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A LEXICAL ANALYSIS OF THE AMERICAN ADAPTATION OF HARRY POTTER

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Na tomto místě bych chtěla poděkovat svému vedoucímu bakalářské práce Mgr. Petr Kos, PhD za odborné vedení, za pomoc a rady při zpracování této práce.

Anotace:

Cílem této práce je analyzovat rozdíly v lexikální rovině americké adaptace knihy *Harry Potter a kámen mudrců*. Teoretická část představuje pojmy a koncepty klíčové pro vypracování analýzy – prvky americké angličtiny, základy teorie překladu a otázky významu a konceptů. Analytická část pak využívá tyto poznatky k definování důvodů pro překlad a postupů, které byly při překladu použity.

Annotation:

The aim of the thesis is to analyse the lexical differences which occurred in the American version of *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone*. The theoretical part introduces notions and concepts crucial for the analysis such as characteristics of American English, basics of intralingual translation, the problem of meaning and concepts. The analytical part then uses these findings to analyse the reason for translation of the words and the method which was used during the translation.

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# 1 Introduction

Over the years since it was published, Harry Potter series has become a phenomenon. The seven-part series has gained popularity among both children and adults, resulting in extension by books expanding the original series, although lacking the typical title *Harry Potter and...*. The novels were also made into 8 feature films with the same titles as books. Publishing of the series was also followed by creation of computer games, merchandise products and lately also amusement parks. This kind of success was also supported by numerous translations of the series into various languages. Alongside with languages as French, German, Mandarin, Czech and others it was also translated from standard British English to American English.

Bearing in mind that the books are focused mainly on children readers, it is a matter of course that some editorial changes would be made. For solely educational purposes, the spelling should be changed so that it represents the form of English children learn in school. Thus the words like humour or realise were transcribed into American English spelling. As British and American English are only regional variation of the same language and are mutually intelligible, I, as a regular non-native speaker of English, expected that those changes would be enough and the American version is ready to go to print. However, that is not the case. The Harry Potter series as well as majority of other British English books undergo even more significant changes before its publishing.

This is the reason why I chose this topic for my Bachelor thesis. I wanted to find out why such major changes as is the change of the title were needed to make before publishing the American version of the book. Another objective of the work is to find out what would happen if the work would not undergo the translation. How would it be perceived by the American reader and, vice versa, how the work would affect the reader in the USA.

In this thesis I am thus going to explore the reason for translations within the English language and their use. First, I am going to determine the differences between British and American English. The perspective of translations in general is going to follow. I am going to state the way translatology deals with translations in general which I am going to apply on the case of Harry Potter. Then, I am going to state what is descriptive and non-descriptive meaning since it is the basis for my analysis. Furthermore I am going to introduce the notion of concepts and prototypes.

In my analytical part of the thesis I am going to analyse the methods which the editor used in translation and also the reasons which led to the translation. I am also going to evaluate if the translation was successful or if the meaning of the edited version changes dramatically.



## 2 American English

The basic difference between the two versions of the book and the initial reason for the translation is the fact that American and British English are not identical. They differ on several levels for following reasons:

### 2.1 Development of American English

Nowadays, English has the status of a global language. In addition to its being a mother tongue of inhabitants of Britain, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand South Africa and other territories, it has also been taken up by various countries and speakers around the world. [Crystal 2003, pp. 4] There are about 280 mil. native speakers of English in the world living on four continents and even more of those who use English as their second language. Spreading of English all over the globe began about four hundred years ago. Nevertheless, even then there were dialect variations created in the region of the British Isles. Taking into account that these variations were caused by mere obstacles like rivers, mountains or feudality, there were changes happening to English in America, too, as the English immigrants living in America were separated from their homeland by the Atlantic Ocean, political borders and a different lifestyle. Nevertheless, these two variation, as well as the Canadian, Australian, South African and others, are still mutually intelligible. This is brought about by two opposite forces which act in every language. One of them is the differential tendency thanks to which the creating of variations in pronunciation, grammar or lexicon is allowed. The opposite tendency is to keep the language intelligible for the whole language community so as to serve as a means of communication. [Peprník 1982, pp. 6]

The current situation would be notably different if the separation of the individual variations happened a few centuries earlier. It is probable that the differences would be more significant. The reason that it did not happen is the following: the variations were never completely separated from the original language. In late 16<sup>th</sup> century when the export of English to America, South Africa or Australia began, the means of transport, education systems and mass communication considerably reinforced the antidifferential tendency of the language. [Peprník 1982, pp. 6]

The beginning of American English is noted by the year 1607 when the first permanent settlement of Jamestown was founded in Virginia. The first immigrants were soon followed and numerous settlements began to appear along the coast. The first religious

immigrants came to America in 1620 on board of the Mayflower, searching for freedom from religious persecution and new religious kingdom. Weather conditions prevented the Pilgrim Fathers from reaching the coast of Virginia and they settled in what is today Massachusetts. These two groups of settlers came from different linguistic background with different accents prevailing. The first to be settled was the Atlantic coast with gradual move to the west until finally reaching California and the Pacific coast. [Crystal 2003, pp. 31–36]

First of the permanent immigrants in the 17<sup>th</sup> century came to America to escape from religious oppression and later also the political repression connected to the succession of the throne from the House of the Stuart to the House of the Hannover and the reign of Oliver Cromwell. [Peprník 1982, pp. 6] In the 18<sup>th</sup> century there was a great inflow of immigrants from Ireland. Although the Irish had been migrating throughout the whole 17<sup>th</sup> century, the greatest wave of Irish immigrants came in 1720s due to the War of Independence. It was, nonetheless, not only the English, Scots and Irish who came to America and influenced the later English language. Next to the Spanish, French, Dutch and German, also a great number of Africans came to America in result of slavery. Their population in 1775 was higher than the white Southerners. During the 19<sup>th</sup> century the reasons for immigration were poverty, famine and the results of revolution in Europe. Another wave of the Irish immigrants arrived due to the potato famine. The Italians and Germans fled the results of failed revolutions. A significant group of European Jews arrived during the 1880s to flee pogroms happening in Europe. [Crystal 2003, pp. 31–36] Other reasons for immigration were also entrepreneurial mindset or even the sense of adventure. The largest number of immigrants came between the year 1900 and the beginning of the World War I. This boom was inspired by the development of industry throughout the USA. After the year 1900 the inflow of immigrants from the developed countries such as Britain, Ireland or Scandinavia was reduced since the number of opportunities to raise their status began to descent. On the other hand, in that time the number of immigrants from Eastern Europe increased since there were many ways to improve their standard of living. [Peprník 1982, pp. 7]

Although the major English speaking immigrants were mixed with other nations, languages of these minorities did not influence English. The tendency of these immigrants was to learn the language of the majority as fast as possible. In spite of their language use being poor, they did not enrich English by expressions from their native language.

On the contrary, their languages became enriched by English expressions. The influence of immigrants was thus not in the area of grammar or pronunciation but in the loosening of rules. In today's perspective the influence of immigration has no distinctive influence on the development of American English as the immigration quotas have reduced the inflow of immigrants. [Peprník 1982, pp. 7]

## 2.2 Americanisms

The term Americanism originated in the USA and its first documented use is from the year 1781. The briefest definition describes the term as “an expression or a phrase typical for American English either nowadays or in the past.” [Peprník 1982, pp. 8]

Americanisms can be divided into three categories:

1. A word or its meaning originated in the USA, still in use today, with an equivalent in British English. Examples of such Americanisms are *elevator*, *gasoline* or *faculty* with their respective counterparts *lift*, *petrol* and *staff*. Names of specifically American entities also belong to this category, eg.: *bayou*, *fraternity*, *grizzly*. These types of words have no British equivalents. In this subcategory we can find mostly the names of fauna and flora or social activities or phenomena. [Peprník 1982, pp. 8]
2. A word or its meaning originated in the USA, but used in British English as well as in American. This category is represented by words like *belittle*, *bike* or *lengthy*. This category is still expanding because British English has adapted or is in the process of adaptation of numerous American expressions, especially from colloquial language (*boom*, *boost*, *supermarket...*). There are various reasons for this type of assimilation. Among others it is adopting of an American entity, the prestige of the field of use, need for differentiation in meaning or fashion.

It is difficult to determine whether these expressions or their meanings are still specifically American because their distribution in British English is different in each case and with each speaker. For some group of speakers the expression might have become a regular part of their vocabulary, some speakers might know it only passively and for some it might be completely unknown. These differences among speakers are sociolinguistic influences and depend on the social class, profession, age and other agents. [Peprník 1982, pp. 8–9]

3. A word or its meaning originated and originally used in British English which later ceased in use on the British Isles but is still used In American English. Their use sometimes continues in British dialects. Examples of this category are *rooster*, *fall*, *guess*, *bug* or *apartment*. [Peprník 1982, pp. 9]

There are thus pairs of words expressing the same meaning in American and British English, such as *fall* – *autumn*, *elevator* – *lift*, *line* – *queue*. But that is not always the case. In some cases, the overlap of meanings can be only partial. Slight differences in the basic meaning, nuances of meaning, stylistic classification or frequency may occur. [Peprník 1982, pp. 9]

1. Differences in the basic meaning

- a. The meaning is broader in one usage than the other

For example the word *sink* is used for both the sink in the kitchen and the bathroom in American English while in the British it refers only to the one in the kitchen. (For the one in the bathroom the British use the word *washbasin*.) Or the word *the English* is used for the whole population of the Great Britain in American English whereas in British English it refers only to those who live in England. [Peprník 1982, pp. 9–10]

There are also cases in which the same words have the opposite meanings in American and British English. The word *homely* is an example of such a case. In British English it is very positive while in American English it is disapproving. [Peprník 1982, pp. 10]

There are also cases in which the same word is used to refer to different things. For instance the word *suspenders* has the same form in both British and American English, but the meaning differs. The American use of this word functions as a counterpart of the British word *braces*, whereas the British one refers to American *garters*. [Peprník 1982, pp. 10]

- b. The difference in meaning is connected with the difference in the state of affairs in the country

The word *yard* can be shown as such an example. American speakers would use it to refer to any kind of space surrounding the house whether with paving or with flowers and grass. They do not use the word *front* or *back garden*,

as British speakers do, because the word *garden* refers to a professionally manicured garden. [Peprník 1982, pp. 10]

## 2. Different nuances of meaning

Some words, even though they have the same meaning, differ in nuances of meaning; they are either more or less positive in their use. One such an example is the word *politician*. In American English the word has old connotation dating back to the Elizabethan era. It is associated with someone who is a careerist, an intriguer and is mixed up in dirty politics. To refer to a “politician” in a positive way American speakers use the word *statesman* which connotes great abilities and selfless devotion. In British English, on the other hand, the word *politician* denotes an expert in politics while the word *statesman* refers to a politician with a great power/influence. To sum it up, the difference between *statesman* and *politician* in American English lies in honour while in British English it is based on power. [Peprník 1982, pp. 10–11]

## 3. Differences in stylistic classification

There are a number of words which are known in both variants of English but are used in different styles or situations. The verb *remove* is an example of this. In British English this word is quite archaic and is rarely used outside technical style whereas in American English it is rather common in both colloquial language and regulations. Another example is the word *autumn* which is known in the USA as an alternative to the word *fall* but it is used only in poetic language. The example of *cinema* is a similar case. It is used in highbrow style and it implies a sense of exclusiveness. In everyday speech of American speakers the word *movie theater* is more common. [Peprník 1982, pp. 11–12]

## 4. Differences in frequency

Some words are used in both variants of English but the broadness of their meaning affects their frequency of use. For example the word *fix* in American English can substitute verbs like *repair*, *get ready*, *cook*, *make up* and others. Its frequency of use is thus many times higher than in British English in which it has merely the meaning of “to attach”. [Peprník 1982, pp. 12]

### 3 Intralingual translation

Translation is usually seen as a process of translating a work from one language to another. The case of Harry Potter is quite specific because the translation happens inside the scope of a single language but between its regional varieties. Nevertheless, it still uses the same means and follows the same rules and principles as a translation between different languages.

Traditionally, translations, especially of fiction, were the interest of literary studies and aesthetics. In the second half of 20th century translations became the point of interest of linguistics. Both points of view are united by pragmatics. They agree that the main goal of a translator is to cross barriers between different cultures and the means he uses are subordinate to this goal. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 7] The linguistic perspective of a translation is held by this thesis as the translation will be lexicologically analysed. The point of view of pragmatics will be present as well since this thesis deals with a translation more cultural than lexical as it happens within a scope of the same language.

There are three types of translation according to Roman Jakobson: intralingual in which the translator repeats what has already been said in other words, inter-semiotic which deals with translating a notion expressed by one sign system into another sign system, and interlingual which is the main focus of this thesis. This type of translation translates a text written in one language system into another language system without unnecessary shift in meaning, content, style, and form. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 15]

The case of the translation of Harry Potter is specific in the way that it is not a translation between two different languages but rather between two regional varieties of one language. This raises a question of what needs to be translated and what can be understood without any changes.

The main problem of the theory of translation is the question of equivalence. In the first half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, it was the practice that all of the information in the text in the initial language should be transposed into the target language using the same grammatical principles. A British theorist of translation Ian Catford brought up the idea that linguistic units do not necessarily have to have the same linguistic position but they can work in the same situation for the same purpose. This idea was the base for the term functional equivalency which was later coined. It was the foundation for the functional approach

which is mostly used today. It states that the linguistic means which the translator uses do not matter as long as they function in the same way. This means that the translations not only share the descriptive meaning but they also have to be in accordance with their connotations, associations and pragmatics. The texts thus have to be equivalent in all levels. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 7]

An adequate translation of a text needs to fulfil a number of requirements. A translation is the result of a series of choices and only in a successful one the reader is unaware of these choices. A good translation is perceived as an original work, not only a translation. To come to this degree of quality, a translation needs to meet some basic criteria. The language of the translated work needs to be natural. The translated text needs to have the same meaning as the original and needs to affect the reader in the same way. The expression in the target language needs to maintain the dynamics of the original text; the text should cause the same reaction with readers of the translation as with the readers of the original. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 14]

The main information of the text is denotational; it is concerned with the factuality of the text. Denotational information is expressed by the lexical meaning of the sentences. At the same time, however, there is the connotational information of the text which is expressed by stylistic and expressive use of language, in other words the non-descriptive meaning. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 7–8]

The translator needs to adjust the text to be perceptible even for a reader with different experience and situational context. This concerns mainly items and phenomena connected to history, culture, or way of life which do not have an equivalent in the target language. Most often they are names of institutions, food, clothing items or geographical names. These are unknown to the addressee of the translation and therefore have to be expounded. The translator may add more information or explanation to the text or dispose of redundant information and details. How much the amount of information changes is dependent on the function of the unit in the text or the genre of the text. If the translator decides to expand the amount of information in one part of the text, it should lead to compression in another. Compression is possible when the information which is left out of the text can easily be supplemented from context. The translator should avoid using compression with important details or when it is not compensated for and cannot be supplemented from context. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 12–13]

This situation occurred on several occasions in the Harry Potter and the Philosopher's (Sorcerer's) Stone. There are certain extra words or even sentences added to the original version of the model. In some cases it signifies that the information from the book are not sufficient for the American reader to imagine the same world and to be affected in the same way. In other cases, on the other hand, there is little to assume about the motivation for such broadening of the text. For instance, in chapter 7 *The Sorting Hat* this passage appeared: "And now there were only three people left to be sorted. 'Turpin, Lisa,' became a Ravenclaw and then it was Ron's turn." [Rowling 2015, pp. 130] In the American version a whole sentence was inserted without an apparent reason: "And now there were only three people left to be sorted. **'Thomas, Dean,' a Black boy even taller than Ron, joined Harry at the Gryffindor table.** 'Turpin, Lisa,' became a Ravenclaw and then it was Ron's turn." [Rowling 1997, pp. 97]

A part of pragmatics includes aside of extra-linguistic reality also social conventions of a language community. This means the way members of the language community address themselves and one another, the use of academic and other degrees, the level of formality of speech, social clichés etc. The translator needs to take this knowledge about the extra-linguistic reality into account to adjust the text to the addressee. He needs to adjust not only facts and extra-linguistic entities but also the way social convention are expressed in literature. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 13] This aspect of translation was addressed in the translation of Harry Potter as well. It is most apparent in the use of titles. In the British version, there appears a salutation in the beginning of a letter using *Mr. Dumbledore* [Rowling 2015, pp. 56] while in the American version there is *Professor Dumbledore* [Rowling 1997, pp. 40] used.

The translator crosses by translating the work not only language but also cultural borders. Since 1980's, therefore, there is a tendency to transfer the text culturally more than linguistically. The translation is thus seen as a process of communication. [Knittlová 2010, pp. 14] This is most apparent in the case of Harry Potter since the novel does not have to be translated as a whole rather certain passages and expressions need to be transposed to be culturally closer or more perceptible for the target audience. The translator of the American publication of Harry Potter is later going to be referred to as the editor because it is such a specific case of translation that a translator was not necessary. Rather it was a matter of edition concerning not only lexical but also aesthetic changes in the novel.



## 4 Meaning

One of the important part of a translation is the meaning which should remain the same in the translation. A good translation pays attention to both descriptive and non-descriptive meaning and prevents unnecessary changes.

Meaning is a crucial part of language. The goal of language is to communicate meanings in the richest yet subtlest way. [Goddard 1998, pp. 1] Meaning is not easy to define and can be approached in many ways. The way adopted in the book *Meaning in language* by Alan Cruse is the one of contextual approach to meaning. It is defined as “anything that affects the relative normality of grammatical expressions.” [Cruse 2004, pp. 41] It implies that meaning should be studied in larger structures such as sentences by observing interactions between the elements present. Therefore, if two expressions have different meanings, there can be found a context in which they differ in normality. And vice versa, if two expressions have the same meaning their normality in a context would be the same. This is called a normality profile. It is a pattern which shows the level of normality and abnormality in all possible contexts. [Cruse 2004, pp. 41]

### 4.1 Descriptive meaning

There are several ways of classifying meaning proposed by different linguists. Only one type is shared by all of them although looked at from different perspectives and named differently. Among labels given to this type of meaning belong ideational, descriptive, referential, logical or propositional. In this thesis the term descriptive meaning will be adopted. This aspect of meaning determines the truth or falseness expressed by a proposition, therefore, it can be labelled logical or propositional. An expression refers to some part of reality, which is constrained by this aspect of meaning. Conversely, it leads the listener to identify the referent intended by speaker. From this point of view it can be labelled as referential. Because it implies some distance between the speaker and the utterance, it can be labelled as objective. Because it is not tied to the immediate (here and now) situation, it can be labelled as displaced. It describes an experience in order to sort it into a conceptual category; therefore, it can be labelled as descriptive. Moreover, it can be labelled as exposed, because the descriptive aspects can be questioned or negated. [Cruse 2004, pp. 44–45]

Descriptive meaning may vary in its dimensions.

#### 4.1.1 Intrinsic dimensions

##### Quality

Quality is what discriminates items on the same place on the scale of intensity and specificity. It is the most obvious and the most important dimension at the same time. To check difference of quality the phrase *not Y but X* and *not X but Y* can be used. If the phrases are not odd, the items in question differ in quality, as in *It's not here, it's there. It's not there, it's here.* [Cruse 2004, pp. 46–47]

##### Intensity

Intensity discriminates items with the same quality. For example adjectives large and huge have the same quality but differ in intensity. To check intensity differences the following phrases may be used: *It wasn't just X, it was Y. I wouldn't go so far as to say it was Y, but it was X.* E.g. *It wasn't just large, it was huge. I wouldn't go so far as to say it was huge, but it was large.* [Cruse 2004, pp. 47–48]

##### Specificity

On the level of specificity, differences may occur in various logical properties. Generally, one item is more general and one is more specific. There are three types of specificity. In type-specificity, the more general term includes the more specific one as a subtype. An example of this is *animal* which includes a lot of different kinds of animals, all being more specific. Another type of specificity is part-specificity. In this type of specificity, a part of a whole is more specific than the item in its entirety. For example *John injured his finger* is more specific than *John injured his hand*. The third type of specificity is intensity-specificity. In this type of specificity, one range of degrees includes another range of degrees of some property. An example is the adjective *large* which includes ranges with meaning “greater than the average size”. This adjective is then entailed into the meaning of *huge*. [Cruse 2004, pp. 48–49]

##### Vagueness

The criteria for use of an expression cannot be precisely stated, therefore its meaning is vague. Vagueness can be later divided into two types: ill-definedness and laxness. Ill-definedness is best seen in examples which name a value on a scale. E.g. the adjective *middle-aged* – it describes several years on the scale of age, but it cannot be precisely stated in what age one ceases to be young and begins to be middle-aged and, on the other

hand, it cannot be stated in what age one ceases to be middle-aged and becomes old. [Cruse 2004, pp. 49] Another example could be the adjective *red* which refers to all kinds and shades of red, including the colour of hair or revolutionary flag. [Peprník 2001, pp. 13] The vagueness of a term is not related to its specificity. Often a more general term is better defined than a specific one. [Cruse 2004, pp. 49]

Laxness of application is the other subtype of vagueness. The essence of some terms is clearly defined but the way they are used is quite loose. For instance the word *circle* is clearly defined in terms of geometry, but it is frequently used in loose way, e.g. to refer to a group of people standing in a “circle” which could be an ellipse or even some irregular shape. [Cruse 2004, pp. 49–50]

#### Basicness

More or less basic meaning can be looked at from the point of view of independence and dependence. Basic meanings are independent because more complex meanings are built out of them. The more basic meanings are thus incorporated into the meaning of the more complex one. For instance the notion of *stallion* incorporates the meanings of *horse* and *male* which are both more basic. [Cruse 2004, pp. 50]

#### Viewpoint

“A number of linguistic expressions encode as part of their meaning a particular viewpoint on the events or states of affairs designated.” [Cruse 2004, pp. 51] This is most apparent with deictic expressions (what is here for one person is there for a person on the other side of the street etc.) Similarly, with the examples *Alex stands in front of a tree* and *Alex stands behind a tree*, the truth or falseness of these claims depends on the viewpoint of the speaker. If the speaker and Alex are on the same side of the tree, the speaker would use *Alex stands in front of a tree*; conversely, if they are on different sides of the tree the speaker would describe it as *Alex stands behind a tree*. The point from which the situation is commented upon is called vantage point. Therefore, even if both the speaker and Alex are on the same side of the tree, the speaker could still use the sentence *Alex stands behind a tree* if he adopted the vantage point of someone standing on the other side of the tree looking for Alex.

#### 4.1.2 Relative dimensions

These are parameters which do not relate to the complete lexical meaning of an expression but rather to semantic features which together constitute the lexical meaning. [Cruse 2004, pp. 52]

##### Necessity and expectedness

Necessity divides the logical relations of meaning into necessary and contingent ones. Entailment is used to determine whether a feature is necessary or contingent. For example, “is an animal” is a necessary feature of the meaning of *dog* whereas “can bark” is not. If a dog cannot bark, it is still referred to as a dog, but, on the other hand, if a dog is not an animal hardly anyone would call it a dog. Even a robotic toy dog would still be referred to with the attribute “robotic” to distinguish it from the living animal. [Cruse 2004, pp. 52]

The distinction, however, is not always this clear. Therefore there is a scale developed which ranks the features as necessary, expected, possible, unexpected and impossible. Cruse used a *but test* on the example of dog:

*Figure 1* [Cruse 2004, pp. 54]

- 
- (36) It's a dog, but it's an animal. (tautology)  
It's a dog, but it's not an animal. (contradiction)  
("is an animal" is a **necessary** feature of *dog*)
  - (37) It's a dog, but it barks. (odd—tautology)  
It's a dog, but it doesn't bark. (normal)  
("barks" is an **expected** feature of *dog*)
  - (38) It's a dog, but it's brown. (odd)  
It's a dog, but it's not brown. (odd)  
("brown" is a **possible** feature of *dog*).
  - (39) It's a dog, but it sings. (normal description of an abnormal dog)  
It's a dog, but it doesn't sing. (odd—tautology)  
("sings" is an **unexpected** feature of *dog*)
  - (40) It's a dog, but it's a fish. (contradiction)  
It's a dog, but it's not a fish. (tautology)  
("is a fish" is an **impossible** feature of dog)

## Sufficiency

Sufficiency is concerned with a single feature which distinguishes the entity from others. From a set of features which together give the meaning of unit one is chosen as the most diagnostic one. For instance, a feature of *bird* is that it “breathes”. It is, nevertheless, not very diagnostic as there are a lot of other breathing creatures which are not birds. It is similar with the feature that it “has two legs”. This creates a smaller set of creatures but involves humans, too. The most diagnostic feature of bird is that it “has feathers” because no other animal is feathered than birds. [Cruse 2004, pp. 55]

## Saliency

A salient feature stands out from other features and attracts more attention. It is concerned with the ease of access of information. This means that features which are more apparent are more important in semantic processing. The most apparent features are the first that people notice and therefore the most important for their processing. [Cruse 2004, pp. 55] When confronted with an animal a person usually notices the shape, size, number of legs and colour sooner than the colour of its eyes or the shape of its ears.

## 4.2 Non-descriptive dimensions

### 4.2.1 Expressive meaning

Expressive meaning does not state a proposition and does not present any conceptual category to the hearer. Rather, it expresses the emotional state of the speaker. Therefore, expressive meaning does not contribute to the propositional content of an utterance. [Cruse 2004, pp. 57]

Some words have no descriptive or propositional meaning; they possess only expressive meaning. These are called expletives. Examples are mostly exclamations, such as *wow*, *ouch*, *oops* or the adverb or adjective *bloody*. Some words, on the other hand, carry both descriptive and expressive meaning. For instance the word *blubber* includes both the descriptive meaning (to cry) and the evaluation made by the speaker (disapproving). [Cruse 2004, pp. 57]

#### 4.2.2 Evoked meaning

Evoked meaning includes the variation of language concerning dialects and register. Dialect variation is connected to the speaker and his or her region. Register variation is a “variation within the speech of a single community according to situation.” [Cruse 2004, pp. 59] Usage of these variations evokes their home context. As well as the expressive meaning, evoked meaning has no propositional meaning; it only creates associations.

There can be distinguished three major subtypes of dialect: geographic, temporal, and social. The first one is connected with the region of origin or of stay of the speaker. The second subtype is connected with the age of the speaker. The third one varies according to speaker’s social class. [Cruse 2004, pp. 59]

Register can also be divided into subtypes. These are field, mode and style. Field is connected with a particular area of discourse. In a particular field, there are often used technical terms for entities with everyday names. An example can be a dialog between doctors, who use medical terms for states with basic names used by public, such as *pyrexia* which is referred to as *fever* in everyday use. Mode refers to the channel through which the utterance is distributed. It includes spoken and written language. Style is connected with the level of formality or informality of an utterance. [Cruse 2004, pp. 59]

## 5 Conceptual structure of language

Another important part of translation is the transpositions of concepts. Not only meaning but also the concept to which the text refers or about which the text speaks needs to remain as close to the original as possible. The notion of concept and its realisation is going to be elaborated on.

“The extralinguistic reality is processed in its essential features by human consciousness as a ‘concept’” [Peprník 2001, pp. 7]. Concepts store our knowledge about entities, situations and our experience in general in organized categories. Without concepts our understanding of the world would be completely different because we would not be able to assign similar experiences to others and each one would be unique to us. The fact that we share concepts is what allows us to communicate. In a model of a conceptual system, concepts are linked together in a network.

Concepts, moreover, change with our development and education. With gained knowledge of the world, concepts develop as well. For this reason, the concept in a child differs from an adult’s one, the same as an illiterate person’s concept differs from educated one’s. Nevertheless, the essential concepts remain the same for basically anyone. [Peprník 2001, pp. 7]

### 5.1 Classical approach

Classical approach goes back to Aristotle. Categories are defined according to necessary and sufficient criteria for membership. Once the criteria is stated, the item in question of inclusion to this category is assessed according to them. If the item satisfies all the criteria, it is a member of the category, and if the criteria are not satisfied, it is not. These criteria thus state the descriptive meaning of the word. [Cruse 2004, pp. 127]

This approach, nevertheless, works only with clearly definable words as *girl*. It can be defined as having the features of *human*, *female*, and *young*. The problem arises with more complicated definition, such as *game*. Possible criteria could be: involving winning and losing + involving more than one person + having arbitrary rules + done purely for enjoyment. There can, however, be found examples which do not satisfy all of those. A lot of children games do not involve winning or losing, solitaire is a game played by one person, many games can be played professionally and not only for enjoyment, and so on. [Cruse 2004, pp. 127–128]

## 5.2 Prototype approach

According to Eleanor Rosch “natural conceptual categories are structured around the ‘best’ examples or prototypes of the categories, and [...] other items are assimilated to a category according to whether they sufficiently resemble the prototype or not.” [Cruse 2004, pp. 129] Thanks to prototypes we have an idea of what a proper representative of the concept looks like and we can compare other items or experiences with the proper one and then decide whether the item in consideration belongs to the same concept or not.

Eleanor Rosch developed a method to test the prototypicality of an element. It is called Goodness-of-Exemplar rating (GOE). The subjects of this rating are asked to consider the value of an element on a scale from 1 to 7 in which 1 means very good example of a category (prototype) and 7 means very bad example or not an example at all. With this rating, thus, applies the principle of centre and periphery. In the centre, there is the prototype and the members closest to it while on the periphery remain the bad examples and examples which cannot be considered members of the category at all. For instance, when considering vegetables, most people state a potato or carrot as the prototype whereas something like lemon or watermelon is pushed to the periphery. [Cruse 2004, pp. 129]

The prototype theory is mostly held by psychologists, which is reflected in the nature of experiments conducted. From a linguistic point of view categories are intuitively unified but definitionally polyvalent. This means that there cannot be stated a single definition of a category but rather a set of definitions. Wittgenstein described the relationship between members of a category as a family. Family members resemble one another but there is not a simple set of features they all possess, rather they share some features with some members and other features with others. Taking the previous example of *game* into consideration, there is apparent that different types of games are similar to one another, but there cannot be stated criteria as to what features a game must possess. [Cruse 2004, pp. 131]



## 6 Methodology

During preparation for writing this thesis I had to first acquire a corpus of expressions which were translated. For this I simultaneously read both versions of the book and noted the differences which occurred. From the translations I filtered only those dealing with lexicology. Thus changes in spelling and syntactic and morphological changes were not considered. Among the changes in spelling belong words such as *realise/realize* or *humour/humor*. Morphological changes consist mostly of the use of articles as in *next day/the next day* or of the use of a possessive pronoun in connection with animals, as in *its leg/his leg*. Syntactic changes occurred several times as well. For instance: “I’d best get this bike away.” [Rowling 2015, pp. 17]. “I’ll be takin’ Sirius his bike back.” [Rowling 1997, pp. 13]

There were also changes concerned not only with the linguistic field but rather with the informational quality of a statement. As was already mentioned, in translator’s competition is also the possibility to add information where he or she thinks it is necessary. This happened several times in the novel. The most notable change was the example mentioned in chapter 5 of this thesis in which a whole sentence was added into the original text. A similar example “when Dudley had a tantrum because his knickerbocker glory wasn’t big enough...” [Rowling 2015, pp. 28] vs. “when Dudley had a tantrum because his knickerbocker glory didn’t have enough ice cream on top...” [Rowling 1997, pp. 19] In this case, American children might not know what a knickerbocker glory is and therefore the editor provided more information through expanding the sentence to imply that it is a dessert.

The expressions which met the criteria for being a part of the analysis were then divided into four categories according to the reason for their translation from the point of view of the editor of the American edition. He needed to make sure that the published text would be accessible to American children and therefore had to read the text from their perspective and make changes where necessary.

The first group of expressions unites words which do not exist in American English and at the same time refer to concepts which do not occur in the American culture. The second group deals with words referring to concepts known by the American public but the words themselves are unknown in American English. The third group of expressions aligned words which exist in American English as well as in British but have different descriptive

meaning. The last group includes expressions existing in both varieties of English but having different non-descriptive meaning.

Each group is represented by a table showing the number of members of the given category, the expression used in the original, and the expression used in the edited American version. More detailed table with the descriptive meanings of the expressions is appended at the end of the thesis.

From these categories were later chosen representatives which were closer analysed and divided according to the editor's approach to the translation, where it was possible. Those examples were then closer analysed.

In one specific case I used the search application Google N-Gram Viewer which uses the database of Google Books to ascertain the frequency of use in the respective variety of English. This proved useful as the N-Gram Viewer uses a large amount of data. Moreover, it works with both varieties of English separately and the outcome of the search is pictured in a transparent graph.

## 7 Analysis

### 7.1 Unknown word and concept

In the table below are aligned words which are unknown to the American reader and refer to a concept with which the American reader is not familiar.

*Table 1*

1	sherbet lemon	lemon drop
2	hamburger bars	hamburger restaurants
3	comprehensive	public school
4	motorway	highway
5	set books	course books
6	rounders	baseball
7	crumpets	English muffins

In this category are aligned expressions which express an entity or concept unknown to the American reader but common for the British one. The editor of the novel thus had to deal not only with a mere translation of a British word into American English but also with transposition of a concept to bring it closer to the American reader. He used different methods to achieve this goal.

#### 7.1.1 A significant feature

In the first method, the editor used one feature of the original concept which was shared with a similar concept common in the target culture. He needed to decide which feature is crucial for the use of the concept in the context of the novel. From the immediate concept in the story he had to assume the reason why J. K. Rowling used the particular word to describe the situation, what features must stay present in the transposition, and what features are not crucial for the text. It will be closer explained on examples:

## Rounders vs. baseball

“He handed Harry a small club, a bit like a short **rounders** bat.” [Rowling 2015, pp. 180]

“He handed Harry a small club, a bit like a short **baseball** bat.” [Rowling 1997, pp. 135]

Rounders is a sport played in Great Britain. Players hit a ball with a bat and then proceed to run around the four bases in the field faster than the players of the other team return the ball. The game is mostly popular among children and at schools.

Rounders is a sport unknown in America and therefore it had to be replaced. The base for editor’s use of the word *rounders* as a replacement for *baseball* was the bat involved in the game. The bat is the most prototypical feature of the game and therefore needed to stay present in the transposition. On the other hand, it was not possible to retain other features which form the descriptive meaning as is the type of pitch on which rounders is played, the shape of the field, the rules of the game and others. The concept was thus reduced to “a sport using a wooden bat”, which is fulfilled by *baseball*.

The reason the bat was crucial for the transposition is that Rowling herself in the passage from which the excerpt is taken uses the bat as a distinguishing feature of the game. The passage is concerned with Quidditch which is a magical sport which is introduced and described through comparison to regular sports known in our world. For her comparison it was necessary to take the bat used in rounders as similar to the bat used in Quidditch and therefore the editor used the same feature for the transposition.

## Crumpets vs. English muffins

“They sat by the hour eating anything they could spear on a toasting fork – bread, **crumpets**, marshmallows – and plotting ways of getting Malfoy expelled...” [Rowling 2015, pp. 213]

“They sat by the hour eating anything they could spear on a toasting fork -- bread, **English muffins**, marshmallows -- and plotting ways of getting Malfoy expelled...” [Rowling 1997, pp. 158]

Crumpet is a type of British pastry. It is a soft round flat cake made with flour and yeast. It is usually eaten with butter, but can be served also with jam, honey, or chocolate spread. Its surface is covered with small pores and its texture is chewy. It resembles a pancake.

In America, crumpets are unknown to the majority of public. Nevertheless, the Americans know a different type of pastry similar to crumpets in its size and shape. It is called the English muffin. It is also a thin round type of bread, usually horizontally sliced and served with butter and sweet or savoury toppings. It is typically served at breakfast.

The word *crumpet* was thus transposed to a concept closer to the American reader. The main focus was on the external resemblance of the two types of bread. The feature of the roundness and thinness was, therefore, established as crucial on the expense of other features, such as texture, flavour or serving. A compromise needed to be made on the implied taste of the pastry as crumpets are connected with sweet toppings whereas English muffins can be served with both sweet and savoury ones. Moreover, the serving of the two products happen in a different manner. Crumpets are ready to eat once removed from the pan while English muffins need to be horizontally sliced and only then they are topped with toppings and eaten.

### 7.1.2 Co-hyponymy

The other method used by the editor in transposing unknown concepts was co-hyponymy. He used a word on the same level of subordination to the superordinate term as is the word used in the original. The two words thus work as almost synonyms to each other with a slight shift in the descriptive meaning but with the same positions on the hierarchy of the basicness of meaning.

Set books vs. course books

“...I've learned all our **set books** off by heart...” [Rowling 2015, pp. 113]

“...I've learned all our **course books** by heart...” [Rowling 1997, pp. 84]

According to OALD set books are “books that students must study for a particular exam”. [OALD, approached on: 17. 4. 2017] This means that the student needs to read through the book and learn the information in it in order to pass an exam. It implies that it is the student’s responsibility to read the book and that it is his or her decision when he does it. It could happen at the beginning of the school year, throughout the term or even the night before the exam. In any case, a certain amount of free will and flexibility is implied.

A course book, on the other hand, is a book regularly used in the classes. This means that the student has to bring the book to the class and use it regularly throughout the term as opposed to the set book used only before an exam. It is therefore not up to the student when and where he uses the book but the use is organized and regulated by a teacher.

The concepts are thus not the same although they are quite similar to each other. Despite this fact, the implication of the use of the book was changed by the transposition. However, one can argue that his edition has higher informational quality and fits better into the context of the book. In the excerpt stated above, the function of the expression is the same for both *set book* and *course book*. It states that the person uttering the statement read through the books and learned the information in them no matter what the original purpose of the book is. The reader, however, notices throughout the novel that the books are not designed only to help the students pass an exam but that they are also used for homework and for work in classes which is both descriptive and implied meaning of the expression *course book*.

## 7.2 Unknown word but existing concept

The chart below aligns expressions referring to a concept familiar to the American reader but with an unknown word.

Table 2

1	car park	parking lot
2	baker's	bakery
3	dustbin	trash can
4	bobble hats	bonnets
5	roundabout	carousel
6	punch-bag	punching bag
7	sello-tape	scotch tape
8	cine-camera	video camera
9	sellotaped	taped
10	bobbles	puff balls

11	glove puppet	hand puppet
12	bins	trash cans
13	beetroot	beet
14	ice lolly	ice pop
15	letter box	mail slot
16	sharp turning	sharp turn
17	barman	bartender
18	bogey-flavoured	booger-flavored
19	queuing	lining up
20	jacket potato	baked potato

In this group there are concepts which exist in both British and American culture but the expression used in the original book would be incomprehensible for the American reader because the word does not exist in American English. In this case the editor had to come up with an expression referring to the same concept but belonging into the scope of American English.

### 7.2.1 Change of concept

Bobble hats vs. bonnets

“Ten years ago, there had been lots of pictures of what looked like a large pink beach ball wearing different-coloured **bobble hats** – but Dudley Dursley was no longer a baby...”  
[Rowling 2015, pp.19]

“Ten years ago, there had been lots of pictures of what looked like a large pink beach ball wearing different-colored **bonnets** -- but Dudley Dursley was no longer a baby...”  
[Rowling 1997, pp. 13]

A bobble hat is a usually knitted woollen hat with a bobble on top. It is worn by both kids and adults in order to keep one's head warm. American English does not include the word *bobble hat* especially because the word *bobble* does not exist in American English. However, the Americans use the word *pom pom hat* to refer to this kind of headwear. We can thus only argue why the editor of the American version used *bonnet* instead of *pom pom hat*.

The most probable reason for the use of the word *bonnet* is that it emphasises the fact that it is a baby pictured in the photographs. As is already mentioned above, bobble hats are worn by both kids and adults and therefore it could be less clear from the context that it is a baby about whom the author talks. On the other hand, *bonnet* is connected especially with babies and therefore implies a low age. This implication is supported by the phrases “ten years ago” and “no longer a baby” used in the sentence.

### 7.2.2 Composition

#### Bobbles vs. puff balls

“Another time, Aunt Petunia had been trying to force him into a revolting old sweater of Dudley's (brown with orange **bobbles**).” [Rowling 2015, pp. 26]

“Another time, Aunt Petunia had been trying to force him into a revolting old sweater of Dudley's (brown with orange **puff balls**).” [Rowling 1997, pp. 18]

A similar problem as in 6.2.2 arose with the word *bobble* itself. It refers to a fluffy ball made out of wool or cotton which is used for decorating hats, scarves, sweaters, and other types of clothing, especially those worn in winter. The concept of a bobble is known on both sides of the Atlantic oceans but is referred to in different ways.

When searching for the word *puff ball* in a dictionary, no matches are found. The Meriam-Webster dictionary offers only one possible meaning which is not connected with clothing at all. It is spelled without a space between the two components and it is connected with a term for a certain kind of fungi which bursts and shoots its seeds into its surroundings in a smokelike cloud.

This raises a question – where does the word *puff ball* come from? The most probable explanation is that it is a composition created by the editor of the American adaptation. The word *ball* refers to a round thing – the shape of the bobble resembles a ball. The word *puff* is connected with breathing and smoke, therefore with smoking cigarettes or



the smoke coming out of chimneys or trains. The consistence of smoke seems cloudlike and fluffy – the same way as a bobble. The composition is therefore quite understandable from the word itself and poses a transparent and clearly imaginable counterpart to the word *bobble*. On the other hand, the word *pom pom* could be used instead. A possible reason for preference of the word puff ball is that pom poms are associated with cheerleaders in the USA which would be misleading for the reader. He or she thus could imagine a sweater with big fluffy brightly coloured pom poms made of tissue paper or plastic.

### 7.2.3 Translation

The largest subgroup in this category is concerned with a mere translation. Those are words which have their respective counterparts in American English and were replaced by them. The meaning and the expressive value of the work thus remained unchanged.

### 7.3 Existing word but with a different descriptive meaning

The chart below includes the words which exist in both varieties of English but their meaning differs respectively.

*Table 3*

1	motorbike	motorcycle
2	fringe	bangs
3	jumper	sweater
4	packet of crisps	bag of chips
5	notes	bills
6	gummy	toothless
7	football	soccer
8	trolley	cart
9	trainers	sneakers
10	pitch	field
11	football	soccer ball

12	a tea of	a meal of
13	changing room	locker room
14	revision timetables	study schedules
15	revision	studying

This category unites expressions which exist in both varieties of English but with different descriptive meanings in each. Such words would thus induce confusion if not translated because the reader would picture something else than what was intended by the author. The editor thus had to replace these expressions by adequate equivalents in order to avoid such confusion.

### 7.3.1 More generic expression

One of the techniques used to achieve it is substitution by a more generic term. This means that a specific word which would be misunderstood by the reader was replaced by a word expressing more generic meaning, a hypernym. This helps to avoid a possible confusion, but, on the other hand, informational quality is lowered. Examples follow:

Tea vs. meal

“After a **tea** of turkey sandwiches, crumpets, trifle, and Christmas cake, everyone felt too full and sleepy to do much before bed...” [Rowling 2015, pp. 219]

“After a **meal** of turkey sandwiches, crumpets<sup>1</sup>, trifle, and Christmas cake, everyone felt too full and sleepy to do much before bed...” [Rowling 1997, pp. 163]

The word *tea* in British English expresses a specific occasion on which people sit down to eat a meal. It is eaten in the afternoon or early in the evening. It usually consists of sandwiches, biscuits and cakes and it is served with tea to drink. The beverage which is served with this meal gives the name to the occasion itself.

There is no such type of meal eaten in America. The word *tea* is connected strictly with the beverage made by pouring hot water onto tea leaves. The original sentence, therefore, would be illogical for the American reader. A tea made of “turkey sandwiches,

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<sup>1</sup> From this excerpt it is apparent that even the editor of the American adaptation is not consistent in his translation since in another part of the book the word *crumpet* was translated as English muffin whereas in this passage it remained unchanged.

crumpets, trifle, and Christmas cake” would be considered as a hot beverage made by pouring hot water on the food which would make no sense to the American reader, to say the least.

Thus, there was a need to avoid this confusion. The two expressions *tea* and *meal* differ on the dimension of specificity. The editor’s solution, therefore, was to use an expression with lower degree of specificity, in this case a hypernym of the word *tea*. The word *meal* expresses the same occasion of eating but lacks the implication of time which is included in the word *tea*. It also does not imply a certain kind of food served during the occasion as a meal can consist of practically anything including breakfast products, soups, steaks, or salads. These features are thus lost in the transposition.

### 7.3.2 More transparent expression

The editor used a word with a higher level of explicitness to bring the concept closer to the American reader. This means that a word which would be perceived as incomprehensible in the context was substituted by an expression which is more descriptive and explicit, and the meaning can be deduced from the word itself. An example is:

#### Gummy vs. toothless

“A little man in a top hat was talking to the old bartender, who was quite bald and looked like a **gummy** walnut.” [Rowling 2015, pp. 74]

“A little man in a top hat was talking to the old bartender, who was quite bald and looked like a **toothless** walnut.” [Rowling 1997, pp. 53]

The word *gummy* in British English refers to a smile showing one’s gums or in the case occurring in the excerpt to a person having no teeth and therefore exposing his or her gums. In American English *gummy* is strictly connected with gum and products made out of it. “A gummy walnut” would therefore be pictured by the American reader as a walnut made out of gum. Or in the case of the metaphor used in the novel, as a man looking like a walnut which is made out of gum.

In the American adaptation, the possibility of misunderstanding was prevented by using a word which can be understood from its form itself. The word *toothless* is more transparent because the meaning is inherent in the structure: *tooth – less*, “without teeth”. The mental image of the American reader, therefore, does not change.

### 7.3.3 Translation

There is present the same subgroup of words as in 6.2.3 – words translated into American English without a change or shift in the meaning.

#### Fringe vs. bangs

“Once, Aunt Petunia, [...], had taken a pair of kitchen scissors and cut his hair so short he was almost bald except for his **fringe**, which she left ‘to hide that horrible scar.’” [Rowling 2015, pp. 26]

“Once, Aunt Petunia, [...], had taken a pair of kitchen scissors and cut his hair so short he was almost bald except for his **bangs**, which she left ‘to hide that horrible scar.’” [Rowling 1997, pp. 18]

The meaning of the word *fringe* is “the front part of somebody’s hair that is cut so that it hangs over their forehead”. [OALD, approached on: 17. 4. 2017] This is supported by the sentence cited above, which states that the fringe should hide a lightning-bolt shaped scar on Harry Potter’s forehead.

*Fringe* was translated by the editor as *bangs* which has identical meaning. It is an American counterpart to the Britishism *fringe*. In this case it is not a matter of translation but merely a transposition of a Britishism with an Americanism.

The important factor is the reason for this transposition. Besides making the novel more accessible for the American reader, possible confusion has been prevented. The word *fringe* exists in American English as well but with a different meaning. In American English, the word *fringe* refers to an ornamental border made out of braids or simple threads of fabric used on clothing or lamp shades. The connection of this kind of decoration with human head or hair would thus appear comical or even illogical.

#### Jumper vs. sweater

“Harry had torn open the parcel to find a thick, hand-knitted **jumper** in emerald green and a large box of homemade fudge.” [Rowling 2015, pp. 215]

“Harry had torn open the parcel to find a thick, hand-knitted **sweater** in emerald green and a large box of homemade fudge.” [Rowling 1997, pp. 160]

According to OALD *jumper* means “a knitted piece of clothing made of wool or cotton for the upper part of the body, with long sleeves and no buttons”. [OALD, approached on: 17. 4. 2017] Its purpose is to keep one warm.

*Sweater* shares these criteria with the definition of *jumper*. The word sweater is used in British English as well as in American. Nevertheless, there is a difference between British and American use of the word *sweater*. In British English it refers to a knitted piece of clothing with no buttons on it whereas in American English it can have buttons and can be worn as a jacket.

The reason for this translation is the meaning of the word *jumper* in American English. The American use of *jumper* refers to a loose dress worn over a blouse or a sweater. It would cause a confusion in the story if the main male character and his male friends got a dress as a Christmas present because it is not conventional in American culture for men to wear dress.

Football vs. soccer

“...had a big argument with Dean Thomas, who shared their dormitory, about **football**.”  
[Rowling 2015, pp. 154]

“...had a big argument with Dean Thomas, who shared their dormitory, about **soccer**.”  
[Rowling 1997, pp. 114]

Football is a popular game played by two teams with eleven players each whose aim is to get a round ball into a goal without using hands. It is one of the most popular games in Britain, or even in Europe.

*Soccer* is a direct counterpart to football in American English. *Football*, on the other hand, refers to an entirely different sport in American English. It is played by two teams as well but with an oval shaped ball which can be kicked, thrown or passed. The goal of the game is to get the ball over a goal line, into a goal, or between goalposts.

There were thus two possibilities concerning this word in translation. Either it could stay as it was in which case the American reader would picture a different sport with different implications while reading although with a similar amount of popularity in the target culture. Or it could be translated as soccer which is the American expression referring to the sport intended by the author. This is what happened as the editor’s intention is not to transfer the story into the target culture but rather to bring the original culture closer

to the target reader. By this translation the meaning, concept and implications remained the same, yet any possible confusion was avoided.

#### 7.4 Existing word but with a different non-descriptive meaning

There are expression aligned in the chart below which exist in both varieties of English with the same or similar descriptive meaning but with a different non-descriptive meaning.

*Table 4*

1	lot	bunch
2	shan't	won't
3	lot	crowd
4	cooker	stove
5	video recorder	VCR
6	cinema	movies
7	had a place	had been accepted
8	holidaying	vacationing
9	toilet	bathroom
10	mixer	food processor
11	happily	cheerfully
12	mint humbug	peppermint humbug
13	jelly	Jell-O
14	sweets	candy
15	disused	unused
16	Philosopher's stone	Sorcerer's stone
17	Happy Christmas	Merry Christmas
18	dressng gown	bathrobe

19	lookout	problem
20	on about	talking about
21	sweet-shop	candy-shop
22	lavatory seat	toilet seat
23	quits	even
24	mad	crazy
25	's barking	off his rocker
26	drawn	tied
27	came top of the year	had the best grades of the first years

In this category the need for translation was not as strong as in the other categories. The expressions used in the original British version exist in American English as well with the same or at least very similar meaning as they have in British English. What differs is their non-descriptive meaning. They differ in their connotations or evoked meaning. Most often the difference lies in the regional dialect – the expression used in the original therefore would be comprehensible to the American reader but it would not feel natural. The translation therefore works as a means to make the text feel natural and close for the American reader.

#### 7.4.1 Different evoked meaning

##### Philosopher's stone vs. Sorcerer's stone

“‘Nicolas Flamel,’ she whispered dramatically, ‘is the only known maker of the **Philosopher's Stone!**’” [Rowling 2015, pp. 236]

“‘Nicolas Flamel,’ she whispered dramatically, ‘is the only known maker of the **Sorcerer's Stone!**’” [Rowling 1997, pp. 175]

The most apparent representative of this group is the title itself. The original novel bears the title *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's stone*. *Philosopher's stone* refers to a legendary alchemical substance which is capable of turning metal into gold and

prolonging one's life. It plays an important role in the plot of the novel and the expression itself is mentioned several times in the story. It extends the fictional world of the novel into the real one since the stone of the philosophers is a part of a legend known in the extra-linguistic reality. This connection of a "real" legend with a fictional world implies that if one exists, the other can too. In other words, if the Philosopher's stone exists, so does the world of Harry Potter.

The need to translate this phenomenon as a *Sorcerer's stone* came from marketing purposes. J. K. Rowling stated in her interviews that the publisher of the American version was worried that *Philosopher's stone* evokes philosophy and that the book would not sell well if the potential readers thought that it was connected with philosophy and thinking, or even considered it a course book.

For this reason the title was changed to *Sorcerer's stone*. This expression preserves the connection with magic which is essential for the whole series. On the other hand, the real-world reference is lost and so is the connection between the fictional world and the world of the reader.

Disused vs. unused

"It looked like a **disused** classroom." [Rowling 2015, pp. 222]

"It looked like an **unused** classroom." [Rowling 1997, pp. 165]

The meaning of the word *disused* is something which is no longer used. The reason for the cease of use can be that there is no need to or that the thing is depreciated so it cannot be used in a proper way. Nevertheless, the implication is that the thing has been used before.

On the other hand, *unused* means not having been used before. This implies that the thing is new. This is quite an important difference for the context of the book. As the novel takes place in a boarding school set in a castle whose history is several centuries long, it is highly improbable that there can be found a classroom which has never been used and is new.

The other possible meaning of *unused* is not being used at the moment. This meaning poses not so great difference from the original one as the implication does not deny that it has been used before. The difference is in the use of the word *disused* and *unused* in the scope of American English. Both words exist in this variety of English.





Figure 3<sup>3</sup>



From the charts above it is apparent that the difference between the frequency of use of *Happy Christmas* and *Merry Christmas* in British English is not as drastic as it is in American English.

<sup>3</sup> Generated by Google N-Gram Viewer, approached on 6.5.2017 from URL: [https://books.google.com/ngrams/graph?content=happy+christmas%2Cmerry+christmas&case\\_insensitive=on&year\\_start=1800&year\\_end=2000&corpus=17&smoothing=3&share=&direct\\_url=t4%3B%2Chappy%20christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%2Cs0%3B%3Bhappy%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BHappy%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BHAPPY%20CHRISTMAS%3B%2Cc0%3B.t4%3B%2Cmerry%20christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%2Cs0%3B%3BMerry%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3Bmerry%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BMERRY%20CHRISTMAS%3B%2Cc0](https://books.google.com/ngrams/graph?content=happy+christmas%2Cmerry+christmas&case_insensitive=on&year_start=1800&year_end=2000&corpus=17&smoothing=3&share=&direct_url=t4%3B%2Chappy%20christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%2Cs0%3B%3Bhappy%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BHappy%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BHAPPY%20CHRISTMAS%3B%2Cc0%3B.t4%3B%2Cmerry%20christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%2Cs0%3B%3BMerry%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3Bmerry%20Christmas%3B%2Cc0%3B%3BMERRY%20CHRISTMAS%3B%2Cc0)

## 8 Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to analyse a translation from one regional variety of English into another on the basis of the first part of the *Harry Potter* series: *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's stone/ Sorcerer's stone*.

My presupposition was that such a translation is unnecessary because the two varieties of English – British and American – are mutually intelligible. In my analysis, however, I found out that it is not as clear cut case as I expected. Firstly, American and British English are quite distant in their development, which can forestall readers of those varieties from understanding one another. Furthermore, the two cultures are significantly different as well. Some cultural aspects of the book can thus be lost or changed without such a translation.

On the basis of descriptive and non-descriptive meaning, I have proven that such translations are beneficial for the target readers since they bring the work closer to the reader even though it happens within a scope of one language. Not only vocabulary and grammar, but also concepts and prototypes differ between these two varieties of English since their cultural background is different.

The work of the editor is therefore not an easy one. It can be argued that it can be more difficult than the work of a translator since the editor has to undergo a series of decisions. It is in his competence to decide what should be translated and in what manner. He can use different methods to accomplish his goal – to bring the work closer to the reader and to guarantee its illegibility.

I also found out that there is a pattern according to which the text was translated. Aside of spelling, morphological and syntactic changes, which are not in the scope of my work, there can be a system found as far as lexicological changes are concerned. The changes occurring in the novel can be categorised into four groups according the relationship between the original and the translated expression.

The reasons for the translation were: firstly, the original text included a word unknown to the American reader which refer to a concept unfamiliar to the American public. In this group, therefore, the editor needed to replace both the word and the concept but at the same time to preserve the intended effect on the reader and keep the reader's mental image of the story as close to the original as possible. Secondly, there is a group of words

unknown to the American reader which refer to a familiar concept. In this group the need was to find an expression referring to the same concept. In some cases, the word had its American counterpart (as in *car park* vs. *parking lot*) which ensures that the meaning is not shifted. In other cases, the editor uses a certain method to achieve the same goal with his translation. In the last two groups were aligned words which exist in both the varieties of English. In the third group, the words have different descriptive meanings in these varieties while in the fourth group it is the non-descriptive meaning which differs.

The outcome of the work is that it is beneficial for American readers to be presented with an edited version. Aside from language changes, the editor pays attention also to cultural background of the story and its possible implications and arranges for the reader to be presented with a book which affects him or her in the same way as it did with the original readers. The book also needs to evoke the same mental image for all its readers. Without a translation this would not be possible since the mental image would differ considerably. On the other hand, the translation must be sensitive and not interfere with the basis of the novel. In some cases even in Harry Potter, certain editions were unnecessary or even pointless.

## 9 Appendix

Table 5

1. Unknown word and concept			
Source:	Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary	Merriam-Webster Dictionary	
1	sherbet lemon	<i>not found in dictionary</i>	
	lemon drop		<i>not found in dictionary</i>
2	hamburger bars	a place in which a particular kind of food or drink is the main thing that is served	
	hamburger restaurants		a place where you can buy and eat a meal
3	comprehensive	a large state secondary school for boys and girls of all abilities aged 11 or over. Comprehensive schools were introduced in the 1960s to replace the system of dividing children between more academic grammar schools and less academic secondary modern schools. (informal)	
	public school		a free tax-supported school controlled by a local governmental authority
4	motorway	a wide road, with at least two lanes in each direction, where traffic can travel fast for long distances between large towns. You can only enter and leave motorways at special junctions.	
	highway		a public way; especially a main direct road
5	set books	a book that students must study for a particular exam	
	course books		a book for studying from, used regularly in class (OALD)

6	rounders	a British game played especially in schools by two teams using a bat and ball. Each player tries to hit the ball and then run around the four sides of a square before the other team can return the ball.	
	baseball		a game played especially in the US by two teams of nine players, using a bat and ball. Each player tries to hit the ball and then run around four bases before the other team can return the ball.
7	crumpets	a small flat round cake with small holes in the top, eaten hot with butter	
	English muffins		bread dough rolled and cut into rounds, baked on a griddle, and split and toasted just before eating

Table 6

2. Unknown word but existing concept			
Source:		Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary	Merriam-Webster Dictionary
1	car park	an area or a building where people can leave their cars	
	parking lot		an area where people can leave their cars
2	baker's	a shop that sells bread and cakes	
	bakery		a place where bread and cakes are made and/or sold
3	dustbin	a large container with a lid, used for putting rubbish/garbage in, usually kept outside the house	
	trashcan		a container that holds materials that have been thrown away

4	bobble hats	a hat with a bobble (bambule), bobble: a small, soft ball, usually made of wool, that is used especially for decorating clothes	a small ball of fabric; especially one in a series used on an edging
	bonnets		a cloth or straw hat tied under the chin and worn by women and children
5	roundabout	a round platform for children to play on in a park, etc. that is pushed round while the children are sitting on it	
	carousel		= merry-go-round (= an amusement park ride with seats often in the form of animals (as horses) revolving about a fixed center)
6	punch-bag	a heavy leather bag, hung on a rope, which is punched, especially by boxers as part of training, or as a form of exercise	
	punching bag		a stuffed or inflated bag usually suspended for free movement and punched for exercise or for training in boxing
7	sello-tape	clear plastic tape that is sticky on one side, used for sticking things together	
	scotch tape		clear plastic tape that is sticky on one side, used for sticking things together (OALD)
8	cine-camera	<i>not found in dictionary</i>	
	video camera		a camera that records video and usually audio
9	sellotaped	to join or stick things together with Sellotape	
	taped		to stick something onto something else using sticky tape

	bobbles	a small, soft ball, usually made of wool, that is used especially for decorating clothes	
10	puff-balls		<i>not found in dictionary</i>
11	glove puppet	a type of puppet that you put over your hand and move using your fingers	
	hand puppet		a small-scale figure (as of a person or animal) usually with a cloth body and hollow head that fits over and is moved by the hand
12	bins	a container that you put waste in	
	trash cans		a container that holds materials that have been thrown away
13	beetroot	a plant with a round dark red root that is cooked and eaten as a vegetable	
	beet		the rounded red root of the beet plant that is eaten as a vegetable
14	ice lolly	a piece of ice flavoured with fruit, served on a stick	
	ice pop		<i>not found in dictionary</i>
15	letter-box	a narrow opening in a door or wall through which mail is delivered	
	mail slot		a narrow opening in a door or wall through which mail is delivered
16	sharp turning	a place where a road leads away from the one you are travelling on	
	sharp turn		the action or an act of giving or taking a different direction
17	barman	a man who works in a bar, serving drinks	
	bartender		a person who serves drinks at a bar



18	bogey-flavoured	a piece of dried mucus from inside your nose ( <i>informal</i> )	
	booger-flavored		a piece of dried nasal mucus ( <i>informal</i> )
19	queuing	to wait in a line of people, vehicles, etc. in order to do something, get something or go somewhere	
	lining up		to stand in a line or row; to form a queue / line
20	jacket potato	a potato cooked in its skin in an oven	
	baked potato		a potato cooked in its skin in an oven

Table 7

3. Existing word but with a different lexical meaning			
Source:		Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary	Merriam-Webster Dictionary
1	motorbike	a road vehicle with two wheels, driven by an engine, with one seat for the driver and often a seat for a passenger behind the driver	a small motorcycle / a bicycle which has a small engine
	motorcycle		an automotive vehicle with two in-line wheels
2	fringe	the front part of somebody's hair that is cut so that it hangs over their forehead	an ornamental border consisting of short straight or twisted threads or strips hanging from cut or raveled edges or from a separate band
	bangs		the front part of somebody's hair that is cut so that it hangs over their forehead
3	jumper	a knitted piece of clothing made of wool or cotton for the upper part of the body, with long sleeves and no buttons	a loose dress with no sleeves, usually worn over a blouse or sweater
	sweater		a knitted or crocheted jacket or pullover

	post	the official system used for sending and delivering letters, packages, etc.	a piece (as of timber or metal) fixed firmly in an upright position especially as a stay or support
4	mail		a nation's postal system
5	packet of crisps	packet = a small paper or cardboard container in which goods are packed for selling; crisps = a thin round slice of potato that is fried until hard then dried and eaten cold. Crisps are sold in bags and have many different flavours.	a small bundle or parcel / a small thin package
	bag of chips		bag = a usually flexible container that may be closed for holding, storing, or carrying something/ the amount contained in a bag; chips = a thin slice of white potato that has been cooked until crisp and then usually salted
6	notes	a piece of paper money	
	bills		a piece of paper money
7	gummy	a gummy smile shows your teeth and gums ( <i>informal</i> )	
	toothless		having no teeth
8	football	a game played by two teams of 11 players, using a round ball which players kick up and down the playing field. Teams try to kick the ball into the other team's goal.	any of several games played between two teams on a usually rectangular field having goalposts or goals at each end and whose object is to get the ball over a goal line, into a goal, or between goalposts by running, passing, or kicking
	soccer		a game played on a field between two teams of 11 players each with the object to propel a round ball into the opponent's goal by kicking or by hitting it with any part of the body except the hands and arms

9	trolley	a small vehicle with wheels that can be pushed or pulled along and used for carrying things	a device that carries electric current from an overhead wire to an electrically driven vehicle
	cart		a light vehicle pushed or pulled by hand
10	trainers	a shoe that you wear for sports or as informal clothing	one that trains
	sneakers		a sports shoe with a pliable rubber sole
11	pitch	an area of ground specially prepared and marked for playing a sports game	
	field		an area of land used for playing a sport on
12	football	a large round or oval ball made of leather or plastic and filled with air	an inflated oval ball used in the game of football
	soccer ball		<i>not found in dictionary</i>
13	a tea of	a light meal eaten in the afternoon or early evening, usually with sandwiches and/or biscuits and cakes and with tea to drink	
	a meal of		an occasion when people sit down to eat food, especially breakfast, lunch or dinner
14	changing room	a room for changing clothes in, especially before playing sports	a room where people can change their clothes in a public place (such as a store)
	locker room		a room for changing clothes and for storing clothing and equipment in lockers
15	revision timetables	revision = the process of learning work for an exam; timetable = a list showing the times at which particular events will happen	
	study schedules		study = to read in detail especially with the intention of learning; schedules = a procedural plan that indicates the time and sequence of each operation

16	revision	the process of learning work for an exam	
	studying		to read in detail especially with the intention of learning

Table 8

4. Existing word but with a different non-descriptive meaning			
	Source:	Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary	Merriam-Webster Dictionary
1	lot	a group or set of people or things	a number of associated persons
	bunch		a number of things/persons of the same kind
2	shan't		
	won't		
3	lot	a group or set of people or things	a number of associated persons
	crowd		a group of people having something (as a habit, interest, or occupation) in common
4	cooker	a large piece of equipment for cooking food, containing an oven and gas or electric rings on top	a utensil, device, or apparatus for cooking
	stove		a portable or fixed apparatus that burns fuel or uses electricity to provide heat (as for cooking or heating)
5	video recorder	a piece of equipment used to record and play films/movies and TV programmes on video	a machine that is used to make and watch video recordings of television programs, movies
	VCR		a device that uses videocassettes for recording and playing back videotapes
6	cinema	a building in which films/movies are shown	a motion-picture theater
	movies		a showing of a motion picture

7	had a place		
	had been accepted		
8	holidaying	to spend a holiday somewhere	to take or spend a vacation or holiday
	vacationing		to take or spend a vacation
9	toilet	a room containing a toilet	= bathroom
	bathroom		a room in which there is a toilet, a sink and sometimes a bath/ bathtub or shower
10	mixer	a machine or device used for mixing things	a container, device, or machine for mixing
	food processor		an electric kitchen appliance with a set of interchangeable blades revolving inside a container
11	happily	in a cheerful way; with feelings of pleasure or satisfaction	in a happy manner or state
	cheerfully		full of good spirits
12	mint humbug		
	peppermint humbug		
13	jelly	a cold sweet transparent food made from gelatin, sugar and fruit juice, that shakes when it is moved	a soft somewhat elastic food product made usually with gelatin or pectin
	Jell-O		used for a gelatin dessert usually with the flavor and color of fruit
14	Happy Christmas		
	Merry Christmas		
15	sweets	a small piece of sweet food, usually made with sugar and/or chocolate and eaten between meals	a food (as a candy or preserve) having a high sugar content
	candy		a confection made with sugar and often flavoring and filling
16	disused	no longer used	no longer used or occupied
	unused		not being used; not having been used before

17	Philosopher's stone	a person who thinks deeply about things	
	Sorcerer's stone		a man with magic powers, who is helped by evil spirits
18	dressing gown	a long loose piece of clothing, usually with a belt, worn indoors over night clothes, for example when you first get out of bed	a robe worn especially while dressing or resting
	bathrobe		a loose often absorbent robe worn before and after bathing or as a dressing gown
19	lookout	used to say that you do not think somebody's actions are sensible, but that it is their own problem or responsibility ( <i>informal</i> )	
	problem		used to show that you think a person should deal with their own difficulties ( <i>informal</i> )
20	on about	to talk in a boring or complaining way about something ( <i>informal, disapproving</i> )	
	talking about		to say words in order to express one's thoughts, feelings, opinions, etc., about (something)
21	sweet-shop	sweets + shop	
	candy shop		candy + shop
22	lavatory seat	a toilet, or a room with a toilet in it ( <i>old-fashioned, formal</i> )	
	toilet seat		a large bowl attached to a pipe that you sit on or stand over when you get rid of waste matter from your body
23	quits	when two people are quits, they do not owe each other anything, especially money ( <i>informal</i> )	
	even		to no longer owe somebody money or a favour ( <i>informal</i> )

	mad	having a mind that does not work normally; mentally ill	unable to think in a clear or sensible way/carried away by intense anger
24	crazy		not mentally sound
25	[i]s barking	completely crazy	
	off his rocker		to be crazy
26	drawn	to finish a game without either team winning	
	tied		to make or have an equal score with in a contest
27	came top of the year	to be the student with the best results	
	had the best grades of the first years		

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