CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Translation

There are many definitions to translation. The following are just few of them:

“Translation is an operation on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another” (Catford, 1965: 1)

“Translation: the reproduction in a receptor language of the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and second in terms of style.” (Nida and Taber, 1982: 208)

“What is translation? Often, though not by any means always, it is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text” (Newmark, 1988: 5)

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

(Munday, 2001: 5)

“Penerjemahan merupakan proses pengalihan pesan teks bahasa sumber ke dalam bahasa sasaran.” [“Translation is a process of transferring the message of a source language text into the target language.”] (Nababan: 2008)

In translation, there are source language (SL) and target language (TL). In
Nida’s The Theory and Practice of Translation, SL is defined as “the language in which the original author of a message formulated it, and the point of departure for translation” (Nida, 1982: 206) and receptor language or TL as “the language into which a message is translated from the original or source language” (Nida, 1982: 205).

2.2 Translation Techniques

Translation techniques (translation procedures or translation shifts) are defined as “the smallest linguistic changes occurring in translation of ST (source text) to TT (target text)” (Munday, 2001: 55).

The analysis to this thesis uses Vinay and Darbelnet’s translation techniques. They are:

1. Literal translation
2. Transference
3. Transposition
4. Calque
5. Modulation
6. Equivalence
7. Adaptation

There are also cases in which scholars confuse a translation technique with another. This is because the difference of the translation of text using a translation technique compared to using another is so little that it is easily ignored. For example:

SL Rani eats fried chicken
In TLa, the translation technique used is literal translation in which the text is translated word by word. Meanwhile, modulation is used in translating SL text into TLb. The difference here is the emphases on the sentences. TLa emphasizes on who (Rani) is doing the action (eat), whereas TLb emphasizes on the object (fried chicken) to which the action is being done (eaten).

Therefore, to avoid such error, we need to get a better understanding of each and all of the translation techniques used before doing a translation and analyzing one.

2.2.1 Literal translation

Literal translation is a translation technique commonly used in translating literary texts and many other kinds of texts. Literary translation may be briefly explained as follows:

Literal, or word for word, translation is the direct transfer of SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate TL text in which the translators’ task is limited to observing the adherence to the linguistic servitudes of the TL.

(Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti, 2000: 86)

It may be useful to distinguish literal from word-for-word and one-to-one translation. Word-for-word translation transfers SL grammar and word order, as well as the primary meanings of all the SL words, into the translation, and it is normally effective only for brief simple neutral sentences...In one-to-one translation, a broader form of translation, each SL word has a corresponding TL word, but their primary (isolated) meanings may differ...Since one-to-one translation normally respects collocational meanings, which are the most powerful contextual influence on translation, it is more common than word-for-word translation.

(Newmark, 1988: 69)
Newmark added that literal translation ranges from one word to one word, e.g.:

SL     book
TL     buku

through group to group, e.g.:

SL     a bowl of soup
TL     semangkuk sup

collocation to collocation, e.g.:

SL     reading a journal
TL     membaca sebuah jurnal

clause to clause, e.g.:

SL     if you go
TL     jika kamu pergi

to sentence to sentence, e.g.:

SL     They sat under the oak tree.
TL     Mereka duduk di bawah pohon ek itu.

The longer the unit, the rarer the one-to-one.

2.2.2 Transference

Transference (or loan words) is the process of transferring SL word to TL text as a translation procedure (Newmark, 1988: 81). It is the same as Catford’s transference and includes transliteration, which relates to the conversion of different alphabets, such as Cyrillic, Arabic, Chinese, etc. into English. However, since the alphabets of both languages used in the analysis (English and Bahasa
Indonesia) are Latin alphabets, transliteration is omitted. Other common terms for transference are ‘loan word’ and ‘borrowing’.

In giving the purposes of transference, Matthews and Orrantia wrote that it is used:

a) to overcome a gap or lacuna, e.g. ‘paintball’, ‘cerebellum’, ‘legato’, ‘casebook’ (these terms don’t have their equivalents in Bahasa Indonesia);

b) to create stylistic effect, e.g. ‘cake’ (instead of kue), ‘meeting’ (instead of rapat), ‘nervous’ (instead of gugup); and

c) to create the flavor of SL, e.g. ‘sushi’, ‘burger’, ‘salad’, ‘smoothie’.

There is what we call direct borrowing in which the SL term is put into TT, just as it is. This is usually because (a) the SL term doesn’t have any equivalent in TL and/or (b) the SL term has been recognized in TL vocabulary. Examples of such borrowing include ‘orbit’, ‘portal’, ‘data’, ‘panorama’, and ‘batik’.

There is also natural borrowing, a type of transference in which the ‘borrowed’ SL term is modified to TL spelling and TL users’ ease of pronunciation.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>computer</td>
<td>komputer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tour</td>
<td>tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inflation</td>
<td>inflasi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boycott</td>
<td>boikot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dictator</td>
<td>diktator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sate</td>
<td>satay</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is a forth reason for using transference in translating SL text, and it is pointed out through this statement by Armstrong (2005: 45): “…even within a language, full equivalence of meaning is rare.” To illustrate his statement, let’s take two terms in Bahasa Indonesia: bis and angkot.

Both terms are commonly translated as ‘bus’ in English. However, when a foreigner, who comes to Indonesia for the first time, sees an angkot and an Indonesian tells him/her that it’s a bus, s/he might say things like “That’s not a bus.” This is because what the foreigner has in mind of a ‘bus’ is “a large motor vehicle in which people are driven from one place to another” (Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary: Third Edition, 2008: 185). This definition fits the description of bis, but not angkot, since the emphasis is on the phrase ‘a large vehicle’. So, what is angkot?

Angkot adalah salah satu sarana perhubungan dalam kota dan antar kota yang banyak digunakan di Indonesia, berupa mobil jenis minibus atau van yang dikendarai oleh seorang sopir dan kadang juga dibantu oleh seorang kenek. Tugas kenek adalah memanggil penumpang dan membantu sopir dalam perawatan kendaraan (ganti ban mobil, isi bahan bakar, dan lain-lain). Setiap jurusan dibedakan melalui warna armadanya atau melalui angka.

[http://id.wikipedia.org/wiki/Angkutan_Kota]

[Angkot is a public transportation in the form of a minibus or van, for commuting within a city/town and to another city/town, that is vastly used in Indonesia, operated by a driver, and sometimes assisted by a kenek. The tasks of a kenek are to call to passengers and help the driver in maintaining the vehicle (changing its tyre(s), filling up its fuel tank, etc.). Every jurusan (lit. route, direction; different angkot has different route) is distinguished by its color or number.]

Maybe it is time we make a habit of “adopting” such Bahasa Indonesia terms as angkot in our utterance (or writing) in English, so as to not confuse the subject, or object being referred to, with another.
2.2.3 Transposition

“A ‘shift’ (Catford’s term) or ‘transposition’ (Vinay and Darbelnet) is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL” (Newmark, 1988: 85).

There are four types of transposition:

(i) Type 1: the change from singular to plural (and vice versa), or in the position of the adjective.

Example of change from singular to plural:
SL a pair of glasses
TL sebuah kacamata

Example of change in the position of adjective:
SL black ink
TL tinta hitam

(ii) Type 2: the change in grammatical structure from SL to TL because SL grammatical structure does not exist in TL.

Example:
SL I placed the document on his desk.
TL Dokumen itu aku letakkan di atas mejanya.

This example shows that except for sentences in passive voice or a particular structure, the concept of placing of object in the beginning of the sentence in Bahasa Indonesia (TL) is not recognized in the English (SL) grammar, hence it is transposed into a simple sentence.

There is also a case in which the placing of verb in the beginning of a
sentence in Bahasa Indonesia is uncommon in the English grammar, unless the sentence is an imperative sentence. In such case, the sentence is also transposed into a simple sentence.

Example:

SL The meaning changes if...
TL Berubah maknanya apabila...

(iii) Type 3: an alternative to when literal translation of SL text may not accord with natural usage in TL. Such alternatives include:

a) Noun/noun phrase in SL becomes verb in TL.

Example:

SL ...to study their history for better understanding of their behavior {noun phrase}
TL ...mempelajari sejarah mereka untuk lebih memahami perilaku mereka {verb}

b) The joined form of adjective participle (i.e. adjective formed from a verb) and noun, or noun phrase in SL becomes noun + noun form in TL.

Example:

SL engineering technique {adjective + noun}
TL teknik perekayasaan {noun + noun}

c) Clause in the form of participium (i.e. verb form sharing the functions of a noun) in SL is expressed into its direct form in TL.

Example:

SL The house designed by my father is being built.
TL Rumah yang dirancang oleh ayah saya sedang dibangun.
d) Noun phrase with adjective participle from (in)transitive verb in SL becomes noun + clause in TL.

Example:

SL  winning team {adjective + noun}
TL  tim yang menang {noun + clause}

e) Catford’s class-shift, which occurs when the translation equivalent of SL item is a member of a different class from the original item (Catford, 1965: 78).

Example:

• noun becomes verb:
SL  They were happy about our leaving the team.
TL  Mereka senang kami keluar dari tim.

• adjective becomes verb:
SL  They were welcoming to the guests.
TL  Mereka menyambut kedatangan tamu-tamu.

(iv) Type 4: the replacement of a virtual lexical gap by a grammatical structure.

 a) The emphasis in SL is shown through TL regular grammatical construction.

Example:

SL  This is the book I’ve been looking for all this time.
TL  Buku inilah yang kucari selama ini.

b) Catford’s unit-shift: changes of rank — that is, departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in SL is a unit at a different rank in TL (Catford, 1965: 79).
These changes of rank include word into phrase, word into clause, phrase into clause, and so on.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>popgun</td>
<td>senapan mainan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deliberate</td>
<td>dengan sengaja, tenang dan berhati-hati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sabbatical</td>
<td>cuti panjang atau besar untuk istirahat, studi, atau bepergian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.4 Calque

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (in Venuti, 2000: 86), a calque is a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression form of another, but then translates literally each of its elements. They divided calque into two kinds:

(i) Lexical calque: a calque which respects the syntactic structure of TL, whilst introducing a new mode of expression.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>four-by-four (4x4)</td>
<td>empat kali empat (4x4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>table tennis</td>
<td>tenis meja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classic guitar</td>
<td>gitar klasik</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Structural calque: a calque which introduces a new construction into the language (TL).

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘equity financing’</td>
<td>pemembiatan keuangan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As with borrowings, there are many fixed caiques which, after a period of time, become an integral part of the language. These too, like borrowings, may have undergone a semantic change, turning them into faux amis [i.e. pairs of words in two languages or dialects (or letters in two alphabets) that look or sound similar, but differ in meaning; false friends]. Translators are more interested in new caiques which can serve to fill a lacuna, without having to use an actual borrowing.

(Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti, 2000: 85-86)

2.2.5 Modulation

Modulation is a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought (Newmark, 1988: 88). This translation technique is normally used when SL text is translated literally, or transposed, into TL, is still considered unsuitable, unidiomatic, or awkward in TL, although the translation is grammatically correct (Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti 2000: 89).

In Matthews and Orrantio’s words, modulation is a technique that experienced translators use to produce an accurate and idiomatic text. It requires an excellent knowledge of both languages involved in the translation. This includes knowing the mechanics of the language. For example:

1. The manner in which negative and positive formulations are used in the two languages. For example: Do not enter. → Se prohibe entrar.  
   (Spanish) → Défense d’entrer. (French) → Verboden toegang  
   (Dutch) → Dilarang masuk. (Bahasa Indonesia)

2. The general register of the language. For example, French and Spanish tend to use more “intellectual” terms than English. Eye doctor → oftamólogo; bird watching → ornitología; dog show → exposición canina; bunga sepatu (Bahasa Indonesia) → hibiscus
3. Use of the passive voice.

4. The greater the structural difference between the two languages the greater the challenges for the translator.

In general, modulation is divided into standard modulation and free modulation. Standard modulations are the ones recorded in bilingual dictionaries, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>train station</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>stasiun kereta api</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Free modulations are used by translators when TL rejects literal translation. Perhaps free modulation is better illustrated by the following:

> Modulasi bebas adalah prosedur penerjemahan yang dilakukan karena alasan nonlinguistik, misalnya untuk memperjelas makna, menimbulkan kesetalian dalam BSa, mencari padanan yang terasa alami dalam Bsa, dan sebagainya.

(Machali, 2000: 70)

> [Free modulation is a translation procedure employed for non-linguistic purposes, such as to clarify meaning, to create a connection in TL, to find equivalence that seems natural in TL, etc.]

The two general types of modulations are further divided into eleven categories:

(i) Negated contrary (or double negative for positive, as Newmark termed it) is a concrete translation procedure which can be applied in principle to any action (verb) or quality (adjective or adverb).

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>You shouldn’t disrespect your father.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Kamu harus menghormati ayahmu.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(ii) Part for the whole is a modulation in which the SL text of a part of a whole set, which refers to the whole set, is translated as the whole set itself in TL.

Example:

SL “I don’t wan’t that hairball in my room!” shouted Mia.
TL “Aku tidak mau kucing itu ada di kamarku!” teriak Mia.

(iii) One part for another is a modulation that occurs when a referent in SL is referred to as a certain part of it and to its other part in TL.

Example:

SL The little girl was wearing red from head to toe.
TL Pakaian anak perempuan itu bernuansa merah dari ujung rambut hingga ujung kaki.

(iv) Abstract for concrete is a modulation in which the meaning of SL text is made explicit in TL.

Example:

SL The soldier wrote to his wife everyday when he was in battlefield.
TL Prajurit itu menyuratinya tiap hari ketika berada di medan perang.

(v) Cause for effect includes cause for effect, means for result, and substance for object modulations.

Example of cause for effect:

SL The twins weren’t happy about my visit to their house, and to add insult to injury, they threw away my teddy bear.
TL Si kembar tidak senang aku berkunjung ke rumah mereka, dan yang membuatku lebih sedih lagi, mereka membuang
boneka beruangku.

Example of means for result:

SL My friend will drive us to the mall.
TL Temanku akan mengantar kita ke mal naik mobil.

Example of substance for object:

SL Literature isn’t as easy as one thinks it would be.
TL Ilmu kesusasteraan tidaklah semudah yang orang anggap.

(vi) Reversal of terms occurs when the subject in SL becomes the object in TL, and vice versa.

Example:

SL I won’t fit into that gown.
TL Gaun itu takkan muat sama aku.

(vii) Active for passive is used when the active form of the text in TL sounds awkward or is grammatically incorrect.

Example:

SL The code to the safe was changed yesterday.
TL Ada yang mengubah kode brankas kemarin.

(viii) Space for time is used when an occurrence signified as a term indicating space in SL, is modulated into a term in TL that indicates time, and vice versa.

Example:

SL They were my best friends in high school.
TL Mereka sahabatku semasa SMA.

(ix) Intervals and limits is a type of modulation in which the interval of
time and limit of space in SL are modified to a more commonly used TL equivalents, which also sound more natural in TL.

Example in time:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>See you in a week</td>
<td>Sampai jumpa minggu depan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example in space:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No parking between signs</td>
<td>Dilarang parkir hingga rambu berikutnya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(x) Change of symbols occurs when a unit in SL is translated into TL as a unit more commonly used by TL natives.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The harbor is only few miles away from here.</td>
<td>Pelabuhan itu hanya beberapa kilometer dari sini.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(xi) Sensory modulation is a modulation of sensory elements (visual, audio, etc.) from SL into TL.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>brown beans</td>
<td>kacang merah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.6 Equivalence

Equivalence is the translation of fixed expressions such as idioms with an equivalent that is very different in form. (Vinay and Darbelnet in Hatim and Munday, 2004: 339). In Vinay and Darbelnet’s own words, the classical example of equivalence is given by the reaction of an amateur who accidentally hits his
finger with a hammer: if he were French his cry of pain would be transcribed as “Aïe!”, but if he were English this would be interpreted as “Ouch!” [If he were Indonesian, the interpretation of his cry of pain would be: “Aduh!”] Another striking case of equivalences are the many onomatopoeia of animal sounds.

Example:

SL    cock-a-doodle-doo
TL    kukuruyuk

SL    meow
TL    meong

These simple examples illustrate a particular feature of equivalences: more often than not they are of a syntagmatic nature, and affect the whole of the message. As a result, most equivalences are fixed, and belong to a phraseological repertoire of idioms, clichés, proverbs, nominal or adjectival phrases, etc. In general, proverbs are perfect examples of equivalences.

Example:

SL    It’s raining cats and dogs
TL    Hujan turun dengan derasnya.

SL    Birds of a feather flock together
TL    Rasam minyak dengan minyak, rasam air dengan air.
Adaptation is a translation technique that involves modifying a cultural reference for the target text readership (Vinay and Darbelnet in Hatim and Munday, 2004: 334). It is used in those cases where the type of situation being referred to by the SL message is unknown in the TL culture. In such cases translators have to create a new situation that can be considered as being equivalent. Adaptation can, therefore, be described as a special kind of equivalence, a situational equivalence. Titles of books, movies, and characters fit into this category.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘After the Night’ [a novel by Linda Howard]</td>
<td>Menunggu Fajar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Evil Under the Sun’ [a novel by Agatha Christie]</td>
<td>Pembunuhan di Teluk Pixy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voldemort (You Know Who) [a character in J. K. Rowling’s Harry Potter series]</td>
<td>Voldemort (Kau Tahu Siapa)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>