CHAPTER 2
FRAMEWORK OF THE THEORIES

As what have been stated on Chapter 1, translating is a way of transferring messages and/or meanings from one language to another language with the closest and most logical equivalence. To support the aims of this research, the writer applies the theories concerning translation studies. The theories used are the theories that are relevant with the problems stated in this research. The theories are explained deeply and comprehensively so they can strongly support this research. The theories include the definitions of translation from some experts and strategies of translating including methods, techniques, and procedures of translation by some experts.

According to Brislin (1976: 1), translation is a general term referring to the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another, whether the language is in written or oral form, whether the languages have established orthographies or not; or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with signs of the deaf.

Another expert, Wilss (1982: 3) states that translation is a transfer process which aims at the transformation of a written source language text (SLT) into an optimally equivalent target language text (TLT), and which requires the syntactic, the semantic, and the pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the source text. Syntactic understanding is related to style and meaning. Understanding of semantics is meaning related activity. Finally, pragmatic understanding is related to the message or implication of a sentence. This definition does not state what is transferred. Rather, it states the requirement of the process.

Nida and Taber (1982: 12) see translating as a process of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. In other words, translation is a transfer of meaning, message, and style from one SLT to the TLT. In the order of priority, style is put the last. Here the thing to reproduce (transfer) is stated, message.

Newmark (1991: 27) defines the act of translating very briefly. It is the act of transferring meaning of a stretch or a unit of language, the whole or a part, from one language to another.

2.1 Newmark's Theory

2.1.1 Methods of Translation

Through V diagram, Newmark (1988: 45-47) describes there are eight methods of translation that are classified into two emphases. The first emphasis is the translation methods that are oriented in Source language: *word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation,* and *semantic translation.* The other four translation methods are oriented in Target Language: *adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation,* and *communicative translation.*

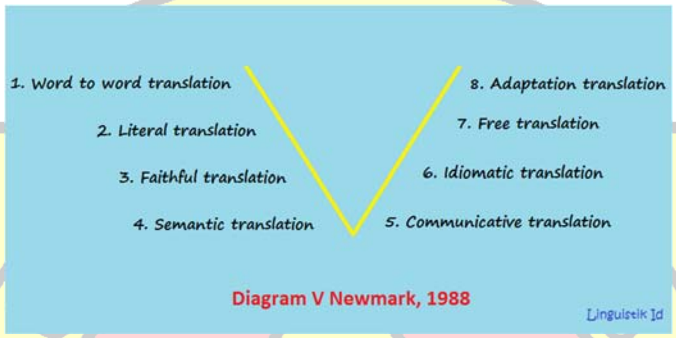

Figure 2.1 Diagram V by Newmark

2.1.1.1 Word-for-word Translation

This is often demonstrated as interlinear translation, with The TL immediately below the SL words. The SL word-order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. Cultural words are translated literally. The main use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or construe a difficult text as a pre-translation process.

2.1.1.2 Literal Translation

The SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. As a pre-translation process, this indicates the problems to be solved.

2.1.1.3 Faithful Translation

A faithful Translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the Target Language grammatical structures. It 'transfers' cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical 'abnormality' (deviation from Source Language norms) in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realisation of the Source Language writer.

2.1.1.4 Semantic Translation

Semantic translation differs from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value (that is, the beautiful and natural sounds of the SL text, compromising on 'meaning' where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play or repetition jars in the finished version. Further, it may translate less important cultural words or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents, and it may make other small concessions to the readership. The distinction between 'faithful' and 'semantic' translation is that the first is uncompromising and dogmatic, while the second is more flexible, admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity and allows for the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.

2.1.1.5 Adaptation

This is the 'freest' form of translation. It is used mainly for plays, comedies and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved. The SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten. The deplorable practice of having a play or poem literally translated and then rewritten by an established dramatist or poet has produced many poor adaptations, but other adaptations have 'rescued' period plays.

2.1.1.6 Free Translation

Free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original. Usually it is a paraphrase much longer than the original, a so-called 'intra lingual translation', often prolix and pretentious, and not translation at all.

2.1.1.7 Idiomatic translation

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- (Authorities as diverse as Seteskovitch and Stuart Gilbert tend to this form of lively, 'natural' translation.)

2.1.1.8 Communicative Translation

Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a wav that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

2.1.2 Procedures of Translation

Newmark (1988:81-93) said while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language. These are the procedures of translation according to Newmark:

2.1.2.1 Transference

It is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text as a translation procedure. It is the same as Catford's transference, and includes transliteration, which relates to the conversion of different alphabets.

2.1.2.2 Naturalization

This procedure succeeds the transference procedure and adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL. For example, the word 'document' in English is translated into '*dokumen*' in Bahasa Indonesia.

2.1.2.3 Cultural Equivalent

This is an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word. For example, the phrase 'a level exam' (in English), which is the name of exam for university in education system in England, can be translated into '*ujian SPMB*' (in Bahasa Indonesia).

The above are approximate cultural equivalents. Their translation uses are limited, since they are not accurate, but they can be used in general texts, publicity and propaganda, as well as for brief explanation to readers who are ignorant of the relevant SL culture. They have a greater pragmatic impact than culturally neutral terms. Occasionally, they may be purely functionally, hardly descriptively, equivalent. Functional cultural equivalents are even more restricted in translation, but they may occasionally be used if the term is of little importance in a popular article or popular fiction. They are important in drama, as they can create an immediate effect.

2.1.2.4 Functional Equivalence

This common procedure, applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralizes or generalizes the SL word.

This procedure, which is a cultural componential analysis, is the most accurate way of translating.

This procedure occupies the middle, sometimes the universal, area between the SL language or culture and the TL language or culture. If practised one to one, it is an under-translation. If practised one to two, it may be an over-translation. For cultural terms, it is often combined with transference.

2.1.2.5 Descriptive Equivalent

In translation, description sometimes has to be weighed against function. Description and function arc essential elements in explanation and therefore in translation. In translation discussion, function used to be neglected; now it tends to be overplayed.

2.1.2.6 Synonymy

I use the word synonym in the sense of a near TL equivalent to an SL word in a context, where a precise equivalent may or may not exist. This procedure is used for a SL word where there is no clear one-to-one equivalent, and the word is not important in the text, in particular for adjectives or adverbs of quality (which in principle are 'outside' the grammar and less important than other components of a sentence). A synonym is only appropriate where literal translation is not possible and because the word is not important enough for componential analysis. Here economy precedes accuracy.

A translator cannot do without synonymy; he has to make do with it as a compromise, in order to translate more important segments of the text, segments of the meaning, more accurately. However, unnecessary use of synonyms is a mark of many poor translations.

2.1.2.7 Shifts or Transposition

A ‘shift’ (Catford's term) or 'transposition’ (Vinay and Darbelnet) is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL. One type, the change from singular to plural, or in the position of the adjective, is automatic and offers the translator no choice.

A second type of shift is required when an SL grammatical structure does not exist in the TL. Here there are always options. The third type of shift is the one where literal translation is grammatically possible but may not accord with natural usage in the TL.

2.1.2.8 Modulation

Modulation is defined a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought. The change can come in varies. One of most common modulation procesures used is 'active for passive' (and vice versa), when no passive exists, advisable where, say, a reflexive is normally preferred to a passive.

2.1.2.9 Compensation

This is said to occur when loss of meaning, sound-effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part, or in a contiguous sentence.

2.1.2.10 Reduction

Reduction is reducing the words from source text, because the meaning has been well understood without those words reduced; while expansion or contextual matching is to add certain words without changing and/or adding the meaning in target text.

2.1.2.11 Paraphrase

This is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text. It is used in an 'anonymous' text when it is poorly written, or has important implications and omissions.

2.1.2.12 Couplet

Couplets, triplets, quadruplets combine two, three or four of the above-mentioned procedures respectively for dealing with a single problem. They are particularly common for cultural words if transference is combined with a functional or a cultural equivalent. You can describe them as two or more bites at one cherry.

2.1.2.13 Notes, Additions, Glosses

The additional information a translator may have to add to his version is normally cultural (accounting for difference between SL and TL culture), technical (relating to the topic) or linguistic (explaining wayward use of words), and is dependent on the requirement of his, as opposed to the original, readership. In expressive texts, such information can normally only be given outside the version, although brief concessions for minor cultural details can be made to the reader.

2.1.3 Dynamics of Translation

Hoed (2006:41-42) quotes Newmark (1988:5), that in translating, we are asked us to see text as something that has dynamics and not only be static. The theory is described in a chart named ‘The Dynamics of Translation’ as what can be seen on the picture below.

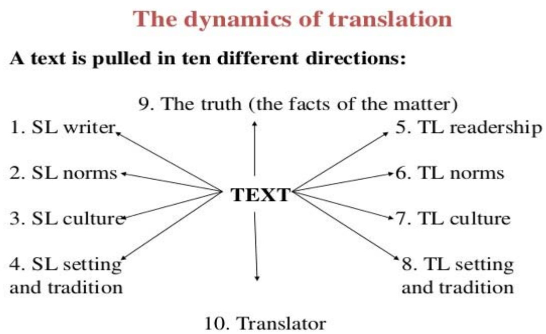

Figure 2.2. The dynamics of translation

Generally, a source text has meanings that are meant by the author. However, sometimes translating a text is influenced by some external factors of the text itself. Newmark states ten factors that influence the meaning of a text. Four factors are viewed through ST side, i.e. (1) **SL writer**; usually has intention or certain purpose; (2) **SL Norms**; which include grammatical, textual, and related language social rules; (3) **SL Culture**; and (4) **setting**; which includes place and time of production, and text form that is salient in ST. The other factors are viewed through TT side, i.e. (5) **TL Readership**; who can have their own way to get the meanings of the text that can be different from what is exactly meant by the author of ST readers and; (6) **TL Norms**; some rules that could be different from SL rules; (7) **TL Culture**; the cultures that set TT and its readers, and (8) **setting**; place and time of reading, and text form that is various in ST.

Beside those eight factors mentioned above, there are still two factors that influence translation process, i.e. (9) **the truth**, in which the things that are told and stated in the text could be something that is not familiar or less understood, or understood based on the educational and cultural backgrounds of either the translator or the TT readers, and (10) **the translator**, whose knowledge really influences his result of the translation.

The ten factors stated above should be realized by a translator so he or she can anticipate the problems when the target readers read his or her translation.

2.2 Eugene Nida and Charles Taber's Theory

2.2.1 Procedures of Translation

In translating, we must follow the procedures that are hoped to ensure the accuracy of our work and the best result. Nida and Taber (1974:33) describes the procedures comprise three stages: (1) **analysis**; in which the surface structure (i.e., the message as given in source language) is analyzed in terms of (a) the grammatical relationships and (b) the meanings of the words and combinations of words, (2) **transfer**; in which the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from source language to receptor language, and (3) **restructuring**; in which the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the receptor language. This approach may be diagrammed as in picture below.

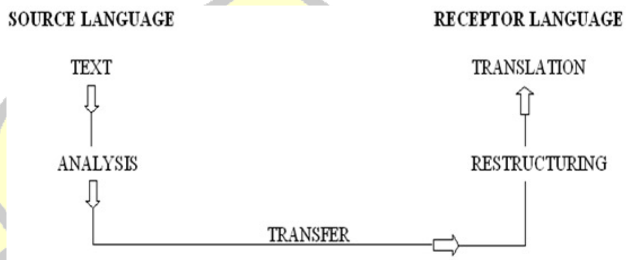

Figure 2.3. Diagram of translation procedures

2.2.2 Formal and Dynamic Equivalence

Munday (2001:42-43) says the old terms such as 'literal', 'free' and 'faithful' translation are discarded by Nida (1964:159) in favour of 'two basic orientations' or 'types of equivalence': (1) formal equivalence and (2) dynamic equivalence. These are defined by Nida as follows:

2.2.2.1 Formal equivalence

Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content. One is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. (Nida 1964a: 159)

Nida and Taber (1969: 22–28) define formal equivalence, or 'formal correspondence' is thus keenly oriented towards the ST structure, which exerts strong influence in determining accuracy and correctness. Most typical of this kind of translation are 'gloss translations', with a close approximation to ST structure, often with scholarly footnotes, allowing the student (since this type of translation will often be used in an academic environment) to gain close access to the language and customs of the source culture.

2.2.2.2 Dynamic Equivalence

Dynamic or functional equivalence is based on what Nida calls 'the principle of equivalent effect', where 'the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message' (Nida 1964: 159). The message has to be tailored to the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural expectation and 'aims at complete naturalness of expression'. 'Naturalness' is a key requirement for Nida. Indeed, he defines the goal of dynamic equivalence as seeking 'the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message' (Nida 1964: 166, Nida and Taber 1969: 12). This receptor-oriented approach considers cultural references to be essential in order to achieve naturalness; the TT language should not show interference from the SL, and the 'foreignness' of the ST setting is minimized (Nida 1964: 167–168) in a way that would now be criticized by later adaptations of grammar, of lexicon and of culturally oriented translation theorists.

For Nida (1964:164), the success of the translation depends above all on achieving equivalent response. It is one of the 'four basic requirements of a translation', which are: (1) making sense, (2) conveying the spirit and manner of the original, (3) having a natural and easy form of expression, and (4) producing a similar response.

Although dynamic equivalence aims to meet all these requirements, it is also a graded concept since Nida accepts that the 'conflict' between the traditional notions of content and form cannot always be easily resolved. As a general rule for such conflicts, Nida underlines that 'correspondence in meaning must have priority over correspondence in style' if equivalent effect is to be achieved.

2.3 Techniques of Translation

Hoed in his book entitled *Penerjemahan dan Kebudayaan* (Translating and Culture) (2006:72-78) describes to solve the problems in translating we can use techniques of translation that have been summarized into:

2.3.1 Transposition

We change the structure of the sentence to obtain the correct translation. For example:

ST : "Let me know"

TT : *"biarkan saya mengetahuinya"* = *"beritahu saya"*

From the example above, "Let me know" can be literally translated "*biarkan saya tahu*". However, in other hand, "*beritahu saya*" sounds better because it shows the person asks for something. In this technique, there is no any exact choice because there could be some ways of how to translate it.

2.3.2 Modulation

A translator gives equivalent that is semantically different in viewpoints and its meaning, but in the context it still gives the same message or meaning. For example:

ST : "XYZ liability is mandatory under the applicable law eg. according to Product Liability Law."

TT : *"Tanggung jawab XYZ merupakan kewajiban berdasarkan undang-undang yang berlaku, misalnya Undang-undang perlindungan Konsumen."*

In the example above and in the context, the view point of the source text is on the product, while in the translation or target text the viewpoint is on the consumer.

2.3.3 Descriptive Translation

Because the translator cannot find the translation or equivalent of SL (either he or she does not know or there is or has been no equivalence for the word in TL), he or she should use description that contains the meaning of the word. For example:

ST : "licensed software"

TT : *"perangkat lunak yang dilisensikan"*

In the target text we do not see a term, but a description that gives the same meaning with the English term.

2.3.4 Contextual Conditioning

To make a word well understood (for example the names of food or drink that are not really common for the target readers), usually the translator gives particular word(s) to explain it. For example:

ST : "She prefers the Black Label rather than the ordinary Johnny Walker."

TT : *"Ia lebih suka wiski Johnny Walker Black Label daripada yang biasa."*

In the example above, we can see the translator add word 'wiski' to make the readers understand that what is meant by Johnny Walker is a brand of whiskey and that Black Label is one of the kinds of whiskey from Johnny Waker brand.

2.3.5 Footnotes

The translator gives information in footnotes to make the intended translation crystal clear because the translation is expected not to be well understood by the readers without the additional explanation.

2.3.6 Phonological Translation

The translator cannot get the equivalent that matches in target language, so he or she decides to make new words taken from the source text to be matched with the phonological system and spelling. For example, the word "graphic designer" (English) is translated into "*desainer grafis*".

2.3.7 Official Translation

There are some terms, names, and expressions that have been official in SL so the translator just needs to directly use them as the equivalents. Generally the terms have existed in law books, glossaries in certain fields, or could be the names of people, cities, or areas. For example, the word 'New Zealand' is translated into '*Selandia Baru'*, 'nutrition input' is translated into '*asupan gizi'*.

2.3.8 Borrowing

The translator could not find the translation or equivalence in TL so for a while he or she just uses the original word from SL. The word should be written and spelled exactly the same because it is borrowed from the word in source text. For example, the word 'laptop' in English is also used as '*laptop*' in Bahasa Indonesia with the exactly same spell and pronunciation.

2.3.9 Cultural Equivalent

This technique is about translating by giving equivalent that appears in the TL culture. For example, 'summer session' in English can be translated into '*semester pendek'* in Bahasa as both have the same meaning in the context of both cultures. One more example, an expression in English 'Talk to the hand!' will sound very better if we translate it into '*Ngomong sama ember*!' instead of translating it into '*Ngomong sama tangan!*' because it is more acceptable based on the context in target culture.