



Universidad Central “Marta Abreu” de Las Villas

Department of English Language

Strategies for the Translation of Modal Auxiliary Verbs as Hedging

Devices in Newspaper Articles on Climate Change

**Estrategias para la traducción de verbos modales auxiliares como
matizadores discursivos en artículos periodísticos sobre cambio
climático**

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Abstract

Translation has been used for foreign language teaching since the 19th century when modern languages began to appear in school curricula. Its strength on the field of foreign language teaching resides in the fact that is used to demonstrate the learner's knowledge of the foreign language, either as a form of control or to exercise his intelligence in order to develop his competence. One of the main problems for translation students is their difficulties to translate certain pragmatic elements of the text such as hedging devices. This could lead to errors in comprehending the text's ideas and the author's initial intentions. During the process of translation, when a problem emerges, translators need to put into practice strategies to solve such problem. A translation strategy is a conscious problem solving procedure that comes from the translator's previous knowledge.

As stylistic devices, hedges are embedded in several discourses. The present research focuses on hedges in journalistic discourse because it has not received much attention among scholars. This research is aimed at identifying the strategies most commonly used for the translation of hedging devices used in online English newspaper articles on climate change. It is carried out through a comparative analysis of a parallel English-Spanish corpus compiled from the newsroom of present in the websites of different international and regional environmental agencies. Finally, it presents a set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices that can help improve the teaching and learning process in the subject of Translation of Journalistic Texts.

Keywords: translation, translation theory, translation strategy, hedging device, corpus linguistics

Resumen

Desde que el estudio de lenguas modernas se incluyó los planes de estudio en el siglo XIX, la traducción se utilizó para la enseñanza de idiomas. Su fortaleza en este campo es que demuestra el conocimiento de la lengua extranjera que poseen los estudiantes, ya sea como un método para controlar o para ejercitar su inteligencia encaminado a desarrollar dicha competencia. Uno de los principales problemas que presentan los estudiantes durante el proceso de traducción es que a menudo son incapaces de traducir ciertos elementos pragmáticos del texto como los matizadores discursivos. Esto puede llevar a errores en la comprensión de las ideas del texto y las intenciones iniciales del autor. Cuando surge un problema, el traductor debe poner en práctica estrategias para solucionarlo. Una estrategia de traducción es un procedimiento consciente para la solución de problemas que parte del conocimiento previo del traductor.

Como recursos estilísticos, los matizadores se encuentran en varios discursos. El presente estudio se centra en los matizadores presentes en el discurso periodístico. El objetivo de esta investigación es identificar las estrategias más comunes para la traducción de matizadores en artículos periodísticos en línea escritos originalmente en inglés sobre el cambio climático. Se realiza sobre la base de un análisis comparativo de un corpus paralelo inglés-español compilado a partir de los sitios web de varias agencias medioambientales. Finalmente, el mismo presenta un conjunto de estrategias para la traducción de los matizadores que puede mejorar el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje en la asignatura de Traducción de Textos Periodísticos.

Palabras clave: traducción, teoría de traducción, estrategia de traducción, matizador discursivo, lingüística de corpus.

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Introduction

Translation is the process of comprehending the meaning of a text to re-express it later in another language, whereas the text produced is also called a translation. In this process, the text being translated is usually known as source text (ST), its language, source language (SL) and the language in which is translated, target language (TL). Chiefly, the process of translation is meant to facilitate the understanding between users of different languages and across different cultures.

This practice is conceived as a form of intercultural communication, and it arose when people speaking different languages tried to interact among them, in an attempt to overcome language barriers. Among the oldest examples of translations there were some inscriptions found in Egypt, which were written in two languages and date from 3000 B.C.

In the nineteenth century, following suggestions that linguistic barriers were insuperable and that language was a product of culture, translation was thought to be impossible and this perception rapidly spread. According to Newmark (1988), from that moment on, the methods for translation varied significantly from those more focused on the SL, to those focused on the TL. In *A Textbook of Translation*, Newmark mentions the following methods ordered from the most SL centered to the most TL centered:

- Word-for-word translation (SL word-order is preserved and words are translated by their most common meanings, out of context);
- Literal translation (SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical words are again translated out of context);
- Faithful translation (attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures);
- Semantic translation (takes more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text, compromising on 'meaning' where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play or repetition jars in the finished version);
- Adaptation (mainly used for plays [comedies] and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten);
- Free translation (reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original);

- Idiomatic translation (reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original); and
- Communicative translation (attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible).

But the process of translation embeds much more than just the simple transposition of one idea into another language. Jakobson (1959) studied the different theories of translation and introduced a semiotic reflection to the field. According to him, translators make use of synonyms to convey the ST message. There is no full equivalence between components of the source language (SL) and the TL, therefore meaning has to be conveyed through a chain of signs.

In Jakobson's theory, translation is conceived as "a process of recoding involving two equivalent messages in two different codes". In such process, translators must try to be invisible while taking into account several factors that influence the text, i.e. on the one hand, the SL writer and the norms, culture and setting of that SL; and on the other hand, the TL reader and the norms, culture and setting of that TL.

But, as Newmark (1988) states, "there is no such thing as a perfect translation", so translators should be aware that their work has to be developed in four levels: translation as a science, which involves knowing and verifying the facts and the language describing them; translation as a skill, which calls for appropriate language and acceptable usage; translation as an art, which distinguishes good from undistinguished writing and is the creative, the intuitive, sometimes the inspired, level of the translation; and finally, translation as a matter of taste, where argument ceases, preferences are expressed, and the variety of meritorious translations is the reflection of individual differences. (Newmark, 1988)

In an attempt to go unnoticed, translators must also take into account other aspects that affect the process of translation. Examples of these are: the style proper of the SL author; the grammatical and lexical conventions, in both languages, of the type of text in relation to the topic and the situation; the content referring to cultural aspects related with both languages; the format traditionally adopted by the text in either language; target readers, their possible knowledge of the

topic and the type of language they use; what is being said in the text; and the views of the translator on the topic, which can be influenced by his cultural background. (Newmark, 1988)

The translation must seek to be transparent, to clearly reflect the author's personality, intention and ideas. Readers should also be capable of reading it smoothly; no grammar or lexical items should make it sound odd in any aspect. Readers should perceive the translation as if it were the original text. According to Benjamin (1968):

A real translation is transparent; it does not cover the original, does not block its light, but allows the pure language, as though reinforced by its own medium, to shine upon the original all the more fully.

But this ultimate goal can only be achieved when translators master the aspects mentioned above and some others. One of the main problems professors of translation come across is that, sometimes, translation students who learn the SL as a foreign language have difficulties to translate certain aspects such as those related to pragmatic competence. According to Crystal (1985):

Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

Based on this definition, pragmatic competence can then be defined as the knowledge of how to use language to achieve certain goals in a given interaction, in a given sociocultural context (Kasper, 1997). Thus, in order to create an appropriate translation, translators have to understand the SL and its culture, but they must also have sufficient linguistic skills to translate the text accurately into the TL.

Mastering grammatical structures, lexical items and vocabulary in both working languages becomes then the primary task of translators. But this is not an easy task. Users of a foreign language can be considered rude by native speakers if they do not have pragmatic competence skills. One component of pragmatic competence that poses serious problems to non-native speakers is hedging, "a rhetorical strategy that attenuates either the full semantic value of a particular expression (...) or the full force of a speech act" (Fraser, 2010). Not recognizing it can

lead to misunderstanding the native speaker's ideas or intention. This issue becomes more pressing for translation students, since conveying the accurate meaning of the ST is the primary task of the translation process.

One of the researchers with more impact on the field of hedging devices was Lakoff (1973). For him, hedging devices are “words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy”. Moreover, Richards et al (2002) consider them to be “linguistic devices that writers use either to indicate the writer's lack of commitment to the truth of a statement or a desire not to express that commitment categorically”.

Furthermore, Hyland (2005) defines hedging devices as modifiers of the writer's accountability for the truth value of what he expresses or as descriptors of the weightiness of the information presented and the attitude of the writer towards such information. Hedging is used in order to establish a relationship between the author and the reader, as a way of securing the reader's acceptance and motivation.

Hedging can be used in various linguistic forms such as conditional statements, verb choice, modifiers, and personal viewpoint statements. Thus, hedging is a device by which the writer can convey his beliefs and subjective viewpoints on a subject. Realizing that hedging devices are used as such by authors, and understanding what the primary intention for their use is, pose a challenge, and translation students usually chose not to translate them. For students, the hedged sentence and the non-hedged one carry the same meaning.

According to Markkanen and Schröder (1997), it is somewhat difficult to create a complete list of hedging devices because “no linguistic items are inherently hedgy but can acquire this quality depending on the communicative context or the co-text”. This quality of hedging devices is one of the main reasons why their use and translation embeds so much trouble. As Fraser (2010) argues:

Pragmatic competence is necessary if one is to communicate effectively in a language. This includes mastering the art of hedging (...) but, failing to hedge where it is expected, as well as failing to understand the meaning of the hedging, has great potential for miscommunication.

Hedging devices can be mainly found on writings where authors express their opinions, as they become a means to express information in the form of opinions rather than facts. In such sense, extensive research has been carried out on the use of hedges in academic discourse. Hyland (1998) states that:

Hedging is central to academic writing as it expresses possibility rather than certainty and collegiality rather than presumption. Scientific claims are rarely made without interpretive statements and these involve both assessments of probability and judgments concerning the impact of linguistic choices on readers.

But hedging devices are also found as compositional elements of other types of texts, and some studies have been conducted to analyze their presence on them. Examples of such studies are: Hyland (1998), Dafouz (2008), Atai and Sadr (2006), Abdollahzadeh (2011), Buitkiené (2008) and Nivales (2011). The number of studies related to hedging devices is due to the communicative function they fulfill. According to Hyland (2000) “the crucial importance of hedges lies in the fact that readers expect claims to be warranted in terms of the social interactions they appeal to”.

Hedging devices are usually employed in newspapers. Newspapers are intended to reach a wider audience and their main purpose is to influence readers and public opinion, making them the perfect document where to use and find hedging devices since they carry a considerable amount of information, evaluation and interpretation of facts. Besides, in the newspaper article, journalists usually avoid responsibility by the way of presenting the news, the choice of vocabulary and the use of some specific syntactic constructions.

In the literature review carried out for this research, it was found that most studies on hedging devices focus on academic discourse and few on newspaper discourse. But, in spite of the limited research activity on this field, studying the hedging devices used in English newspapers would be helpful for translators that have learned the SL as a foreign language.

At the Universidad Central “Marta Abreu” de Las Villas (UCLV), for almost 30 years, students majoring in English Language with a Second Foreign Language have been trained to become translators and interpreters. However, some difficulties have been observed in the process of translation related with students’ pragmatic competence. These difficulties have been frequently

identified in the translation of texts during practice in classes and homework, and in mid-term and final exams.

Within the discipline Translation and Interpretation, students take the subject *Traducción de Textos Periodísticos* in the second semester of 5th year. One of the topics included in this subject is climate change, given its remarkable importance for the sustainability of the planet nowadays. One of the main problems found by professors of the subject is related to the correct translation of hedging devices in English newspaper articles by students majoring in English Language with a Second Foreign Language at the UCLV. Therefore, developing students' pragmatic competence, specifically related to the translation of hedging devices in English newspaper articles, can help improve the quality of their pragmatic translation skills.

Taking into consideration this particular situation, we state the following **research question**:

- **How can the translation of hedging devices used in online English newspaper articles on climate change by 5th year English Language students at UCLV be improved?**

This question leads us to the **general objective** of this research:

- **To propose a set of strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change for 5th year English Language students at UCLV.**

The **specific objectives** meant to accomplish this general objective are:

1. To establish the theoretical foundations related to the theory of translation, hedging, English newspaper discourse, and corpus linguistics.
2. To design a set of strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change for 5th year English Language students at UCLV.

The **object of study** is the creation of a set of strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change. The **field of action** is Translation Theory.

Sample Description

To carry out this research, the sample will be a corpus created with online English newspaper articles on climate change randomly selected from authentic sources that date from November 30th, 2015, to November 30th, 2019. The topic of climate change was chosen because it is included in the subject Traducción de Textos Periodísticos.

The authentic sources will be the newsroom of the official websites of the international and regional environmental agencies: the *United Nations Environment Programme*, the *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*, and the *European Environmental Agency*. We chose them because they are trusted websites that allow for open access and post newspaper articles on the topic originally written in English by English native speakers. It was decided to collect the articles for the sample as of November 30th, 2015, since that day started the Paris Climate Conference organized by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, which marked a turning point on the discussions on the subject.

Methodology

To fulfill the objectives of this research, a mixed-method approach was held since, as a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data. This approach provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Plano, 2011).

Theoretical Methods

Historical-Logical: This method was employed to study the logical and historical development of the main theoretical principles used in this research.

Analysis and synthesis: This method helped to contrast, analyze, evaluate and generalize the existing tendencies and the collected data for the purpose of this research.

Induction and deduction: Through the process of analytical induction, this method allowed to make deductions, analysis and abstractions, which were subsequently used in the corpus analysis.

Empirical Methods

Traditional document analysis: A detailed textual and documentary analysis was carried out. For this analysis, written material was used and historical context and background was taken into account.

Content analysis: This method was used to determine the corpus information regularities, to find the hedging devices present and to identify the strategies for their translation.

Contribution

The present study provides a practical contribution to the translation of online English newspaper articles. The set of strategies created can be used to help students majoring in English Language with a Second Foreign Language to better translate online English newspaper articles. These strategies are also meant to improve the quality of translation teaching at the UCLV and to prepare students to become translators that offer their services professionally and with the required quality. But other people —namely newspaper translators, professors of translation and those who want to initiate in the field— can use it as well. This set of strategies helps then to solve some of the existing problems in the translation of newspaper articles.

We also expect the present study will make a modest contribution to the theory of translation in general and, more specifically, to the theory of translation of newspaper articles. Besides, the topic of climate change can as well help to raise awareness on the urgency of undertaking actions to try to reverse this issue, which is in accordance with the national program for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Structure

This research contains two chapters:

- Chapter 1 outlines the theoretical foundations of the research. General and theoretical definitions will include topics concerning the theory of translation, hedging, English newspaper language, and corpus linguistics.
- Chapter 2 describes the methodological framework. The collection and selection of the sample as well as analysis of data will be explained. The set of strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices in online English newspaper articles will also be proposed.

The research is completed with conclusions and recommendations followed by the bibliography and the corresponding appendixes.

Chapter I: Theoretical Foundations

In the present chapter, the results of the literary review of the first stage of the research are presented. The concepts and evolution of all the necessary terms related with this study are carefully analyzed in the following epigraphs.

1.1 Translation. Concept

The first use recorded of the term *translation* in the English language is registered in the 14th century according to the *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*, and it derives either from Old French *translation* or from the Latin *translatio* ('transporting'), which in turn comes from the participle of the verb *transfere* ('to carry over'). Roman Jakobson (1959) considered there were three different kinds of translation:

- Intralingual translation or *rewording*: “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language”;
- Interlingual translation or *translation proper*: “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language”; and
- Intersemiotic translation or *transmutation*: “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems”.

However, most researchers focus on the second kind of translation according to Jakobson's classification. One example is Hartman and Stork (1972) who explained that “translation is the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language.”

Justa Holz-Manttari (1984) added the intercultural character to the definition and conceived translation primarily as a “process of intercultural communication whose end-product is a text which is capable of functioning appropriately in specific situations and contexts of use”.

Peter Newmark (1988) defined translation as the often, though not by any means always, rendering of the meaning of a text into another language in the way the author intended the text. He further stated that, during the translation process, the text may be “pulled in ten different directions” and established these directions as follows:

1. The individual style or idiolect of the SL author. When should it be (a) preserved, (b) normalized?
2. The conventional grammatical and lexical usage for this type of text, depending on the topic and the situation.
3. Content items referring specifically to the SL, or third language (i.e. not SL or TL) cultures.
4. The typical format of a text in a book, periodical, newspaper, etc., as influenced by tradition at the time.
5. The expectations of the putative readership, bearing in mind their estimated knowledge of the topic and the style of language they use, expressed in terms of the largest common factor, since one should not translate down (or up) to the readership.
6. The conventional grammatical and lexical usage for the text on the TL, depending on the topic and the situation.
7. Content items referring specifically to the TL, or third language (i.e. not SL or TL) cultures.
8. The typical format of a text in a book, periodical, newspaper, etc., as influenced by tradition at the time related to the TL.
9. What is being described or reported, ascertained or verified (the referential truth), where possible independently of the SL text and the expectations of the readership.
10. The views and prejudices of the translator, which may be personal and subjective, or may be social and cultural, involving the translator's 'group loyalty factor', which may reflect the national, political, ethnic, religious, social class, sex, etc. assumptions of the translator. (Newmark, 1988)

Newmark also specified that there could be other elements influencing the translation process such as the tensions “between sound and sense, emphasis (word order) and naturalness (grammar), the figurative and the literal, neatness and comprehensiveness, concision and accuracy” (Newmark, 1988). Following this path, Hermans (1996) expressed:

“Translation used to be regarded primarily in terms of relations between texts, or between language systems. Today it is increasingly seen as a complex transaction taking place in a communicative, socio-cultural context. This requires that we bring the translator as a social being fully into the picture.” (Hermans, 1996)

Later on, Steiner (1998) described the translation of a written text from one language to another as a sequential process of decoding and re-encoding, a process of reading and re-writing. He also explains:

Translation is formally and pragmatically implicit in every act of communication... To understand is to decipher. To hear significance is to translate. Thus the essential structure and executive means and problems of the act of translation are fully present in acts of speech, of writing, of pictorial encoding in any given language (Steiner, 1998).

Moreover, Reiss (2000) defines translation as “a bilingual mediated process of communication, which ordinarily aims at the production of a TL text that is functionally equivalent to an SL text.” When referring to the process of translation, Munday (2001) stated:

The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL) (Munday, 2001).

Above all, most concepts of translation coincide in the fact that translation is the process through which a SL text is rendered into a TL text, whether it pays more attention to the linguistic features of the SL or the TL.

1.1.2 Translation Theory. Concept

When talking about translation in an academic or scholar context, Newmark (1988) further states that, as a discipline, translation has unfortunately been taken for granted and “often encourages absurd, stilted renderings, particularly of colloquial passages including proper names and institutional terms” which are absurdly encouraged by dictionary mistranslations.

As a professional, the translator is repeatedly faced with choices on how to translate certain fragments of the text. In making a choice, according to Newmark (1988), the translator is “intuitively or consciously following a theory of translation”. For Newmark (1988), “translation theory is concerned with the translation method appropriately used for a certain type of text”. He

goes beyond expressing that “is the body of knowledge that we have about translating, extending from general principles to guidelines, suggestions and hints” (Newmark, 1988). Newmark further expresses:

“What translation theory does is, first, to identify and define a translation problem (no problem - no translation theory!); second, to indicate all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem; third, to list all the possible translation procedures; finally, to recommend the most suitable translation procedure, plus the appropriate translation.” (Newmark, 1988)

As he noted, there would not be a translation theory without the presence of a translation problem. When the translator is faced with a choice due to a certain problem, s/he has to resort to translation theory to solve the problem. It is worth noticing that what Newmark (1988) calls translation procedures will be managed in this research as translation strategies and will be analyzed further in this first chapter.

The problems related to the process of translation have been widely commented on by scholars and professional translators, but they become of great importance when we deal with language students learning to translate into their native language. To overcome the difficulties arising from translating texts, students should be introduced to the theory of translation, and should be trained in the various strategies to solve translating problems and the lack of translation equivalences among languages.

As Lei (1999) states:

Some believe that anyone with a solid bilingual foundation could accomplish perfect translations and see no gap whatsoever. Translation ability, in this view, is something innate which cannot be acquired through study, which then begs the question: Is there any need to teach translation? In my opinion, the answer is yes, and my survey would indicate that nearly all translation teachers agree. We all believe that it is necessary to teach translation. As long as there is a distinct teaching objective, a feasible teaching programme, a set of practical textbooks and an experienced teacher, students will emerge better equipped to work in translation after they graduate.

The major developments of recent times in the field of translation theory are, perhaps, those highlighted by Edwin Gentzler:

The two most important shifts in theoretical developments in translation theory over the past two decades have been (1) the shift from source-text oriented theories to target-text oriented theories and (2) the shift to include cultural factors as well as linguistic elements in the translation training models. Those advocating functionalist approaches have been pioneers in both areas. (Gentzler, 2001)

1.1.2 Origin and Evolution of Translation Studies

Translation, as a discipline, has been generally known as “Translation Studies”, at least in the English-speaking world, after 1972, when James S. Holmes described in a paper the then emerging discipline related to “the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations”. Holmes (1972) stated:

A greater impediment than the lack of a generally accepted name in the way of the development of Translation Studies is the lack of any general consensus as to the scope and structure of the discipline. What constitutes the field of Translation Studies? A few would say it coincides with comparative (or contrastive) terminological and lexicographical studies; several look upon it as practically identical with comparative or contrastive linguistics; many would consider it largely synonymous with translation theory. But surely it is different, if not always distinct, from the first two of these, and more than the third. (Holmes, 1972)

Holmes mapped out the new field like a science, dividing it into “pure” translation Studies (encompassing descriptive studies of existing translations and general and partial translation theories) and “applied” studies (covering translator training, translator aids and translation criticism, amongst others). According to him, the “pure” side is given more priority and has two clear objectives:

- to describe the phenomena of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience, and

- to establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted. (Holmes, 1972)

However, other translators have decided to name this academic subject differently considering their own linguistic points of view. For example, Antoine Berman wrote in 1985: “The awareness of translation experiences, as distinct from all objectifying knowledge not within its framework is what I call **traductologie**”. Contrastively, Germans prefer to call the discipline **Übersetzungswissenschaft**, namely translation science, making a special emphasis on its scientific character.

In 1988, Mary Snell-Hornby, in the first edition of *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*, expressed the necessity of considering translation studies as an independent discipline. Later on, Mona Baker (1998), in the introduction to the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation*, advocated the value of this new discipline that could possibly be considered “the discipline of the 1990s”.

Translation Studies is now understood to refer to the academic discipline concerned with the study of translation at large, including literary and non-literary translation, various forms of oral interpreting as well as for dubbing and subtitling. (Baker, 1998)

Baker (1998) further states that translation studies as a discipline also includes a group of research and pedagogical activities, such as the training of translators and the development of theoretical frameworks and criteria for translation assessment.

Now, in the twenty-first century, the discipline continues to develop and it has become of major interest to those specialized in the field of linguistics and also to the least experienced learning the abilities of interpreting and translating. From being a little-established field, the discipline has become one of the most active and dynamic new areas of research including mixed approaches and perspectives. Since Holmes’s paper in 1972, translation studies has evolved to such an extent that it is really a perfect discipline in contact with a several other fields.

However, the aim continues to be to describe translation phenomena, and in some cases to establish general principles, the methods of analysis are more varied and the cultural and

ideological features of translation have become as prominent as linguistics. As expressed by Malmkjær and Windle (2011):

The study of translation in its manifold forms is now a well-established field of scholarly activity. Once seen as a homeless hybrid at best, and later as an interdisciplinary area best approached through its neighbouring disciplines (e.g., theoretical and applied linguistics, discourse analysis, literary study, comparative literature), it has now achieved full recognition as a discipline in its own right, to which related disciplines make vital contributions. (Malmkjær and Windle, 2011)

Today, the discipline incorporates a wide spectrum of research with many translation studies researchers regarding their work as interdisciplinary and intercultural, borrowing heavily from such areas as linguistics, literature studies, cultural studies, postcolonial studies, anthropology, psychology, and political science.

1.1.3 Translation Strategies. Concept

The translation, as an activity, has gained great value and recognition. However, if the translator transfers the wrong meaning, it may be misleading and bring about negative repercussions. Thus, finding ways which may lead to better translation becomes crucial. One of these ways is the application of the translation strategies. The translation must be done in an organized way so that the translator knows what to do when facing a problem. The procedures and techniques performed when solving a problem are called translation strategies. However, much controversy has existed around the term translation strategy and some authors (Chesterman, 1997; Hejwowski, 2004; Kearns, 2009) remark that, in the field of translation, not only is the term strategy used to describe different concepts, but also various terms are used to express the same meaning.

De Beaugrande (1978) conceives strategies as tools to tackle the possible problems that could emerge during translation. Moreover, Cohen (1984) asserts that “the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from these processes that are not strategic.” Applying different translation strategies becomes the instrument to overcome translation problems. Following this direction, Krings (1986) defines translation strategy as “translator's potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a

concrete translation task.” They were some of the first to introduce the notion of *problem* as a fundamental element when studying translation strategies.

Lörscher (1991) also noted that the concept of translation strategy occasionally appeared in translation theory but it was not precisely defined so, in an attempt to define it, he states that a translation strategy is “a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it.” As stated in these definitions, the notion of consciousness started gaining significance in distinguishing the strategies used by learners or translators.

In other words, what Lörscher understands by strategy is no longer the process that takes place when we translate from one language to another, but rather the process that takes place when a problem is to be resolved. This conceptual difference turned out to have a considerable impact on later studies on translation strategies, as well as on closely related fields, such as studies on translation competence.

Jääskeläinen (1999) defines strategy as “a series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favor the acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information”. This author also states that the adoption of a certain strategy implies making a decision influenced by amendments in the translator’s objectives. According to this definition, the translator has to make the correct decision and choose the most convenient and effective strategy to achieve the intended purpose of the message and to make it accessible to a wider range of readers and this is an important stage of the translation process.

Hurtado Albir (2001), in an attempt to clarify the terminological and conceptual confusion generated by studies on translation, defines strategies and explains that they are of an individual and procedural nature and consist of mechanisms used by the translator to solve the problems encountered during the translation process, depending on specific needs. So, for Hurtado Albir, the strategy is related to the process; strategies are, as in other disciplines, the procedures for solving problems.

In the words of Bardají (2009) many studies in this field are complementary and deal with parts of the same reality. In spite of the discrepancies around the term translation strategy, Sanjun Sun (2012) argues that there are some defining characteristics researchers agree on when talking about it. First, translation strategies are goal-oriented; the translation needs to fulfill the

requirements and expectations of the final readers. Second, they are problem centered. Third, they require making coordinated decisions; translators are linguistic problem solvers, whose work consists in making constant and correct decisions in order to achieve effectiveness and accuracy in the target text. Fourth, they are conscious. And finally, they involve text manipulation, since the TT must be comprehensible and accessible to either a general or a specialist reader, what in many cases implies the adaptation and modification of the original text without changing the meaning.

Cela Gutiérrez (2018) presents a more general overview of the translation strategies named and described by most influential linguists, which evidences the heterogeneous variety of terms not shown so far in the present research. On her doctoral dissertation, *An Analysis of the Translation Strategies of Evidential Adverbs in a Corpus-Based Study*, she provides the following chronology:

- 1958, Vinay and Darbelnet: *translation procedures*. Reject individual words as units of translation. Translators deal with ideas and feelings in various semantic fields, rather than individual lexemes.
- 1964, Nida: *techniques of adjustment*. Techniques and strategies used in the text as a whole to adjust the form of the message to the structural and semantical characteristics of the TL.
- 1968, Malblanc: *translation procedures*. He follows the lines proposed by his predecessors Vinay and Darbelnet, adopting not only the same terminology, but the same conceptual concept.
- 1977, Vázquez Ayora: *technical procedures of stylistic implementation* (personal translation). Linguistic tools to facilitate the work of the translator. Contemporary linguistics techniques to avoid literal translation, which is one of the main causes of mistakes and inaccurate translations.
- 1981, Wotjak: *transfer techniques in communication*. He refers to the transfer process from one language to another. However, he also uses “strategy”, “rule” and “procedure” with the same meaning as “translation techniques”.
- 1988, Newmark: *translation procedures*. He uses the same term as Vinay and Darbelnet, however, he distinguishes these from “translation methods”.

- 1991 Lörcher: *translation strategies*. Conscious procedure for the solution of a problem, a translator is faced with when translating a text.
- 1991, Séguinot: *translation strategies*. Conscious and unconscious procedures involved during translation.
- 1992, Hervey and Higgins: *strategic decisions and decisions of detail*. Strategic decisions take place before the translator begins a translation attending questions of linguistic features, desired effect or text genre, while decisions of detail have the function to resolve specific problems of the translation.
- 1993, Deslile: *translation procedures*. He describes them as operations in the cognitive process of translating and introduces different terms such as translation strategies or translation errors.
- 1994, Mason: *translation techniques, procedures and methods*. For Mason there is no distinction between the use of the terms and defines procedures as follows: “A procedure is a method adopted to achieve a result. It is a way of proceeding in order to complete some activity.” (Mason, 1994)
- 1995, Kiraly: *translation processes/processing phenomena*. Referring to the mental operations implied during the process of translation.
- 1997, Guix and Wilkinson: *translation procedures*. As synonym of “strategy”. Linguistic features the translator must learn to develop multiple and varied strategies to cope with the idiosyncrasies of the languages.
- 2000, Scott- Tennent, Davies and Torras: *translation strategies*. “Steps taken to solve a translation problem, which has been consciously detected and resulting in a consciously applied solution”, (Scott-Tennent et al. 2000).
- 2000, Zabalbeascoa: *translation strategies and translation techniques*. Strategies are any conscious action taken to make easier the translation task, while techniques is associated with the decision-taking process and acquired skills.
- 2001, Hurtado Albir: *translation strategies, translation methods and translation techniques*. Hurtado Albir distinguishes three different terms with different definitions:

“technique affects the small text units, while method affects the text as a whole and strategy are those mechanisms used by the translator to solve problems”.

From these theories, the concept of *translation strategy* emerged to name those actions involved in the translation process, and became the most widespread term to describe the mental processes performed by the translator when transferring a text from one language to another. For the purpose of this research, this term will be used to refer to the techniques and methods used by the translator in to solve problems and to deliver a translation of quality that fulfills the lexical, syntactical and cultural-specific features of the target audience.

1.1.3.1 Translation Strategies Classification

When searching for a classification for translation strategies, the literary review showed that the same discrepancies found when trying to reach a terminological agreement on the term strategy are transfer to the discussion regarding a classification. Most researchers describe their own classifications considering different aspects, which lead to a conceptual discussion, but also to different classifications. For example, Lörscher (1991) proposes a classification settled on a cognitive approach, while Chesterman (1997) proposes one based on a textual approach. The first approach analyses the text or its external behavior, but it also considers the inner processes involved in translation. While the second approach regards the text as a communicative act that takes place in a particular situational and cultural context.

Even though the conceptual discussion has not yet been solved among theorists and researchers, most of them share the idea that there are two main types of translation strategies: *literal translation*, which deals with the level of words; and *free translation*, which goes beyond such level and tries to create a more natural and culture-specific target text. Literal versus free translation has always been at the center of the debate on translation theories. As in the case of the term *translation strategy*, these two strategies have also been named differently, providing a variety of oppositions. For instance, Eugene Nida (1964) speaks about “formal equivalence” versus “dynamic equivalence”, using the term “equivalence” instead of “translation”. Peter Newmark (1988) prefers “semantic translation” versus “communicative translation”. Then, Christiane Nord (1991) introduces the idea of documentation and uses the terms “documentary

translation” versus “instrumental translation”. Lawrence Venuti (1992) fosters a cultural perspective and distinguishes between “foreignization” versus “domestication”, in an attempt to avoid the cultural influence of readers in dominant cultures. While Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), in the first English edition of their 1958 research, talk about “direct translation” versus “oblique translation”.

In an attempt to separate translation strategies from its synonyms, most researchers have developed their own classification of strategies from different approaches and perspectives. Cela Gutiérrez (2018) also provides a general overview of the previous theories as proposed by the most influential linguists in the field of translation. These are: Vinay and Darbelnet’s 1958 *direct* versus *oblique translation*; Nida’s 1964 *formal* versus *dynamique translation*; House’s 1986 *overt* versus *covert translation*; Newmark’s 1988 *semantic* versus *communicative translation*; Nord’s 1991 *documentary* versus *instrumentary translation*; Jääskeläinen’s 1993 *global* versus *local translation*; Venuti’s 1995 *foreignization* versus *domestication translation*; and Chesterman’s 1997 *comprehension* versus *production strategies*.

1.1.3.2 Classification of Translation Strategies for the Present Research: Vinay and Darbelnet (1958)

Even though there has been much translation analysis since the 1950s, such as those mentioned previously in this research, aimed at creating a standard classification of translation strategies, there still is a wide range of models. Given its similarity with the purpose of the present research, this study will focus on Vinay and Darbelnet’s 1958 classification. Their research focused on a comparative stylistic analysis of French and English. Another factor to choose their classification is that their research had a significant impact and has been considered the starting point for later classifications of translation strategies and techniques. Their work has been referred to as a manual of reference for students, professional translators and researchers.

Vinay and Darbelnet’s 1958 study was intended to contrast English texts with their French translation to establish the differences between both languages and identify the different strategies and techniques used in each textual unit by the translator. Although their work exclusively focused on English and French, it lays the basis for many other researches and works in different languages

according to Cela Gutiérrez (2018). Some examples of this influence are Malblanc's 1963 comparative analysis between French and German translations, and Vázquez Ayora's 1977 and García Yebra's 1982 comparative analysis between English and Spanish. This is another reason to apply their model to the present study but focusing in English and Spanish.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) divide translation strategies or translation procedures as they call them, in two categories as previously stated: *direct* (or literal) *translation* and *oblique translation*, which comprise seven procedures taking into account three levels of style: *lexical*, *morphosyntactic* and *semantic*. Three of the procedures are classified as *direct translation* and four of them are identified as *oblique*. The classification of the two categories and their corresponding strategies goes as follows:

- Direct translation strategies: when the message on the SL can be directly transferred to the TL because there is structural or extra-linguistic parallelism. These include:
 - *Barrowing*: a word is taken directly from another language (SL) and employed with its same form in the TT without translation. This strategy is used in different languages in order to fill a semantic gap in the TT (e.g. English: “*I always buy the **light** version of dairy products*” versus Spanish: “*Siempre compro la versión **light** de los productos lácteos*”)
 - *Calque*: a special kind of borrowing where the SL phrase or expression is literally translated word-for-word to create a new lexeme in the TL, while respecting the syntactical structures of the SL (e.g. Latin “*via lacteal*” turns into English “*milky way*”)
 - *Literal translation*: when a ST is translated word-for-word into a TT. Here the translator tries to respect the structure of the original as much as possible by keeping the format, extension and content of the ST in the TT. However, *literal translation* is not acceptable, if: a) has a different meaning as the original or has no meaning, b) is not possible because it changes the structure of the ST, c) is not equivalent to the same level of the language or d) does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL.
- Oblique translation strategies: valid when literal translation is not possible. They are applied when certain stylistic resources of the ST cannot be transferred without modifying the morphosyntax or lexis of the TT and include:

- *Transposition*: operates at a grammatical level and it involves the replacement of a word class of one part of the speech for another without changing the original message. It consists of changes in the word type or their sequence (e.g. English “*black and white*” turns into Spanish “*blanco y negro*”). Most common transpositions consist in changes of: *verbs* for *nouns*, *nouns* for *prepositions*, *adjectives* for *nouns*, *adverb* for *nouns*, *adverbs* for *adjectives*, *adverbs* for *verbs*, and *possessive articles* for *definite articles*. There are also changes in idiomatic constructions such as *participle + adverbial phrase* for *noun + participle*.
- *Modulation*: consists in the variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning. It involves a change of perspective: the translator uses a phrase that is different in the SL and the TL to transfer the same idea. This strategy entails a shift in the semantics and the point of view of the SL and it is accepted in those contexts where either a literal or a transposed translation sounds unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL, although the result is grammatically correct.
- *Equivalence*: refers to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. An utterance of the ST is replaced in the TT with one that fulfills the same pragmatic function, although it differs in form and meaning. This strategy is mainly used for the translation of idioms, proverbs and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds.
- *Adaptation*: implies changing the cultural reference when the cultural-specific peculiarities of the ST do not exist in the target culture and they must be eliminated or replaced by other cultural-specific peculiarities appropriate in the TT. Adaptations are particularly common in the translation of film and book titles. (Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) in Cela Gutiérrez (2018))

1.2 Hedge or Hedging? Concept

According to Markkanen & Schröder (1997) and Clemen (1997), hedging was first identified as a linguistic phenomenon in the mid-1960s. It was linguist George Lakoff (1973) who first defined

hedges more specifically as “words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness – words whose job is to make things fuzzier.”

Another of the early and well-known definitions for hedges was provided by Lyons (1977). He defines them as: “Any utterance in which the speaker explicitly qualifies his commitment to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence he utters”. However, Hyland (1998) states:

“[...] hedges are rhetorical means for projecting due caution, modesty and humility when making statements, and their removal is a major linguistic means of conferring greater certainty on propositions.”

Hyland (1998) also separated the terms **hedging** and **hedge** with the former conveying “lack of complete commitment” or “a desire not to express commitment categorically” and the latter as the devices used to express this phenomenon. But the author did not explicitly distinguish between the two terms and seemed to present them as the same. On the other hand, for Schröder and Zimmer (2000):

A hedge is either defined as one or more lexico-syntactical elements that are used to modify a proposition, or else, as a strategy that modifies a proposition. The term hedging is used to refer to the textual strategies of using linguistic means as hedges in a certain context for specific communicative purposes, such as politeness, vagueness, mitigation, etc.

Getkham (2011) defined hedging as a mechanism with the main function of managing the tone, attitude, and information within spoken or written discourse. Hedges are mainly used to avoid proposing statements absolutely and reducing the force of them. The writer can use hedges as a tool for reducing his/her commitment to the written production and for presenting his/her statements cautiously and not absolutely.

The present study will follow Hyland’s 1998 point of view using the term hedging to describe the phenomenon and the term hedge or hedging devices to describe the lexical realization of hedging. Therefore, hedges will be perceived hereinafter as those words or phrases expressing caution, hesitation or uncertainty regarding the truth value or level of precision in a statement.

Hedging expressions pose a challenge to the translator because their identification is not always straightforward and their meanings are ultimately subjective. When dealing with hedges, translators need to take the style and meaning of the ST into consideration while still making sure that the TT fits naturally into the target culture.

Hedges are worth studying from a translational perspective as they may be treated differently, and used more or less frequently, in different languages. Hedges originate in the author's intentions with his/her text. The problem in the identification and translation of hedges is that the author's intentions are rarely known to the translator.

Therefore, the present study identifies two clear pedagogical justifications for addressing hedging as an important linguistic function and for assisting learners to develop an awareness of the principles and mechanics of its use, these two from a translational perspective, of course. First, it has been stated that foreign language students frequently tend to give the same weight or interpretation to hedged statements. Since comprehending a text—intrinsic skill for translation—entails both decoding information and understanding the writer's intention, it is of prime importance for translation students to be able to recognize hedging in written texts. Second, the appropriate use of hedging strategies in the TL is a significant communicative resource for students at any proficiency level, and it plays an important part in demonstrating their competence as translators.

1.2.1 Classification of Hedging Devices

Several studies have revealed that the identification of hedges is ultimately subjective and that some are easily overlooked due to their assertive nature, while other words may be falsely identified as hedges. This motivates extra carefulness by the translator, to make sure that only real hedges are transferred to the TT as such. In order to facilitate their recognition, researchers have attempted to develop a taxonomy or classification.

However, even if there is a general consensus on the function and purpose of hedging devices, the classification of hedges is not very clear. Nonetheless, there are those who tried to classify hedges for various study purposes (e.g. Skelton, 1988; Hinkel, 1997; Crompton, 1997; Koutsantoni, 2004). Although different taxonomies have been used for the categorization of

hedging, the present study will only review fourth of them. The first classification is the one proposed by Salager-Meyer (1994) where hedges are expressed through the use of:

- *Modal auxiliary verbs*: these are the most straightforward and widely used means of expressing modality in English, the most tentative ones being: *may, might, can, could, will, would, should*.
- *Modal lexical verbs*: or speech act verbs, they are used to perform acts such as doubting and evaluating rather than merely describing. They have a varying degree of illocutionary force, the most common ones being: *to seem, to appear* (epistemic verbs), *to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate*. Although a wide range of verbs can be used in this way, there tends to be a heavy reliance on the above-mentioned examples.
- *Adjectival, adverbial, and nominal modal phrases*: These forms of hedges include probability adjectives: e.g., possible, probable, un/likely; nouns: e.g., assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion; and adverbs (which could be considered as non-verbal nouns): e.g., perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually, apparently.
- *Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time*: This can be realized, for example, through: *approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally, generally, usually, somewhat, somehow, a lot of*.
- *Introductory phrases*: These can be realized through phrases such as: *I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that*, which express the author's personal doubt and direct involvement.
- *If clauses*: This is usually realized through the use of the following phrases: *if true, if anything*.
- *Compound hedges*: these are phrases made up of several hedges, the most common forms being: a modal auxiliary combined with a lexical verb with a hedging content (e.g., *it would appear*) and a lexical verb followed by a hedging adverb or adjective where the adverb (or adjective) reinforces the hedge already inherent in the lexical verb (e.g., *it seems reasonable/probable*). Such compound hedges can be double hedges (*it may suggest that; it seems likely that; it would indicate that; this probably indicates*); treble hedges (*it seem*

reasonable to assume that); quadruple hedges (*it would seem somewhat unlikely that, it may appear somewhat speculative that*), and so on.

The second classification presented in this research is the one proposed by Hyland (1998), which is perhaps the most widely used in the field of academic writing. According to him, hedging can be achieved through:

- Modal auxiliaries and semi-modal verbs (*may, might, can, could, etc.*)
- Verbs (*seem, believe, appear, estimate, argue, etc.*)
- Epistemic adjectives (*possible, approximate, uncertain*)
- Epistemic adverbs (*slightly, presumably, merely, partly, etc.*)
- Quantifiers/determiners (*a few, some, many*)
- Nouns (*assumption, estimate, suggestion, claim*)

The third taxonomy example it is a similar but somewhat more comprehensive classification, the one proposed by Fraser (2010). Fraser categorizes hedges into the following:

- Adverbs / adjectives: *approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally, generally, sort of*
- Impersonal pronouns: *one, it*
- Concessive conjunctions: *although, though, while, whereas, even though, even if*
- Hedged performative (use of modal to hedge performative verb): *must*
- Indirect Speech Acts: *Could you speak a little louder?*
- Introductory phrases: *I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that*
- Modal adverbs: *perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, presumably, apparently*
- Modal adjectives: *possible, probable, un/likely*
- Modal noun: *assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion*
- Modal verbs: *might, can, would, could*
- Epistemic verbs: *to seem, to appear, to believe, to assume, to suggest*
- Negative question convey positive hedged assertion: *Didn't Harry leave?*
- Reversal tag: *He's coming, isn't he?*
- Agentless Passive: *Many of the troops were injured.*
- Conditional subordinators: *as long as, so long as, assuming that, given that, unless*
- Progressive form: *I am hoping you will come.*

- Tentative Inference: *The mountains should be visible from here.*
- Conditional clause refers to the condition under which the speaker makes the utterance: *If you're going my way, I need a lift back.*
- Metalinguistic comment: *strictly speaking, so to say, exactly, almost, just about*

The fourth and final taxonomy that will be mentioned as example is the one developed by Uysal (2014) that groups all these hedges in three major headings: *rhetorical devices*; *syntactic markers*; and *lexical and referential markers*. In this classification, rhetorical devices are structures in a sentence like denials, disclaimers, ambiguity markers, and vagueness markers; syntactic markers are hedging devices like passive voices and if conditionals; and lexical and referential markers are those that function as point of view distancing, downtoners, demonstratives, discourse particles, diminutives, and indefinite pronouns.

Harouni (2001) argues that:

The translator must have linguistic capacities which enable him to convey the meaning of the source language piece of discourse by using expressions in the target language that are not only grammatical but also culturally appropriate and native alike.

Thus, what helps the translator to succeed in his/her profession is mastering pragmatic and linguistic knowledge about both languages and cultures. The translator must pay attention to all what is linguistically, socially and culturally different and specific in order to produce an accurate and effective translation.

This variety of hedging devices and their multifunctionality may sometimes lead to considerable confusion when researching and interpreting hedging strategies. The way out could be a rigid delineation of items under discussion as was done by Vold (2006) in her study on epistemic modality markers. In this research, however, no clear-cut list of items to be investigated will be made; the study will focus mainly on those hedges intended to fulfill the hedging strategies of depersonalization, detachment, modesty, humility, deference, solidarity, provisionality, tentativeness, justification, indetermination and accuracy level.

The present research also supports Markkanen & Schröder (2006, cited in Buitkienė, 2008) perspective. They declare that no “clear-cut lists of hedging expressions are possible” because “no

linguistic items are inherently hedgy but can acquire this quality depending on the communicative context or the co-text.” Therefore, it can be said that a word can serve as a hedge depending on the context. Fraser (2010) also supports this point of view; according to him, it is difficult to classify them as there is no specific grammatical class of hedges since they can be taken from any syntactic category.

A variation in the use of hedging forms and functions across languages and disciplines was found during the literary review. This could be regarded as a potential problem for foreign language students who should be aware of the different forms and functions of hedging devices as well as their relative frequency across different contexts. This will help them use hedging accurately, with the intended stylistic effect and the right level of certainty or uncertainty.

Foreign language learners also need to know how to interpret different forms or structures used for hedging if they are training as translators. Students need to distinguish between different degrees of emphasis which writers may exert on their claims so that the translation obtained conveys the writer’s intentions. This means that they should be able to draw a distinction between observed facts, speculations and interpretations, and different degrees of certainty attributed to them.

Following the increasing interest in the use of hedging as a mitigating device, it was found that they can be more related to the discourse of specific genres. For instance, a number of studies (e.g. Hyland, 1994, 1998; Vartalla, 1999, 2001; Lewin, 2005; Atai & Sadr, 2006) have focused on the use of hedges in academic writing, theses, and articles in scientific journals. While other studies have also focused on hedging in the political discourses of presidential candidates and conference proposals (e.g. Al Rashidy, 2012; Uysal, 2014).

And, while there are research that considered hedging in newspaper editorials (e.g. Buitkiene, 2008; Tahririan & Shahzamani, 2009) the number of these studies seems to be minimal. This scenario is also described by Buitkiene (2008), who noted that the number of studies investigating the function of hedging in newspaper discourse is not as numerous as those studies dealing with academic or scientific discourses.

Tahririan and Shahzamani (2009) analyze that errors committed while using or interpreting hedges in journalistic language can cause “misunderstanding, misinterpretation, ambiguity, and

vagueness”, however, it appears that very little attention has been given to examining hedging in newspaper discourse. Taking this fact into consideration, the present study will focus on analyzing hedging in newspaper discourse from a translational perspective, in order to propose strategies for the correct translation of such pragmatic devices.

1.2.2 Hedging Devices in the Field of Translation

Hedging and other similar pragmatic phenomena have received substantial attention within the context of pragmatics and related fields in recent decades (e.g. Salager-Meyer, 1994; Markkanen & Schröder, 1997; Hyland, 1998b; Fraser, 2010). As well, hedging has been recognized as a potential problem in intercultural communication, therefore, it is not surprising that mastering such pragmatic devices has been the object of study of several researchers in the field of second/foreign language learning, namely Hyland & Milton (1997), Wishnoff (2000) and Hinkel (2005), among others.

However, research aiming at the challenges associated with hedging in translation, an area of language contact where intercultural pragmatic differences also play a decisive role, have been rather unusual according to this research’s literary review. Therefore, this study aims at providing some insights on the subject specifically in relation to strategies for the translation of hedging devices. To carry out the data analysis for the present research, the authors consider pertinent to adhere to Salanger-Mayer’s 1994 taxonomy and combine it with that of Hyland (1998). These two are the most frequently used by most authors; therefore, their appropriateness has already been proved.

1.3 English Journalistic/Newspaper Discourse

The common use of hedges in journalistic or newspaper discourse (hereinafter used as newspaper discourse) can cause problems for foreign language students who may not be aware of the functions associated with this linguistic feature. Errors in recognizing hedges in newspaper discourse can cause misunderstanding, misinterpretation, ambiguity and vagueness as stated in the previous epigraph. One may seem more assertive or uncertain or may cause misunderstanding and

incorrect conclusion about the intended meaning. In addition, the hedging phenomenon can cause many difficulties and problems for foreign language students in writing, reading or even translating journalistic texts. The latter being the focus of the present study.

When describing the English newspaper style, Galperin (1977) stated:

(...) all kinds of newspaper writing are to a greater or lesser degree both informative and evaluative. (...) The newspaper also seeks to influence public opinion on political and other matters. Elements of appraisal may be observed in the very selection and way of presentation of news, in the use of specific vocabulary, such as *allege* and *claim*, casting some doubt on the facts reported, and syntactic constructions indicating a lack of assurance on the part of the reporter as to the correctness of the facts reported or his desire to avoid responsibility. (...) But, of course, the principal vehicle of interpretation and appraisal is the newspaper article.

The style of newspapers, formed in the English language in the middle of 19th century, has come a long way of shaping. The first English newspaper was published in 1622, since then, the history of the English newspaper discourse began. For years, newspapers have been one of the main sources of information and thanks to their presence in the Internet they stay up to date till today.

The language seen on newspapers has its own lexical and stylistic peculiarities. For example, according to Williams (1981), argumentative texts like editorials strengthen the relationship between the writer and the reader through the use of interactional metadiscourse markers. Among these markers, hedges are essential features for writers to clarify their epistemic stance and position related to the writer–reader interaction.

Fairclough (1995) states that “if something is explicitly present in a text, it may be informationally foregrounded or informationally backgrounded.” Journalists might choose to emphasize and minimize different parts of their texts, depending on where they want to lead the audience. Here, hedges act as means of backgrounding information; they are “devices which withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than fact” (Hyland, 1998).

Linguists have stated that the language of newspapers is quite different from, for instance, business language or academic language. Everything that is written in a newspaper has to be transmitted through the medium of language and this entails encoding values into the message. Hedges mark the unwillingness of the writer to present propositional information unconditionally and certainly (Hyland, 2004). Through presenting information as an opinion rather than a fact, they emphasize the subjectivity of a position and therefore open that position to negotiation.

Each language community has its own culture and norms which prescribe content, style and rhetorical structure (Árvay & Tanko, 2004). Foreign language students' awareness of such norms can help them to properly decode the author's intended meaning or to write effectively for another community with different discourse. Neglecting these rules can hinder readers' comprehension.

Journalism fulfills several functions. It is said to work as a means of entertainment, a form of business, an entity that enables “citizens to better understand their lives and their position(s) in the world” (Richardson, 2006). Surrounding elements of the reporting discourse might have an impact on the way this discourse is perceived by the audience. For instance, the journalist might show partial agreement with the reported statements and question their truthfulness by employing hedges.

Recently, some substantial insights into the linguistic features of newspaper language have been provided. A very interesting line of research concerns the analysis of the frequency of certain linguistic features, such as modals, stance adverbials, etc. which usually encode evaluations in multilingual corpora. Murphy's 2005 study, for example, analyses first person verbs and impersonal structures with evaluative functions, adverbs of stance and reporting markers before that-clauses in comparable corpora of English and Italian opinion articles on the 1999 Kosovo crisis.

As it has been shown, hedging is inherent to newspaper discourse and the correct interpretation of its meaning for the purpose of translation can sometimes be troublesome, reinforcing the impact a research of this sort could have. However, analyzing the field of translation of news can also shed some light to the present study.

1.3.1 Translation of News

As news consumers we are usually unaware of the origin of news texts (written or multimodal), even though translation has always been at the base of news production. In the 17th and 18th centuries, news pamphlets were transported and translated across Europe. French news was translated into Catalan and Spanish, while German papers into Scandinavian languages (Valdeón, 2012).

In the United States, newspapers in port cities obtained international news from “periodicals aboard incoming ships” (Hamilton, 2009), often from French, German and Spanish newspapers. Hamilton (2009) mentions the interesting case of James G. Bennett (1795-1872), founder of the *New York Herald*. To compete with other publications, Bennett had a very inventive way of accessing foreign news:

“The *Herald*’s first issue contained two columns of LATE AND IMPORTANT FROM EUROPE. He sent news boats to meet ships farther out than his competitors did; the boats took the news to Montauk Point, where news messengers boarded a locomotive bound for New York.” (Hamilton, 2009)

However, although translation was and remains crucial for the news production process, journalists rarely regard themselves as translators: “When journalists talk about translation, they tend to be thinking of what others might term literal translation” (Bielsa and Bassnett, 2009). For news producers, translation is an activity that comes in second place within the news writing process, because news outlets do not normally employ trained translators: translation is carried out by journalists (Gambier 2010), often in an invisible manner. In fact, it can be argued that news translation is indeed much more invisible, both as a process and as a product, than literary translation (Venuti, 2008).

Over the past two decades, news translation has increasingly attracted the interest of translation studies researchers. Two major books, one by Hernández Guerrero and one by Bielsa and Bassnett, were published in 2009. An edited collection with articles in French, English and Spanish came out the following year (Valdeón, 2010). And special issues of two major translation journals have also been devoted to news translation, namely, 11 (2) of *Across Languages and Cultures* (2010) and 57 (4) of *Meta* (2012).

However, news translation research needs to consider: textual factors, translational shifts, cognitive aspects, as well as the social agents involved in the production process. Translated news stories allow media companies to reduce costs, as they do not require the investment of sending reporters to investigate facts (Hamilton, 2010). In the current information society, news producers draw on agency wires, correspondents' reports, and articles published by associated media or simply by other outlets. Hamilton (2010) further states that once the story is published other outlets can rapidly circulate the details in a more or less manipulated way.

The globalized world along with the requirements of the information society place the media, and news translation, in the public interest, and put special constraints on the work of the translator. The critical examination of news as discourse has been in the focus of attention over the last 30 years, and a similar increase of interest may be observed in the study of translating news discourse. News translation is different from any other type of translation as it is influenced by norms similar to those regulating the production of news (Bielsa, 2010). There is considerable evidence (e.g. Bielsa and Bassnett 2009; Valdeón 2010) to suggest that the translation of certain news genres involves various kinds of transformations, modifications in the contents of news stories, thus requiring special skills on the part of the translator.

According to Károly (2012), the stereotypical characteristics of translating news have been studied from several angles, focusing on:

- language-pair-specific considerations;
- the special role(s) of the news translator and the translation strategies resulting from these roles;
- particular components of the discourse structure of news stories (e.g. titles, headlines, leads); and,
- various, suprasentential aspects of complete news texts (e.g. logical structure, thematic structure, ideology) (Károly, 2012)

The outcomes of research on the characteristics and strategies of the news translator suggest, as previously stated in this research, that the news translator has a complex role. Vidal (2005, cited in Bielsa 2007) argues that:

(...) the news translator is, maybe because of the nature of the medium in which she writes, a recreator, a writer, limited by the idea she has to recreate and by the journalistic genre in which her translation has to be done.

From this it follows that the special nature of this form of translation requires skills that raise the status of news translation from simple text reproduction to creative production, thus transforming the translator into a target language author. Tymoczko and Gentzler (2002) state on this issue of news translation that:

Translation thus is not simply an act of faithful reproduction but, rather, a deliberate and conscious act of selection, assemblage, structuration, and fabrication – and even, in some cases, of falsification, refusal of information, counterfeiting, and the creation of secret codes. In these ways translators, as much as creative writers and politicians, participate in the powerful acts that create knowledge and shape culture.

In the context of translation studies, shifts in hedging have been examined in translations of a variety of genres, including scientific texts (Markkanen and Schröder, 1989), political texts (Schäffner, 1998) and popular science writing (Kranich, 2011). While not specifically focusing on hedging, Gumul's (2011) analysis of changes in the translations of English-language newspaper articles on the conflict in Iraq published in a Polish magazine reveals that shifts in epistemic modality contribute to an altered point of view of the target text. Of course, published translations of newspaper discourse are quite specific.

Schäffner (2012) points out that news translation in fact involves adaptation of the text “to suit the target audience, the in-house style, and/or ideological positions of the newspaper”. It is therefore likely that at least some modifications of hedging in published journalistic texts reflect deliberate editorial decisions. The issue of editorial adaptation, which may vary substantially depending on the policy of the newspaper, is beyond the scope of this study. The focus here is on the strategies employed when translating hedges; but, to analyze first the hedges used in the target newspaper discourse this research will resort to corpus linguistics.

1.4 Corpus Linguistics

Corpus linguistics is a method for carrying out linguistic analyses on the basis of computerized corpora. Usually, the analysis is performed with the help of the computer and takes into account the frequency of the phenomena investigated (Nesselhau, 2005).

In relation to the importance of corpus linguistics, Orr (2006) notes:

Corpus linguistics has much to offer in the field of professional communication, for it allows researchers to study spoken or written discourse in considerable detail, which can yield information about language structure or use that is normally beyond the grasp of intuition and personal experience. By carefully designing corpora that are representative of language as it is actually being used today (or was used in the past) and then analyzing the data with proper methods and technologies, researchers can better understand a rather wide variety of things that might be of use to professional communicators as well as to those who support them (Orr, 2006).

Today, generalized corpora are hundreds of millions of words in size, and corpus linguistics is making outstanding contributions to the fields of second language research and teaching (Bennett, 2010). Bennett also claims that many notable scholars have contributed to the development of modern-day corpus linguistics such as Leech, Biber, Johanson, Francis, Hunston, Conrad and McCarthy, to name just a few. These scholars have made substantial contributions to corpus linguistics, both past and present.

Many corpus linguists, however, consider John Sinclair to be one of, if not the most, influential scholar of modern-day corpus linguistics. Sinclair detected that a word in and of itself does not carry meaning, but that meaning is often made through several words in a sequence. This is the idea that forms the backbone of corpus linguistics (Bennett, 2010).

Römer & Wulff (2010) also state that corpus linguistics can assist the researcher to assess and describe a linguistic phenomenon. It is fundamentally incompatible only with linguistic frameworks in which theoretical assumptions and hypotheses guide the analysis. The importance of a corpus-based approach to texts resides in the fact that a much larger amount of language data can be examined in a short period of time, and new aspects about language can be captured and described (Römer & Wulff, 2010).

In the field of translation it was Mona Baker who pioneered the corpus-based trend in the early 90s. She started collecting corpora of translated texts to uncover the distinctive patterns of translation. In short, corpus linguistics has been very useful for nearly a century when it comes to analyzing certain aspects of language in use or determining linguistic phenomena.

1.4.1 Corpus Analysis

According to Synclair (2004), a corpus is a collection of pieces of language text selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of data for linguistic research. Bennett (2010) also defines a corpus as a collection of authentic texts stored electronically that can be used to discover information about language.

Corpora are composed from textbooks, fiction, nonfiction, magazines, academic papers, world literature, newspapers, telephone or cellphone conversations, business meetings, class lectures, radio broadcasts and TV shows, among other communication acts. In short, according to Bennett (2010), any real life situation in which any linguistic communication takes place can form a corpus. It can be a written corpus, a spoken corpus, an academic spoken corpus, etc.

This approach makes extensive use of computers for analysis. One cannot effectively utilize corpora, or employ the corpus approach, without a computer (Bennett, 2010). Computer-based systems and data retrieval render better results when compared to traditional paper-based methods, since they enable a deeper insight and approach and the discovery of more specific features of the translated language. The major reason for using computer corpora is the quality of linguistic evidence, particularly on collocations and typical uses of lexical items.

Corpus analysis can provide relevant information about how frequently some words or sequences of words, phrases and idiomatic expressions, register, collocations are used within a compiled corpus. It also provides data on the differences between spoken and written language, most frequently used tenses and prepositional verbs, etc.

Nowadays, there is also a growing application of corpora in foreign language teaching and learning as a didactic tool. As such, corpora are used to reinforce language learning, to improve

translation strategies and skills acquisition, and to develop linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge through the translation shift analysis.

The use of computer corpus in translation studies research focuses on identifying regularities of the language of translated texts in a corpus, which can be then compared to non-translated language finding the main differences and establishing the norms applicable during the work of translation. Baker (1998) suggests that using corpus-based analysis of translations, some characteristic features of the texts, such as grammatical standardization and frequency of common words, can be obtained.

1.4.2 Types of corpora

According to Kennedy (1998) and Brook O'Donnell (2008), there are many types of corpora, which can be used for different kinds of analysis. Therefore, researches, when dealing with a corpus-based study, need to have a clear idea of what they intend to achieve through such corpus. Some examples of corpus types according to the former two authors are:

- Sample Corpus: a fixed sample of text often used as a reference corpus for comparing.
- Monitor Corpus: a corpus which develops and is added to or filtered depending on the researcher's needs.
- Monolingual Corpus: a corpus comprised of texts in only one language.
- Multilingual Corpus: corpus in a variety of languages.
- Translation Corpus: two or more sets of texts classified as either originals or translations, the purpose being to identify features of translation
- General/reference corpora: a corpus aiming at representing a language or variety as a whole (contains both spoken and written language, different text types etc.).
- Historical corpora: a corpus aiming at representing an earlier stage or earlier stages of a language.
- Regional corpora: a corpus aiming at representing one regional variety of a language.
- Learner corpora: a corpus aiming at representing the language as produced by learners of this language. (Kennedy, 1998; Brook O' Donnell, 2008)

Moreover, according to Fernández (2006), corpora can be classified as synchronic or diachronic regarding the time period. Synchronic corpora focus on the study of language within a limited time frame, whereas diachronic corpora are used to study the development of a language over a long period of time (Fernández, 2006).

Bennett (2010), on the other hand, argues that there are approximately eight types of corpora –generalized, specialized, learner, pedagogic, historical, parallel, comparable, and monitor– and which type should be used depends on the purpose for the corpus (Bennett, 2010).

Other authors talk about parameters to classify corpora and argue that such parameters are very important in order to simplify and do faster and more accurate searches. Torruella Casañas (2017) claims that several factors must be considered to classify corpora and suggests a series of parameters have in order to make an accurate and practical classification of types of corpus. This author suggests that the description of the type of corpus not only responds to one specific parameter (general or specialized, synchronic or diachronic, etc.), but it is actually the sum of several factors. Torruella Casañas' 2017 classification provides a list of different parameters and the types of corpus according to such parameters. The classification goes as follow:

1. Modality: oral, written or mixed
2. Subject: general or specialized
3. Period of time: contemporary or historical
4. Temporality: synchronic or diachronic
5. Size: large or restricted
6. Assessment: open, closed or monitor
7. Distribution: proportional or equivalent
8. Number of editions: mono-edition or multi-edition
9. Number of words: monolingual or multilingual
10. Type of edition: photographic reproduction, paleographic edition, normalized text or critical text
11. Sample: textual, reference or lexical
12. Marking: simple or labeled

Following the above classification, the corpus selected for this study can be classified according to the parameters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 9. So, the corpus compiled is classified as written, specialized, contemporary, synchronic, restricted and multilingual. A more specific description of the corpus will be provided in the following chapter.

Using such corpus for the purpose of this study would help to improve students' knowledge of normal patterns of the target language, namely hedges, and to increase the quality of translation once strategies for the translation of hedges have been identified.

1.4.3 Use of Corpora in Translation Studies

Throughout the history of translation studies some trends have been developed in order to explain the successful practice of translation and to establish principles for practitioners. One of the most promising current approaches to translation research is the corpus-based approach and, as previously stated, it will be used as the basis of the present research.

Mona Baker (1998), pioneer in the use of corpus analysis in translation studies, predicted that large corpora would allow translation studies researchers to reveal the true nature of the translated text "as a mediated communicative event". Since then, a great number of researchers have considered the corpus-based approach as a new perspective within which translation and translating can be studied. The value of such corpus-based approach has also been recognized by linguists as a new way to study languages and various designs of corpora have been developed by translators in order to facilitate the comprehension of the source language texts and to improve the translation process.

The approach of the translation studies based on corpora may provide insights into the characteristics of language when used for translation vs. the language used for monolingual communication. This approach may also provide access to the general characteristics of the target language in relation to different source languages.

Corpora offer several benefits when investigating translations: large amounts of material make it possible to study whether or not the characteristic phenomena of translations suggested in earlier studies really exist; corpora are excellent when comparing translated language with non-

translated language and, more importantly, the conclusions based on large corpora are more reliable than those based on small samples and intuitions. Now, with the widely used computer-assisted, corpus-based analyses, a new descriptive research in translation studies has been developed. By studying a corpus made of a group of source language texts we can formulate some universals about the usage and incidence of certain linguistic features or choices employed by the writer.

A corpus-based approach in the field of translation studies can help to codify in compact and efficient forms enormous quantities of information to access and to examine—more information than any human being might examine in a productive life without electronic help. Also, the approach allows and promotes the construction of information fields that satisfy a new international, multicultural intellectualism, assuring the inclusion of information of small and big populations, of minority as well as majority languages and cultures. The corpus-based approach has changed in a qualitative and a quantitative way the content and methods of translation studies as a discipline, in a way that fits with the modes of the information era.

The potential of using corpora to investigate in a manageable form the details of language-specific phenomena of many different languages and cultures in translation constitutes the principal request of this new approach to translation studies. Tymoczko (1998), states that translation research based on corpora concentrates on the process and products of translation, and it considers the smallest details as well as the largest internal and external cultural patterns to the texts. With a corpus-based approach there is an increasing commitment to integrate linguistic approaches and cultural-studies approaches to translation, an awareness of the role of ideology when it affects text, context, translation and the theory, practice and pedagogy of translation, adapting modern technologies to the needs and targets of the discipline.

The corpus-based approach in the field of translation arises as a paradigm that covers many different aspects of the translational phenomenon and concerned with revealing the universal and the specific characteristics of the texts, through the interaction of theoretical concepts and hypotheses, variety of information, new descriptive categories and a rigorous, flexible methodology, which can be applied to inductive and deductive research, as well as product - and process-oriented studies. As proven by some researchers in the field of translation studies, the use

of a corpus-based approach selected as basis for the present study on the use of hedging in newspaper texts and the strategies for its translation constitutes the foremost choice.

1.5 Conclusions of Chapter I

The objective of this chapter was to review the bibliography concerned with the topic of the present research. As such, it addressed the topics of translation, translation theory, translation studies, translation strategies, hedges, newspaper discourse, news translation and corpus analysis. Therefore, some theoretical insights were presented on these issues.

Chapter II: Methodology and Analysis

In the present chapter, the methodology, context and stages of the research are presented. In addition, the sample is described, and the analysis of translation strategies is offered. Finally, a proposal of translation strategies for modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices is also provided in the final part.

2.1 Methodology, Context and Stages

2.1.1 Methodology

This research holds a mixed-method approach since, as a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data. Through this approach it is possible to obtain a better understanding of research problems than using either approach alone (Plano, 2011).

As such, the methods used were: *Historical-Logical* to study the logical and historical development of the main theoretical principles used in this research; *Analysis and Synthesis* to contrast, analyze, evaluate and generalize the existing tendencies and the collected data for the purpose of this research; *Induction and Deduction* to make deductions, analysis and abstractions, which were subsequently used in the corpus analysis; *Traditional Document Analysis* to carry out a detailed textual and documentary analysis, written material was used and historical context and background was taken into account; and *Content Analysis* to determine the corpus information regularities, to find the hedging devices present and to identify the strategies for their translation.

2.1.2 Context

The present research was carried out at Universidad Central “Marta Abreu” de Las Villas, School of Humanities, English Language Department. It was aimed at identifying the strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices in the compiled corpus and proposing then a set of strategies for the translation into Spanish of such devices in online aimed at improving translation for English Language Studies students at the UCLV.

2.1.3 Stages

The whole research process consisted of three (3) main stages:

First stage: the bibliographic review to create a theoretical framework consisting of the main concepts and aspects related to the topic in research. Hence, concepts such as translation, translation theory, studies and strategies, hedges and corpus linguistics were analyzed, as well as the evolution of news translation, hedging translation and the use of corpus in the field of translation.

Second stage: the compilation of the corpus according to the specificities necessary for the present research. In this stage, the hedging devices used in the English version of the corpus were identified (with the software AntConc), as well as the strategies for the translation into Spanish of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices. For this analysis, the theoretical framework of Chapter I was taken into account.

Third stage: the creation of a set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change as a tool for improving translation for 5th year English Language Studies students at UCLV.

2.2. Description of the sample

The sample for the current research consists of a corpus of 100 texts divided in two sections (see Appendix 1). The first section comprises 50 online newspaper articles originally written in English by native speakers, and the second section comprises the official translation into Spanish of those 50 online newspaper articles.

The articles were taken from the newsroom sections of the official websites of three international and regional environmental agencies namely the *United Nations Environmental Programme* (30 articles), the *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change* (34 articles) and the *European Environmental Agency* (36 articles). These three international and regional agencies were chosen because, as such, all their working languages are given the same degree of importance, which increases the chances of finding some information in more than one language. Furthermore, such agencies rely on the work of professional translators and follow their own translation guidelines.

For choosing the articles to create the corpus, the following criteria were taken into account:

- Authenticity: all the texts were originally written in English by native speakers and then translated into Spanish
- Date of publication: the texts were published between November 2015 and November 2019
- Text type: online newspaper articles
- Topic: climate change

As a whole, the corpus has approximately 99,900 words. The first section (English) is composed by around 40,750 words and the second (Spanish) by around 59,150 words. This somehow demonstrates that there is no one-to-one correspondence between English and Spanish, an aspect that needs to be taken into account when translating.

Overall, the corpus selected for this study can be classified according the parameters stated in the previous chapter as: *written* because it comprises only newspaper articles; *specialized* because it is limited to the topic of climate change; *contemporary* because the articles are from the 21st century, so the vocabulary used is also from the 21st century; *synchronic* because is limited to the period between November 2015 and November 2019; *restricted* because it comprises less than 100 million words; and *multilingual* specifically bilingual because half of the texts are written in English and the other half is their Spanish translation.

2.3. Analysis

For proposing of the set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate changes, the analysis was structured as fallow:

1. Identification of hedging devices present on the first (English) section of the corpus with the help of the software AntConc.
2. Localizing the Spanish translation of the hedging devices in the second (Spanish) section of the corpus.
3. Classification of the translation strategies applied in the Spanish section.
4. Creation of the proposal

These stages will be explained in the following sub-epigraphs.

2.3.1 Hedging Devices in the Corpus

2.3.1.1 AntConc, a Tool for Corpus Analysis

According to Anthony (2019), “AntConc is a freeware, multiplatform tool for carrying out corpus linguistics research and data-driven learning.” This software contains seven tools that can be easily accessed in the tool window. These tools are:

- Concordance Tool: This shows search results of the key words in context, which, in turn, allows seeing how words and phrases are commonly used in a corpus of texts.

- **Concordance Plot Tool:** This shows search results schemed as a 'barcode' format. This allows seeing the position where search results appear in target texts.
- **File View Tool:** This shows the text of individual files, which allows investigating in more detail the results generated in other tools of AntConc.
- **Clusters/N-Grams:** This shows clusters based on the search condition. It summarizes the results generated in the Concordance Tool or Concordance Plot Tool. The N-Grams Tool scans the entire corpus for 'N' (e.g. 1 word, 2 words ...) length clusters. This allows you to find common expressions in a corpus.
- **Collocates:** This tool shows the collocates of a search term and allows investigating non-sequential patterns in language.
- **Word List:** This tool counts all the words in the corpus and presents them in an ordered list which allows finding quickly which words are the most frequent in a corpus.
- **Keyword List:** This tool shows the which words are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the words in a reference corpus. This allows identifying characteristic words in the corpus. (Anthony, 2019)

For the present study, the tools used were: Concordance Tool, Concordance Plot Tool, File View Tool, Clusters/N-Grams, and Word List.

2.3.1.2 Hedging Devices Identified on the Corpus

In this first stage of the research, the English section of the corpus was analyzed using AntConc freeware. The first step was to upload the data in the software. The articles had been previously transformed from their web format into plain text format for better analysis. Using the Word List tool, the software showed that this section was formed by approximately 40,750 words. This tool also provided a complete list of all the words used in the corpus and their frequency of usage in the text. With the help of this tool, most function words were also identified as opposed to content words, and were later taken from the general analysis Table 1 bellow shows these results:

***Table 1** Results of a first analysis*

	Number of words
Total	40,750

Function words	11,820
Content words	28,630

According to Labarta Postigo and Suau Jiménez (2017), pragmatic elements such as hedging devices usually represent a mere 2 % of a text if compared quantitatively to its propositional content. However, hedging devices are of extreme importance from the qualitative point of view, since they are meant to establish interpersonal links due to their function. For this analysis, function words (articles and most commonly used prepositions and conjunctions) have been disregarded and hedging devices will be analyzed compared to content words.

After establishing this first criterion, a second analysis of the results provided for the Word List tool was carried out. In this second step, the words that are most commonly used as hedges were identified, as well as their frequency, to see whether there is representativeness in the compiled corpus. This raw analysis provided the data presented in Table 2 bellow.

***Table 2** Relation hedges-content words*

Content Words	Hedges	% of Representativeness
28,630	705	≈ 2,46 %

From these first raw data, and following Labarta Postigo and Suau Jiménez's (2017) postulates, it can be argued then that the selected corpus has been validated since it complies with the prerequisites for a study of this sort.

The 705 possible hedges identified are dividend, following Salenger-Meyer's 1994 classification, as presented in Table 3 bellow. It is worth noting that the use of the word possible in this point of the research is due to the fact that hedging devices can only be identified as such taking into account the content, and in this second step the analysis is being performed with the Word List tool that provides results out of context. Also, introductory phrases and compound hedges are not taken into account in this table for the same reason, such classification of hedges is composed by more than one word and it can be yet analyzed. If clauses are included taking into account the frequency of usage of the conjunction if.

Table 3 Possible hedges according to Salenger-Mayer (1994)

Classification	Number of examples	% Total
Modal auxiliary verbs	281	39,9
Modal verbs	108	15,3
Probability adjectives	32	4,5
Probability nouns	2	0,3
Probability adverbs	3	0,4
Approximators	258	36,6
Introductory phrases	-	-
If clauses	21	3
Compound hedges	-	-
Total	705	100

Moreover, according to Dafouz-Milne (2008), modal auxiliary verbs are the most frequently used in journalistic texts to express caution, hesitation or uncertainty regarding the truth value or level of precision in a statement. The results from the table above corroborate this statement. Approximators are the second most frequently used hedges followed by modal verbs, and then the rest to a lesser extent. Given these results, this study will only focus on identifying strategies for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs, and will leave the analysis of the other hedges for the moment when the present research is to be discussed as a dissertation for the Master's Degree Program of English Language for Intercultural Communication.

2.3.2 Strategies for the Translation of Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Using the Concordance Tool of the software AntConc, it was possible to discern whether the modal auxiliary verbs found in the previous analysis functioned as hedging devices. The modal auxiliary verbs studied and the frequency of usage on the text are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4 Modal auxiliary verbs

Modal auxiliary verbs	Frequency of usage
Can	175
Could	36
May	23
Might	6
Would	17

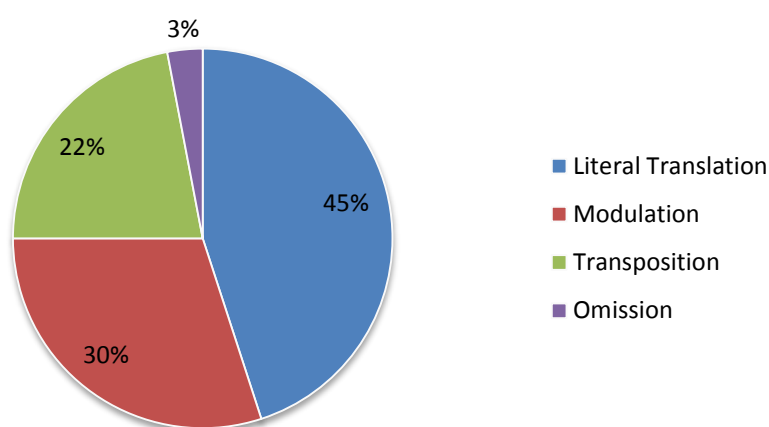
Should	24
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Only seven (7) out of these 281 examples were not used as hedging devices. With the Concordance Plot Tool, it was possible to identify where each example was located in the English section of the corpus to facilitate the location of its translation in the Spanish section. After this, a comparative analysis was performed to identify the translation strategies used.

Once performed this analysis, and following Vinay and Darbelnet's (1958) classification, it was identified that in the corpus the most common strategy for the translation of modal auxiliary verbs that function as hedging devices is **literal translation** ($\approx 45\%$). The other most common strategies were **modulation** ($\approx 30\%$) and **transposition** ($\approx 22\%$). The rest of the strategies according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) were not used and are not actually applicable for the translation of hedges.

It was interesting to observe that only in the approximately 3 % of the cases, these modal auxiliary verbs were not translated. This infrequent tendency highlights the important role played by hedging devices, and this is underscored by translators who around 97 % of times translate the hedging devices to maintain the author's intentions in the ST. These results can be better appreciated in Graph 1 bellow.

Graph 1 Translation strategies by percentage of use



2.3.3 Proposal

Based on the data obtained after the previous analysis, the most common strategies used for the translation of hedging devices (modal auxiliary verbs) in online English newspaper articles on climate change are: *literal translation*, *modulation* and *transposition*. At the same time, the omission of these hedges in the TT is avoided in order to maintain the original intentions of the ST author.

Literal translation implies a word-for-word translation that sticks too close to the ST; for such reason, sometimes it is disregarded as an option when translating into a language with a different root of that of the SL. Some argue that using this strategy is synonym of translations that sound unnatural in the TT and sometimes convey a meaning different of that of the ST. Even though English and Spanish do not share the same root, modal auxiliary verbs are commonly used in both languages which, in turn, justify the use of this strategy as a means to maintain the author's original intentions.

Modulation and transposition are the other two most frequently used translation strategies. They involve a variation in the form of the original message, word category or syntactic structure, elements that are adapted without modifying the meaning of the ST. These two strategies are used in the corpus in the cases where the literal translation is not possible given the peculiarities of the TL and its difference with the ST.

Therefore, this study's proposal is that, when translating hedging devices (modal auxiliary verbs) in online English newspaper articles on climate change, 5th year English Language Studies students at UCLV should take into account the set of translation strategies presented in Table 5 below, while trying to avoid the omission of such devices.

Table 5 *Set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices (modal auxiliary verbs)*

Translation Strategy	Definition
Literal Translation	Word-for-word translation where the translator tries to respect the structure of the original as much as possible by keeping the format, extension and content of the ST in the TT. Not acceptable if: a) has a different meaning as the original or has no meaning, b) is not possible because it changes the structure of the ST,

	c) is not equivalent to the same level of the language, or d) does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL.
Modulation	Variation of the form of the original message by modifying the point of view without changing the meaning. It involves a change of perspective: the translator uses a phrase that is different in the SL and the TL to transfer the same idea. This strategy entails a shift in the semantics and the point of view of the SL and it is accepted in those contexts where either a literal or a transposed translation sounds unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL, although the result is grammatically correct.
Transposition	It operates at a grammatical level and involves the replacement of a word class of one part of the speech for another without changing the original message. It consists of changes in the word type or their sequence. Most common transpositions consist in changes of: <i>verbs</i> for <i>nouns</i> , <i>nouns</i> for <i>prepositions</i> , <i>adjectives</i> for <i>nouns</i> , <i>adverb</i> for <i>nouns</i> , <i>adverbs</i> for <i>adjectives</i> , <i>adverbs</i> for <i>verbs</i> , and <i>possessive articles</i> for <i>definite articles</i> . There are also changes in idiomatic constructions such as <i>participle + adverbial phrase</i> for <i>noun + participle</i> .

2.4 Conclusions of Chapter II

This chapter presented the methodology, context and stages of the research. Moreover, the sample was described and the analysis of the corpus and the translation strategies for hedging devices in online English newspapers articles on climate change was offered step by step. At the end, the set of translation strategies was proposed.

Conclusions

Translation is an ancient practice that emerged to achieve communication between cultures speaking different languages. Translation Studies emerged as the discipline in charge of translation as a practice and but also as a science.

When a translator is faced with a specific problem, s/he unconsciously resorts to the knowledge s/he possesses on translation, this body of knowledge is known as translation theory. But, what to do when a problem arises? Translators have to find a way to solve such problem. It is then the moment in which translation strategies come to play as the conscious procedures for problem solving.

Hedging is one of the lexical realizations of language that poses the greatest challenge to non-professional practitioners as their pragmatic character could lead to misunderstanding. Not being able to comprehend the meaning of the hedged utterance hinders the translation process. As a stylistic device, hedging is embedded in several genres, discourses and fields. One of them is newspaper discourse due to its intrinsic evaluative character.

However, despite the research on hedging in different genres, most attention has been given to its utilization in academic writing. The study of hedging in newspaper discourse aiming at developing strategies for its translation has been rather scarce; reason why, with the help of corpus linguistic, this study is aimed at providing some insights on the subject.

Through the analysis of the compiled corpus it was found that the main strategies used for the translation of hedging devices (i.e. modal auxiliary verbs) are: Literal Translation, Modulation and Transposition, in order of usage. It was also found that translators, in order to maintain the essence and overall meaning of the text as well as the author's intentions, tend to avoid the Omission of hedging devices.

To this point, the present dissertation has managed to accomplish its objectives of establishing the theoretical foundations related to translation, hedging, and corpus linguistics; and somewhat designing a set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change for 5th year English Language students at UCLV, while establishing the novelty and usefulness of the topic.

Recommendations

The present research is included in the field of translation strategies applied to hedging in newspaper discourse. Thus, this could represent a contribution for the teaching and learning process of translation for 5th year English Language Studies students at UCLV. Therefore, the following recommendations should be taken into consideration:

- To complete the analysis of the hedging devices present in the corpus
- To complete the identification of the translation strategies used in the corpus for hedging devices
- To make a proposal based on the classification of hedging devices and not just in general as the result may vary from one classification to the other
- To continue this line of research in future projects to meet the needs of the students and professors
- To enlarge the corpus of the present research to other topics not only climate change
- To assess the proposed set of strategies for the translation of hedging devices in online English newspaper articles on climate change through specialists' criteria

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Appendix 1

Research Corpus

- A. Text in English
- B. Title of the text in English
- C. Text in Spanish
- D. Title of the text in Spanish
- E. Source

* Retrieved on March 10th, 2020

A	B	C	D	F
1	Preparing Europe for climate change: coordination is key to reduce risks posed by extreme weather.	1	Preparar a Europa para el cambio climático: la coordinación es fundamental para reducir los riesgos que conllevan las condiciones meteorológicas extremas.	www.eea.europa.eu
2	Europe's environment 2015: Future prosperity depends on bolder steps in policy, knowledge, investments and innovation.	2	El medio ambiente en Europa en 2015: el bienestar futuro depende de medidas más audaces en materia de política, conocimiento, inversión e innovación.	www.eea.europa.eu
3	Forty years of investments have improved Europe's bathing water.	3	Cuarenta años de inversiones han mejorado la calidad de las aguas de baño de Europa.	www.eea.europa.eu
4	Climate change poses increasingly severe risks for ecosystems, human health and the economy in Europe.	4	El cambio climático plantea riesgos cada vez más graves para los ecosistemas, la salud humana y la economía en Europa.	www.eea.europa.eu
5	What does nature mean to you? NATURE@work photo competition launched.	5	¿Qué significa la naturaleza para ti? Convocatoria del concurso de fotografía NATURE@work.	www.eea.europa.eu
6	European waters getting cleaner, but big challenges remain.	6	Las aguas europeas están cada vez más limpias, pero subsisten grandes desafíos.	www.eea.europa.eu
7	Increase in EU greenhouse gas emissions hampers progress towards 2030 targets.	7	El aumento de las emisiones de gases de efecto invernadero de la UE dificulta el avance hacia los objetivos de 2030.	www.eea.europa.eu
8	Rising energy consumption slows EU progress on renewables and energy efficiency targets.	8	El aumento del consumo de energía frena los avances de la UE en materia de energía renovable y los objetivos de eficiencia energética.	www.eea.europa.eu

9	EU Member States need more ambition to reach joint target on renewable energy.	9	Los Estados miembros de la UE necesitan más ambición para alcanzar un objetivo común en materia de energías renovables.	www.eea.europa.eu
10	More action needed to protect Europe's most vulnerable citizens from air pollution, noise and extreme temperatures.	10	Se necesitan más medidas para proteger a los ciudadanos más vulnerables de Europa de la contaminación atmosférica, el ruido y las temperaturas extremas.	www.eea.europa.eu
11	Copernicus — Monitoring Earth from space and the ground.	11	Copernicus: vigilando la Tierra desde el espacio y sobre el terreno.	www.eea.europa.eu
12	Soil, land and climate change.	12	El suelo, la tierra y el cambio climático.	www.eea.europa.eu
13	Governance — Acting together for sustainable land management.	13	Gobernanza: acciones conjuntas para una gestión sostenible de la tierra.	www.eea.europa.eu
14	Land and soil: towards the sustainable use and management of these vital resources.	14	Tierra y suelo: hacia un uso y una gestión sostenibles de estos recursos vitales.	www.eea.europa.eu
15	Land and soil in Europe — Ever-sprawling urban concrete?	15	La tierra y el suelo en Europa: ¿hormigón urbano en expansión?	www.eea.europa.eu
16	Europe's state of the environment 2020: change of direction urgently needed to face climate change challenges, reverse degradation and ensure future prosperity.	16	La situación del medio ambiente en Europa 2020: urge un cambio de rumbo para afrontar los desafíos del cambio climático, revertir la degradación y garantizar la prosperidad futura.	www.eea.europa.eu
17	Time to act for climate, nature and people.	17	Es hora de actuar por el clima, la naturaleza y los ciudadanos.	www.eea.europa.eu
18	The EEA's European environment — state and outlook 2020 report plays a key role in supporting Europe's renewed drive to sustainability.	18	El informe «El medio ambiente en Europa: Estado y perspectivas 2020» de la AEMA constituye un apoyo fundamental en el impulso renovado de Europa hacia la sostenibilidad.	www.eea.europa.eu

19	World's first green bonds scheme to finance responsible soy production in Brazil launched.	19	Lanzan el primer esquema de bonos verdes para financiar la producción sostenible de soja y maíz en Brasil.	www.unep.org
20	Costa Rica: the 'living Eden' designing a template for a cleaner, carbon-free world.	20	Costa Rica: abriendo el camino hacia un planeta más limpio	www.unep.org
21	The Dominican Republic embraces sustainable tourism.	21	República Dominicana sienta las bases de un turismo más sostenible.	www.unep.org
22	2020 is International Year of Plant Health.	22	2020 es el año internacional de la sanidad vegetal	www.unep.org
23	On the frontline of hurricane disaster. Gator Halpern is in no doubt at all that climate change is wreaking havoc.	23	Continúa restauración de corales en las Bahamas tras huracán Dorian	www.unep.org
24	Medellín shows how nature-based solutions can keep people and planet cool.	24	Medellín se refresca con intervenciones urbanas basadas en la naturaleza	www.unep.org
25	Guyana and UN Environment collaborate on strategy for environmental development.	25	Guyana se prepara para convertirse en un Estado verde	www.unep.org
26	Thundering youth call on power to act now.	26	La juventud llama a actuar ahora.	www.unep.org
27	Warming weather could reduce the nutritional value of rice.	27	Un clima más cálido podría reducir el valor nutricional del arroz	www.unep.org
28	Growing gap between ambition and action as the world prepares for a future with increasing climate risks.	28	La adaptación al cambio climático avanza a un ritmo insuficiente a nivel global	www.unep.org
29	Scientists warn of dangerous decline in Asia-Pacific's biodiversity.	29	Científicos advierten de un peligroso declive en la biodiversidad de Asia y el Pacífico	www.unep.org
30	Big step-up in ambition can open door to crucial pollution cuts from homes and workplaces worldwide.	30	Se requiere mayor ambición para reducir las emisiones de hogares y lugares de trabajo a nivel global	www.unep.org

31	Calling time on fossil fuel subsidies.	31	Se acaba el tiempo de los subsidios a los combustibles fósiles	www.unep.org
32	Double trouble: plastics found to emit potent greenhouse gases.	32	Un problema doble: el plástico también emite potentes gases de efecto invernadero	www.unep.org
33	Nations must triple efforts to reach 2°C target, concludes annual review of global emissions, climate action.	33	Países deben triplicar esfuerzos actuales para lograr objetivo climático de 2°C, revela informe de ONU Medio Ambiente	www.unep.org
34	Land is a Critical Resource, IPCC report says.	34	La gestión sostenible de los suelos es clave para enfrentar la crisis climática: reporte del IPCC	www.unep.org
35	“Business as usual” could lead to catastrophic global sea-level rise, says new study.	35	El aumento del nivel del mar tendría efectos catastróficos si no tomamos medidas ahora.	www.unep.org
36	Carbon Pricing Spreads as a Tool to Tackle Climate Change	36	El precio del carbono, herramienta cada vez más común para hacer frente al cambio climático	www.unfccc.int
37	New Era of Global Climate Action To Begin Under Paris Climate Change Agreement	37	Se abre una nueva era para la acción mundial sobre el clima bajo el Acuerdo de París	www.unfccc.int
38	Circular Economy Crucial for Paris Climate Goals	38	La economía circular es vital para cumplir con los objetivos del Acuerdo de París	www.unfccc.int
39	WMO Confirms Past 4 Years Were Warmest on Record	39	Los últimos cuatro años han sido los más cálidos desde que se tienen registros	www.unfccc.int
40	Delegates Gather to Boost Ambitious Climate Action in Africa	40	Los delegados se reúnen en África para impulsar una acción sobre el clima ambiciosa	www.unfccc.int
41	State of the Climate in 2018 Shows Accelerating Climate Change Impacts	41	El estado del clima en 2018 pone de manifiesto un aumento de los efectos del cambio climático	www.unfccc.int

42	Renewable Energy Accounts for Third of Global Power Capacity - IRENA	42	La energía renovable representa ya un tercio de la capacidad energética mundial, según IRENA	www.unfccc.int
43	Climate Change Is a Key Driver for Species Extinction	43	El cambio climático es un factor clave para la extinción de especies	www.unfccc.int
44	Climate Impacts Require 'Disaster-Resilient' Farming - UN	44	La ONU afirma que es necesaria una agricultura "resistente a los desastres" ante los impactos del clima	www.unfccc.int
45	Antonio Guterres: Healthy Ecosystems are 37% of the Climate Solution	45	António Guterres: "Unos ecosistemas saludables supondrían el 37% de la solución climática"	www.unfccc.int
46	Impacts of Climate Change on Sustainable Development Goals Highlighted at High-Level Political Forum	46	Los impactos del cambio climático en los objetivos de desarrollo sostenible, destacados en el Foro Político de Alto Nivel	www.unfccc.int
47	New UN Report Says Climate Crisis Driving Increase in Number of People Suffering from Hunger	47	Un nuevo informe de la ONU afirma que la crisis climática está provocando un aumento en el número de personas que padecen hambre	www.unfccc.int
48	Fossil Fuels Are Biggest Part of Global Ecological Footprint	48	Los combustibles fósiles comprenden la mayor parte de la huella ecológica mundial	www.unfccc.int
49	Climate Change and Biodiversity Loss Threaten SDGs - UN Report	49	El cambio climático y la pérdida de biodiversidad amenazan los objetivos de desarrollo sostenible	www.unfccc.int
50	Achieving Low Emission Growth in Cities through Sustainable Urban Systems Management	50	La gestión sostenible de las ciudades puede lograr un crecimiento con bajas emisiones	www.unfccc.int

