

Lecture-2

Translation theory as a science.

PLAN

- 1. Introduction**
- 2. Subject matter of the theory of translation**
- 3. The main directions in the history linguistic theory of translation.**
- 4. The nature of translation**
- 5. Linguistic and extralinguistic aspects of translation.**

Introduction

Translation trains to search flexibility for the most appropriate words to convey what is meant. Translation theory derives from comparative linguistics. It is mainly an aspect of semantics. All questions of semantics relate to translation theory. Social linguistics which investigates the social registers of language and the problems of languages in contact also relate to translation theory. Semiotics the science of signs, is an essential factor in translation theory. The American philosopher C. S. Peice (1934) is usually regarded as its founder. He says that a communicative factor of any sign has a self contained meaning. One word may be understood differently by different people: for eg. "My lolly", "ice". Translation is a craft consisting of replacing one statement in one language by the same statement or message in another language. The American linguistic Nida did much for the development of translation theory. In his books almost every translation problem is discussed. He adapts transformational grammar to translation. He proposes eight model kernel sentences as translational stages between source and target language structures. He applies componential analysis, discusses the logical relation of words with each other, the difference between cultural and linguistic translation practical problems of translation and etc, Federov stresses that translation theory is an independent linguistic discipline,, he believes that all experience(all words, sentences) is translatable and he rejects the view that language expresses a peculiar mental word-picture.

The last decade saw considerable headway in the development of the linguistic theory of the translation.

A number of fundamental contributions to this theory have been recently made both in our country and abroad.

Theoretical studies in translation have kept abreast with the recent advances in linguistics which provided some new insights into the mechanism of translation and the factors determining it.

The theory of translation has benefited from new syntactic and semantic models in linguistics and from development of such hyphenated disciplines as psycho- and socio- linguistics. Equally insightful was the contribution to the theory of translation by semiotics, a general theory of sign systems.

A condensation of the major problems of translation introduces the reader to basic concepts and defines the terminology." The subjects discussed include the subject — matter of the theory of translation and the nature of translating, semantic and pragmatic aspects of translation/ these lectures were written by LD.Sgvaytser, Grammatical problems of translation and grammatical transformations (L.S.Barkhudarov), Lexical Problems Of translation and lexical transformations (A.M. Fiterman), Stylistics aspects of translation and its socio-regional problems (A.D.Shveitser). The summary of the lecture is based on the syllables of foreign scholars: prof. A. Neubet, prof. E.Nida, prof. Roger. T.Bell's view points on theory and practical of translation.

& 1 THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE THEORY OF TRANSLATION.

The theory of translation is subdivided into general .theory, dealing with the general characteristics of translation, regardless of its type, and special branches, concerned with a theoretical description and analyses of the various types of translation, such as the translation of fiction poetry, technical and scientific literature, official documents, etc. The general theory of translation has a clearly defined subject matter, the process of translating in its entirety, including its results with due regard for all the factors affecting it. Each special branch depends and specifies the general theory for it is the job of the general theory to reflect what is common to all types and varieties of translation while the special branches arc mainly concerned with the specifics of each genre.

The general theory of translation is an interdisciplinary area, predominantly linguistic, but also closely allied to philology, sociology, ethnography and etc. It is based on the application of linguistics theory to a specific type of speech behavior, i.e. translating. It differs from contrastive linguistics in that the former seem to compare different language systems with a view to determining their similarities and distinctive icatures while the theory of translation has a subject matter of its own (the process of translation) and uses the data of.contrastive linguistics merely as a point of departure.

2. THE MAIN DIRECTIONS IN THE HISTORY LINGUISTIC THEORY OF TRANSLATION.

The earliest linguistics theory of translation was developed by Russian scholars Y.L.Retsker and A.V.Fedorov who pioneered in a linguistic analysis of translation problems. Their theory came to be known as the theory of regular correspondences.

Translation, they agreed, is inconceivable without a sound linguistic basis, and this study of linguistic phenomena and the establishment of certain correspondences between the language of the original and that of the translation. The authors of this theory were mainly concerned with the typology of relationship between linguistic units equivalents - permanent correspondences not sensitive to context such as The

League of Nations – Лига Наций, and context - Sensitive variant correspondences , such as Slander – клевета нового поколения but also investigated some of the translation techniques, such as antonimic translation (see below, thus mapping out some ways of dealing with translation as a process'.'

In the 60th some linguistics /N.U.Rozentsveig in Russia and L.E.Nida in the USA / proposed a theoretical model of translation based on generative or transformational grammar. E.Nida subdivided the process of translation into 3 stages, analysis where an ambiguous surface structure is transformed into non- ambiguous kernel sentences to facilitated semantic interpretation / the foundation of school/ somebody founded a school or a school has a foundation / transfer where equivalent in the target language are found at a kernel or near - kernel level and restructuring where target language kernel sentences are transformed into surface structures.

It is true that in some cases it is necessary to paraphrase the source - language structure to facilitate it's translation. Such transformations come in hardly especially when the target - language, /e.g. He stood with his feet planted wide apart; he stood, his feet were planted wide apart – Он стоял, его ноги были широко расставлены, он стоял, широко расставив ноги.

But transformations in terms of generative are not the only type of paraphrases used in translation. What is more, in some cases, especially when close parallels exist between the Source - and target language structures, they are not even necessary.

The structural model of translation is based on analysis in linguistics developed others. It is based on the assimilation that languages are somewhat different sets of semantic components /constituents of meaning/ to describe identical extra - linguistic situations, Russian verbs of motion contain the component of move but not always the direction of movement while their English equivalents are often neutral, the direction of/ БоТОНvuiеr - Here he conies / Here he goes/

The structural model provides some interesting insights into the mechanism of translation, especially when a situation is described in different semantic categories of /проточный пруд and spring -- fed pond/ but docs not seem to apply to sentences going beyond a mere description of a situation.

Different translation models complement each other, and should therefore be combined in analyzing of translation as a process.

& 3. THE NATURE OF TRANSLATION.

Translation is the expression in target language of what has been said in source language preserving stylistic and semantic equivalence.

Traditionally under translation is understood:

1. the process, activity of reproduction source language originally in target language.
2. the product of the process of translation. ;

Translators must have:

- a. knowledge of the languages / at least 2 languages /
- b. cultural background: ability to interpret the text
- c. the background of the subject knowledge of techniques, transformations and

portentous of quality translation.

The translator decodes messages transmitted in one language and records them in another. Translation may be regarded as an interlingual communicative act in which at least 3 participants are involved: the sender of source / the author of the source language message/, the translator who acts in individual capacity, of the receptor of the source - language message and as the sender of the equivalent target - language / message /, and the receptor of the target - language /translation/. If the original was not intended for a foreign- language receptor there is one more participant: 'the source - language receptor for whom the message was originally produced.'

Translation as such consists in producing a text /message / in the target language, equivalent to the original text /message/ in the source language. Translation as an interlingual communicative act includes 2 phases: communication between the sender and the translator and communication between the translator and the, receptor of the newly produced target - language text. In the first phase the translator acting as a source - language receptor, analyses the original message. Extracting the information contained in it.

In the second stage, the translator acts as a target - language sender, producing an equivalent message in the target - language and re - directing it to the target language receptor.

In producing the target - Language' text the translator changes its plane of expression / linguistic form/ while its plane of context / meaning / should remain unchanged. In fact, an equivalent / target - language/ message, should match the original in the plane of content. The message, produced by the translator, should make practically the same response in the target- language receptor as the original message in the source language receptor. That means, above all, that whatever the text says and whatever it implies should be understood in the same way by both the source -language user for whom it was originally intended and by the target - language user. It is therefore the translator's duty to make available to the target language receptor the maximum amount of information carried by linguistic signs, including both their denotational / referential/ meanings / i.e. information about the extralinguistic reality which they denote / and their emotive 7 stylistic connotation.

& J. LINGUISTIC AND EXTRALINGUISTIC ' ASPECTS OF TRANSLATION;

However the information conveyed by linguistic signs alone, i.e. the messages overtly expressed in the text, would not be sufficient for adequate translation. Some linguists distinguish between what (they call translation, based purely on the meaning expressed by linguistic signs, and involving recourse to extralinguistic information. In fact, the two are very closely intertwined and in most cases effective translation is impossible without an adequate knowledge of the speech - act situation and the situation described in the text. The phrase "Two on the aisle" Два места ближе к проходу would hardly make much sense unless it is known that the conversation takes place at a box - office / speech act situation /.

The phrase "Поворотом рычага установить момент поступления воздуха в цилиндр" was translated "turn the handle until the air comes into the cylinder" because the translator was familiar with the situation described in the text knowledge of the subject is one of the prerequisites of an adequate translation. "

The translation of technical and amount of technical and scientific knowledge.

QUESTIONS

1. What is translation?
2. What subjects is the translation of theory and practice based on?
3. What is the subject matter of the translation?
4. What are the main directions in the history of translation?
5. What are the main features of the nature of translation?
6. What linguistic and extralinguistic aspects of translation do you know?

Recommended literatures

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KEY WORDS

Flexibility - подходящий

Distinguish - приспособливаться

Implementation- различать

Proposal- улучшать

Exaggerate- увеличивать

Comment- комментировать

Perception- понятия

Complex- сложный

Sender of source- отправитель источника

Target Language – язык, на которой переводят

Source language – язык, от которого переводят

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LECTURE 2

Translation and its peculiarities.

1. The basic problems of translation
2. The choice of the word
3. The meaning of the word and its use
4. Emotive meaning of the word
5. The translation of international words and neologisms
- Methodology, investigating translation
7. Translation with the help of antonyms

LECTURE - №II

THE BASIC PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATION

The difference between is as follows:

The aim of professional translation is to acquaint the reader with the original work of fiction; educational translation as a linguistic subject at the special institute and at school is one of the methods of more conscious and profound study of the foreign language *by* the way of showing up in the English text lexical, grammar and stylistic peculiarities of the English language.

Before speaking of the basic principles of translating process the concept of the term "faithfulness of translation" should be determined.

The translation is considered to be faithful when the content of the book, its stylistic peculiarities are rendered by the linguistic means of the native language. It means that very often we have to use such linguistic categories of the native language, which formally don't, coincide with those of the English language but have the same emotional and psychological effect on the Russian reader.

The process of educational translation presents 4 stages:

- I. First of all the text should be thoroughly understood. It means that the student should be acquainted with the whole book, should have some knowledge of the history of literature and mode of life of the people from whose language the translation is being done.
2. The student should realize the stylistic functions of lexical and grammar and phonetic phenomena which are used to express the content of the text.

3. Then the work on the choice of corresponding means of expression in the native language should be done.
4. The last stage is a work on the Russian or Uzbek text.

THE CHOICE OF THE WORD.

The choice of the word is one of the most difficult problems of translation which is closely connected with the following problems.

I. THE LOGICAL MEANING OF THE WORD.

Any grammatical phenomena or stylistic- peculiarities do not always coincide with those of the foreign language as well as the meaning of the separate words which are lexical equivalents. The main meaning of the English word "table" coincides with that of the Russian language. But the Russian "СТОЛ" has one additional meaning: "питание" "пансион" means while in English we have the special words to express the idea:

"board room and board". At same time English "table" has the additional meaning to «таблица»

Table	стол	board
Таблица	питание	room and board
Пансион		

2. INDEPENDENT AND CONNECTED MEANING OF WORD.

The logical meaning of the word may be both independent and connected with other words. The Hitler can be understood in the given combination of words. A color bar – цветной (ярко окрашенный) барьер was seen in the distance.

There exist a color bar (расовая дискриминация) in the South Africa.

3. THE MEANING OF THE WORD AND ITS USE.

The meaning of the word shouldn't be mixed with its use. Sometimes even a inonosemanlic word can be combined with a lot of words and is rendered in Russian by different words:

A young man	-	молодой человек
A young child	-	маленький ребёнок
Young in a crime	-	неопытный преступник
The night is young	-	началась ночь
Department of justice	-	министерство юстиции
Ministry of defense	-	министерство обороны
Board of trade	-	министерство торговли
Admiralty	-	морское министерство

The First Lord of Admiralty	-	военно – морской министр
Chancellor	-	министр финансов
War office	-	военное министерство
A bad headache	-	сильная головная боль
A bad mistake	-	грубая ошибка
A bad weather	-	плохая погода
A bad debt	-	невозвращённый долг
A bad accident	-	тяжёлый (несчастный) случай
A bad wound	-	тяжёлая ран

4. CONTEXT

The word in the sentence may acquire so-called contextual meaning. It, may be not constant, as a rule we can't find the contextual meaning of the word in the dictionary. But it always has something in common with the main meaning of the word,

"In the atomic war common and children will be first hostage."¹ The dictionary gives only one meaning of the given word – «золотник», but in the given sentence the word acquires a new meaning; «жертва». It's a great difficulty to find out the contextual meaning of the word as the dictionary only gives hints how to search for the necessary word in our native town language .

The majority of the words are known to be polisemantic and the context becomes especially important while translating polisemantic words as translating in different languages is quite different.

5. SYNONYMS

Besides finding the exact meaning of the word the students should be able to choose the necessary word from corresponding number of synonyms in the native language.

-"She was brave about it."

"Brave" means храбрый, «смелый», благородный, «прекрасный» sentence and other words can be used in translating the given sentence and other words should be given preference too: "отважный", "мужественный".

The English language is very rich in synonyms. Synonymous pairs are very characteristic of the English language. They are more emphatic.

The weak and humble Jew. ("The Path of Thunder" page 80)

6 MOTIVE MEANING OF THE WORD

A lot of words may acquire emotive meaning and the same word in different sentences may be rendered by different words.

- China is a large country(страна)

- We are ready to die for our country (родина)

While translating one should take into consideration on that in different languages the words which are lexical equivalents may arouse quite different associations.

For Russians «зима» means snow and frost, for Englishmen - fog and cold wind.

"Она ходит нагой перед ним" – ДЕЛО АРТОМАНОВЫХ .

For Russians "нава" arouses the idea of something beautiful, stately, majestic, proud /а сама – то величава, выступает будто пава - Пушкин/.

For Englishmen "peahen" has nothing in common with these associations. That's why it's quite coned to translate the sentence as follows:

-"She poses proudly before him / to pose - позировать/.

7. THE DICTIONARY

While translating one should remember he may use the words not included in the dictionary because it's impossible to include in the dictionary all the correct meanings of the word, which it may acquire in the context.

"He was developing grammatical nerves" – У него развивалось грамматическое чутьё.

We can find a lot of meanings of the word "nerves" «нервы, сила, мужество. Хладнокровнее, дерзость, нахальство» but in our text it is rendered as «чутьё»

The student are to make out that thoughts, reflections should be translated not by separate words. So it's quite possible and natural either to introduce some words and even:

- I lit my candle at the watchman's/ Dickens/ - Я зажёл свою свечу от фонаря ночного сторожа

Sentences or omit them if one can manage without them.

8. THE TRANSLATION OF INTERNATIONAL WORDS

Those words which have similar form and meaning in different languages are called international words.

Some of them completely coincide in their meaning /such as football, diplomacy, artillery/ some of them partially.

They may be different in their stylistic coloring e.g. "businessman", "cosmopolitan" are neutral in English while in Russian they have negative meaning. Some of them have entirely different meaning:

Compositor - наборщик

conductor - дирижёр, кондуктор

These words are called pseudointernational words:

решительный- dramatic

pathetic - 1) трогательный

2) политический

наука и техника - science and technology

9. TRANSLATION OF NEOLOGISMS

The English language is very rich in neologisms - the word have been created recently and perhaps will not live in the language for a long time. It is very seldom that we find equivalent for the translation of neologisms and for the most part we use descriptive translation and word-for-word translation people of good will, top level talks.

A model, like all models, is an attempt at a *description* rather than an *explanation*. An explanation is a *theory*. A theory may be defined as 'a statement of a general principle, based upon reasoned argument and supported by evidence, (that is intended to explain a particular (act, event, or phenomenon)', " i.e. while a model answers the question what? the theory answers the question why?

Given the ambiguity of the word "translation", we can envisage three possible theories depending on (the focus of the investigation; the process or the product. These would be:

1. A theory of translation as process (i.e. a theory of translating). This would require a study of information processing and, within (that, such topics as (a) perception, (b) memory and (c) the encoding and decoding of messages, and would draw heavily on psychology and on psycholinguistics.
2. A theory of translation *as product* (I.e. a theory of translated texts). This would require a study of lexis not merely by means of the traditional levels of linguistic analysis (syntax and semantics) but also making use of stylistics and recent advances in text-linguistics and discourse analysis.
3. A theory of translation as both process *and* product (i.e. a theory of translating and translation). This would require the integrated study of both and such a general theory is, presumably, the long-term goal for translation studies.

For the moment at least we are after a theory of translating and, given that there is considerable agreement on the characteristics, which a theory should possess, we can state what our ideal theory should look like.

Essentially, a theory is judged on the extent to which it is externally and internally adequate. It must correspond with the data (which is external to itself) and also conform to particular (internal) design features.

Ideally, a theory must reflect four particular characteristics:

- (1) *empiricism*; it must be testable
- (2) *determinism*; it must be able to predict
- (3) *parsimony*; it must be simple
- (4) *generality*; it must be comprehensive

Clearly, a theory of translation would be required to conform, as far as possible, to these criteria and (In: greater the conformity the more powerful the theory. However, the relationship between external and internal adequacy resolves itself (lie long-mi tiling **issue** of idealization and abstraction. The more idealized the data the more abstract and further from the "fuzziness" of the 'real world' does the theory become.

It may be that, once again, we are now asking too much of translation theory - at least for the moment - in contrast with (the rather minimal (or, even, impossible) demands which have been made on it in the past.

From the applied linguistic point of view, translation theory can be criticized for having limited its activities to the level of technique (the language teaching equivalent of classroom activities) or, at best, to that of method (in language teaching terms, the equivalent of global collections of techniques; audio-visual method, direct method, etc.), when what is needed is a principled approach from which the rest would flow.

Equally, in descriptive rather than applied terms, it might perhaps be more feasible to think of developing an *approach* rather than a theory, i.e. an orientation to the problem of describing and explaining the translation process which derives from an amalgam of insights from psychology and linguistics into the nature of the activity of translating. If we adopt this plan of action, we can **draw** upon considerable expertise? in applied linguistics, from which (the approach, method, technique series comes, and produce a tentative initial list of what we might expect from a theory of translation:

- (1) statements of the conventions which constrain the activity of translation rather than definitions of rules which determine it; (2)
- (2) models which offer probabilistic *post facto* explanations of what has been done, rather than deterministic *a priori* models which claim predict what will be done;
- 3) models of (the dynamics of the process itself rather than static descriptions of the structure of the product;
- (4) indications of the relationships which exist between translation on one side and broader notions such as communicative competence, discourse coherence and appropriateness in the use of the code, rather than (the more narrowly defined concerns of 'core' linguistics, i.e. linguistic competence, textual cohesion and grammaticality in the usage of the code on the other.

We are, to summarize, in search of 'an integrated, interdisciplinary, multimethod, and multilevel approach¹ to the explanation of the phenomenon of translation' and we would locate the approach within a broadly defined applied linguistics which would embrace, in addition to the teaching and learning of foreign languages, lexicology and lexicography', speech pathology, stylistics, language planning.

We firmly believe that such an approach will facilitate the creation of a more relevant and up-to-date theory of translation which will take its rightful place as a key area in the human sciences (particularly linguistics - broadly defined - and psychology) and are encouraged by a striking assertion from a major figure in translation theory:

In short: *inside, or between languages, lies the communication channel of translation*. A study of translation is a study of language.

How, though, are we to set about creating such an approach? This question brings us to the final part of this section: methodology.

Methodology; investigating translation

An initial and seemingly significant objection to the notion of describing and explaining the phenomenon of translation might well be that the whole of the process

(with the obvious exception of the physical aspects of reading mind writing) takes place in the mind of the translator and, given that we have, therefore, no direct access to it, we shall have to reach back into precisely the unsatisfactory kind of description of the product which we have been saying that we wish to avoid.

We would counter this by pointing out that it is perfectly legitimate to build up a model on the basis of inferences drawn from an objective study of the product. Indeed, such an approach would constitute no more than a special instance of the classic engineering problem of the 'black box' which contains a mechanism which converts input into output but is otherwise totally inaccessible. Now is it possible, in such a case, to specify the nature of the mechanism? The solution is to 'work back' from the output of the mechanism (the product) and make a set of statements about the necessary characteristics of the system itself (the process), i.e. to make use of the logical process of induction.

This analogy, however, does not fit the process of translation exactly, since we *do* have a degree of access to it through the substantial insights we have into the workings of our own minds. This being the case, it should be possible by introspection (i.e. by adopting a deductive approach to the problem), to build a model of what we ourselves are doing when we translate.

Ultimately - as the development of psychology has shown - a multiple approach, involving both induction and deduction in a cyclic investigation, is more likely to be revealing than the strict adherence (to either induction or deduction alone) (see Figure 1.7).

We might illustrate this by taking up another issue which has exercised translation theorists over a very long period indeed; the problem of the size of (the unit of translation). The question 'What is the unit of translation?' resolves itself all too readily into a search for the answer to the question 'What ought the unit of translation to be?' The notion unit of translation sometimes written "UT" - has been defined in these terms.

The smallest segment of an SL [source language] text which can be translated, as a whole, in isolation from other segments. It normally ranges from the word through the collocation to the clause. It could

be described as 'as small as is possible and as large as is necessary' (this is my view), though some translators would say that it is a misleading concept, since the only UT is the whole text.

It is difficult to imagine a better example of an issue which cries out for empirical investigation. If we ask what the unit is that the translator actually processes in the course of translating, we discover that there is good psychological and linguistic evidence to suggest that the unit tends to be the clause.

There is also experimental evidence which supports the notion of concurrence between cognitive 'chunk' boundaries and syntactic boundaries within the clause; boundaries between major structural units (Subject, Predicator, Complement, etc.) and the forms which realize them (phrases for the most part). For example, the *United Nations Secretary General reported substantial progress in the peace negotiations in Geneva today* would be likely to be segmented during reading into five or six units:

(the United Nations Secretary General]
 | reported]
 [substantial progress in the peace negotiations]
 [in Geneva]
 [today] or [the United Nations Secretary General]
 [reported]
 [substantial progress]
 [in (he peace negotiations]
 [in Geneva]
 [today]
 and not
 [the United] [Nations Secretary]
 [General reported substantial]
 [progress in the]
 [peace negotiations in]
 [Geneva today]
 nor even
 [the United] [Nations]
 [Secretary]
 [General re] [ported sub]
 [stantial]
 [progress in the |
 [peace ncgott]
 [nations in Geneva today]

as it would be In speech with the rhythmic boundaries (of the feet) cutting through lexical and syntactic units.

We intend to approach translation issues in this way throughout the book, he. by providing text which illustrates the problem and working from that towards descriptive rules rather than prescribing or proscribing, a prior, what *should* he done.

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Questions:

- 1) What are the basic problems of translation?

- 2) What is the choice of a word in translation?
- 3) What is the meaning of the word and its use in translation?
- 4) What are the main problems of translation of emotive meaning of the word?
- 5) What are the main ways of translation of international words and neologisms?
- 6) What is the methodology of the investigation of translation?
- 7) What is the translation with the help of antonyms?

KEY WORDS

requirement- требование

support- поддержка, поддерживать

level- уровень

possess- обладать

reflect- отражать

comprehensive-понятливый

substantial- существенный

LECTURE III

Translation methods.

PLAN.

1. Adaptation.

2. Equivalent.

3. Methods and text-categories,

4. Translating.

The central problem of translating has always been whether to translate literally or freely. The argument has been going on since at least the first century B. C. Up to the beginning of the XIX c., many writers favoured some kind of «free» translation: the spirit, not the letter, the sense not the words, the message rather than the form, the matter not the manner. This was the often revolutionary slogan of writers who wanted the truth to be read and understood - Tyndale and Dalet were burned at the stake, Wycliffe's works were banned. Then at the turn of the XIX c., when the study of cultural anthropology suggested that the linguistic barriers were insuperable and that language was entirely and that language was entirely the product of culture, the view that translation was impossible gained some currency and with it that, if attempted at

all, it must be as literal as possible. This view culminated in the statements of the extreme «literalists» W. Benjamin and V. Nobokov.

The argument was theoretical, the purpose of the translation, the nature of the readership, the type of text, was not discussed. Too often, writer, translator, and reader were implicitly identified with each other. Now the context has changed, but the basic problem remains. Here it is put in the form of a flattened V diagram:

SL emphases

word for word translation
literal translation
faithful translation
semantic translation

TL emphases

Adaptation
free translation
idiomatic translation
communicative translation

Word for word translation

This is often demonstrated as interlinear translation with the TL immediately below the SL words. The 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 to construe a difficult text as a pre-translation process.

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.

Faithful translation

A faithful translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It «transfers» cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical «abnormality» (deviation from SL norms) in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL writer.

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 sound) 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 by culturally neutral third 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 inductive empathy with the original.

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.

Free translation

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

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 Seleskovich and Stuart Gilbert tend to this form of lively, «natural» translation.)

Communicative translation

Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. Commenting on these methods, first should be said that only semantic and communicative translation fulfill the two main aims of translation, which are first, accuracy, and second, economy. In general, a semantic translation is written at the author's linguistic level, a communicative at the readership's. Semantic translation is used for «expressive» texts, communicative for «informative» and «vocative» texts.

Semantic and communicative translation treat the following items similarly: stock and dead metaphors, normal collocations, technical terms, slang, colloquialism, standard notices, pacifisms, ordinary language. The expressive components of «expressive» texts are rendered closely, if not literally, but where they appear in informative and vocative texts, they are normalized or toned down. Cultural components tend to be transferred and explained with culturally neutral terms in informative texts; replaced by cultural equivalents in vocative texts.

Badly and/or inaccurately written passages must remain so in translation if they are «expressive» although the translator should comment on any mistakes of factual or moral truth, if appropriate. Badly or inaccurately written passages should be «corrected» in communicative translation. It is referred to «expressive» as «sacred» texts: «informative»

and «vocative», following Jean Delisle, as «anonymous» since the status of their authors is not important.

So much for the detail, but semantic and communicative translation must also be seen as wholes. Semantic translation is personal and individual, follows the thought processes of the author, tends to over-translate, pursues nuances of meaning, yet aims at concision in order to reproduce pragmatic impact. Communicative translation is social, concentrates on the message and the main force of the text, tends to under-translate, to be simple, clear and brief, and is always written in a natural style.

A semantic translation is normally inferior to its original, as there is both cognitive and pragmatic loss.; a communicative translation is often better than its original. As a pinch a semantic translation has to interpret, a communicative translation - to explain - theoretically, communicative translation allows the translator no more freedom than semantic translation. In fact, it does, since the translator is serving a putative large and not well defined readership, whilst in semantic translation, he is following a single well defined authority, i.e. the author of the SL text.

Equivalent effect

It has sometimes been said the overriding purpose of any translation should be to achieve «equivalent effect», i.e. to produce the same effect on the readership of the translation as was obtained on the readership of the original. As it is seen, «equivalent effect» is the desirable result, rather than the aim of any translation, bearing in mind that it is an unlikely result in two cases:

- A) if the purpose of the SL text is to affect and the TL translation is to inform;
- B) if there is a pronounced cultural gap between the SL and the TL text.

However, in the communicative translation of vocative texts, equivalent effect is not only desirable, it is essential; it is the criterion by which the effectiveness and therefore the value of the translation of notices, instructions, publicity, propaganda, persuasive or critical writing and perhaps popular fiction, is to be assessed. The readers respond κ to keep of the grass, to by the soap, to join the Party, to assemble the device κ could even be quantified as a percentage rate of the success of the translation.

If informative texts equivalent effect is desirable only in respect of their insignificant emotional impact: it is not possible if SL and TL culture are remote from each other since normally the cultural items have to be explained by culturally neutral or generic terms, the topic content simplified, SL difficulties clarified.

Hopefully the TL reader reads the text with the same degree of interest as the SL reader, although the impact is different.

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KEY WORDS

free translation - эркин таржима

communicative translation - коммуникатив таржима

interlinear translation - оралик таржима

Questions-tasks

1. What are general principles which are relevant to all translation? Name them.
2. What are the reasons for using translation in the classroom?
3. Speak about the levels of equivalence.
4. What is semantic equivalence?
5. What is stylistic equivalence?
6. What is formal equivalence?
8. What is a communication process?

LECTURE IV.

Translation and culture.

Plan.

- 1. Culture and its definition.**
- 2. Cultural categories.**
- 3. General consideration.**

4. Material culture.

Translation and culture.

DEFINITIONS

Culture is defined as the way of life and its Manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its Means of expression. More specifically, there is distinction of 'cultural' from 'universal' and 'personal' language. 'Die', 'live', 'star', 'suiia' and even almost virtually ubiquitous artefacts like 'airror' and 'table' are universals usually there is no translation problem there. 'Monsoon', 'steppe', 'dacha', 'tagliatelle' are cultural words there will be a translation problem unless there is cultural overlap between the source and the target language (and its readership). Universal words such as 'breakfast', 'embrace', 'pile' often cover the universal function, but not the cultural description of the referent. In expression of oneself in a personal way 'you're weaving (creating conversation) as usual', 'his "underlife" (personal qualities and private life) is evident in that poem', 'he's a laonologger' (never finishes the sentence) personal, not immediately social, language is used. That is often called idiolect, and there is normally a translation problem.

these are broad, and fuzzy distinctions. You can have several cultures (and sub cultures) within one language: Cause flustrian' tea), JuHumluiMla: tCIII! 'coming out' ceremony for twelve-year-olds), Ileaater Uiusfria, Switzerland, FKG • but not (Ж) are all cultural words which may need translation within a language. However dialect words are not cultural words if they designate universal^ (e.g., 4oi:lif 'ffloors'). any more than the notorious pain, vin, Qeffiutlichkeit. 'privacy', insouciance, which are admittedly overlaid with cultural connotations. And, when a speech community focuses its attention on a particular topic (this is usually called 'cultural focus?'), it spawns a plethora of words to designate its special language or terminology the English on sport, notably the rra?y rinknl wnnis C'a maiden nvor', 'Silly Fiid-on', 'howzzat'), uhj Fmich on wines and cheeses, the Germans on sausages, Spaniards on bull-fighting, drabs on camels, Eskimos, notoriously, on snow, English and French on sex in mutual rem'minal.inn; many cultures have their words for cheap liquor for the poor and rlnspnral.e: 'vodka', 'grappa', 'slivovitz', 'sakn' 'Schnaps' and, in the past (because too dear now), 'pin', ΓροφτηππIy nhnm there is cultural focus, there is a translation problem due to the cultural 'gap' or 'distance' between the source and target languages.

Note that operationally language is not regarded as a component or feature of culture. If it were so, translation would be impossible. Language does however contain a) 1 kinds of Cultural deposits, in the pravar (gondnrs of inanimate nouns), forpis of address (like Sic, usted) as well as the lexis ('the sun sets') which are not taken account of in universal Is either in consciousness or translation. Further, the more specific a language becomes for natural phenomena (e.g., flora and fauna) the more it becomes

embedded in cultural features, and therefore Toates translation problems. Which is worrying, since it is "notorious that the translation of the most general words* (particularly of morals and feelings, as Tyler noted in 1700) love, temperance, temper, right, wrong is usually harder than that of specific words.

Host 'cultural' words are easy to detect, since they are associated with a particular language and cannot be literally translated, but many cultural customs are described in ordinary language ('topping out a building?', 'time, gentlemen, please', 'шк! in your eye'), where literal translation would distort the meaning and a translation may include an appropriate descriptive-functional equivalent. Cultural objects may be referred to by a relatively culture-free Russian term and classifier (e.g., 'tea') plus the various additions; in different contexts, and you have to account for these additions 'milk', 'biscuits', 'cake', other courses, which appear in the course of the SL text.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

A few general considerations govern the translation of all cultural words. First, your ultimate consideration should be recognition of the cultural achievements referred to in the SI, text, and respect for all foreign countries and their cultures. Two translation procedures which are at opposite ends of the scale are normally available; transference, which, usually in literary texts, offers local colour and atmosphere, and in specialist texts enables the readership (some of whom may be more or less familiar with the SI,) to identify the referent particularly a name or a concept in other texts (or conversations) without difficulty. However, transference, though it is brief and concise, blocks comprehension, it emphasises the culture and excludes the message, does not communicate; some might say it is not a translation procedure at all. (In the other hand, there is componential analysis, the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message, Componential analysis is based on a component common to the SI and the TL. Say in the case of dacha, 'house', dorozhka, to which you add the extra contextual distinguishing components ('for the wealthy', 'summer residence'; cf. maison secondaire). Inevitably, a componential analysis is not as economical and has not the pragmatic impact of the original. Lastly, the translator of a cultural word, which is always less context-bound than ordinary language, has to bear in mind both the motivation and the cultural specialist (in relation to the text's topic) and linguistic level of the readership.

ECOLOGY

Geographical features are normally distinguished from other cultural terms in that they are usually value-free, politically and commercially. Nevertheless, their diffusion depends on the importance of their country of origin as well as their specificity. Thus 'plateau' is initially perceived as a cultural word, and has long been adopted in Russian, German and English, but translated in Spanish and usually Italian (mesa, altipiano). Many countries have 'local' words for plains 'prairies', 'steppes', 'tundras', 'pampas', 'savannahs', 'llanos', campos, paramos,

'hush', 'veld' - all with strong elements of local colour. Their familiarity is a function of the importance and geographical or political proximity of their countries, fill these words would normally be transferred, with the addition of a brief return-free third term where necessary in the text. This applies to the 'technical' tahuleiros (Brazilian low plateau) if one assumes that the SI. writer would not mention them if he does not attach importance to them.

The same criteria apply to other ecological features, unless they are important commercially consider 'pomelo', 'avocado', 'nava', 'kumquat', 'mango', 'passion fruit', 'tamarind' they become more or less a lexical item in the 'importing' TL (but not 'passion fruit', passiflore, Passionsfrucht) and may "Subject to naturalisation: raangue, tamarin, avocat particularly, as bore, in French.

Certain ecological features the seasons, rain, hills of winus sixes (cultural words: 'down', 'moor', kop, 'dune') where they are irregular or unknown may not be understood denotatively or figuratively, in translation. However, here, f.nlnvisinn will soon be a worldwide clarifying force.

MATERIAL CULTURE

Food is for many the most sensitive and important expression of nation! culture; find i.nrr; an: suhjnrt l.n the widest variety of translation procedures, Various settings: menus straight, multilingual, glossed; cookbooks, find guides; tourist brochures; journalism increasingly contain foreign food terms. Whilst commercial and prestige inkrcsts remain strong, the unnecessary use of French words (even though they originated as such, after the Norman invasion, 900 years ago) is still prevalent for prestige reasons (or simply to demonstrate that the chef is French, or that the recipe is French, nr because a combination such as 'Foyot veal chops with Perigueux sauce' is clumsy). Certainly it is strange that the generic words hors d'omivro, entree, entremets hold out, particularly as all three are ambiguous: 'salad mixture' or 'starter'; 'first' or 'main course'; 'Might course' between two heavy courses' or 'dessert' (respectively), in principle, one can recommend translation for words with recognised one-to-one equivalents and transference, plus a neutral term, for the rest (e.g., 'the pasta dish cannelloni') - for the general readership.

In fact, all French dishes can remain in French if they are explained in the recipes. Consistency for a text and - the requirements of the client here precede other circumstances.

For English, other food terms are in a different category. Macaroni came over in 1600, spaghetti in 1880, ravioli and pizza are current; many other Italian and Greek terms may have to be explained. Food terms have normally been transferred, only the French making continuous efforts to naturalise them (rosinf, choucroute).

Traditionally, upper-class men's clothes are English and women's French (note 'slip', 'bra') but national costumes when distinctive are not translated e.g. sari, kimono, yukata, dirndl, 'jeans' (which is an internationalise, and an American symbol like 'coke'), kaftan, jubbah.

Clothes as cultural terms; may be sufficiently explained for TL general readers if the generic noun or classifier is added: e.g., 'Shintigin trousers' or again, if the

particular is of no intrinsic, the generic word can simply replace it. However, it has to be borne in mind that the function of the generic clothes terms is approximately constant, indicating the part of the body that is involved, but the description varies depending on climate and material used, and, in many languages, some have a typical house which for general purposes remains untranslated: palazzo (large house); hotel (large house); 'chalet', 'bungalow', hacienda, pandal, posada, pension. French shows cultural focus on towns (being until 50 years ago a country of small towns) by having ville,bourg and bourgade (cf. borough, borgata, paese) which have no corresponding translation into English, French has 'exported' saloon to American and has 'imported' living or living room.

Transport is dominated by American and the car, a female pet. In English, a bus, a 'motor', a 'crate', a sacred symbol in many countries of sacred private property, American English has 26 words for the car. The system has spawned new features with their neologisms; lay-by, 'interchange' (échangeur). There are many vogue-words produced not only by innovations but by the salesman's talk, and many Anglicisms. In fiction, the names of various carriages (faleche, cabriolet, tilbury landau, coupe, 'phaeton') are often used to provide local colour and to connote prestige; in text books on transport, an accurate description has to be appended to the transferred word. Now, the names of planes and cars are often near-internationalisms for educated.

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Questions

1. What is the culture?
2. What is the relationship between culture and translation?
3. What are the main cultural categories?
4. What is the influence of culture on translation?
5. What are the emotionally colored words and their equivalents in translation?

KEY WORDS

distinctions - фарклари

geographical features - жугрофий хусусиятлар

one-to-one equivalents - тула мос келадиган муқобиллар

general considerations – умумий фикрлар

material culture – моддий эhtiёжни қондиришга оид маданий сўзлар

LECTURE V

Translation and social culture

Plan.

1. Social culture and its definition.

2. Social organizations.

3. Historical and international terms,

4. Religious and artistic terms,

5. Gestures and habits.

In considering social culture one has to distinguish between denotative and connotative phenomena in translation. Thus *charcuterie*, *droguerie*, *pâtisserie*, *chocolaterie*, *confiserie* hardly exist in anglophone countries. There is rarely a translation problem, since the words can be transferred, have approximate one-to-one translation or can be functionalized. •Mind, 'pork-butcher', 'hardware store' or 'hat' or 'chocolate' 'shop', 'candy shop' with *магазин*. While many traders are busy up in super- and hypermarkets and shopping centres in the precincts (centre commercial, zone piétonnière, Kaufhaus) crafts may revive. It is a translation problem, this contrasts with the connotative differences of words like; 'the people'; 'the common people'; 'the masses'; 'the working class'; 'the proletariat'; 'the working classes'; 'the hoi polloi' ('the piths'); 'les Rens très commun'; 'la niche'; 'the lower orders'; classes inférieures. Note that archaisms such as the last expressions can still be used ironically, or humorously, therefore put in inverted commas, that the working class still has some political resonance in Western Europe amongst the left, and even more so in Eastern Europe; though it may disappear in the tertiary sector 'proletariat' was always used mainly for its emotive effect, and now can hardly be used seriously, since the social classes in developed countries are properly named. 'The masses' and 'the people' can be used positively and negatively, but the latter is more rarely used, 'The masses' have been used up in collocations such as 'mass inertia' and 'mass amnesia'. Finally, the referent of these terms is no longer poor, a transient or a transient worker. The proletariat has regained the non-work minority. The political terms have been replaced by the basic, the basis, 'the rank and file' 'the grass roots', the hierarchy of the bureaucracies.

The obvious cultural words that denote leisure activities in Europe are the national [games] with their lexical sets; cricket, football, hockey, ping-pong, snooker. To these must be added the largely English non-homophones (jimmies: tennis, snooker, squash, badminton, fives, and a large number of card games, the [jargon] names and their lexical sets [terms] in casinos.

SOCIAL ORGANISATIONS POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE

The political and social life of a country is reflected in its institutional terms, where the title of a head of state ('President', 'Prime Minister', 'King') or the name of a parliament, (Folketing National, Căminele de la Herta or 'Senate') are 'transparent', that is, made up of 'international' or easily translated morphemes* they are straightforwardly 'Rational' and 'Chamber of Deputies'. When the name of a parliament is not 'readily' translatable (Hortstaf; Storting of Norway); Sejm (Poland); Riksdag (Sweden); Eduskunta (Finland); Knesset of Israel (it has a recognised official translation for administrative documents: 'German Federal Parliament' for Bundestag, 'Council of Constituent States' for Bundesrat) but is often transferred for an entirely new relationship (Münchener German Parliament), the governmental inner circle is usually designated as a 'cabinet' or a 'council of ministers' and may informally be referred to by the name of the capital city. Some ministries and other political institutions and parties may also be referred to by their familiar alternative names, i.e., the name of the building -- Flysec, Hotel Matignon, Palais Bourbon, Montan. 'Hitler House', Hontocifrin, 'Hoskins' in the streets 'Whitehall', 'Via delle Infinghe Oscure' (Italian Communist Party, 410) Downing Street/ • where they are housed.

Names of ministries are usually literally translated, provided they are appropriately descriptive. Therefore 'Treasury' becomes 'Finance Ministry'; 'Mortgage Office', 'Ministry of the Interior'; 'attorney-general', 'chief justice', or the appropriate cultural equivalent; 'Defence Ministry', 'Ministry of National Defence'. Translations such as 'Social Domain' and 'Exchange Domain' (Cinema) should be replaced by 'Social Affairs' and 'Trade'.

When a public body has a 'transparent' name, say, Electricité de France or Institut des Télécommunications, the translation depends on the 'setting': in official documents, and in serious publications such as textbooks, the title is transferred and, where appropriate, literally translated, informally, it could be translated by a cultural equivalent. e.g., 'the French Electricity Board' or 'the Postal Services'.

Where a public body or organisation has an 'opaque' name, e.g., Haison de la Culture, 'British Council', 'National Trust', 'Orff Council', Goethe-Institut. 'Museum Council' the translator has first to establish whether there is a meaningful translation and secondly whether it will be understood by the readership and is appropriate in the setting; if not, in a formal informative text, the name should be transferred, and a functional, culture-free equivalent given (Haison de la Culture, 'arts centre'); Such an equivalent may have to extend over a word-group: 'British Council', 'Alliance française', Goethe-Institut, but in all doubtful cases, the functional equivalent is preferable. e.g., 'Rational organisation responsible for promoting English literature and British culture abroad'; the description (e.g., the composition and manner of appointment of its members) should only be added if the readership requires it; a literal translation or neologism must be avoided. If the informative text is informal or colloquial, it may not be necessary to transfer the organisation's name. The cultural (or, if this is not sufficient, the functional) nuance may be sufficient. For style and for neatness, if not for accuracy, a literal cultural equivalent of an SI cultural term is always more effective than a culturally free functional equivalent but it may be

particularly in the final terms, depending on the context, 'foot level' for the book has all the advantages of a language, but there are wide differences.

One assumes that any series of local government institutions and posts should be transferred when the terms are unique in the department, arrondissement, canton, commune) and consistency is required, 'mayor', 'Bürgermeister', 'sindaco' translate each other, although their functions differ. 'Giunta' is usually transferred though, but an executive body usually elected from a larger council, 'board' is the nearest English equivalent; this becomes 'council' in French, though used only for non-French institutions, ironically, the caution about faux amis applies to 'dictionary' rather than 'encyclopaedia' words. Thus, 'prefect', 'secretary' and Conseil d'État (consiglio di Stato) but not 'tribunal' tend to translate each other, although their functions differ.

The intertranslatability of single words with Graeco-Latin morphemes extends through political parties to political concepts. Within the range of right, centre and left, about twenty words in Russian; in the political parties of Europe, East and West, whilst concepts such as 'liberalism' and 'radicalism' each have a historical core of meaning, they are strongly affected by the political tradition of their countries, not to mention the confusion of ideas that either identify or polarise socialise and communise. Here the translator may have to explain wide conceptual differences (e.g., 'the Italian Liberal Party is right wing', 'the British Party of centre'; the French right is liberal').

In general, the worn serious and expert the readership, particularly of textbooks, reports and academic papers, the greater the requirement for transparency not only of cultural and institutional terms, but of titles, addresses and words used in a special sense. In such cases, you have to bear in mind that the readership may be more or less acquainted with the source language. They may only be reading your translation as they have no access to the original, may wish to contact the writer of the original. Within the limits of comprehension, the more that is transferred and the less that is translated, the closer the sophisticated reader can get to the sense of the original this is why, when any important word is being used in a special or a delicate sense in a serious text, a serious translator, after attempting a translation, will add the original word in brackets, signalling his inability to find the right TL word and inviting the reader to envisage the word mentally (e.g., any translation of Heidegger, Husserl, etc.). No wonder Hounie wrote that the only pity about a translation is that it is not the original, for the translator's basic job is to translate and then, if he finds his translation inadequate, to help the reader to a little nearer to the meaning.

Historical terms

In the case of historical institutional terms, say, procurer general, le Grand Sire, Imperial Regime, Siecle des lumieres, Reichstag, Kulturkampf, inquisitor, zemstvo, obshchina, duma, the first principle is; not to translate them, whether the translation makes sense (is 'Млэчэра' or not (is 'opaque'), unless they have honorably represented the word. In academic texts and educated circles, they are usually (in R., all the above except Siecle des lumieres, 4th ed.; of

Enlightenment') transferred, with, whom appropriate of a functional or descriptive term with as much descriptive detail as is required. In popular texts, the transferred word can be replaced by the functional or descriptive term.

International Terms

International institutional terms usually have recognized translations which are in fact through translations, and are now generally known by their acronyms; thus WHO, OMS (Organisation Mondiale de la Santé), WGO (Weltgesundheitsorganisation); ILO, BIT (Bureau International du Travail) IAA (Internationales Arbeitsamt). In other cases, the English acronym prevails and becomes; a Quasi-internationalism, not always resisted in French UNESCO, FAO, UNRRA, UNICEF.

Ironically, whilst there is a uniquely platitudinous international vocabulary of Marxism and communism which offers translation problems only in the case of a few writers like Gramsci, the only international communist organisations are CME (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance COMECON), the Warsaw Pact, which appears to have no official organisation, and the International Bank for Economic Co-operation of International Bank für Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit IBWZ The others (World Federation of World Unions German WGB) and World Peace Council (German KHF) etc, appear to have fallen into decline.

RELIGIONS TERMS

In religious language the proselytizing activities of Christianity, particularly the Catholic Church and the Baptists, are reflected in manifold translation (Saint-Siège, Papstlicher Stuhl). The language of the other world religions tends in the transferred when it becomes of TL interest, the commonest words being naturalised 'Pharisees'. American Bible scholars and linguists have been particularly exercised by cultural connotation due to the translation of similes of fruit and husbandry into languages where they are inappropriate.

ARTISTIC TERMS

The translation of artistic terms referring to movements, processes and organisations generally depends on the putative 'cultural' importance of the movement. For educated readers, Topique, such as the Leipzig Gewandhaus and the Philharmonie ('concertgebouw' are transferred, the Dresden Staatskapelle' however not. Transference and 'state orchestra'; 'transparent' (Museum Berlin', 'the Vienna Philharmonic orchestra, etc.) are translated. Names of buildings, museums, Universities, opera houses, are likely to be transferred as well as translated, since they form part of street plans and addresses. Many terms in art and music remain Italian, but French in ballet (ballet, fouette, pas de deux), ballet nouveau in English and French style in German and style liberty in Italian. The Bauhaus and Expressionism (from 'Mien Objectivity'), both opaque, are transferred but the

various* -isms are 1 m;ili<;p.il. (but usually ил.Биде) публ tliwnh M'amnsi' is opaque, ^!sch terrs tnmi to trans! m:nrc uhen they are regarded as faits dn riviliji'iUoi), I.e., cultural fnatnrps, and in naturalisation if thnir nnivn ;:a!ilv is accepted.

GESTURES AND HABITS

For gestures and habits there is a distinction between description and function nhirh ran bn nMdt: uhnrn поспягы in •'tin;; casns; thus, if poop I o iJiPilo a little uhon someone Sƒ do a slow hand-clap to окрп;;; нагп apprnciation, spit as a ! le Ing, nod to dissent or ;:1ы!'п i.hcir bead to assent, kiss ir ringer tips to nrcct or to praise, Rive a thufflbs-up to sintbd OK, all of uhich occur in some nilfnres and not in others.

Summarising the translation of cultural words and institutional terms, here is su^ested, that more than in any other translation problems, the most appropriate solution depends not so nsuch on the collocations or the linguistic or situational ronl.nxt M.houRh these baue their place) as on the readership (of нбой the three types expert, educated generalist and uninformed - will usually require three different translations) and on the setting.

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Questions

- 1)What is the definition of social culture?
- 2) What are the historical organisations?
- 3) What are the definitions of historical and international terms?
- 4)) What are the definitions of religious and artistic terms?
- 5) What are the definitions of gestures and habits?

KEY WORDS

organisations - ташкилотлар
 customs - урф-одатлар
 activities - фаолиятлар
 procedures - процедура
 componential analysis - компонент анализ

Lecture VI

LEXICAL PROBLEMS

PLAN

J .Substitution.

2.Supplementation

3.Omissions.

4. Types of lexical transformation.

5. Absence of lexical correspondence.

Lexical problems of translation

Due to the semantic features of language the meaning of words; their usage, ability to combine with other words, associations awakened by them the place they hold in the lexical system of a language do not concur for the most part. All the same "ideas" expressed by words coincide in most cases, though the means of expression differ.

As it is impossible embrace all the case of semantic differences between two language⁵ we shall restrict this course to the most typical features.

From the point of view of typology each category & each sight has 2 main aspects the form & the content, letter, sound form. Forms differ but meanings not Ex: брат-brother.

The principal types of lexical correspondences between two languages are as follows: I- **Complete correspondences**

(famous geographical names, proper names, names of months, the day of week) II. **Partial correspondences**

when the word in one language has two or more equivalents

III. The absence of correspondences

(no equivalents)

I. Complete lexical correspondences

Complete correspondence of lexical units of two languages can rarely be found. As a rule they belong to the following lexical groups ;

1. Proper names and geographical denominations.
2. Scientific and technical terms (with the exceptions of terminological polygamy)
3. The month and days of the week, numerals.

II. Partial lexical correspondence.

While translating the lexical units partial correspondences mostly occur. That happens when a word in the language of the original corresponds to several equivalents in the language it is translated into the reasons of these facts are the following.

1. Most words in a language are polysemantic and the system of word meaning in one language does not concur with the same system in another language /does not/ completely (compare the nouns "house" and "table" in English, Uzbek and Russian). That's why the selection of a word in the process of translating is determined by the context.
2. The specification of *synonymous order* which pertains the selection of words. However, it is necessary to allow for the nature of the semantic signs which in order of synonyms is based on. Consequently, it is advisable to account for the concurring meaning of members of synonyms orders, the difference in lexical and stylistic meanings and the ability of individual components of orders of synonyms to combine:

Ex : dismiss, discharge (bookish), sack, fire (colloquial); the edge of the table the rim of the moon;

ишдаи бушатмок (адабий тилда) хайдамок (оғзаки нутиқда), столнинг нети (кирраси); ойнинг кирраси (чети).

3. Each word effects the meaning of an object it designates. Not infrequently languages "select" to describe the same denotations. The way, each language creates its own "picture of the word", is known as "various principles of dividing reality into parts". Despite the difference of signs, both languages reflect one and the same phenomenon adequately and to the extent, which must be taken into account when translating words. Of this kind, as equivalence is not identical to having the same meaning.

Ex : Hot milk with skin on it каймок тутган иссик сут ; Горячее молоко с пенкой.

4. The difference of semantic content of the equivalent words in two languages. These words can be divided into three subgroups;

a.) Words with differentiated (undifferentiated) meaning :

Ex : In English :

to swim

to sail

to float

In Uzbek :

одамлар хакида

сузмок кема хакида

предмет хакида

b.) Words with a "broad sense" : verbs of state (to be), perception and brainwork (to see, to understand), verbs of action and speech (to go, to say), partially desemantized words (thing, case). c.) "Adverbial verbs" with a composite structure, which have a

semantic content, expressing action and nature at the same time :

Ex : The train whistled out of the station. Поезд хуштек чалиб станциядан жунаб кетди.

5. Most difficulties are encountered when translating the so called pseudo-international words ; words which are similar in form in the both languages, but differ in meaning or use. The regular correspondences of such words in spelling and sometimes in articulation (in compliance with the regularities of each language), coupled with the structure of word building in both languages may lead to a false identification :

Ex : in English : moment in Uzbek ;

лахза

6. Each language has its own typical rules of combinability. The latter is limited by the system of the language. A language has generally established traditional combinations which do not concur with corresponding ones in another language. Adjectives offer considerable difficulties in the process of translation, that is explained adjectives to combine. It does not always coincide with their combinability in the Uzbek and Russian languages on account of differences in their semantic structure and valence. Frequently one and the same adjective in English combines with a number of noun, whiles in Uzbek and Russian different adjectives are used in combinations of this kind. For this reason it is not easy to translate English adjectives which are more capable of combining than their Uzbek and Russian equivalents. (A bad headache, a bad mistake - Каттик бош огриги, купол хато).

A specific feature of the combinability of English nouns is that some of them can function as the subject of a sentence, indicating one who acts; though they do not belong to a lexical-semantic category Nomina Agentis. This tends to the "predicate - adverbial modifier" construction being replaced by that of the "subject - predicate".

- The strike closed most of the schools in New York.
- Иш ташлаш натижасида Нью Йоркдаги мактабларнинг купчилиги епилди.

Of no less significance is the habitual use of a word, which is bound up with the history of the language and the formation and development of its lexical system. This gave shape to clichés peculiar to each language, which are used for describing particular situations. Ex :

In English ; Wet point

In Uzbek ; Эҳтиёт булинг, буялган !

Types of lexical transformation

In order to attain equivalence, despite the difference in formal and semantic systems of two languages, the translator is obligated to do various linguistic transformations. Their aims are : to ensure that the text imports all the knowledge inferred in the original text, without violating the rules of the language it is translated into .

The following three elementary types are deemed most suitable for describing all kinds of lexical transformations:

1. *lexical substitutions* ;
2. *supplementation* ;
3. *omissions* ;

1. Lexical substitutions.

D. In substitutions of lexical units words and stable word combinations are replaced by others which are not their equivalents. More often three cases are met with :

a.) *concrete definition* - replaced a word with a broad sense by one of a narrower meaning ; Ex : He is at school - У мактабда ўқийди: He is in the army - У армияда хизмат қилади.

b.) *generalization* - replacing a word with a narrow meaning by one with a broader sense ; a narrow-blanket жун адел:

c.) an integral transformation

Ex : How do you do ! - Салом!

2.) Antonymic translation is a complex lexical-grammatical substitution of positive construction for a negative one (head one versa) which is coupled with replacement of word by its antonym when translated.

Ex : Keep off grass - Майса устида юрманг :

3.) *compensation* •• is used when certain elements in the original text can not be expressed in terms of the language it is translated into . In cases of this kind the same information is communicated by other means or another place so as to make up the semantic deficiency. Ex: he was ashamed of his parents , because they said "he don't" and "she don't"...- У ўз ота-апасидан уяларди, нупки улар сузларни тугри талаффуз қилардилар.

4.) Supplementation.

A formal inexpressibility of semantic components is the reason most met with for using supplementation as a way of lexical transformations. A formal inexpressibility of certain semantic components is especially of English word combinations N + N and adj + N ;

Ex : Pay claim - Иш хакипи оширнш талаби. Logical
computer - Логик компьютер.

3. Omissions

In the process of logical transformations of omission generally words with a surplus meaning are omitted.

Ex : (components of typically English pair-synonyms, possessive pronoun and exact measures) in order to give a more concrete expressions .

To raise one's eyebrows - поднять брови (в знак изумления)

III. Absence of lexical correspondences .

IV. Realer are words denoting objects, phenomena and so on, which are typical of a people. In order to render correctly the designation of objects referred to in the original and image associated with them it is necessary to know the tenor of life epoch and specific features of the country depicted in the original work. The following groups of words can be regarded as having no equivalents ; 1. Related to everyday life words denoting objects, phenomena etc. which are typical of a people (cab, fire - place).

2. proper names and geographical denominations;
3. address and greetings;
4. the titles of journals, magazines and newspapers;
5. weights, linear measures etc.:

When dealing with realer it is necessary to take spatial account of the pragmatic aspect of the translation, because the "knowledge gained by experience" of the participants of the communicative act turn out to be different. As a result, much of which is easily understood by an Englishman is incomprehensible to an Uzbek or Russian readers or exerts the opposite influence upon them. It is particularly important to allow for the pragmatic factor when translating fiction, foreign political propaganda material and advertisements of articles for export. Below are three principal ways of translating words denoting specific realer.

1. transliteration (complete and partial) the direct use of a word

denoting realer or its root in the spelling or in combination with suffixes of the mother tongue. Creation of new single or complex word for denoting an object on the basis of elements and morphological relationship in the mother tongue (skyscraper - асмон улар). use of word denoting something close to realer of another language. It represents an approximate translation specified by the context, which sometimes on the verge of description.

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Questions:

- 1) What is the substitution in translation?
- 2)What is the supplementation in translation?
- 3) What are the omissions in translation?
- 4) What are the main types of lexical transformation?
- 5)What is the absence of lexical correspondence?

KEY WORDS

combinability - бирикшиш perception -
тушунча significance - муҳимлиги
supplementation - илова

LECTURE VII

Phraseological problems of translation.

Plan.

- 1.Complete conformities. 2.Partial conformities. 3.Absence of conformities. 4.Descriptive translation.**

Translating a phraseological unit is not an easy matter as it depends on several factors: different combinability of words, homonymy, synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units. It is necessary to take into account the context. Besides a large number of phraseological units have a stylistic expressive component in meaning which has a specific national feature. It should be pointed out that it is necessary to get acquainted with the main principles of the general theory of phraseology.

The following types of phraseological units may be observed phrasemes and idioms, a unit of constant context consisting of a dependent and a constant indicates may be called a phraseme. An idiom is a unit of constant context, which is characterised by an integral meaning of the whole and by weekend meanings of the components and in which the dependant and the indicating elements are identical and equal to the whole lexical structure of the phrase.

Any type of phraseological unit can be presented as a definite microsystem. In the process of translating phraseological units functional adequate linguistic units are selected by comparing two specific linguistic principles. These principles reveal elements of likeness and distinction. Certain parts of these systems may correspond in form and content. The main types of phraseological conformities are as follows:

1. Complete conformities.
2. Partial conformities.
3. Absence of conformities.

Complete conformities of form and content in phraseological units is seldomly met. For eg.: black frost is a phraseme, it is translated into Uzbek *копа совуц.*, to bring oil to fire - it is an idiom, it may be translated into Uzbek *-алангара ёр куймок.*

So we see complete coincidence of form and content in phraseological units is very rare. Phraseological units are functionally and semantically inseparable units. They may be non-motivated stable units. According to the motivation academician Vinogradov V.V. classified phraseological units into 3 groups:

1. Phraseological fusions. Such phraseological units are completely non-motivated. For eg.: to get one's goat - *бирор кишини хафа килмок*
2. Phraseological unities. These phraseological units are partially motivated. For eg.: to show one's teeth - *кулмок*
3. Phraseological collocations. These phraseological units are structurally inseparable and stable units. For eg.: to take care of - *гамхурлик килмок.*

Partial conformities of phraseological units in two languages assume lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical differences with identity of meaning and style, i.e. they are figuratively close, but differ in lexical composition, morphologic number and syntactic arrangement of the order of words. One may find:

- 1) Partial lexic conformities by lexic parameters:
to get out of bed on the wrong foot, it is an idiom, may be translated as *чап ёни билан турмок.*
- 2) Partial conformities by the grammatical parameters:

to fish in troubled waters, it is an idiom, translated as лойка сувда балик тутмоқ. Absence of conformities. Many English phraseological units have no phraseological conformities in Uzbek and Russian. In the first instance this concerns phraseological units based on realiae. When translating units of this kind it is advisable to use the following types of translation:

- a) verbatim word for word translation.
- b) translation by analogy
- c) descriptive translation

A verbatim translation is possible when the way of thinking does not bear a specific national feature. For eg.: the arms race, it is a phraseme, the translation is курулганиш пойгаси.

Translating by analogy, this way of translating is resorted to when the phraseological unit has a specific national realiae. For eg.: to pull somebody's leg, it is an idiom, the translation is мазах килмоқ.

Descriptive translation i.e. translating phraseological units by a free combination of words is possible when the phraseological unit has a particular national feature and has no analogue in the language it is to be translated into. For eg.: to enter the House, it is a phraseme the translation is Парламент аъзоси бўлмоқ.

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Questions:

- 1) What is the definition of phrasiological units?
- 2)What are the complete conformities in the translation of phraseological units?
- 3) What are the partial confirmities in the translation of phraseological units?.
- 4) What is the absence of confirmities in the translation of phraseological units?
- . 5) What is the escriptive translation in the translation of phraseological units?

KEY WORDS

factor - омил

unit - бирлик indicate - курсаткич

adequate – мос process - жараён

LECTURE VIII.

Grammatical transformation.

Plan.

I. Transformation.

2. Replacement.

3. Grammatical equivalents.

The translation experience shows that you can't give a word-for word translation. There are 4-5 grammatical translations:

1. transpositions
2. replacements
3. additions
4. omissions

Transpositions are connected with functional sentence perspectives. Transposition is a change in the order of linguistic elements such as words, clauses & is connected with «functional sentence perspectives» which is the division of the message into two main parts:

1. the theme
2. the rheme

In Russian this division is expressed by the word order, what is already known is the theme which is placed at the beginning of the sentence whereas what is new is the rheme.

In English where the rheme is marked differently by it is placed at the beginning & the theme at the end.

Within a complex sentence a similar tendency is observed. Replacements are the most common type of grammatical transposition & they affect all types of linguistic units. The subdivision of replacement:

- 1) the replacement of the word forms
- 2) replacement of parts of speech is specially typical as to replacement of English nouns derived from the verbs & denoting actions.

Subject of the English sentence is often replaced in Russian by corresponding secondary part such as object, adverbial modifier of time.

I heard my mother go out & close the door.

The grammatical structure of language is an important part of its overall system. No less important in fact than its lexical & vocabulary. The elements of the grammatical structure such as affixes, forms of inflection & derivation, syntactic

pattern, word order, etc. Serve to carry meanings which are usually referred to as grammatical or structural as distinct from lexical meanings. The rendering of such meaning in the process of translation is an important problem relating to the general problem of translation equivalents which now must be considered at length. Grammatical forms of different languages only very seldom coincide fully as to the scope of their meaning & function. As a rule there is only partial equivalence that is the grammatical meanings expressed by grammatical forms, though seemingly identical of two different languages coincide only in part of their meaning & differ in other parts. Thus for instance the category of number of noun in English, Uzbek & Russian seems to coincide & indeed does coincide in very many cases of their use.

Ex: table-tables

However, there are many instances where this is not the case in other words where an English plural form is rendered through a Russian singular form & visa versa. This is especially common among the so-called singular & plural forms whose distribution is often arbitrary & motivated only historically.

Ex: oats onions

 peas suburbs

also the forms of number in languages often do not coincide when the noun is accompanied by numeral.

Another good example is the category of tense. English, Uzbek, Russian distinguish such forms of predicate verbs as Present & Past, the general grammatical meanings being.

Ex; He lives in Moscow

 He lived in Moscow

However in certain cases the Tense forms of the two verbs English & Russian do not coincide;

Ex: In English there exists such a grammar rule as sequence of Tenses subordinate verb in subordinate clauses following. The main clause a past form is used must with a few exceptions, also be used in past form whereas in Russian this is not so & Present form is quite common in the same position.

Ex: He said he lived in Moscow. The difference is even more striking categories whose semantic content & function varies to still greater extent. Take for instance such category as gender Russian distinguishes 3 genders:

Masculine, feminine & neutral Which are formally expressed in the following ways:

—by the inflexional forms of the noun itself —by means of pronominal substitution.

In English the same 3 genders are also distinguished. However, the only formal way to express the distinction through pronominal substitution, there being no such things as agreement in gender or difference in inflexional endings. In Uzbek pronominal substitution doesn't exist.

The translation task is

1. to find the correct meaning to this or that form.
2. to find an appropriate form in the Target language for this expression

of the same meaning. On the whole this choice of grammatical equivalent in the Target language determined by the following factors:

1. The meaning inherent in the grammatical form itself

Ex: lives lived

2. The lexical character of the word or word group used in this or that form.

Ex: thus the use of the plural form in Russian is impossible with certain nouns while possible with others. Ex: workers of all industries other philosophies

3. factors of style

ex: both English & Russian have the passive form of the verb. However, in Russian the use of this form is mainly confined to the literary or bookish style.

Ex: At the station John was met by his brother In newspaper reports this is quite acceptable

ex: At the station the delegation was met by director .

4. frequency of use.

Replacement of parts of speech;

This transformation is especially typical as to replacement of English nouns derived from the verbs & denoting actions.

Ex: It's our hope that....—

Ex: The abandonment by Irina of glittering life he had given her. The same is also true of the so-called nomina-agentis (it's represented in English by suffix «-er»)

Ex: He is an early-riser John is a sound-sleeper

Fairly often English adjectives may be replaced by Russian & Uzbek nouns.

Ex: Australian property

English comparative forms of adjectives such as higher, lower, longer, shorter, better are frequently replaced by Uzbek nouns derived from adjective stems which in their turn verbalized.

Ex: They demand higher wages & better living conditions. Then comes the replacement of sentence elements. This is sometimes referred as the static restructuring of the sentence.

Ex: English subject is replaced by corresponding secondary elements (object, modifiers)

ex: He was met by his sister He was given money

The new film is much spoken about

Last week saw the 500 meeting the shop standard & trade union officials.

4. Replacement of sentence type; The replacement of the simple sentence by a complex one. Thus when translating from English it often becomes necessary to render English structure with nonfinite verbal forms by means of subordinate clause. Ex: I want you to speak English

I heard my mother go out & close the door The subject matter of theory of translation The structure of theory of translation

The links of the fo translation with linguistic & non linguistic disciplines. Lexical problems of translation Types of lexical equivalents grammatical translation.

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Questions:

- 1)What are the main grammatical problems in translation?
- 2) What is the transformation and its types in translation?
- 3) What is the grammatical replacement in translation?
- 4) What are the grammatical equivalents in translation?
- 5) What are the main syntactic correspondances in translation?

KEY WORDS

experience - тажриба

mark - белгиламок

grammatical equivalence - грамматик тенглик ёки эквивалентлик

express - ифодаламок

demand - талаб

LECTURE IX

Translation & the problems of style.

PLAN.

1. The problem of funtional style.
2. The problem of translation of stylistic devices.
3. Translation and analysis.

4. Pragmatic aspect of translation.

5. Simultaneous translation.

Effective translation may be subdivided in 2 major categories:

1. The problem of functional style
2. The problem stylistic devices.

Pertains to the specific features of texts of different genres in the S & T.L's.

Texts belonging to the different functional styles such as official documents, scientific papers, technical manuals, news items, fiction are characterized by a number of distinctive features that vary from language to language. These variations affect the composition of the text its semantic & syntactic structure & the choice of linguistic devices for each type of a text. Official documents are replaced with set phrases for each there are usual standard equivalents in T.L.

ex: High contracting parties

Done in the city of Moscow

Their syntax is usually characterized by complex structures & their lexicons by the highest degree of formality.

Ex: The signatories of the present agreement shall be responsible for ensuring the observance thereof.

Scientific & technical texts are characterized by the use of special terminology, equivalents for which should be selected at the appropriate style level

Ex: in a medical text pneumonia is translated .

In technical manual it's essential in case of terminological synonymy to use the same term for a given term. Special attention should be paid to the so-called technical phraseology.

Ex: to turn as far as it will go

to rotate clockwise

Russian & English newspaper texts are characterized by a number of common features & abundance of neologisms & clichés, a wide stylistic range, preference for contrast structure etc. Yet these texts display several distinctive features. These features may be illustrated by the

English news item & Russian counterpart The headline of a Russian news item is more frequently based on noun phrases while an English headline favours verb phrases:

Ex: Kidnapped general escapes.

English headline use the present for the Past & Indefinite for the future while .

ex: In Russian Future may be expressed lexically

Coal miners to strike

English headlines are full of the so-called «head words» short words covering very wide semantic area.

Ex: quit-abandon, withdrew, leave, resign, bid-appeal, try,
attempt, initiative rape-criticise, condemn, expose

whose translation usually depends on the context of the item itself. The lead should ideally answer 6 questions:

1.who;2.when;3.where; 4.what; 5.why; 6.how; of course, not necessary all of them. The most typical sequence of elements in a Russian, lead is as follows: source+message. In English it's usually message+source. The message in English is typically presented in this order: event+place +time

ex: The British Prime minister arrived for top level talk in Washington yesterday.

The word order of the Russian lead is often inverted.

Time+place+event

Another problem involved in the translation of newspaper texts is that newspaper clichés some of them have close parallels in T.L. Ex: the English trial balloon & Russian clichés tend to become polysemantic which may affect their translation.

Thus «communication gap» may be rendered.

The problem of S.D's centres around the relative functional stylistic resources. In case, their functional role is different in the S & T.L's a different SD. Should be employed in T.L. to achieve a comparable stylistic effects.

ex: The swelling tide of working class opposition.

Translation of pragmatic meaning. Pragmatic meaning is that meaning which denotes to the social states of the speaker Situation of communication Individual characteristics of the speaker. Different cultures have different vision of the world. European architecture he sees the line Japanese sees the poem.

Receiving & sending information happens at the same time he is isolated-psychologically difficult, the equipment]-something happens to start translation-even if the sentence is not finished you have to start. The first time appeared 1945 at the process over.

Two schemes of simultaneous translation. The first scheme-direct scheme U.N. system is used.

The second scheme-(conference in Geneva)- is pilot Translation

which are used in simultaneous translation.

When the speaker speaks too much you make compression syllable, words sentences.

From this point of view the compression of syllables, EX: necessary

what you can compress It depends if it is theme or

rheme Syntactic compression

a) more simple syntactical forms over estimation of what UN can achieve

b) to use abbreviations

Lexical compression

When you express the same idea with less number of words Ex: manage economy

to implement, to realize, to apply

Semantic compression

Missing of repeating componings of the report.
 Sometimes the speaker speaks very slow,
 repeats the same phrase, you make expansion
 adding something.

-treaty

—many
 —time
 —remember very impptant
 —man
 —woman
 —problem
 —big problem
 —building
 —small proglem
 —international —learn —
 fortunately —unfortunately —
 budget —future —past

ex: my name is Christi Adams. I'm conference interpreter English, French, Spain
 ... in Cambridge. I'll have to go to Geneva.

—my name -CA/CT INT - EPS

—Cambridge 4 Russian & Geneva

ex: 1-10 (some ideas of the history
 of translation from English into
 Uzbek.

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 practice».Tashkent. 1989.

Questions:

- 1) What are the main problems of funtional style in translation?
- 2) What are the main problems of translation of stylistic devices?
- 3) What is the difference between translation and analysis?
- 4) What is the pragmatic aspect of translation?
- 5) What is a simultaneous translation?

KEY WORDS

terminological synonymy - атамалар синонимияси

distinctive features - фаркли хусусиятлари

simaltaneous translation - синхрон таржима

pragmatic meaning - прагматик маъно (шароитдан келиб чикиб аникланадиган
 маъно)

syntactic comprassion - синтактик мослашув