

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Translation

Generally, translation is the process of making an idea in less spoken language accessible in more commonly spoken language. This process can be carried out for literary works, news, or even scientific texts. Bell (1993, p. 4) argued on how translation was on a long debate in the past about its status whether it should be treated as an “art/craft” or “science”. It was because, in the past, the scholars associate translation activity as a time-pass and that only focused on literary works. It was not until end of the twentieth century where majority of translations were not performed on literary works but rather technical, medical, legal, administrative and the translators are professionals engaging in making a living.

Nida and Taber (1982, p. 12) stated that translation “Consists in reproducing in the receptor language the natural equivalent of the source language message first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style”. Nida and Taber also argue that the best translation does not sound like a translation.

Bell (1993, p. 6) believed that translation is an “ ... obligation to find 'equivalents' which 'preserve' features of the original”. It is in accordance with Nida and Taber definition of translation which focuses on the equivalences.

It is the challenge of the translators to communicate the message accurately, and in the same time, making the target readers feel as if they are reading in their own language.

B. Problems of Translation and Translation Competence

In the process of translation, the translators might face several problems.

Elaborated by Bell (1993, p. 7), the main problem translator faces during translation process is about finding equivalence from the source language (SL) into target language (TL), in term of semantic and style. He added, translator might be criticized for the 'ugliness' of a 'faithful' translation when deciding to translate word-for-word (literal translation) or judged for the 'inaccuracy' of the 'beautiful' translation when translating meaning-for-meaning (free translation).

From the statement above, it can be seen that translators have a 'tough' task not to betray the messages expressed by the ST writer while at the same time not to confuse the TT readers.

To overcome the problems that might occur in the translation process, translators need to have several knowledge and competence related to translation. Translators have to possess the declarative knowledge (knowledge on translation) and procedural knowledge (know how to translate) (Anderson, 1983, in PACTE, 2003, p.4)

Furthermore, Neubert (2000, p. 6, in Nababan, 2008, p. 8) identified five qualitative parameters of translators' competence, namely, language competence, textual competence, scientific competence, cultural competence, and transfer competence.

Moreover, Nababan (2008, pp. 8-9) believed that mastery on the both SL and TL (language competence) is a prominent requirement for the translators. The mastery includes the mastery on morphological, lexical, and grammatical system of both languages. Additionally, the translators also need to have a good sense on the linguistic and textual features of the SL and TL (Neubert, in Nababan, 2008, pp. 8-9).

Furthermore, Nababan argued that translators must also have scientific competence. However, this does not mean that the translators need to first be an expert in certain scientific fields, such as: Chemistry, Biology, Medicine, etc (Nababan, 2008, pp. 8-9). Further explanation on technical translation is provided on the following sub chapter of Technical Translation.

C. Translation Techniques

The concept of translation technique had been proposed by several translation experts and theorists.

As studied by Molina and Albir (2002, pp. 499-501), the first theory on translation technique that had a clear methodological purpose was proposal by Vinay and Darbelnet on their work entitled *Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais* (SCFA) (1958). However, they used the term *procédés techniques de la traduction* (translation technical procedures). They proposed seven translation technical procedures that were classified as direct (or literal) and oblique. The literal translation procedure are borrowing, calque, and literal translation, while oblique translation procedure includes transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation.

Furthermore, Molina and Albir (2002, pp. 501-504) summarized that Nida, Taber, and Margot—who then are referred to as ‘the Bible translators’—proposed several categories to be used when the equivalence is not found in the TL, namely: adjustment techniques (additions, subtractions and alterations) that was proposed by Nida (1964), essential distinction (Margot, 1979), explicative paraphrasing (Nida, Taber, and Margot), redundancy (Margot, 1979) and naturalization (Nida, 1964).

The concept of translation technique has also been proposed by Newmark. Newmark proposed three types of what he called as procedures, namely: recognized translation, functional equivalent, naturalization, translation label (1988, in Molina and Albir, 2002, pp. 505-506).

Previously, there was a confusion between the terminology of translation method, translation procedure, translation strategy, and translation technique. It seemed that the terminologies were used interchangeably. In 2002, Molina and Albir made a distinction between those terms to make the terms clearer in the field of translation study.

Molina and Albir (2002, pp. 506–509) described translation method as a part of the process, a global choice that affects the whole translation. While Procedures, according to Pozo, Gonzalo and Postigo (1993 in Molina and Albir, 2002), are related to knowing how to do something, the ability to organize actions to reach a specific goal. Strategies are related to the mechanisms used by translators throughout the whole translation process to find a solution to the problems they find (either because of a particularly difficult unit, or because there

may be a gap in the translator's knowledge or skills). A technique is the result of a choice made by a translator, its validity will depend on various questions related to the context, the purpose of the translation, audience expectations, etc (Molina and Albir, 2002, pp. 506–509).

According Molina and Albir (2002), translation techniques have five basic characteristics; 1) They affect the result of the translation, 2) They are classified by comparison with the original, 3) They affect micro-units of text, 4) They are by nature discursive and contextual, 5) They are functional.

The following are the 18 translation techniques proposed by Molina and Albir (2002).

1) **Adaptation**

Adaptation technique is used by replacing the cultural element in the source text (ST) with the one that is more commonly used in the target language (TL) (Molina and Albir, 2002).

The example that can be used for this technique is by replacing **inch/in** in the source language with *centimeter/cm* target language. **Inch/in** is commonly used in source language, meanwhile it would sound unfamiliar in the target language. The translator uses the more familiar measurement unit that is *cm*. In this case, the translator has to also use adjustment for the measurement result between inch and centimeter.

2) **Amplification**

Amplification technique is done by adding detailed information of a word or phrase from ST to make it more understandable for the readers of the TT. This

additional information should not change the message from the ST. Amplification is similar to explication, addition, and paraphrase. Footnotes are also a type of amplification. The opposite of amplification is reduction (Molina and Albir, 2002).

The example can be found such as when translating **Halloween** into *Halloween, pesta kostum*. In this example, translator adds the additional information of **Halloween** with *pesta kostum* in the target language, because **Halloween** is a party in which the participants disguise themselves in costumes.

3) Borrowing

Borrowing technique can be done by taking a word from the SL to consider it as translation in the TL. There are two kinds of borrowing; pure borrowing and naturalized borrowing (Molina and Albir, 2002).

Pure borrowing is taking a word from SL straightly, without any change. For example, **burger** in English is translated as *burger* in Indonesian. On the other side, naturalized borrowing is taking a word from SL and adjust it with the spelling or pronunciation in the TL. For example, **fashion** in English is translated into *fesyen* in Indonesian. In this case, the pronunciation of **fashion** in English and *fesyen* in Indonesian is similar. However, the translator adjust the spelling to fit Indonesian standard.

4) Calque

A calque or loan translation is a word or phrase borrowed from another language and translated literally word for word (Molina and Albir, 2002). For example, **prime minister** can be translated into *perdana menteri*. Calque

technique tends to keep the structure of the SL. As in this example, **prime minister** could be translated as *menteri perdana* according to the Indonesian structure.

5) Compensation

This technique is used to introduce an element of information or a stylistic effect from the ST that cannot be translated in the same place as in the ST. This can be done by moving some piece of information or stylistic device in another place in the TT (Molina and Albir, 2002).

SL:

Twinkle, twinkle, little star
How I wonder what you are
Up above the world so high
Like a diamond in the sky

TL:

*Kelap kelip bintang di langit
Darimana asalmu
Kau tinggi di angkasa
Indah bagai permata*

Compensation technique is usually used to translate song lyrics. The translator only takes the meaning of the lyrics without translating literally all the words in the source language. It is because the translator needs to fit the song notes from source language into target language and to keep the stylistic effect of the lyric.

6) Description

This technique is used by replacing the term or expression from the SL with the form or function in the TL. This technique is used when the expression in the SL is not commonly used in the TL (Molina and Albir, 2002). For example, **cider** in English is translated into *minuman beralkohol yang terbuat dari jus apel yang difermentasi* in Indonesian.

In English, **cider** is known as an alcoholic beverage made from the fermented juice of apples. Meanwhile, in Indonesia, there is no equivalence for **cider**, so the translator uses description technique to make the target readers understand the message easily.

7) Discursive creation

This technique is used by establishing the temporary equivalence that is far from the SL context. This technique is often used to translate movie or book title (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example of this technique is the title translation of the novel **Five Feet Apart** by Rachael Lippincott, Mikki Daughtry, and Tobias Iaconis that is translated into *Satu Setengah Meter*.

Literally, **Five Feet Apart** can be translated as *Terpaut Sejauh Lima Kaki*. However, the translator only takes the core of the title that is about distance. Furthermore, *kaki* can be understood as measurement unit but it might be confused for the body anatomy.

8) Established equivalent

This technique is used to translate the expression that is categorized by dictionaries or is generally used in TL (Molina and Albir, 2002). For example,

sincerely yours can be translated into *hormat kami*. Each expression can be used as closing in a letter and between the source language and target language, they have their own established expression.

9) Generalization

Generalization is used to translate a specific term into a more general one (Molina and Albir, 2002).

SL: I like **mutton** and **lamb** very much.

TL: *Saya sangat suka daging kambing.*

Mutton is a type of meat produced by a mature sheep, while **lamb** is a type of meat produced by a young sheep that is also called as lamb (a sheep under one year old). In this case, generalization technique is used that **mutton** and **lamb** is translated into *daging kambing* without considering the age of the sheep that produced the meat.

10) Linguistic amplification

This technique is used by adding the linguistic element from SL into TL. This technique is often used in consecutive interpreting and dubbing. Linguistic amplification is the opposite of linguistic compression (Molina and Albir, 2002).

SL: The aeroplane **fell down** and hit the building

TL: *Pesawatnya jatuh ke darat dan menabrak bangunan*

The translator adds the words *ke darat* to clarify that the aeroplane fell in the land and not in the sea.

11) Linguistic compression

This is the opposite of linguistic amplification. Linguistic compression is done by synthesizing linguistic elements from the SL into TL (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example is as follows:

SL: Where are you going?

TL: *Mau kemana?*

In this example, the translator omitted the word **you** from the translation to make the translation sound more natural for the target readers.

12) Literal translation

Literal translation is used to translate the sentences word-for-word. This technique can be used when the SL and TL have the similar lexical elements and sentence structure (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example is as follows:

SL: I like apple

TL: *Aku suka apel*

In the example above, literal translation can be applied because the source language and the target language have the similar grammatical structure. Furthermore, the sentence does not have connotative meaning.

It can be different in another cases, for example:

SL: Killing two birds in one shoot

TL: *Membunuh dua burung dalam sekali tembakan*

In the source language, the writer uses an idioms which is better translated as idiom in the target language. The acceptable idiom in the target language can be *sekali dayung, dua pulau terlampaui*.

13) Modulation

Modulation technique is used by changing the focus or point of view. The change can be lexical or structural. The common example is changing the passive voice into active voice and vice versa (Molina and Albir, 2002).

SL: Nobody doesn't like it

TL: *Semua orang menyukainya*

Another example can be seen below.

SL: I broke my leg

TL: *Kakiku patah*

In the first example, **nobody doesn't like it** can be translated literally as *tidak ada yang tidak menyukainya*. However, it might cause a little confusion for the target readers, so the translator change the focus.

In the second example, **I broke my leg** can be translated literally as *aku mematahkan kakiku*. However, it might distort the message from the source language. In the source language, it can be understood that the actor broke his leg accidentally. If it is translated literally, the actor might be confused to breaking his leg voluntarily.

14) Particularization

Particularization is the opposite of generalization. This technique is used by translating a specific expression into a more general one (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example is as follows:

SL: She likes to collect **jewelry**

TL: *Dia suka mengoleksi kalung emas*

The translator translates the word **jewelry** into *kalung emas* to make it easier for the target reader to imagine.

15) **Reduction**

Reduction technique is used to suppress the information from the TL that is already understood by the target reader (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example is as follows:

SL: She comes from **Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia.**

TL: *Dia datang dari **Jakarta.***

In the example above, in translating from English into Indonesian, the translator understands that Jakarta is commonly known as the capital of Indonesia for the target readers.

16) **Substitution (linguistic, paralinguistic)**

This technique is used by changing the linguistic elements for paralinguistic element (intonation, gestures) or vice versa. Substitution is often used in interpreting (Molina and Albir, 2002). For example, **nodding head** can be translated into *yes*.

17) **Transposition**

Transposition technique is used by changing grammatical category, such as changing the word class or replacing a word with phrases or vice versa (Molina and Albir, 2002). For example:

SL: I found it **difficult** to complete the task (Adjective)

TL: *Aku mendapatkan **kesulitan** dalam mengerjakan tugas itu.* (Noun)

In the example above, the translator change the grammatical category from adjective into noun in the target language. **Difficult** as **adjective** can be translated as *sulit* which is also **adjective** in the target language. However, the translator use the equivalence in the form of **noun** to make it easier for the reader to digest the message from the source text.

18) Variation

Variation technique is used by changing linguistic or paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) that affects aspects of linguistic variation. The change can be related to textual tone, style, social dialect, geographical dialect, and other aspects related to the linguistic variation (Molina and Albir, 2002). The example is as follows:

SL: Mom : “Listen to **me**.”

TL: *Ibu* : “Dengarkan **Ibu**, ya, Nak.”

The example above shows the change on textual tone. In the source text, *mom* uses the word **me** to refer herself. In the target text, **mom** that is translated into *ibu* uses the word **ibu** to refer herself. This kind of addressing is common in the TL.

D. Translation Quality Assessment

Translation Quality Assessment has been studied by translation experts who then proposed several strategies of how to analyze translation quality. As cited in Nababan et al (2012, p. 40), there are already strategies to assess translation quality, namely: *cloze* technique (Nida and Taber, 1969), reading-aloud technique (Nida and Taber, 1969), knowledge test (Brislin, 1976),

performance test (Brislin, 1976), back-translation (Brislin, 1976), equivalence-based approach (Reis, 1971), and functional approach (Machali, 2000).

Nababan et al. (2012) argue that while those seven strategies have their different orientation, none of them aims at assessing the translation quality holistically. Therefore, they propose a TQA model to assess the translation quality holistically. They later stated that a good translation quality is based on three aspects: accuracy, acceptability, and readability.

1) Accuracy

According to Nababan et al. (2012, p. 44), accuracy refers to the message transferred from source language into target language. A translation is considered as accurate if the message from the source language is fully transferred without distortion and ambiguity in meaning. The category level of accuracy can be classified as accurate, less accurate, and inaccurate. Accurate means that the message in source language is accurately translated into the target language and there is no distortion of meaning. Less accurate means that the meaning is mostly translated but there are still some meaning distortions or multiple meanings of the translation or some are omitted that interfere with the integrity of the message. Inaccurate means that the source language texts are inaccurately transferred into the target language or omitted or deleted.

2) Acceptability

Nababan et al. (2012, p. 44) stated that acceptability refers to the translation product that is in accordance with the norms and culture of target

language. There are three categories of acceptability level: acceptable, less acceptable, and unacceptable. Acceptable means that translated text is commonly used, familiar to the readers, and in accordance with target language norms. Less acceptable means that the translation feels natural, but there is still some misuses of technical terms and grammatical errors that may cause less acceptable translation. Meanwhile, unacceptable refers to a translation that does not feel natural, not commonly used to the target readers, and it does not correspond to the target language system.

3) **Readability**

Nababan et al. (2012, p. 45) defines readability as a tool to assess whether the translation is easy to understand by the target readers or not. In assessing the readability of a translation, target readers are treated as passive readers who have no access to the source text. There are three categories of readability: readable, less readable and not readable. A translation is considered as readable if the translated text can be easily understood by target readers. Less readable means that particular parts of translated text should be read more than once to understand the translation. Unreadable means that the translation is totally difficult to understand by target readers.

E. Technical Translation

Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and also in other disciplines such as economics and medicine (Williams and Chesterman, 2002, in Hosseinimanesh and Dastjerdi,

2013, p. 156). It means that the translation process is carried out to translate a text which has several distinction from general texts.

Handayani argued that there will be some problems when translation process is carried out to translate scientific texts from specific fields, such as: law, religion, or medicine. The translator has to be more cautious about the terms that have to be translated accurately and acceptably for the target text readers. Texts on those certain fields can be concluded as specific and sensitive texts which might cause errors in the translation process (2009, pp. 3–4).

The above statement is in line with Krein-Kühle (2003, pp. 10–11) who believed that “Scientific and technical translators have not been 'just' translators, but often scientists as well” and “. . . the higher the degrees of specialization and abstraction, the lesser the clarity for the translator”. It means that the translator has to at least has a basic or fundamental knowledge in the field of the text that he is going to translate.

F. Technical Term

Wüster (1979 in Bühler, 1982, p. 429) stated that “terminology work starts with the systematization of concept to which terms are assigned later”. On another study, Johnson and Sager (1980, as cited in Bühler, 1982, p. 429) defined terms as “items characterized by special reference within a discipline”. Linking to previous statement on technical text, it can be concluded that technical term is a term consisted in technical text that convey certain meaning of a particular field.

A technical term might appear similar to a general term. However, it might have a very different meaning compared to the general term used in vernacular.

For example, the word **interest**, that is commonly used in vernacular, is also used in the field of economics and finance. According to oxford dictionary, **interest** in vernacular means “ the feeling that you have when you want to know or learn more about somebody/something”. While in economics and finance, **interest** can be defined as “the extra money that you pay back when you borrow money or that you receive when you invest money”.

For the case elaborated above, there is a requirement that the translator of technical text has to master the specific field of the text that is going to be translated. This also means that the translator ought to have a good understanding of the technical terms as well.

G. Translating Technical Term

Handayani (2009, p. 91) in her research on medical term translation suggests that in translating medical terms, several terms are better left untranslated (using borrowing technique). She also found out that the translation ideology used by the translator is foreignization, which is good, because medical text is a sensitive text, therefore translation techniques that tends to source language such as calque and borrowing helps in decreasing the possibility of the term having multi-interpretation or even misinterpretation.

Below are the examples taken from Handayani’s research for the usage of naturalized borrowing:

Parkinsonism : *Parkinsonisme*

Trachoma : *Trakoma*

Photocoagulation : *Fotokoagulasi*

From the 634 data of medical term, 115 (19.7%) are translated using naturalized borrowing technique. Furthermore, pure borrowing is in the second most used translation technique. There are 36 data (5.6%) that are translated using pure borrowing. Below are the examples of terms that are translated using pure borrowing technique:

Ethanol : *Ethanol*

Abnormal : *Abnormal*

Sinusitis : *Sinusitis*

The research model of medical term translation can be applied in this research because both researches are focusing on the translation of terms in the specific field.

H. Words Absorption from English into Indonesian

As a living language that always develops, Indonesian language absorbs words from other languages. According to General Principles of Word Formation (*Pedoman Umum Pembentukan Istilah*, 2007, p. 15), the word absorption from foreign language into Indonesian language is done based on the following principles:

- 1) The term absorbed from the foreign language increases the intertranslatability between Indonesian and foreign language for the purpose of future needs
- 2) The term absorbed from the foreign language increase the understanding of the Indonesian readers since the term has been formerly known
- 3) The term to be absorbed from the foreign language is shorter than the Indonesian translation

- 4) The term to be absorbed from the foreign language facilitates in achieving agreement among experts when the Indonesian term has several synonyms
- 5) The term absorbed from the foreign language is more appropriate and accurate since it does not contain negative connotation

