

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **II.1 THE NATURE OF TRANSLATING**

Translating process consists in reproducing in the receptor language (TL) the closest natural equivalent of the SL message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style (Nida and Taber, 1982: 12). However, this simple statement requires careful evaluation of several seemingly contradictory elements.

##### **II.1.1 Concept of Translation**

The term translation itself has some meanings: it can refer to general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as translating). The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (ST) in the original verbal language (SL) into a written text (TT) in a different verbal language (TL). This type corresponds to one of the three categories of translation described by Roman Jakobson below, namely interlingual translation (Munday, 2001: 5-6).

1. Intralingual translation, or 'rewording' : an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language. It occurs when we rephrase an expression or text in the same language to explain or clarify something we might have said or written.
2. Interlingual translation, or 'translation proper' : an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other languages.

3. **Intersemiotic translation, or ‘transmutation’, an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems. It happens when a written text is translated into, for instance, music, film, or painting.**

### **II.1.2 Difference Types of Translation**

According to Nida (cited in Venuti, 2000: 127-129), differences in translation can generally be accounted for by three basic factors in translating. The first is the nature of the message. Messages primarily differ in the degree to which content or form is the dominant consideration. Of course, the content of a message can never be completely abstracted from the form, and the form is nothing apart from the content. Briefly, both content and form construct an ideal entity in the translation activity, though in some messages the content is of primary consideration while in others the form must be given a higher priority.

Secondly, is the purpose or purposes of the author and, by proxy, of the translator. The particular purposes of the translator are also important factors in dictating the type of translation. Of course, it is assumed that the translator has generally purposes similar to, or at least compatible with, those of the original author, but this is not necessarily so. Since, however, the purposes of the translator are the primary ones to be considered in studying the types of translation resulted, the principal purposes that underlie the choice of one or another way to render a particular message are important.

The primary purpose of the translator may be information as to both content and form. One intended type of response to such an informative type of

translation is largely cognitive. On the other hand, a largely informative translation may be designed to gain an emotional response of pleasure from the reader or listener. Besides, these purposes may involve much more than merely information. A translator may, for instance, expect to suggest a particular type of behavior by means of a translation. Under such circumstances, he/she needs to achieve a full intelligibility, and to make small adjustments in detail so that the reader could completely understand the thorough message he/she expects to perform.

The last factor is the type of audience. In this case, one must also consider the extent to which prospective audiences differ both in decoding ability and in potential interest. There are four principle levels regarding decoding ability: the capacity of children, the double-standard capacity of new literates whose ability in decoding written messages is limited, the capacity of the average literate adult, and high capacity of specialists (Nida, 2000: 127-129).

### **II.1.3 Translation Devices Applied**

As stated previously, translation work is not mere a matter of talent. To conduct a proper and valid translation, someone has to meet certain requirements to be a good translator. Indeed, those requirements correspond to what so called translation device. The following is Rochayah Machali's notion in terms of the above means, regardless of the text type used, which might be implemented (2000: 11-13).

### **II.1.3.1 Intellectual Devices**

They consist of five important points. The first is the ability in the SL. A translator must be able to comprehend the problems of sentence structure, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and else related to the SL. Sometimes, we may contend with some mistakes merely due to the lack of translator's awareness in recognizing words, phrases, or even clauses which resemble in their spellings. For example, the words 'solace' which means 'pelipur lara', and 'solitude' which means 'kesendirian'.

Secondly is the ability in the TL, specifically Indonesian Language. An ideal translator must be able to share the adequate vocabulary, knowledge of word formation—particularly in terms of affixes, as well as understanding Indonesian grammatical structure, which is much different from others, like English. The lack of these elements may result in improper translation. For instance, the word 'decision-choosing', of which appropriate translation is 'pengambilan keputusan', can be falsely translated into 'keputusan-memilih'.

Thirdly is related to the knowledge concerning the subject being rendered. Usually, a good translator is an expert in his/her subject. For example, a medical translator is an expert in medicine (e.g. doctor or medical lecturer). However, English-grounded translator might also be a good one indeed when he/she masters, or at least is capable of understanding the translated subject (e.g. economics, medicine, etc). Therefore, the translator could apply the right terms to the concerned field, and then combine them with general knowledge he/she possesses. For instance, in the world of medicine, 'health behavior and health

education' is properly rendered into 'perilaku *sehat* dan pendidikan kesehatan' instead of 'perilaku *kesehatan* dan pendidikan kesehatan'.

The fourth is the translator's skill. This is much to do with the various knowledge of the principles, concepts, and theories of translation. Thus, a good translator must be able to recognize of which theory, method, or procedure is best used in rendering the ST. Besides, he/she also needs to consider the processes and steps that a translator should be through (Sakri, 1992: 65-73).

### **II.1.3.2 Practical Devices**

In this inquiry, Machali offers two kinds of devices. The first device highlights the ability in using reference sources within the ST. This ability, as a matter of fact, makes use of general dictionaries, such as personal electronic dictionary or specified dictionary available in computer programs, and that of the particular ones, which only discuss on one-single study (e.g. economic dictionary, medical dictionary, legal dictionary and so forth). Besides, this ability is much concerned with the involvement of some experts in the related studies. Often, we may need hands of people who master specific subjects or fields with which we work out. It is really natural and common since there are sometimes special terms and expressions which need to be specially 'treated' in order to conduct the appropriate translation. For instance, in the medical science, the suitable translation for the term 'health behavior' is 'perilaku *sehat*', not 'perilaku *kesehatan*'. In this case, we also need to pay more attention to what so-called commonness in translation (remember that there is no exact standardization which

could be applied completely in the world of translation). Meanwhile, the second device embodies the ability in recognizing certain contexts in the ST, either direct context or indirect one (Machali, 2000: 11).

## **II.2 PROBLEMS OF EQUIVALENCE**

Translation involves far more than replacement of lexical and grammatical items between languages and the process may involve discarding the basic linguistic elements of the SL text. But once the translator moves away from close linguistic equivalence, the problems of determining the exact nature of the level of equivalence aimed for begin to emerge (Bassnett, 1980: 25).

Overtly, translation is not merely a matter of linguistic equivalence. However, it takes much more language components that need to be considered. Bassnett, in turn, explains that equivalence in translation should not be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot even exist between two TL versions of the same text, let alone between the SL and the TL version (1980: 29). Here are several outstanding experts' notions which clarify this equivalence problem.

### II.2.1 Popovic's Point of View

He distinguishes this equivalence into four types (Bassnett, 1980: 25):

1. *Linguistic equivalence*, where there is homogeneity on the linguistic level of both SL and TL texts, i.e. word for word translation.
2. *Paradigmatic equivalence*, where there is equivalence of the element of a paradigmatic expressive axis, i.e. elements of grammar.
3. *Stylistic (translational) equivalence*, where there is functional equivalence of elements in both original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning.
4. *Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence*, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a text, i.e. equivalence of form and shape.

### II.2.2 Nida's Point of View

Nida (cited in Venuti, 2000: 129-130), proposes two types of equivalence:

#### 1. *Formal Equivalence*

This equivalence focuses on the message itself, in both form and content. In such a translation one is concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept. Viewed from this formal orientation, the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the SL. This means, for instance, that the message in the receptor culture is constantly compared with the message in the source culture to determine translation which most completely typifies this structural equivalence might be called standards of accuracy and correctness.

The type of translation which most completely typifies this structural equivalence might be called a “gloss translation”, in which the translator attempts to reproduce as literally and meaningfully as possible the form and content of the original text. It is designed to allow the reader to identify himself as fully as possible with a person in the SL context, and means of expression.

## *2. Dynamic Equivalence*

Still in Nida, unlike the prior one, this equivalence attempts to produce a translation in accordance with the so called the principle of equivalent effect. Here, one is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language (TL) message with the SL message, but with the dynamic relationship. This means that the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptor and the message.

This equivalence, in fact, aims to create complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his/her own culture. There is no such insistence that one (refers to the reader) should understand the cultural patterns of the SL context in order to comprehend the message (Rieu and Phillips, in Venuti, 2000: 129).

## **II.3 LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL DISTANCE**

Nida, cited in Venuti, stated that in any discussion of equivalences, we are always expected to share three different types of translation relatedness as the following (2000: 130):



1. Translation which involves closely related languages and cultures, e.g. translations from Indonesian into Malay, or English into French.
2. Translation where the language may not be related, though the cultures are closely parallel, e.g. translations from English into Hungarian, or German into Finnish (English and German are Indo-European languages, while Hungarian and Finnish are Finno-Ugrian family).
3. Translation which involves not only differences of linguistic affiliation, but also very diverse cultures, e.g. translations from English into Indonesian, or Javanese into English.

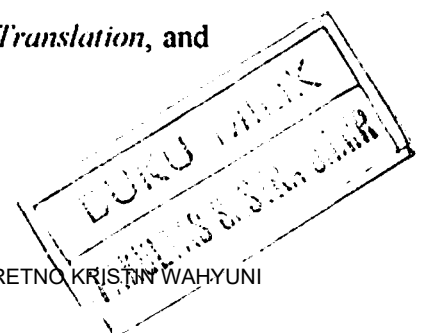
Further, Nida noted that when the linguistic and cultural distances between the source and receptor codes are the least, we expect to encounter the least problems. Yet, the fact shows that the more languages are closely related, the greater possibilities to be poor translation. For example, English 'demand' and French 'demander'. Meanwhile, when the cultures are related, but not the languages, we tend to make use of many formal shifts in the translation. Due to their cultural similarities (parallelism in content), the translation difficulties tend to be easier compared to that of sharing the disparate languages and cultures (2000: 130).

#### **II.4 CURRENT ISSUES TOWARD TRANSLATION STUDIES**

Similar to other disciplines, there are so many translation studies that have been conducted so far. Today, the issues concerning this translation field are unceasingly discussed and examined. Unexceptionally university students of different degrees and subject-matters all over the world take place in various translation studies and researches. As the result, the study of translation, particularly in the university academic environment, is getting much more popular than previously.

An example of this translation study, of which the title *Constructing a Model for Shift Analysis in Translation* (2001), was conducted by Mohammad Q.R. Al-Zoubi and Ali Rasheed Al-Hassnawi from Irbid National University, Jordan. In this paper, they attempted to construct a workable eclectic model for shift analysis. The major purpose of this analysis was to provide a sound machinery in order to examine various types of shifts in translation at various levels of linguistic and paralinguistic descriptions. The construction of such model made use of many grammatical, textual, pragmatic, and stylistic theories and approaches that were well interacted. This activity was then operated in order to attain a comprehensive and objective machinery of shift analysis in which translation studies and practice were still lacking.

Other examples were presented in the same year of 2002 by University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. These studies were conducted by Patrick Kavanagh with *Contemporary Italian Travel Writing in English Translation*, and



Brendan Kennely with *Translating Poetic Metaphor - Explorations in the Process of Translation*.

Instead of the studies held overseas, there are also a large numbers of which we can observe in Indonesia, as found in the English Department of Airlangga University. These papers indicate that in spite of the unpublished work, they may represent the students' interests toward translating activity, and become the preceding step in encouraging the development of the translation work. For instance, the current study performed by Riskia Setiarini with *A Study of Translation Procedures in Humor Book Entitled Enriching Vocabulary through Anecdotes 3 by Pertiwi Ambarningrum (2003)*. This paper intended to define the translation procedures better used in each humor text being analyzed. She made use of the seven points of Vinay & Darbelnet's translation procedures. Finally, she drew a conclusion that the most frequent procedures applied in sequence are literal, modulation, transposition, and borrowing.

Another local work was done by Rizki Amalia of which the title *A Study of the Translation Procedures of Some Business and Economics Terms in "Bisnis & Investasi" Column of Kompas Daily Newspaper (September to November 2000 Editions)* (2002). Here, she employed the principles of Peter Newmark's translation procedure to quote some business and economic terms, and then to classify them into the suitable procedures. It was found that of the nineteen, the procedures of literal, modulation, definition, and paraphrase were counted to be the most frequently applied.

# **CHAPTER III PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**