CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Translation

2.1.1 Definitions of Translation

As it is generally stated in Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000: 1382), translation is the process of changing something is written or spoken into another language. Nevertheless, the definition of translation is not that simple. Further elaboration is needed to make it obvious. Many experts in translation theory define translation in different ways.

In universal point of view, translation is the matter of transferring something from one language to another language. As Newmark (1981: 7) states, “Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language”.

However, translation is not limited only about transferring matter but it also deals with the equivalence. Catford (1969: 20) says, “Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”.

Furthermore, translating a text deals with the meaning too. Translation with correct structure is useless without meaning. Larson (1984: 3) states that translation means transferring the meaning of the source language into receptor language. Moreover, Newmark presents further view towards the transferring meaning in a translation. He says (1988: 5), “Translation is rendering the meaning of one text into another language in the way that the author meant the text”. Simatupang (2000: 2), an Indonesian expert in translation theory, says that translation is transferring meaning in SL into TL and...
restructures the meaning into TL in as natural as possible according to valid rules of TL. Hence, structure is not the one that is transferred, but meaning is. He states the previous statement in his book:

“menerjemahkan adalah mengalihkan makna yang terdapat dalam bahasa sumber ke dalam bahasa sasaran dan mewujudkan kembali di dalam bahasa sasaran dengan bentuk – bentuk yang sewajar mungkin menurut aturan-aturan yang berlaku dalam bahasa sasaran. Jadi, yang dialihkan adalah makna bukan bentuk”

Moreover, translation also deals with semantic and culture aspects. Hatim and Mason (1997:1) say, “Translating … as an act of communication which attempts to relay, across cultural and linguistic boundaries, another act of communication (which may have been intended for different purposes and different readers / hearers)”. Kridalaksana, an Indonesian expert in translation theory, supports their statement. On his book (1983: 128), he states that translation is transferring message among cultures or among languages in grammatical and lexical point by preserving the message, effect or structure as possible as it can be. In his book, he writes, “Terjemahan ialah pengalihan amanat antARBudaya dan/atau antarbahasa dalam tataran gramatikal dan leksikal dengan maksud, efek atau ujud yang sedapat mungkin tetap dipertahankan”. In brief, he views translation as transferring message which across culture among languages. Regarding to the semantic case in translation, Bell (1991: 5) says, translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences.

2.1.2 Functions of Translation

Basically, translation functions as a medium of communications. As Nida (1981: 2) states, “Translation means communication because it has three essential elements to
form a process of communication. The three essential elements are source, message, and receptor, and these elements must be found in all communication activities”. In brief words, translation means inter-lingual communication by involving two different languages.

Moreover, Duff (1989: 5) says, “As a process of communication, translation functions as the medium ‘across the linguistic and cultural barriers’ in conveying the messages written in the foreign languages”. In other words, the function of translation is as a bridge, that is, to carry the messages (meanings) from the SL to the TL. Translation is very helpful for people facing a barrier in understanding a text written in a foreign language, for example.

2.1.3 Process of Translation

According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000: 1008), process is a series of things that are done in order to achieve a particular result. In relation to process of translation, Larson says (1984: 17), when translating a text, the aim of the translator is an idiomatic translation making each effort to communicate their meaning of the Source Language (SL) text into the natural forms of the receptor language. In addition, he says that translation is concerned with a lexicon study, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the SL text, which is analyzed to determine its meaning. The discovered meaning is then re-constructed or re-expressed using grammatical structure and the lexicon that are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural
context. Larson (1984), in Choliludin (2006: 31) simply presents the diagram of the translation process (Figure 1) as follows:

![Diagram of the Translation Process](image)

**Figure 1**

Diagram of the Translation Process

The different forms between square and triangle illustrate the forms of the text to be translated and the translation results. They explain that in translation text, the forms of the source language may be altered into appropriate forms of the receptor language to reach the idiomatic translation.

Furthermore, Nababan (2003: 25) states three steps in the process of translation. He says that process of translation consists of three steps, namely 1) the analysis of source of SL, 2) transferring the message, 3) restructuring. In *Teori Menerjemahkan Bahasa Inggris* (2003, 25), he writes, “Proses penerjemahan terdiri atas tiga tahap, yaitu 1) analisis teks bahasa sumber (BSu), 2) pengalihan pesan, 3) restrukturisasi.”
2.1.4 Types of Translation

Catford (1965: 21) formulates categories of translation into three parts, namely extent, levels, and rank of translation. Based on the extent, he categorizes translation into a full translation and a partial translation. Based on levels of translation, he classifies translator in terms of total and restricted translation whilst on the ranks there are bound and unbounded translation.

In the case of full translation, the whole text is submitted to the process of translation, namely each part of the SL text is substituted by text material. According to Catford (1965: 21), text is any stretch of language, spoken or written, which is under discussion and according to circumstances, a text may be a whole library of books, a single volume, a chapter, a paragraph, a sentence, a clause, etc. In contrast with full translation, a partial translation is some part(s) of the SL text are left untranslated. They are merely transferred to the target language text. In a literary translation, it is unusual for some SL lexical items to be treated that way.

There are total translation and restricted translation based on the levels of translation. A total translation is a replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent grammar in TL and lexis with important replacement of SL phonology/graphology by non-equivalent TL graphology/phonology. Nonetheless, a restricted translation is a replacement of textual material in SL by equivalent textual material in TL at only one level, i.e. translation that is performed only at the graphological or at the phonological level, or at only one of the two levels of lexis and grammar.

Rank-bound translation is a translation wherein the selection of TL equivalents is intentionally restricted to one rank or few ranks in the hierarchy of grammatical units,
typically at word or morpheme rank, namely setting up word-to-word or morpheme-morpheme equivalence. On the contrary, normal translation wherein the equivalence shifts freely up and down the rank scale is identified as unbounded translation. Occasionally it tends to be at the higher ranks and sometimes between larger units than the sentences.

As stated by Larson (1984: 15), translation is classified into two major types. They are form-based and meaning-based translation. Form-based translation is known as literal translation since it makes every effort to follow the SL form. On the other hand, meaning-based translation attempts to communicate the meaning of SL text in natural forms of the receptor language. This kind of translation is called as idiomatic translation.

2.2. Interpreting

2.2.1 Definitions of Interpreting

Pöchhacker (2004:10) formulated the definition of interpreting as “Form of translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language”. Riccardi in Hung (2002: 116) supports the point of one-time presentation above by stating that interpreting is something evanescent that vanishes as soon as it is presented.

Interpreting is relatively similar with translation. The difference is merely on the characteristic of the result. Translation result is to be read while interpreting requires listening.

2.2.2 Function of Interpreting
Translation is basically similar with translation. *Http://En.Wikipedia.Org/Wiki/Translation* (accessed on September 14th, 2009) states, “Translation is the interpreting of the meaning of a text and the subsequent production of an equivalent text, likewise called a "translation," that communicates the same message in another language”

Previous reference supports that function of translation is also the functions of interpreting since translation is interpreting as well. Their difference only lies on which on the result of the translation process, whether it is in written or in oral.

Referring to Duff’s statement (1989: 5), interpreting functions in a process of communication. Interpreting functions as a means that across the barriers of linguistic and cultural in expressing the messages spoken in the foreign languages. In brief, interpreting has a function as a bridge, namely, to carry the messages (meanings) from the SL to the TL.

### 2.2.3 Process of Interpreting

Due to the similarity of interpreting and translation, their process is similar as well. Referring to Nababan’s book, *Teori Menerjemahkan Bahasa Inggris*, the process of translation or it can also be stated as oral translation (interpreting) breaks down into three steps. He (2003: 25) says that process of translation consists of three steps. They are 1) the analysis of source of SL, 2) transferring the message, 3) restructuring. In the book (2003, 25), he writes, “Proses penerjemahan terdiri atas tiga tahap, yaitu 1) analisis teks bahasa sumber (BSu), 2) pengalihan pesan, 3) restrukturisasi.”
2.2.4 Types of Interpreting

Keiser (1978) and Weber (1984) in Nababan (2000: 115) divide types of interpreting on how they are performed. They are sight translation, consecutive interpretation, simultaneous interpretation, and whispered interpretation.

In sight translation, interpreter performs his job by translating written text in SL orally. In short, the SL is written text and the product of translation is oral.

Consecutive interpretation occurs normally in a conference or a meeting. The interpreter sits or stands beside the SL speaker and takes notes what the speaker says. Every time the speaker pauses or finishes his speaking (usually after one or two sentences), the interpreter translates the speech into TL with or without the assistance of the notes she / he made.

Nowadays, the segments of consecutive interpretation tend to shorter than fifty years ago. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interpreting, accessed on March 2nd, 2009). Last fifty years, the interpreter would interpret the SL speech in 20 or 30 minutes while today, 10 or 15 minutes is regarded as a long duration since audiences do not like to sit during 20 minutes to wait for a speech they are not able to comprehend.

Sometimes, the interpreter especially the inexperienced interpreter finds difficulties in doing the oral translation because of the rare terms or the terms he does not know. Therefore, he occasionally pauses his interpreting and asks the words he does not recognize to the SL speaker.

In simultaneous interpretation, the interpreter is not in the same room with the SL speaker. The rooms are separated by a window of the special room. The interpreter works in the other room where he listens to the SL speaker through earphones and watches the
mimic or the body language of the speaker at the same time. The interpreter then renders the TL message by speaking into a microphone. This simultaneous interpretation is performed by turning the SL into the language of target listeners via their earphones.

Whispered interpretation is also called as *chuchotage* in French. Whispered interpretation can be committed into two ways. First, the interpreter is sitting among the conference’s participants whisper the TL message to them. Second, the interpreter sits in a particular room and then whispers the oral translation through a microphone to the target listeners.

According to *http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interpreting* (accessed on September 14th, 2009), interpreting is divided into eight parts, namely conference interpreting, legal and court interpreting, focus group (marketing) interpreting, escort interpreting, public sector interpreting, medical interpreting, sign language interpreting and media interpreting. They are differentiated by the place they are performed.

Conference interpreting is the interpretation of a conference; it is performed either consecutively or simultaneously. This interpretation is divided into two markets: the institutional and private. International institutions holding multi-lingual meetings frequently favor interpreting some foreign languages to the mother tongues of the interpreters. In contrast, local private markets tend to have bi-lingual meetings (the local language plus another), the interpreters work both into, and out of their mother tongues.

Legal and court interpreting takes place in justice courts, administrative tribunals, and wherever a legal proceeding is conducted (e.g. a conference room used for taking a sworn statement). Legal interpreting can also be a consecutive interpretation of testimony of witnesses.
Depending on the standards and regulations that are adhered to per state and venue, court interpreters usually do the job alone in consecutive interpreting, or they work as a team in simultaneous interpreting. The interpreters are frequently required to have formal authorization from the State to work in the Courts. Thus, they are called certified court interpreters. In jurisdictions, the interpretation is regarded as an important part of the evidence. Unskilled interpretation can direct to a mistrial.

Focus group (marketing) interpreting is the condition that an interpreter sits in the soundproof booth or in the observer's room with the clients. Usually, there is a one-way mirror between the focus group participants and the interpreter, in which the interpreter can watch the participants, but the participants can only see their own reflection. The interpreter hears the conversation in the source language via headphones and interprets the language simultaneously into the target language for the clients. In any given focus group, the numbers of participants are usually between 2 to 12 (or even more). Hence, experienced interpreters will not only interpret the meanings and phrases but also mimic intonation, speech patterns, laughs, emotions, and tone.

In escort interpreting, an interpreter accompanies a person on a tour, a visit, a meeting or to an interview. The interpreter in this case is called an escort interpreter or an escorting interpreter. This is also called as liaison interpreting.

Public sector interpreting is also known as community interpreting. It is the type of interpreting which occurs in certain fields such as legal, health, and local government, environmental health, social, housing, welfare services, and education. In this kind of interpreting, there are some factors determining and affecting language and the
communication production, namely speech's emotional content, hostile or polarized social surroundings, the power of relationships among participants, and the interpreter's degree of responsibility

Medical interpreting is a public service interpreting which consist of communication among medical personnel and the patient and his or her family. It is facilitated by an interpreter who is usually formally certified. In some conditions, medical employees who are multilingual persons may participate. The medical interpreters must have a deep and strong knowledge of medicine, general medical procedures, the patient interview, the processes of medical examination, and the daily workings of the clinic or hospital where they works. Hence, they can serve both the patient and the medical personnel effectively. In addition, medical interpreters frequently are cultural liaisons for those (regardless of language) who are not familiar with or uncomfortable in clinical, hospital, or medical settings.

In sign language interpreting, at the time an interpreter hears a person speaks, he will render the speaker's meaning into the sign language used by the deaf party. When a deaf person gives signs, an interpreter will render the meaning that is expressed in the signs into the spoken language for the hearing party. It sometimes refers to as voice interpreting or voicing. It may be conducted either as simultaneous or consecutive interpreting. Experienced sign language interpreters will place themselves in a room or space allowing them both to be seen by deaf participants and heard by hearing participants and to see and hear participants. In some cases, an interpreter may interpret from one sign language into an alternate sign language.
Media interpreting has to be performed simultaneously. The illustrations of this interpreting are press conferences, live or taped interviews with political figures, artists, sportsmen musicians, or people from the business world. In this interpreting, the interpreter has to sit in a sound-proof booth where ideally he can see the speakers on a monitor and the set. As a usual job of an interpreter, all equipment should be checked before recording starts. Particularly, satellite connections must be double-checked to make sure that the interpreter's voice is not sent back and the interpreter will hear only one channel at a time. The interpreter who works for a media must sound as confident and slick as a television presenter must.
2.2.5 Difficulties in Interpreting

Each field of study has its own difficulties and so are translation and interpreting. However, difficulties in translation are less complex than difficulties in interpreting. In general, difficulties in translation are created by the language factor and background of both translator’s and reader’s culture. Meanwhile, difficulties in interpreting are commonly categorized into three factors, namely non-physical factor, physical factor and psychological factor.

Non-physical factor consists of the language factor and the culture background of both speaker and listener. First, structure is one example of the language factor case. For instance, the difference between position of adjective and noun in English and Bahasa Indonesia. In English, adjective is placed before the noun. In contrast, adjective is positioned after noun in Bahasa Indonesia. Followings are the illustration of the differences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Bahasa Indonesia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
<td>Bangunan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj building</td>
<td>baru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Adj</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interpreter is expected to master the structure of both SL and TL and comprehend the culture of both languages in order to present the equivalent oral translation.

Physical factors mean the difficulties created by the physical surroundings where the interpreting takes place. The physical factors refer to the equipments provided in the place, such as loudspeakers, microphones, and earphones. Thiery (1974) in Nababan (2000: 123) describes the physical aspects lessening the quality of interpreting. He states:

“…if the interpreters cannot hear properly; if they cannot see the speakers and audience properly, and of course the screen if slides are to be shown; … if they are expected to squat for a full working day in ill-ventilated rabbit-hutches; …if the participants cannot hear the interpreters properly over the head phones; or if they hear the interpreters only too well because of bad sound-proofing of the booths; if there is interference between the simultaneous interpreting system and the loudspeaker system.”

Hence, the interpreter needs to check and re-check the equipments before the interpreting occurs.

The last is physiological factor. Generally, interpreting takes places in official meetings. The situation in the meetings can create strains inside of the interpreter (Nababan, 2000: 117). Another psychological factor, as stated by Nababan, (2000: 117), is inferiority. The interpreter feels this inferiority because he is facing official people at the moment and working as a “bridge” between the communications of two important sides. As a result, the meetings expect professional experienced interpreters who have broad vision.

Moreover, interpreters are expected to be sensitive to the speaking act of the speaker and his body language. The speaking act refers to the speaker’s accent in speaking one language. Some speakers do not state their speech in
straightforward way. In that condition, the interpreter must be careful in comprehending what actually the speakers intend to say. He also should wait until the speakers finish their speech and then he should restructure the speakers’ speech into a more straightforward and brief statements without lessening the original message of the speech. In brief, interpreters should pay attention on the speaker’s intonation and his body language.
2.3 Shifts

There can be no absolute correspondence between languages (Nida (1964) in Venuti (2000: 126)). Consequently, shifts may occur in translation. Shifts occur in either translation or interpreting. As stated by Catford (1965) in Venuti (2000: 141), shifts are departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL). He also classifies the shifts into two major types, namely level shift and category shift.

2.3.1 Level Shift

In brief, Catford (1965) in Venuti (2000:141) means level shift as a shift from a grammatical unit in SL to a lexical unit in TL. For instance, in the case of English and Bahasa Indonesia, a grammatical unit in English (i.e. affixes, noun, verb, etc) has a lexical unit in Bahasa Indonesia. The followings are the examples of level shift:

1. (a) Ricky and Tanaka have accomplished the assignment.
   (b) Ricky dan Tanaka telah menyelesaikan tugas tersebut.
2. (a) Ayah pun tidak suka berbelanja di pusat perbelanjaan.
   (b) Even father dislikes shopping at shopping centre.

In example (1), it can be seen that in English if ‘have’ comes together with past participle of ‘accomplish’ then it indicates the act of ‘accomplishing’ has begun before the time of speaking and the effect of the action still resumes at the time of speaking. The form ‘have + past participle’ in English is translated into ‘sudah’, a lexis in Bahasa Indonesia. Similarly, ‘pun’ in (2 a), a unit (morpheme) in Bahasa Indonesia grammar is translated into ‘even’ a lexis in English.
2.3.2 Category Shift

The second type of shift, category shift, deals with unbounded and rank-bound translation. The term “rank-bound” translation simply refers to particular cases where equivalence is intentionally limited to ranks below the sentences. Meanwhile, unbounded translation means the translation equivalences may take place in any appropriate rank whether it is a sentence, clause, phrase (group), word, or morpheme.

Halliday (1985) in Machali (1998: 13) identifies five units representing ranks in English, namely sentence, clause, group (or phrase), word, and morpheme.

1) Sentence
   Sentence is a group of words conveying a question, a statement, etc.
   E.g. ‘Quinn will visit me this coming December.’

2) Clause
   Clause is a group of words having a subject and a verb.
   E.g. ‘Quinn will visit me this coming December and bring me a present.’
   Example above consists of two clauses based on the verbs used.

3) Group (phrase)
   Group (phrase) means a group of words which do not have a finite verb.
   Phrase forms a part of a sentence. In some cases, phrase is a group of words containing a certain meaning if they are used together. There are five kinds of phrase, namely noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, verb phrase and prepositional phrase.
   E.g. ‘A new brown wooden table’
Example above is an illustration of a noun phrase where a noun ‘table’ is modified by three adjectives ‘new’, ‘brown’ and ‘wooden’.

4) Word

Word is a letter or a group of letters which have meaning.

E.g., ‘brown’

5) Morpheme

Morpheme means a smallest unit of meaning which a word can be separated into.

E.g., the suffix ‘ence’ in the word ‘correspondence’ indicates that the word is a noun in English.

Those units of language are found in Bahasa Indonesia as well (Machali, 1998: 13). The recognition of their distribution, status, and meaning are not similar in Bahasa Indonesia.

In the group of category shift, there are four shifts. They are structure-shifts, class-shifts, unit-shifts, and intra-system-shifts.

2.3.2.1 Structure-shifts

Structure-shift deals with a grammatical change between the structure of the SL and that of the TL. Moreover, in grammar, this type of shift is able to take place at all ranks.

An illustration of this shift is:

(a) That pretty doll is bought by my cousin yesterday.

        Adj.   N

(b) Boneka vang cantik itu dibeli oleh sepupuku kemarin.

        N which+modifier
2.3.2.2 Class-shifts

In brief, Catford (1965) in Venuti (2000: 145) views class-shifts as shifts occurred when the equivalent translation of a SL item is a component of a different class in TL. For instance:

(a) corridor development
   Adj       N

(b) Membangun koridor
   Verb      N

2.3.2.3 Unit-shifts

Unit shift refers to changes of rank. It is about departures from formal correspondence wherein the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL is a unit at a different rank in the TL. In brief, unit shift engages with changes of rank. For instance, adjective in SL translated into modifier (a clause) in TL.

(a) understanding mind
   Adj.      N

(b) pemikiran yang memahami
   N         a clause

2.3.2.4 Intra-system-shifts

The last shifts, intra-system-shifts, are the shifts occurring internally within the system of the language concerned. The system involves a selection of a non-corresponding word in the system of TL. An example of this is:

(a) a pair of scissors
   N (+ plural)

(b) sebuah gunting
   N (singular)
It is obviously seen from the example above that though we have a corresponding plural form of ‘scissors’ (e.g. through repetition of the word ‘gunting’ in Bahasa Indonesia), system in Bahasa Indonesia needs the use of the singular form of ‘a pair’.