their selection was either because they were ambiguous or because their translation was vague, not obvious.

(54) *What would you change about the established **and routine ways schools and language teaching operate**? ('Mit változtatnál az iskolák és általában a nyelvoktatás bevett és rutinszerű működésén')?*

In the previous example (54) the structure of the sentence may lead to confusion. It could be paraphrased like this to avoid vagueness:

What would you change about the established and routine ways schools operate, and about the generally accepted practices of language teaching?

By separating the two parts of the sentence with a comma and restructuring the latter part slightly, it is clearer that the first part refers specifically to schools, while the second part addresses language teaching practices more broadly. This helps to eliminate potential confusion and ensures that both aspects of the question are understood distinctly.

*(55) Why **is safe browsing** and preserving our privacy on the Internet important? ('Miért fontos a biztonságos böngészés és a magánszféránk védelme az interneten?')*

Here we do not know if the question refers *why is safe.... browsing* or *why is...safe browsing and preserving our privacy on the Internet important?* The ambiguity arises from the positioning of the phrases. By rearranging the sentence, it is clearer that the question is asking about the importance of both safe browsing and privacy protection on the Internet. This revision removes the potential confusion about which aspect the question is referring to.

*(56) One of the things I remember most about **growing up bilingual** was the fact that when my parents were around (or any help for that matter) I 'couldn't' speak Hungarian at all! ('Az egyik dolog, amire a legjobban emlékszem a kétnyelvűségben való felnövekedéssel kapcsolatban, az volt, hogy amikor a szüleim a közelben voltak (vagy mellesleg bárki más, aki segíteni tudott), egyáltalán „nem tudtam” magyarul beszélni!')*

*(57) Of course, teaching **input and modelling** are vital [...] ('Persze fontos, hogy a tanár adjon valamit és tudjon példát mutatni [...]')*

*(58) First of all, you have to imagine standing in front of a class, and you have to think through how you would present the **material that you want other teachers to use**. ('Először is, el kell képzelned azt, hogy állsz az osztály előtt, és végig kell gondolnod, hogyan adnád te magad elő az anyagot, amit szeretnél, hogy a többi tanár használjon majd').*

In all of the previous examples, there is a possibility of misinterpreting the original sentences due to the absence of commas. Readers might struggle to discern where the first part of a sentence ends, and the second part begins. Similarly, in example (57), it is unclear whether *teaching* encompasses *modelling* as well. Is it *teaching input and modelling* or are they separate entities?

3.2.4 Realia and untranslatability

In section 1.6 (realia and untranslatability) we have already approached the notion of realia and discussed the cases of untranslatability. Realia can be also defined as expressions that are used by certain group of people. Realia cannot be translated otherwise would lack coherence unless it would be explained somehow. In case of its transfer the translator may jeopardise its informative and culturally enriching aspects. (Klaudy, 1994 pp. 32-43.)

In the selected interviews eight sentences were chosen and classified into this category. Two sentences belong to untranslatability and six to the category of realia.

(59) *We do have* some courses designed for self-study [...] ('Van néhány olyan kurzusunk *is*, amely önálló tanuláshoz készült [...]')

(60) However, *I do have* a Personal Learning Network [...] ('Van azonban egy személyes tanulási hálózatom [...]')

The concept of untranslatability can be illustrated in the specific structures *I do have*, and *we do have* in the provided sentences. While Hungarian and English share similar structures for expressing possession, the emphasis conveyed by *do* in English lacks a direct equivalent in Hungarian.

In English, the inclusion of *do* emphasizes the assertion or confirmation of possession. It adds emphasis or contrast, often clarifying or reinforcing a point. However, Hungarian typically does not require such auxiliary verbs for emphasis or confirmation in the same way.

Therefore, the untranslatability lies not only in the individual words but also in the nuances of emphasis and confirmation conveyed by the auxiliary verb *do* in English, which lacks a direct equivalent in Hungarian.

(61) There are many resources that use **gamification** [...] ('Számos olyan anyag létezik, amely a **gamifikációt** használja [...]')

(62) *My name is Tom, I live in Australia (**shocker**). ('A nevem Tom, Ausztráliában élek (ugye milyen sokkoló')?)*

In sentence (61), the term *gamification* presents a challenge in translation due to its specificity and cultural context. *Gamification* refers to the integration of game mechanics or elements into non-game contexts to enhance engagement and motivation.

In (62) the term *shocker* in English is used informally to add a humorous or sarcastic tone to a statement. Its Hungarian equivalent would not directly convey the same casual or playful meaning.

(63) *There is of course a movement against using any textbook material at all. It's called the Dogme movement or **Teaching Unplugged** to give it its other name. ('Van természetesen egy irányzat, ami szerint egyáltalán ne is használjunk tankönyvi anyagokat. Dogme irányzatként vagy **Teaching Unplugged** néven is ismerik').*

(64) *It is possible that **Brexit** will affect how the EU uses English going forward. ('Lehetséges, hogy a **Brexit** hatással lesz arra, hogy az EU hogyan használja az angolt a jövőben').*

(65) *I grew up under the system of "**apartheid**" [...] ('Én az „**apartheid**” rendszere alatt nőttem fel [...])*

(66) *While Britain has wonderful beers and **ales** [...] ('És míg Nagy-Britanniában csodálatos sörök vannak [...])*

All of the four sentences contain an expression that could not be translated or was not translated at all. This could happen because of the translator's choice as he wanted to preserve the nuanced meaning of the expression or because there was no equivalent in the target language.

Summary of Part III.

In the present part the empirical research of the thesis was conducted. Fourteen magazines were examined, and sixty-six sentences were chosen and classified into four categories: idioms and

fixed phrases, polysemous words and phrasal verbs, punctuation and realia and untranslatability. The selected interviews were conducted in English language and then translated to Hungarian, and these two translations were paralleled and analysed. The aim of the research was to determine what caused ambiguity in these certain sentences, how could the translator disambiguate them and to react on the determined hypotheses.

This part shed light on the differences between Hungarian and English language paying special attention to idioms and fixed phrases (most of the examples belong to this category). Idioms as well as fixed phrases are used both in everyday speech and in formal conversations, However, finding their equivalent sometimes challenges even the most qualified translators. What is more, there might be pitfalls in their transition if the translator does not identify it as an idiom and transfers its literal meaning or if there is a similar idiom in the target language however their nuanced meaning differs from each other. Polysemous words and phrasal verbs were analysed the same way. Each sentence (or group of sentences) was followed by a short explanation that clarified their presence in the category, some of the examples were even corroborated by a dictionary to prove their polysemous origin. In the part of punctuation, the differences between English and Hungarian language were clarified and a few examples were shown to illustrate them. Finally, in the last category the cases of realia and untranslatability were represented in order to explain what happens when the translator cannot find the closest equivalent in the target language or when it does not have an equivalent at all.

CONCLUSION

It has probably happened to everyone, who speaks a foreign language, that misinterpreted a message which was addressed to him/her. Misunderstanding may stem from different resources like vague meaning, incorrect communication, grammatical errors and many other however, most of the time the reason of misunderstanding is ambiguity. Ambiguity is usually defined as an utterance that can be perceived in more than one way. Despite the presence of machine translation and other translation-aid programmes, the presence of professional translators is still essential. None of the latest programmes will be able to choose the closest equivalent unless it was inputted in the programme before. Ambiguity may sometimes challenge even the most experienced translators when they face an ambiguous utterance that first, should not be misunderstood in the source language and second, should be obvious for the target audience either.

The main aim of the thesis was to examine a certain number of interviews, then select those utterances that contain ambiguous or challenging expressions and analyse their translation. The interviews were conducted in English language and then translated to Hungarian. In order to achieve the forementioned aim, we have provided a comprehensive literature review containing all the relevant information that was inevitable to include in the first part of the thesis. Several outstanding scholars published about the subject of translation and ambiguity and their work highly influenced the development on this field. In the first and second part of the paper all those topics were enlisted that might corroborate the results in the third part. We have devoted a whole part for ambiguity paying special attention to its identification, definition, classification, and resolution.

Moore's (2004) definition of ambiguity is straightforward by saying that it occurs when a word has several potential translations due to conceptual difficulties in transferring it to another language. Tokowicz (2014) for instance determined that the English *to be* is considered ambiguous in Spanish since it has got two equivalents: *ser and estar*.

After the analysis the questions can be answered, and we can comment on the hypothesis. The first question was about the root cause of ambiguity. In the first hypothesis we stated that the main reason of ambiguity stems from polysemic words and grammatical differences. As a result, we can state that most of the words were identified as polysemous, even most of the ambiguous idioms and fixed phrases contained polysemous words. 33% of the selected sentences contained polysemous words and phrasal verbs. However, none of the ambiguous utterances were stemmed from grammatical differences. Thus, we can conclude that the first hypothesis has only partly verified.

The second question included if the translator took into consideration ambiguity (for instance an idiom). The hypothesis connected to the question: idioms and fixed phrases are translated adequately avoiding their literal interpretations. Idioms and fixed phrases occurred in 47% of the selected sentences. None of the idioms or fixed phrases were translated literally, the translator transferred their figurative meaning taking into consideration the target audience and chose the closest equivalent (usually a Hungarian idiom or fixed phrase). Hence, the translator took into consideration ambiguity and avoided the literal translations of the idioms, the second hypothesis has been verified.

Lastly, we have questioned the methods that were used in the process of disambiguation and formed the following hypothesis: the context contributes to the elimination of ambiguity. After analysing sixty-six sentences we can conclude that the context strongly contributed to the resolution of ambiguous utterances. For instance, in example (36) *Our materials are designed for all English learners [...]* the context make it obvious that in this sentence the topic is not about different substances like glass or wood but about it is used in the context of education. Or in the following sentence (48) *Rejecting cookies and using private browser tabs so your behavior is not tracked for ad targeting can also be a good idea*, the context makes it obvious that no one is talking about the rejection of sweet baked cookies. Thus, we can conclude that the third hypothesis was also verified and state that context is one of the most effective ways for disambiguation.

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Резюме

Дана магістерська робота досліджує проблеми багатозначності під час перекладу різних текстів. Неоднозначність може кинути виклик навіть кваліфікованим перекладачам, оскільки іноді недостатньо знати всі можливі варіанти перекладу того чи іншого слова. Існує багато визначень багатозначності, але найпростіше з них полягає в тому, що багатозначність виникає тоді, коли значення слова є нечітким через його полісемічність.

Напевно, з кожним, хто розмовляє іноземною мовою, траплялося, що він/вона неправильно інтерпретував/-ла повідомлення, яке було адресоване йому/їй. Непорозуміння може виникати з різних причин, таких як: нечітке значення, неправильне спілкування, граматичні помилки та багато іншого. Однак, найчастіше причиною непорозуміння є двозначність. Неоднозначність зазвичай визначається як висловлювання, яке може бути сприйняте більш ніж одним способом. Незважаючи на наявність машинного перекладу та інших програм, що допомагають перекладати, присутність професійних перекладачів все ще необхідна. Жодна з новітніх програм не може підібрати найближчий еквівалент, якщо його не було введено в програму раніше. Неоднозначність іноді може задати клопоту навіть найдосвідченішим перекладачам, коли вони стикаються з двозначним висловлюванням, яке, по-перше, не повинно бути неправильно зрозумілим мовою оригіналу, а по-друге, повинно бути однозначним і для цільової аудиторії.

Мета цього дослідження - з'ясувати, як перекладаються багатозначні слова з однієї мови на іншу; як перекладачі можуть копіювати багатозначні слова; які методи вони використовують, і як можуть передати той самий зміст, а також виявити проблеми, які можуть виникнути в цьому процесі. У роботі зроблено спробу порівняти та проаналізувати інтерв'ю, виокремити речення, які містять двозначні вирази або інші приховані труднощі для перекладачів, та проаналізувати їхнє розв'язання.

Ця магістерська робота складається з трьох частин, а також містить вступ, висновки, список використаних джерел, додатки та резюме українською мовою.

Перша і друга частини присвячені теоретичному викладу теми, де розглядаються відповідні публікації, які пов'язані з досліджуваною темою. Перша частина трактує основи перекладу, включаючи його визначення, класифікацію, перекладацькі операції та інші відповідні теми. Друга частина висвітлює поняття неоднозначності, її ідентифікацію, класифікацію та методи її усунення.

Третя частина охоплює практичні висновки магістерської роботи. Вона підсумовує всі ті кроки, які були зроблені для проведення емпіричного дослідження. Описані процеси,

перераховано всі речення, які були відібрані для подальшого аналізу, а також подано пояснення після кожного речення або групи речень.

Після аналізу можна зробити наступний висновок, що більшість слів були ідентифіковані як багатозначні, навіть більшість неоднозначних ідіом сталих словосполучень містили багатозначні слова. 33% відібраних речень містили багатозначні слова та фразові дієслова. Однак жодне з неоднозначних висловлювань не було спричинене граматичними відмінностями.

Ідіоматичні вирази та стійкі словосполучення зустрічалися у 47% відібраних речень. Жодна з ідіом чи сталих словосполучень не була перекладена дослівно, перекладач передавав їх переносне значення з урахуванням цільової аудиторії та обирав найближчий еквівалент (як правило, угорську ідіому чи сталу фразу). Таким чином, перекладач враховував багатозначність і уникав дослівного перекладу ідіом. Проаналізувавши шістдесят шість речень, можна зробити висновок, що контекст значною мірою сприяв вирішенню неоднозначних висловлювань.

Значення цієї магістерської роботи полягає в тому, що в ній зібрано матеріали, які можуть допомогти іншим дослідникам у проведенні відповідних літературних оглядів. Крім того, вона може слугувати цінним ресурсом для студентів, які не знайомі з аналізом і порівнянням речень, надаючи вказівки щодо того, які аспекти слід враховувати під час таких досліджень.

APPENDIX
LIST OF THE MAGAZINES
(5 Perc angol by Szalai Nóra)

1. 2024. április – 16. évfolyam
2. 2023. november – 15. évfolyam
3. 2023. május – 15. évfolyam
4. 2023. április – 15. évfolyam
5. 2022. október – 14. évfolyam
6. 2022. augusztus – 14. évfolyam
7. 2022. június – 14. évfolyam
8. 2022. május – 14. évfolyam
9. 2022. február – 14. évfolyam
10. 2021. november – 13. évfolyam
11. 2021. augusztus – 13. évfolyam
12. 2021. július – 13. évfolyam
13. 2021. április – 13. évfolyam
14. 2021. január – 13. évfolyam

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Кількість сторінок:

69

Кількість слів:

22000

Схожість 4%

Збіг: 21 джерела

Вилучено: 0 джерела

Інтернет: 3 джерела

DOI: 0 джерела

База даних: 0 джерела

Перефразовування 0%

Кількість: 21 джерела

Перефразовано: 229 слова

Цитування 19%

Цитування: 224

Всього використано слів:

816

Включення 1%

Кількість: 13 включення

Всього використано слів:

660

Питання 0%

Замінені символи: 0

Інший сценарій: 1 слова