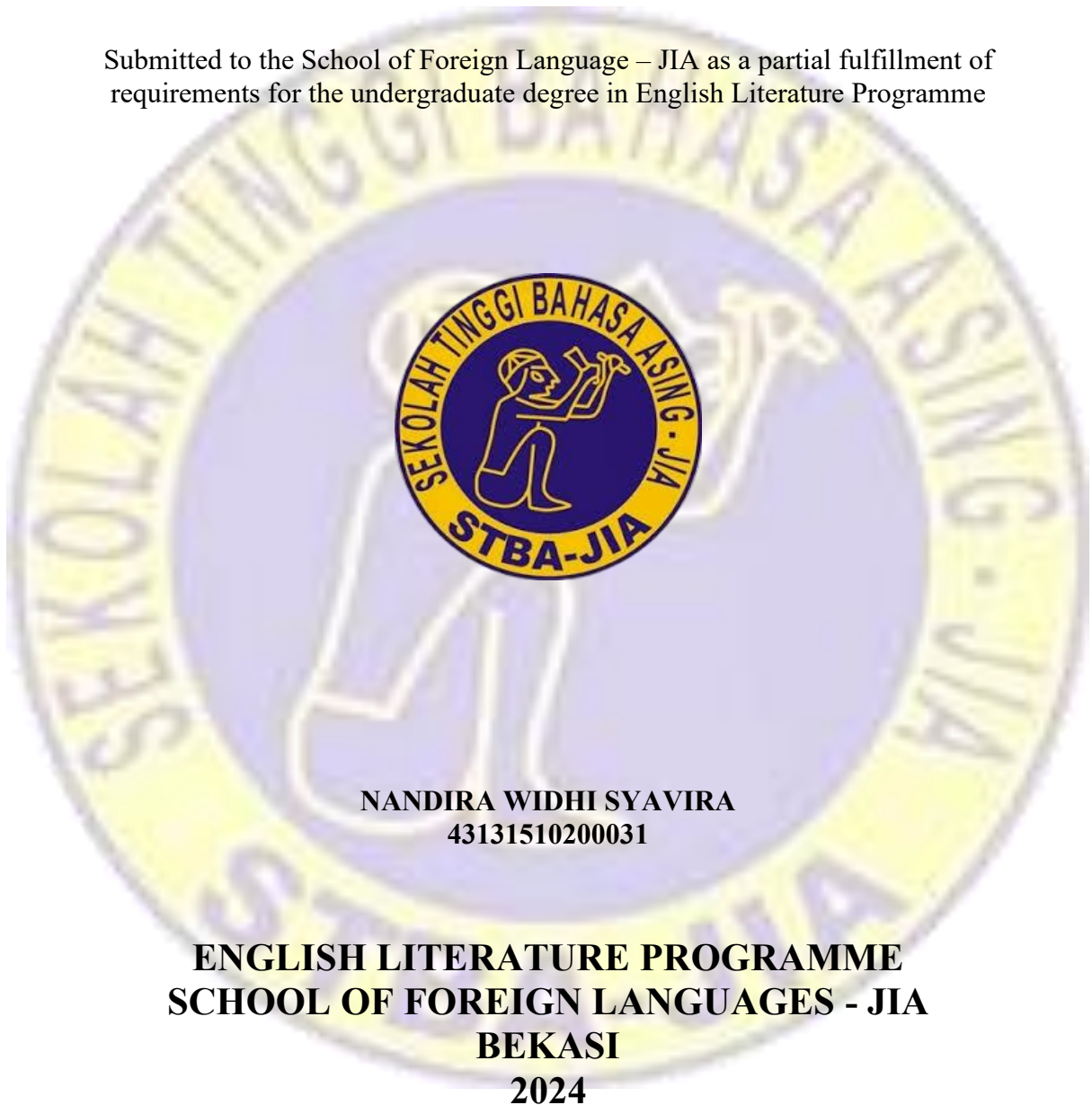


# **Comparing Human Translation with Deepl Translate in Translating Idiom of Wednesday Series**

## **REFERENCE**

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language – JIA as a partial fulfillment of requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme



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J. C. CATFORD

LANGUAGE  
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LEARNING

# A Linguistic Theory of Translation

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French. The criterion here is the 'human' or 'social' geographical one of 'dialect of the metropolis' rather than a purely locational criterion.

13.54 The *markers* of the SL dialect may be formally quite different from those of the equivalent TL dialect. There are certainly Cockney markers at all levels, but in many literary texts, Cockney is marked chiefly by phonological features, reflected in such graphological forms as 'alf or 'arf for 'half', wiv for 'with', and a few grammatical features such as *aint* for 'isn't/aren't'. In addition there are often *pseudo-phonological* features, indicated by graphological peculiarities such as *orful* for 'awful' and *ter* for 'to'. These graphological forms can be interpreted phonologically only in perfectly normal 'standard' English ways—they are the markers of a purely visual, literary, dialect.

The markers of *Parigot* may include a few graphological/phonological features, but are likely to be largely at the lexical level, in the form of extensive use of *argot*. This illustrates another case, like those cited in 7.6 above, where phonological/graphological features *appear* to have translation equivalents at the level of lexis; but, as in those examples, this is an illusion. If the translation equivalent of 'e's *gorn* is *il a foutu l'camp* this does not mean that lexical items are here translation equivalents of phonological features. The translation equivalence is set up between *varieties* (specifically *Cockney* and *Parigot*): of which the SL *markers* are phonological, and the TL *markers* are lexical; there is no equivalence between phonological and lexical features as such.

13.55 Temporal dialects, or *états de langue*, may also present translation problems. A contemporary *état de langue* of the SL may normally be regarded as *unmarked*, only archaic varieties being marked. In *spoken-spoken* translation<sup>4</sup> both SL and TL texts are normally 'contemporary' or 'unmarked' dialects in the time-dimension. An archaic SL text, however, raises the problem of

<sup>4</sup> Here we imply a categorization of 'external' aspects of translation not dealt with in the present essay. For this categorization at least *four* dimensions have to be considered; viz. those of *media* (SL spoken/written, TL spoken/written), *time-relation* (simultaneous/successive), *agent* (human/machine), and for human translation at least, *direction* ( $L_1$  to  $L_2$ , or  $L_2$  to  $L_1$ ).

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# The Pros & Cons of DeepL Translate

Clint Cheng  
 Founder and CEO at iGlobe Advisory Inc.  
 Published Feb 8, 2022

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By Hagen Weiss

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## A Comparative Study Between Human Translation and Machine Translation as an Interdisciplinary Research

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### ABSTRACT

Research purpose of the research is to determine the difference between human translation and machine translation. The data sources for this article come from several references, books, journals and articles related to the title of the discussion. Research findings of the research are that human translation is more effective and easier to understand when compared to machine translation which can only translate literal sentences or words without understanding the intent and purpose of the intended target language. So, machine translation language mainly focuses on the source language without paying attention to the target language. In terms of semantic meanings in machine translation, it is far away from the truth of the meaning it has when compared to the meaning of human translations. Therefore, machine translation can be said to be a literal translation that applies in general. So, the role of human translation is still bigger in the correct translation.

### KEYWORDS:

Comparative;  
Human;  
Machine;  
Study;  
Translation

## Introduction

In translation subject, many students even many people are still confuse about the difference between human and machine translation, what is their advantage and their weaknesses. This is a very seriously problem that should be discussed to know the correct answer. It is also necessarily to inform in order to get good choice to determine a good result especially in doing assignment and business. A variety of definitions exist for machine aided translation. Between them, these definitions place machine aided translation on a scale reaching from human translation in the proper sense of the word to fully automatic machine translation (Baker, 2015).

### *Violation of meaning*

No one can deny that the main rationale behind any translation is to transfer as much as possible the meaning intended by the source text's writer into the target text. Yet, in machine translation, this is not always the case in that sometimes the achieved meaning is ambiguous, distorted, and it becomes difficult to grasp it just like in the following example:

The source text: Twenty people had already left

Human Translation: Dua puluh karyawan **telah di PHK**.

Machine translation: Dua puluh orang **telah meninggalkan**.

The meaning 'left' in the machine translation is 'telah meninggalkan' while in human translation is 'PHK'. This association of meaning in machine translation is quite unfit for it is known that the act of *telah meninggalkan* in Indonesian language is not suitable to the meaning of the sentences because the meaning is ambiguous. This is mainly, as stated before, due to the fact that machine translation focuses on the source text's language which is in this case English, as being different from Indonesian language.

### *Conclusion*

Generally speaking, since it was first acknowledged as an academic discipline, translation studies have known the emergence of new methods of translation including so-called Machine Translation. However, its emergence was not at the expense of Human Translation for the latter proved to be the only subject capable of translating not only by means of substituting words for words, like Machine Translation, but also in terms of respecting linguistic, semantic, and more importantly cultural differences between languages.

This paper has been an attempt to draw a distinction between Machine Translation and Human Translation shedding light on the different characteristics of each one. The focus has been on depicting some the factors that render Human Translation more effective and flexible in comparison with Machine Translation. Thus, for the sake of illustrating, a practical text has been provided and it was translated by both Machine Translation and Human Translation.

J. C. CATFORD

LANGUAGE  
and  
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LEARNING

# A Linguistic Theory of Translation

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# General Linguistic Theory

1.0 Translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another. Clearly, then, any theory of translation must draw upon a theory of language—a general linguistic theory.

General Linguistics is, primarily, a theory about how languages work. It provides categories, drawn from generalizations based on observation of languages and language-events. These categories can, in turn, be used in the description of any particular language. The general linguistic theory made use of in this book is essentially that developed at the University of Edinburgh, in particular by M. A. K. Halliday<sup>1</sup> and influenced to a large extent by the work of the late J. R. Firth. The present writer, however, takes full responsibility for the brief and, indeed, oversimplified sketch of linguistic theory given here, which differs from that of Halliday chiefly in its treatment of *levels* (1.2).

1.1 Our starting-point is a consideration of how language is related to the human social situations in which it operates. This leads on to classification of *levels* of language (or of linguistic analysis) and then to a discussion of the fundamental *categories* of linguistics which can be used in the description of at least the grammar and phonology of particular languages.

Language is a type of patterned human behaviour. It is a way, perhaps the most important way, in which human beings interact in social situations. Language-behaviour is externalized or manifested in some kind of bodily activity on the part of a *performer*, and presupposes the existence of at least one other human participant in the situation, an *addressee*.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> For a fuller account than it is possible to give here, the reader is referred to M. A. K. Halliday, 'Categories of the Theory of Grammar', *Word*, Vol. 17, No. 3, 1961, pp. 241–92; also to Halliday, M. A. K., McIntosh, A., and Strevens, P. D. 'The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching'. Longmans, 1964.

<sup>2</sup> *Performer* and *addressee* are 'participant rôles'. In the limiting case of a man talking to himself—i.e. interacting linguistically with himself—both rôles are

# A TEXTBOOK OF TRANSLATION

**Peter Newmark**



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. Common sense tells us that this ought to be simple, as one ought to be able to say something as well in one language as in another. On the other hand, you may see it as complicated, artificial and fraudulent, since by using another language you are pretending to be someone you are not. Hence in many types of text (legal, administrative, dialect, local, cultural) the temptation is to transfer as many SL (Source Language) words to the TL (Target Language) as possible. The pity is, as Mounin wrote, that the translation cannot simply reproduce, or be, the original. And since this is so, the first business of the translator is to translate.

A text may therefore be pulled in ten different directions, as follows:

- (1) The individual style or idiolect of the SL author. When should it be (a) preserved, (b) normalised?
- (2) The conventional grammatical and lexical usage for this type of text, depending on the topic and the situation.
- (3) Content items referring specifically to the SL, or third language (i.e. not SL or TL) cultures.
- (4) The typical format of a text in a book, periodical, newspaper, etc., as influenced by tradition at the time.
- (5) The expectations of the putative readership, bearing in mind their estimated knowledge of the topic and the style of language they use, expressed in terms of the largest common factor, since one should not translate down (,or up) to the readership.
- (6), (7), (8) As for 2, 3 and 4 respectively, but related to the TL.
- (9) What is being described or reported, ascertained or verified (the referential truth), where possible independently of the SL text and the expectations of the readership.
- (10) The views and prejudices of the translator, which may be personal and subjective, or may be social and cultural, involving the translator's 'group loyalty factor', which may reflect the national, political, ethnic, religious, social class, sex, etc. assumptions of the translator.

Needless to say, there are many other tensions in translations, for example between sound and sense, emphasis (word order) and naturalness (grammar), the figurative and the literal, neatness and comprehensiveness, concision and accuracy.

Figure 1 shows how many opposing forces pull the translation activity (*Pactivite traduisante*) in opposite directions. The diagram is not complete. There is often a tension between intrinsic and communicative, or, if you like, between semantic and pragmatic meaning. When do you translate *Il fait froid* as 'It's cold' and when as 'I'm cold', 'I'm freezing', 'I'm so cold', etc., when that is what it means in the context? All of which suggests that translation is impossible. Which is not so.

Why a book of this sort? Because I think there is a body of knowledge about translation which, if applied to solving translation problems, can contribute to a translator's training. Translation as a profession practised in international organi-

BENJAMINS

■ TRANSLATION

Comparative Stylistics  
of French and English

*A methodology for translation*

Jean-Paul Vinay  
Jean Darbelnet

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languages do not report one and the same situation in the same way. Thus, to take just a very straightforward example the simple phrase “his patient” informs us about the doctor’s sex but not about the patient’s, whereas in French it is the other way round.

We speak of **gain** when the translation expresses a situational element which is unexpressed in the source language. Gain with respect to the situation is unthinkable. Since **translation is concerned with the transmission of information from SL to TL** we can apply the principle of ‘conservation of information’ (Ruyser 1954) which states that machines, however perfect, can only increase entropy, which automatically leads to a decrease in information. In this sense, translators are superior to machines because they can introduce gain in the message, though, of course, not in the situation. A sentence containing gain is more self-sufficient; it expresses what is understood or recalls what had previously been expressed. Because the comprehension of such a sentence is less dependent on the context or the situation it frees the reader from referring to either.

Such explicitations may result from structural or semantic causes. Sometimes a word is at a higher level of abstraction than its equivalent in the TL which, in turn, is consequently more precise: compare the more abstract ‘to land’ with the more concrete ‘*atterrir*’ and ‘*débarquer*’.

Sometimes the structure of the language requires the use of a phrase which seems to catch reality more sharply: Since French does not have phrasal verbs, a notice hanging on a door, saying “*Entrez sans frapper!*” is more precise than the English equivalent “Walk in!”. While to English speakers the meaning is perfectly clear, its correct interpretation depends much more on the situation than the corresponding French notice.

The gain is only apparent when it does not add any new information to the sentence. This is the case of the expletives, i.e. words which serve as fillers, to balance a phrase or to provide a degree of emphasis which is not really needed. In *Words and Idioms* Logan P. Smith rightly points out the kinetic value of English particles when he says:

In fact, we often add ‘up’ to verbs in cases where, for the logical meaning, the preposition is not needed, as: wake up, hurry up, cheer up, fill up, clean up, etc. It would almost seem as if these particles and verbs of action took the place in our northern speech of the gestures in which our intercourse is lacking, but which are so vivid an accompaniment to the speech of the Latin peoples. (Logan Pearsall Smith 1925)



THE THEORY AND  
PRACTICE  
OF TRANSLATION



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## CHAPTER TWO

### THE NATURE OF TRANSLATING

Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. But this relatively simple statement requires careful evaluation of several seemingly contradictory elements.

#### REPRODUCING THE MESSAGE

Translating must aim primarily at "reproducing the message." To do anything else is essentially false to one's task as a translator. But to reproduce the message one must make a good many grammatical and lexical adjustments. For example, the Hebrew idiom "bowels of mercies" (Col. 3:12) cannot be literally rendered into English if one really wants to communicate the message of the source language, for though we have the words "bowels" and "mercy" in English, we simply do not employ this combination. A meaningful equivalent is "tender compassion," and it is precisely in this manner that many translations attempt to reproduce the significance of this source-language expression.

#### EQUIVALENCE RATHER THAN IDENTITY

The translator must strive for equivalence rather than identity. In a sense this is just another way of emphasizing the reproduction of the message rather than the conservation of the form of the utterance, but it reinforces the need for radical alteration of a phrase such as "it came to pass," which may be quite meaningless. In fact, it is often misunderstood. Since in Greek *egeneto*, "it happened," is often only a "transitional word" to mark the beginning of a new episode, it is sometimes best not reproduced. In other instances, one may use some more natural transitions, e.g., "and then," "now," "later."

In Mark 2:1 the Greek has *en oikō*, literally, "in house," but the real meaning of this phrase is "at home," and it is so rendered in many translations. This means a lack of verbal consistency, in not translating *oikos* as "house" always in the same manner, but one simply cannot translate in a completely concordant manner and at the same time accurately represent the meaning of the source-language text. In French, however, the Greek phrase *en oikō*, consisting of a preposition and a noun, is most idiomatically rendered as *chez lui*, a preposition and a pronoun, in which case *chez* carries the semantic components of both location and personal dwelling. Such a restructuring is fully justified, for it is the closest natural equivalent of the source-language text.

#### A NATURAL EQUIVALENT

The best translation does not sound like a translation. Quite naturally

THIRD EDITION

# In Other Words

Mona Baker

A Coursebook on Translation



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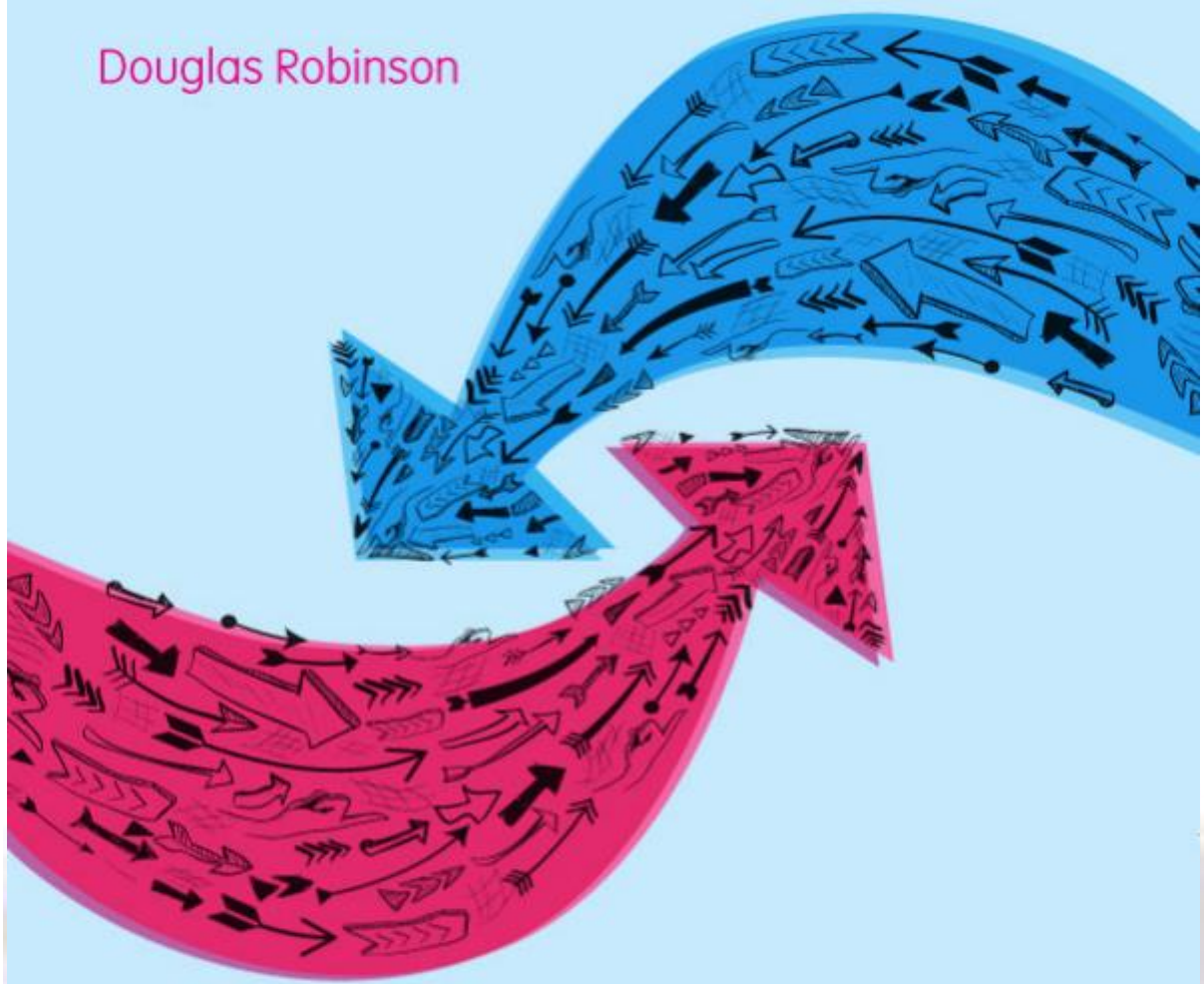
Do we really know how we translate or what we translate? ... Are we to accept 'naked ideas' as the means of crossing from one language to another? ... Translators know they cross over but do not know by what sort of bridge. They often re-cross by a different bridge to check up again. Sometimes they fall over the parapet into limbo.

*(Firth 1957:197)*

Translation is a point of contact between peoples, and since it is rare that two peoples have the same access to power, the translator is in a privileged position as mediator, to make explicit the differences between cultures, expose injustices or contribute to diversity in the world.

*(Gill and Guzmán 2010:126)*

Douglas Robinson



# BECOMING A TRANSLATOR

An Introduction to the Theory and  
Practice of Translation

Third edition



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**I**N THIS CHAPTER: Translation can be perceived from the outside, from the client's or other user's point of view, or from the inside, from the translator's point of view; and while this book mainly takes the translator's perspective, it is useful to begin with a sense of what our clients and users need and why. Not only are our clients "non-translators with money" (the source of our income); a highly simplified version of their demands (equivalence) has formed the basis for most prescriptive approaches to translation, and it's good to identify those approaches as grounded in clients' expectations.

### Internal and external knowledge

Translation is different things for different groups of people. For people who are not translators, it is primarily a text; for people who are, it is primarily an activity. Or, as Anthony Pym (1993: 131, 149–50) puts it, from the perspective of "external knowledge" (the knowledge of non-translators) translation is a text; from the perspective of "internal knowledge" (translators) translation is an activity that aims at the *production* of a text.

From the translator's internal perspective, the activity is most important: the process of becoming a translator, receiving and handling requests to do specific translations, doing research, networking, translating words, phrases, and registers, editing the translation, delivering the finished text to the employer or client, billing the client for work completed, getting paid. The text is an important part of that process, of course – even, perhaps, the most important part – but it is never the whole thing. From the non-translator's external perspective, the text as product or commodity is most important. And while this book is primarily concerned with (and certainly written from and for) the translator's internal knowledge, and thus with the activity of translating – it is, after all, a textbook for student translators – it will be useful to explore the complexities of an external perspective briefly here in [Chapter 1](#), if only to distinguish it clearly from the more translator-oriented approach of the rest of the book. A great deal of thinking and teaching about translation in the past has been controlled by what is essentially external knowledge, text-oriented approaches that one might have thought of greater interest to non-translators than translators – so much, in fact, that these external perspectives have in many ways come to dominate the field.

translator who hates the work, or who is bored with it, feels it is a waste of time, will not last long in the profession – and what good are speed and reliability to the ex-translator? “Boy, I used to be *fast*.” Pleasure in the work will motivate a mediocre translator to enhance her or his reliability and speed; boredom or distaste in the work will make even a highly competent translator sloppy and unreliable.

## Conclusion

In some sense this textbook is an attempt to teach translators to enjoy their work more – to drill not specific translation or vocabulary skills but what we might call “pre-translation” skills, attitudinal skills that (should) precede and undergird every “verbal” or “linguistic” approach to a text: intrinsic motivation, openness, receptivity, a desire to constantly be growing and changing and learning new things, a commitment to the profession, and a delight in words, images, intellectual challenges, and people.

In fact the fundamental assumptions underlying the book’s approach to translation might be summed up in the following list of axioms:

1. Translation is more about people than about words.
2. Translation is more about the jobs people do and the way they see their world than it is about registers or sign systems.
3. Translation is more about the creative imagination than it is about rule-governed text analysis.
4. The translator is more like an actor or a musician (a performer) than like a tape recorder.
5. The translator, even of highly technical texts, is more like a poet or a novelist than like a machine-translation system.

Which is not to say that translation is not about words, or phrases, or registers, or sign systems. Clearly those things are important in translation. It is to say rather that it is more productive for the translator to think of such abstractions in larger human contexts, as a part of what people do and say.

Nor is it to say that human translation is utterly unlike the operation of a tape recorder or machine-translation system. Those analogies can be usefully drawn. It is merely to say that machine analogies may be counterproductive for the translator in her or his work, which to be enjoyable must be not mechanical but richly human.

Machine analogies fuel formal, systematic thought; they do not succor the translator, alone in a room with a computer and a text, as do more vibrant and imaginative analogies from the world of artistic performance or other humanistic endeavors.

Is this, then, a book of panaceas, a book of pretty lies for translators to use in the rather pathetic pretense that their work is really more interesting than it seems?



# **Meaning-Based Translation**



**A  
Guide to  
Cross-Language  
Equivalence**

**Mildred L. Larson**

**Second Edition**

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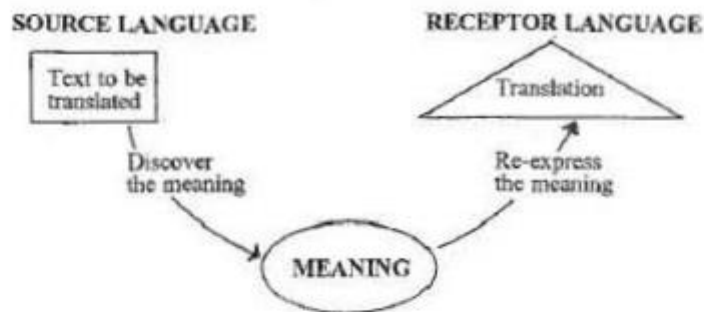
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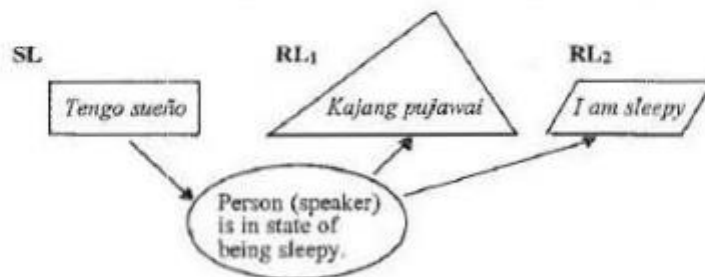
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4 OVERVIEW OF THE TRANSLATION TASK



Display 1.1

which consists of the noun *kaja-* 'sleep', the suffix *-ng* 'my', and the verb *puja* 'live' with the suffix *-wai* 'third person indicative'. A very literal translation of the Spanish into English would be "I have sleep," and of the Aguaruna "My sleep lives." Neither of these would be a good English translation. The appropriate English translation would be "I am sleepy," (I 'first person,' am 'be', and an adjective *sleepy*). The three languages use different grammatical forms and different lexical selections to signal the same meaning (see Display 1.2).



Display 1.2

It is true that persons who know both the SOURCE LANGUAGE and the RECEPTOR LANGUAGE well can often make the transfer from one form to the other very rapidly, without thinking about the semantic structure overtly. However, for complicated texts, and when the translators may not be equally fluent in the two languages (if they are mother-tongue speakers of only one), the study of the principles to be presented here will enable them to make a more adequate translation.

THE THEORY AND  
PRACTICE  
OF TRANSLATION



BY

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Volume II

A TRANSLATOR'S HANDBOOK ON MARK

Volume III

OLD TESTAMENT QUOTATIONS IN THE NEW TESTAMENT

Volume IV

SECTION HEADING AND REFERENCE SYSTEM

Volume V

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CHAPTER THREE  
GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Basically there are two different systems for translating. The first consists in setting up a series of rules which are intended to be applied strictly in order and are designed to specify exactly what should be done with each item or combination of items in the source language so as to select the appropriate corresponding form in the receptor language. Some theoreticians have contended that this automatic selection process is best accomplished by working through an intermediate, neutral, universal linguistic structure. This go-between language into which the source is translated and from which the finished translation is derived may be either another natural language or a completely artificial language. But whether or not such an intermediate stage is used, this approach is based on the application of rules to what linguists call the "surface structure" of language, that is, the level of structure which is overtly spoken and heard, or written and read. This approach may be diagrammed as in Figure 5.

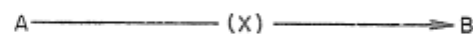


Figure 5

In Figure 5, A represents the source language and B represents the receptor, or target, language. The letter X in parentheses stands for any intermediate structure which may have been set up as a kind of universal structure to which any and all languages might be related for more economic transfer.

The second system of translation consists of a more elaborate procedure comprising three stages: (1) analysis, in which the surface structure (*i.e.*, the message as given in language A) is analyzed in terms of (a) the grammatical relationships and (b) the meanings of the words and combinations of words, (2) transfer, in which the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from language A to language B, and (3) restructuring, in which the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the receptor language. This approach may be diagrammed as in Figure 6.

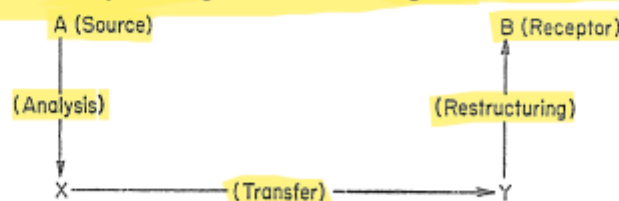


Figure 6

## **PENGEMBANGAN MODEL PENILAIAN KUALITAS TERJEMAHAN**

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### **ABSTRACT**

*The main objective of this study is to produce a model of TQA from English into Indonesian. It employed a descriptive-qualitative approach. Its data were obtained through content analysis, interviewing with key informants, FGD and observation, and analyzed with an interactive data analysis technique. The final findings of this research indicate the followings. First, the Model of TQA produced assesses the quality of translation holistically. Second, the Model is applicable for assessing the quality of translation within the contexts of translation research and teaching and of professional settings. Third, the Model opens opportunities for raters to assess various units of translation, ranging from micro to macro levels. Fourth, the effectiveness of the Model in assessing quality of translation depends solely on the ability of the assessors or raters in applying it in various settings. Prior to its application, those engaged in every translation quality assessment should read and understand all relevant information and procedures of how it should be employed.*

**Key words:** Model, holistic, TQA (Translation Qualitative Assessment)

### **ABSTRAK**

*Tujuan utama dari penelitian ini adalah untuk menghasilkan sebuah model penilaian kualitas terjemahan dari bahasa Inggris ke dalam bahasa Indonesia. Penelitian ini menggunakan pendekatan deskriptif kualitatif. Data diperoleh melalui wawancara dengan informan kunci, pengamatan, content analysis, dan focus group discussion. Data yang diperoleh dianalisis dengan menggunakan teknik analisis interaktif. Hasil dari penelitian ini mengindikasikan bahwa pertama, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini menghasilkan evaluasi karya terjemahan secara komprehensif atau holistik. Kedua, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini sangat sesuai untuk menilai kualitas terjemahan dalam konteks penelitian dan pengajaran penerjemahan profesional. Ketiga, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini memberikan peluang bagi para rater untuk memberikan penilaian terjemahan dalam berbagai satuan unit, baik pada tataran mikro maupun makro. Keempat, keefektifan model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini dalam menilai kualitas terjemahan sangat tergantung pada kemampuan para penilai atau rater tersebut dalam menerapkannya di berbagai hal, utamanya bagi mereka yang terlibat dalam penilaian kualitas penerjemahan tersebut harus membaca dan mengerti semua informasi yang relevan serta prosedur bagaimana seharusnya menggunakan alat penilaian ini.*

**Kata Kunci:** model, penilaian kualitas terjemahan, dan holistik

## Pembobotan dari Aspek Kualitas Yang Dinilai

No	Aspek Kualitas Yang Dinilai	Bobot
1	Keakuratan	3
2	Keberterimaan	2
3	Keterbacaan	1

Aspek keakuratan memiliki bobot yang paling tinggi, yaitu 3. Hal itu disesuaikan dengan konsep dasar dari proses penerjemahan sebagai proses pengalihan pesan (keakuratan) dari teks bahasa sumber ke dalam bahasa sasaran. Aspek keberterimaan terjemahan menempati urutan kedua, yaitu 2. Penetapan itu didasarkan pada pemikiran bahwa aspek keberterimaan terkait langsung dengan kesesuaian terjemahan dengan kaidah, norma dan budaya yang berlaku dalam bahasa sasaran. Dalam kasus tertentu, aspek keberterimaan itu berpengaruh pada aspek keakuratan. Dengan kata lain, dalam kasus tertentu, suatu terjemahan yang kurang atau tidak berterima juga akan kurang atau tidak akurat. Aspek keterbacaan memiliki bobot yang paling rendah, yaitu 1. Rendahnya bobot yang diberikan pada aspek keterbacaan terkait dengan pemikiran bahwa masalah pe-

nerjemahan tidak berhubungan langsung dengan masalah apakah terjemahan mudah dipahami ataukah tidak oleh pembaca sasaran. Namun, karena pembaca sasaran pada umumnya tidak mempunyai akses ke teks bahasa sumber, mereka sangat mengharapkan agar terjemahan yang mereka baca dapat mereka pahami dengan mudah.

## 3.1.5 Contoh Penilaian

Di bawah ini diberikan contoh penilaian kualitas terjemahan dengan menggunakan instrument penilaian yang telah dihasilkan. Tujuannya adalah untuk memberikan gambaran yang jelas tentang cara model penilaian kualitas terjemahan tersebut diterapkan. Penilaian kualitas suatu terjemahan yang dimaksudkan dilakukan oleh satu orang penilai untuk masing-masing tingkat keakuratan, keberterimaan dan keterbacaan teks terjemahan.

No	Bahasa Sumber	Bahasa Sasaran	Skor		
			Keakuratan	Keberterimaan	Keterbacaan
1	Almost 100% of middle-aged people need eyeglasses.	Hampir 100% manusia setengah baya memerlukan kaca mata.	3	3	3
2	The eye has been referred to as "the most important square inch of the body surface" (Havener 1979, 1979, p.1)	Mata dikatakan sebagai "bagian ukuran permukaan tubuh yang paling penting" (Hanever, 1979, h.1).	2	2	2
3	Therefore, changes must be made to improve lighting in homes, offices, restaurants, and geriatric centres.	Dengan demikian, perubahan harus dilakukan dengan menambah pencahayaan di rumah, perkantoran, restoran dan pusat geriatri (panti wreda).	1	3	3
<b>Jumlah</b>			<b>6</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>Skor Rata-rata</b>			<b>2,0</b>	<b>2,67</b>	<b>2,67</b>



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# In Other Words

Mona Baker

A Coursebook on Translation



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**Get going** in the new Metro GTa. Where else would you find 73PS performance, alloy wheels and looks like that – at such a price?

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Fancy something really special in the sports luxury department? With a sunroof, central locking, tinted glass and a lot more, the new Metro 1.3GS **is just the ticket**. And so is the price.

(Today's Cars, *Austin Rover brochure*, 1989)

Using idioms in English is thus very much a matter of style. Languages such as Arabic and Chinese, which draw a sharp distinction between written and spoken discourse and in which the written mode is associated with a high level of formality, tend, on the whole, to avoid using idioms in written texts. Fernando and Flavell (1981:85) discuss the difference in rhetorical effect of using idioms in general and of using specific types of idiom in the source and target languages and quite rightly conclude that '[t]ranslation is an exacting art. Idiom more than any other feature of language demands that the translator be not only accurate but highly sensitive to the rhetorical nuances of the language.'

### 3.2.4 The translation of idioms: strategies

The way in which an idiom or a fixed expression can be translated into another language depends on many factors. It is not only a question of whether an idiom with a similar meaning is available in the target language. Other factors include, for example, the significance of the specific lexical items which constitute the idiom, that is, whether they are manipulated elsewhere in the source text, whether verbally or visually, as well as the appropriateness or inappropriateness of using idiomatic language in a given register in the target language. The acceptability or non-acceptability of using any of the strategies described here will therefore depend on the context in which a given idiom is translated. The first strategy described, that of finding an idiom of similar meaning and similar form in the target language, may seem to offer the ideal solution, but that is not necessarily always the case. Questions of style, register and rhetorical effect must also be taken into consideration. Fernando and Flavell are correct in warning us against the 'strong unconscious urge in most translators to search hard for an idiom in the receptor-language, however inappropriate it may be' (1981:82).

#### (a) Using an idiom of similar meaning and form

This strategy involves using an idiom in the target language which conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the source-language idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items. This kind of match can only occasionally be achieved.

Target text (Arabic, p. 94):

ويذا يكون الإخوة فايد قد قلبوا استراتيجية هاوس أوف فريزر السابقة على عرض الإملاك،  
رأساً على عقب.

And with this the Fayed brothers have **turned** the strategy of the House of Fraser previous to the offer of ownership **head over heel**.

The Arabic expression, which means 'upside down', is similar in form only to another English idiom, *head over heels*, meaning 'very much in love'.

Example D

Source text (*Masters of the Universe*):

Perhaps Granamyr wanted to show us that *things aren't always what they seem*.

Target text (French):

Peut-être Granamyr voulait-il nous montrer que **les choses ne sont pas toujours ce qu'elles paraissent**.

Perhaps Granamyr wanted to show us that **things are not always what they seem**.

**(b) Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form**

It is often possible to find an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression but consists of different lexical items. For example, the English expression *One good turn deserves another* and the French expression *À beau jeu, beau retour* ('a handsome action deserves a handsome return') use different lexical items to express more or less the same idea (Fernando and Flavell 1981).

Example A

Source text (*China's Panda Reserves*):

The serow, a type of wild mountain goat, is *very much at home* among the rocky outcrops of Sichuan.

Target text (Chinese):

喜马拉雅山羚羊，是野生山羊的一种，在四川的多岩断层露头之间十分自在。

The serow, a type of wild mountain goat, is **totally at ease** in Sichuan's many rocky levels.

The Chinese idiom used to replace *very much at home* is *shi fen zi zai*. It consists of a measure word based on a ten-point scale, plus 'self at ease'. The measure word means '100 per cent', but the scale used is out of 10 rather than out of 100.

*Example B*

Source text (*Masters of the Universe*):

*Feel the force of my fist, frozen fiend!*

Target text (German):

**Dir werde ich einheizen, du Scheusal!**

**I will make things hot for you, monster!**

The preceding statement is addressed to an ice monster. The German expression *Dir werde ich einheizen* means literally, or as near literally as possible, 'I will put the heating on to you'.

### (c) Borrowing the source language idiom

Just as the use of loan words is a common strategy in dealing with culture-specific items (see Chapter 2), it is not unusual for idioms to be borrowed in their original form in some contexts. In Figure 3.2, taken from a promotional leaflet available to visitors to the Museum of Science and Industry in Manchester (UK), *Out of This World* refers to a space gallery that is signposted as such throughout the museum. It is of course a play on the idiomatic meaning of *out of this world* ('fantastic', 'superb') and the more concrete meaning of 'from another galaxy, beyond the earth environment', referring to what a visitor might expect to see in a space gallery.

All versions of this promotional leaflet (French, Italian, Spanish, German and Japanese) retain the idiom/name of the space gallery in English, in the image as well as the main text (see Figures 3.3–3.7).

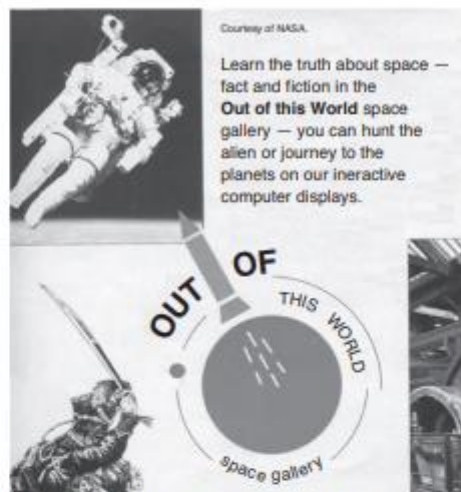


Figure 3.2 Original version of Manchester Museum of Science and Industry leaflet

**(d) Translation by paraphrase**

This is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages. You may or may not find the paraphrases accurate; the following examples are quoted as they appear in the original documents to illustrate the strategy of paraphrase rather than to explain the meanings of individual idioms.

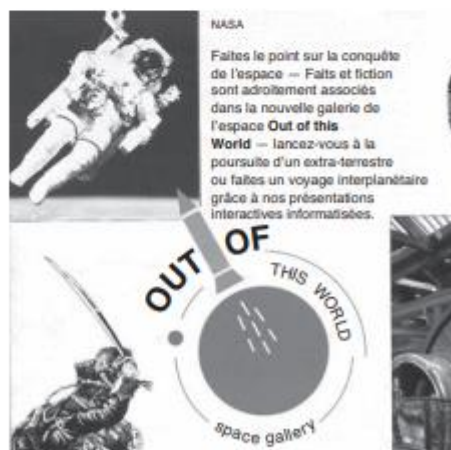


Figure 3.3 French translation of Manchester Museum of Science and Industry leaflet



Figure 3.4 Italian translation of Manchester Museum of Science and Industry leaflet

*Example E*

Source text (*Saving China's Tropical Paradise* – World Wide Fund for Nature text which accompanied a slide show):

*Best news of all* is the decision to develop a system of five nature reserves totalling 2000 sq.kms. where representative examples of the region's unique ecosystems will be protected for the future.

Target text (Chinese):

最好的消息是决定发展一个由五个自然保护区组成的共2000平方公里面积的体系。在这一体系中该区独特生态系统中有代表性的动植物得到保护。

**The best news is** a decision to develop a system of 2000 sq.kms. consisting of five reserves. In such a system representative animal and plant species within the unique ecosystem of this area will be protected.

'The best news is' does not have the status of a fixed expression in Chinese. Although it looks very similar in back-translation to *Best news of all*, it is just a paraphrase of the English expression.

**(e) Translation by omission of a play on idiom**

This strategy involves rendering only the literal meaning of an idiom in a context that allows for a concrete reading of an otherwise playful use of language. The example in Figure 3.8 comes from a promotional leaflet handed out to visitors at the Wedgwood factory and exhibition – home of the famous British brand of pottery and ornamental china, in Stoke-on-Trent, UK.

Something that comes or is handed *on a plate* is made easy to acquire. The English text plays on the idiomatic meaning of the expression as well as the concrete meaning of *plate*, which is particularly salient here given that Wedgwood are famous for producing crockery. This play on idiom is very difficult to reproduce in other languages. The Japanese translation (Figure 3.9) opts for sacrificing the idiomatic meaning in this instance.

The caption in Japanese literally reads, 'The craft of famous people has been continually poured for centuries into a single plate'.

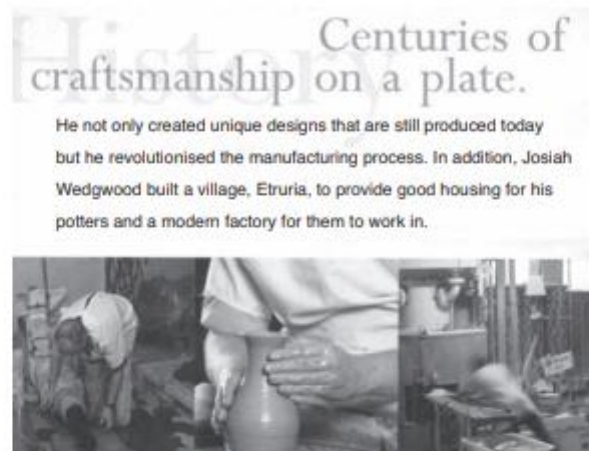


Figure 3.8 Original version of Wedgwood leaflet



Figure 3.9 Japanese translation of Wedgwood leaflet

**(f) Translation by omission of entire idiom**

As with single words, an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. This may be because it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons. Here is an example from *A Hero from Zero* (p. vi):

It was bitter, but funny, to see that Professor Smith had doubled his own salary before recommending the offer from Fayed, and added a pre-dated bonus *for good measure*.



## AN ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS IN KING LEAR BY SHAKESPEARE

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### ABSTRACT

This research aimed to analyze the idiomatic expression translation strategies used by the translator in translating King Lear from English into Indonesian. The method used in this research is the qualitative method through descriptive analysis in analyzing the translation of the idiom using the strategy of translating idioms by Baker (2018) to reach the goal of research. The result of the research showed that from 20 idioms found, the strategies of using similar meaning and form were the most used strategy by the translator with 9 occurrences. The other total strategies found in the text were paraphrasing with 3 data, similar meaning but dissimilar form with 3 data, omission of play idiom with 2 data, omissions of entire idiom also with 2 data, and compensation with 3 data. In total, there were 23 strategies of idiom translation found. In addition, it was also found that some idioms translation used 2 strategies in translating idiomatic expression. From 22 identified translation strategies in the text, the strategy of using similar meaning and form was found to be the most used strategy by translator in translating idioms into the target language.

**Keywords:** idiomatic expression, similar meaning and form, similar meaning but dissimilar form, paraphrasing, omission, compensation.

### ABSTRAK

*Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis strategi penerjemahan ekspresi idiomatik yang digunakan oleh penerjemah dalam menerjemahkan King Lear dari bahasa Inggris ke bahasa Indonesia. Metode yang digunakan dalam penelitian ini adalah metode kualitatif melalui analisis deskriptif dalam menganalisis penerjemahan idiom dengan menggunakan strategi penerjemahan idiom oleh Baker (2018) untuk mencapai tujuan penelitian. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa dari 20 idiom yang ditemukan, strategi penggunaan kesamaan makna dan bentuk merupakan strategi yang paling banyak digunakan oleh penerjemah dengan 9 kemunculan. Total strategi lain yang ditemukan dalam teks adalah parafrase dengan 3 data, makna serupa tetapi bentuk berbeda dengan 3 data, penghilangan idiom permainan dengan 2 data, penghilangan seluruh idiom juga dengan 2 data, dan kompensasi dengan 3 data. Secara total, ada 22 strategi penerjemahan idiom yang ditemukan. Selain itu, ditemukan juga bahwa beberapa penerjemahan idiom menggunakan 2 strategi dalam menerjemahkan ungkapan idiomatik. Dari 22 strategi penerjemahan yang teridentifikasi dalam teks, strategi penggunaan makna dan bentuk yang serupa ditemukan sebagai strategi yang paling banyak digunakan oleh penerjemah dalam menerjemahkan idiom ke dalam bahasa sasaran.*

**Kata Kunci:** ungkapan idiomatik, arti dan bentuk yang sama, arti yang sama tetapi bentuk berbeda, parafrase, penghilangan, kompensasi.

### Strategy: Using Similar Meaning and Form

The strategy of using similar meanings and forms was the most often identified in the TL's text. The total number of idiom translations identified to this strategy was nine data. Those data found were matched with the condition for an idiom translation to be classified as using the strategy of similar meaning and form, which was according to Baker (2018), an idiom translation can be classified as using similar meaning and form if it consists of the same meaning as well as being lexically equivalent. One of the examples of the analysis data using this strategy is shown in the analysis paragraph below.

Table 1.

SL	TL
<p><b>Gloucester (Act 3 Scene 4) Our flesh and blood</b>, my lord, is grown so vile That it doth hate what gets it.</p>	<p><b>Gloucester (Page 15) Darah daging kita</b> telah jadi jahatsampai benci pada pembunuhnya</p>

As the earl of the kingdom who is loyal to King Lear, Gloucester expresses his empathy with the king about the trouble caused by King Lear's daughter named Cordelia. Gloucester was saying to the king that the king's daughter Cordelia has grown up into a bad person. It was shown when she did a bad attitude toward her father, King Lear.

Gloucester used the idiomatic phrase "our flesh and blood" to describe Cordelia as a child for her parents, although she did something evil. She was still regarded flesh and blood of King Lear as a daughter despite her evil being.

According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, "our flesh and blood" is a noun phrase classified as an idiom which means is "family, one's relatives", or "child". This idiom is commonly used to refer to a person who has a family relation or is related to someone in their family. At this point, according to these definitions, this phrase is synonymous with the word "our family" or "our children".

The translator rendered the phrase "our flesh and blood" as "*darah daging kita*". According to the KBBI, the meaning of "*darah daging kita*" as a noun are "*keluarga*" (family), "*kerabat*" (relation/relatives), or "*anak kandung*" (child). In

the TL, this phrase is also classified as an idiom and is commonly used in idiomatic speech to point to someone who has a family relation. At this point, this definition from KBBI matched with the definition of the idiom in SL, with similar meaning, equivalent lexical forms, as well as some function meaning, and it is commonly used to show the closest relationship in a family.

Based on this analysis in SL and TL, it can be concluded that the translator in translating the idiom in this scene is using the strategy of similar meaning and similar form to deliver the exact meaning in TL.

#### **Strategy: Similar Meaning but Dissimilar Form**

The strategy of using similar meaning but dissimilar form was identified with three data. Both data have similar meanings between SL and TL but are different in the phrases' lexical form, putting them under the condition of idiom translation using similar meaning but dissimilar form according to Baker's idiom translation strategies. The analysis paragraph below shows one of the analysis data examples identified with this strategy.

<b>Fool (Scene 4)</b>	<b>Badut (Page 51)</b>
I am a Fool. Thou art nothing. To Goneril.	badut, kau bukan apa-apa. (Kepada Goneril)
Yes, forsooth, <b>I will hold mytongue</b> . So, your face bids me, though you say nothing.	Ya, ya, <b>aku tutup mulut</b> ; itulah diperintahkan oleh air mukamu, sungguh pun tak kauucapkan.

The Fool was described as a jester for King Lear, who always did a comedy talk sarcastically and sometimes gave essential suggestions to the king. His main task was supposed to be cheering up the king with his comedy, but in this scene, Fool was criticizing King Lear about his wonderful life with his daughter Cordelia, before the king annoyed his own daughter's life, then Fool realized that his critics to the king was out of line and could make King Lear upset so he chooses to stop talking because he realized that his status is only a jester for the king.

The Fool uses the expression “I will hold my tongue” to indicate that his words, which came out from his tongue to King Lear, were excessive and could upset the king. So, he idiomatically expresses himself to be silent to the king.

The phrase “hold my tongue” according to Merriam-Webster Dictionary is an old-fashioned idiom meaning “to keep quiet, stop talking, or do not say anything even if you wanted to.” This idiom is commonly used to tell someone to be silent and is an idiomatic expression not to say anything. According to those dictionaries, this phrase is synonymous with “be silent.”

The translator translated the phrase “hold my tongue” into “*tutup mulut*,” which according to KBBI, means “*diam*” (silent) or “*tidak berkata-kata*” (not talking). This phrase is also considered idiomatic to point to someone being silent or an expression stop talking. This definition in KBBI is matched with the definitions of the phrase in the SL and can be concluded that the meaning of both phrases in SL and TL is connected, although the lexical form of both idioms is different.

Based on the analysis of the phrase in SL and TL dictionaries, it can be concluded that the translator used the strategy of using similar meanings but dissimilar forms according to Baker’s idiom translation strategies (2018) for translating this idiom.

#### **Strategy: Paraphrase**

The paraphrasing strategy was identified with three data in the idiom’s translation. All three identified translation idioms contained the requirements for a translation of an idiom to be categorized as using the strategy of paraphrase, which is changed in meaning, lexical items, and the style of the idiom because the equivalent cannot be found in the TL based on the explanation by Baker (2018) in her proposed strategies of translating idioms. The analysis paragraph below shows one example of data analysis using this strategy.

SL	TL
<p><b>Kent (Scene 1, Act 1)</b>            Nor are those <b>empty-hearted</b> whose low            sound            Reverbs no hollowness.</p>	<p><b>Kent (Page 19)</b>  <i>Puteri bungsu tak kurang cinta, suara            hati lembut bukanlah kumandang yang            kosong.</i></p>

meaning and lexical form. The reader can understand the meaning since it is acceptable in the context of the story, but the lexical items of the phrase have changed. Since the meaning itself in the TL is more focused on "lack of feeling to someone," and it is slightly different from the meaning in the SL, which the meaning can be directed to "lack of feeling to a person" and "all people." This translation can be more accurate if an equivalent phrase with a similar meaning is used as an alternative, such as "*tak punya hati*" (does not have a heart), which has the same meaning in the context of the story and is more approachable in the nuance of the context although the equivalent of idiom cannot be found in the TL.

#### **Strategy: Omission of play idiom**

The strategy of omission of play idiom was identified with two data found in the text. All identified data found with this strategy contains requirements for an idiom translation to be classified as using the strategy of omission of play idiom. According to Baker (2018), this strategy of idiom translation only takes the literal meaning of an idiom to the TL so that the literal form of the idiom from SL can still be read by in TL, although the idiom meaning cannot be delivered in TL. One of the examples of the analysis data using this strategy is shown in the analysis paragraph below.

SL	TL
<b>Kent (Act 2, scene 2, 29)</b> What a brazen-faced varlet art thou to deny thou knowest me!	<b>Kent hal 73-74</b> Alangkah <i>teganya kau pura-pura takkenal aku!</i>

Kent, who was illustrated as the king's prince and always showed a loyal attitude to King Lear, got angry with Oswald, who was illustrated as a steward for Goneril (one of King Lear's wicked daughters) at the house of Gloucester (a nobleman who was also loyal to King Lear). Kent got angry at Oswald and used the idiom "brazen-faced" to Oswald reprimand his act to Kent was disrespectful.

The idiom "brazen-faced" based on the Merriam-Webster Dictionary is an adjective idiom expression means "shameless, bold, and, impudent." This phrase is derived from the adverb "brazen-facedly" used to point to a negative attitude

**STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATING IDIOMS FOUND  
IN "JEJAK LANGKAH" NOVEL BY PRAMOEDYA  
ANANTA TOER**

**THESIS**

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language - JIA as a partial fulfillment of  
requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme



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**ENGLISH LITERATURE STUDY PROGRAMME**

**SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE - JIA**

**BEKASI**

**2022**

TL: *Aku berharap kamu akan lulus ujian, semoga beruntung.*

From the example above, the idiom *break a leg* is translated *semoga beruntung* in target language. It showed that the translator use paraphrasing strategy because of differences in style of the source and the target languages. It is translated based on its context which is more acceptable and understandable to find appropriate meaning in the target language.

#### d. Translating by Omission

As with single words, an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. It is because it has no close equivalent in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons. The researcher took an example from Optaria article:

SL: *Gaga kicks the ball again for good measure.*

TL: *Gaga menendang bola lagi.*

From the example above, the expression *at all* is omitted by the translator, which should be translated as *an extra* or *in addition*. Otherwise, the message from the source language does not a loss in the target language, therefore it is acceptable that the translator using translation by omission strategy.

## B. Figurative Expression

According to Nida and Taber (2003), figurative expression is an expression which is used in place of another meaning or expression which is not its synonym but with which it has an association of ideas often mediated

**COMPARISON OF HUMAN TRANSLATION WITH GOOGLE  
TRANSLATION OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES IN PROCEDURES TEXT**

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**Abstract**

This study aims to analyze the similarity between human translation and machine translation to translate procedural text. This research uses Content Analysis approach (Content Analysis). The analysis was performed on English procedural text on a "VIXAL Lebih Wangi" cleanliness product translated into Indonesian by Nia Kurniawati (representing human translation). Meanwhile Google translation is used to represent machine translation. The study of the equations compared in this study is from the aspect of the phrase and the meaning of the whole sentence in the results of the two translations. The result of the discussion shows that the equation between human translation and machine translation in translating procedural text is low, i.e 29%. Machine translation still requires manpower to produce better translations.

**Keywords:** equality aspect, human translation, machine translation, text procedure





the point of grammar. This can be expressed in other words that machine translation has a weakness in terms of grammar so it will affect the quality of translation.

#### b. Google Translate

Google Translate is a service site provided by Google Inc. which is intended to translate sections of text or web pages in one language into another. The site, launched in 2007, contains more than 50 languages spoken in several countries around the world. (AnneAhira.com, can be found at: <http://www.aneahira.com/google-translate.htm>)

Regarding the quality of machine translation, Google Translate itself acknowledges on their site that even the most sophisticated translation engine can not yet approach the language quality of a native speaker or yet have the skills of a professional translator. Strictly speaking, Google Translate also mentions that they may take a long time before they can offer translations with human translation quality (<http://translate.google.com/support/>)

#### c. Human Translation

Human translation is a translation done by trained individuals or translators working in the field of translation. They have proficiency in terms of mastering two languages, knowing the field of text to be translated, the culture of two nations and knowing the translation of the two languages as well as the experience of its own interpreter. This opinion is supported by Imran (2003: 286) who says a sophisticated translation engine will not be able to produce a translation like what an advanced interpreter can do. Therefore, the issue here relates to quality, accuracy and acceptance of translation results rather than machines. The translation machine is only a useful tool for translating words of speech instead of the preferred meaning.

Many researchers are conducting research on Internet existence in the world of translation that researchers cite in the International Journal of Tuliias ole Ayob and Hasnah Mohamad (2015). Among them are Farah Hanan Aminallah and Muhammad Fauzi Jumingan (2012) in paper proceedings work titled Translation Arab-Malay Collocation: One Review Against Google Translate that discusses Arab

ADAM MICKIEWICZ UNIVERSITY IN POZNAŃ  
SERIA FILOLOGIA ANGIELSKA NR 38

BOGUSŁAWA WHYATT

# **Translation as a human skill**

From predisposition to expertise



POZNAŃ 2012

ABSTRACT: Whyatt Bogusława, *Translation as a human skill. From predisposition to expertise*. [Tłumaczenie jako umiejętność człowieka. Od predyspozycji do poziomu eksperta]. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. Poznań 2012. Pp. 445. ISBN 978-83-232-2504-1. ISSN 0554-8144. Text in English with a summary in Polish.

The book explores translation as a human skill in its evolutionary perspective from the predisposition to translate to translation expertise. By assuming that the human mind is intrinsically a translating mind all people who know two languages are able to translate but only some develop their natural ability into a more refined skill, fewer choose to acquire translation competence, and few attain the level of expertise. Starting with a thorough analysis of the bilingual foundations on which translation as a human skill is built the natural ability is analyzed and followed by an up-to-date account of translation as a trained skill with the underlying translation competence. To account for the developmental nature of translation as a skill a suggestion is made that the acquisition of translation expertise can be seen as a process of learning to integrate knowledge for the purpose of translating. While natural translators integrate only their bilingual knowledge professional translators build a Knowledge Integration Network (KIN) in which all the knowledge relevant for a task at hand is integrated and ready for use. The theoretical assumptions are put to an empirical test with research tools including a battery of questionnaires and Translog, a computer software program which allows to analyze the translation process without compromising its ecological validity. The subjects include translators at various stages on the developmental continuum. It is hoped that the conclusions and implications will raise awareness of the developmental nature of translation as a human skill, and thus challenge the common misconceptions.

KEY WORDS: translation, ability, skill, competence, expertise, knowledge integration, developmental continuum

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has a revealing effect on one's knowledge of the native language (see Kecskes and Papp 2000). Without subscribing to any rigid theory of language and going into unnecessary details, let us establish some basic assumptions about linguistic knowledge which are believed essential when discussing the bilingual foundations of translation expertise.

Human language is first and foremost a code subserving a powerful need to communicate, that is to exchange information in order to achieve some intended aim or in simple terms to get things done. It is a highly complex system based on the shared knowledge of signs (letters, sounds, words) and rules (grammar at all linguistic levels) for their combination used to share meaning within a given language community. Language as a code for communication or mind-sharing (Donald 2001) can, on the one hand, be represented as knowledge (Chomsky 1964), on the other as social practice (Gardner 1979: 193, Pavlenko et al. 2001) which makes linguistic forms inseparable from their socio-culturally established meanings, connotations or innuendos. The complex nature of meaning in language reflects this dual nature of human language, as knowledge and as social practice. The linguistic knowledge of one's native language is subject to socially agreed rules of linguistic behaviour (cf. Paradis 2009 and his notion of 'discourse grammar') which form some kinds of conventions marking out a socially conditioned network of mutual expectations between users of the same language. Interpreting contextually relevant meaning is a dynamic process of inferential comprehension (Sperber and Wilson 1989) which apart from ruled governed word combinations and the semantic values ascribed to individual words involves the extralinguistic factors of the whole communicative situation as well as one's entire cognitive repertoire of lifelong accumulated knowledge (Fauconnier 1998). To quote:

The more I think about language the more aware I become of all the backstage cognition needed for understanding and meaningful use of language. The forms become only a kind of prop, a powerful means of prompting dynamic on-line constructions of meaning that go far beyond anything explicitly provided by the lexical and grammatical forms (Fauconnier 1998: 251).

This 'backstage cognition' is what one acquires together with the first language and what evolves and becomes redefined throughout one's life parallel to the life experiences (Paradis 2007). Language in this context is



Fig. 2. Evolution of translation as a human skill.

It is still very much unclear how the progression takes place although some assumptions can be made relying on the research accumulated on the cognitive psychology of expertise in diverse domains (Hoffman 1992, 1997, Chi, Glaser and Farr 1988, Séguinot 1989b, Ericsson and Smith 1991, Feltovich, Ford and Hoffman 1997, Green and Gilhooley 1992). It can be expected that each stage is in itself a process of development or self-development of an individual who deliberately seeks the experience of translation. The progression from one stage to the next one is probably a slow process leading to a developmental shift rather than a quick jump. The one aspect which is seen as necessary for development that all scholars agree upon is the practice of translation since translation competence is commonly defined as experience-derived knowledge (PACTE 2003). Leaving this complex issue aside as it will be perused in the latter chapters of this book, let us first establish how the progression from translation predisposition to ability, skill, competence and expertise bears on the perception of the person involved, the translator.

#### 1.6. The translator

Following the rules of morphology a person who drives is a driver, a person who reads is a reader and a person who translates is a translator. Yet, the word translator like writer is not commonly associated with anybody who translates or writes and more frequently it is meant to refer to the name of a profession.

As observed by Malakoff and Hakuta (1991),

Translation is typically viewed as a valuable skill that is available only to the highly trained and linguistically sophisticated bilinguals who

## MACHINE TRANSLATION

Machine translation, or automatic translation as it is sometimes called, is used here in the sense of translation from one natural language to another by computer. After some general considerations about translation, the challenges it offers, and the computer as a tool, the evolution of machine translation from the first conception to the present will be traced in three phases, ending with a discussion of a number of operating systems and a brief survey of current research.

### Translation

Machine translation (MT) can be justified only if it is better, faster, or cheaper than human translation (HT); so comparisons between the two are in order, not only because economics will determine which wins out but more importantly because a better understanding of each can come from study and research into the other. HT may not be the best model for MT but it is the only one we have, so linguists and computer experts started from there. Up to now most of the work has been directed toward the translation of scientific and technical texts where the stylistic complications are less, speed is at a premium, and above all, there is more money.

Considering HT, let us ask two questions whose answers may seem surprising. First, what are the qualities that make a good translator of scientific and technical material? Experts generally agree that they are, in order of importance; (1) knowledge of the technical field of the text; (2) native command of the language to be translated into; and (3) knowledge of the language to be translated from. Intuitively, one would expect the order to be exactly the reverse.

Second, how does a translator work? The commonly accepted model, that he takes the words and grammar of Language A and replaces them with words and grammar of Language B, is simply wrong. No translator works that way. What he really does is to read or listen to the text in Language A to get the idea—and it is here that a knowledge of the technical field is essential—then he expresses the same meaning in Language B. Meaning is the substance of communication. Words and grammar are arbitrary conventions which have evolved over the years and differ from one language to another.

### MEANING

Meaning (semantics) involves the sum total of all human experience, including its interpretation. For an individual it is the experiential environment shared with people of the same culture—what has been called "the encyclopedia in your head." Each word in our language carries an aura of associations which we have to sense in order to interpret it: word + associations = meaning. There are never two completely synonymous words in the same language—all their associations would

# 10 Website Penerjemah Bahasa Inggris Selain Google Translate

Tim, CNBC Indonesia

11 August 2022 16:20



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## 10 Website Penerjemah Bahasa Inggris Selain Google Translate

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Bing adalah salah satu platform mesin pencarian, sama seperti Google. Tak ingin kalah saing dengan Google, Bing juga punya website penerjemah bernama Bing Translator. Situs Bing Translator terlihat sangat mirip dengan Google Translate beserta fitur-fiturnya.

Website Bing Translator juga punya fitur untuk memasukkan link, teks, audio, atau gambar yang terdapat teks Inggris di dalamnya. Anda bahkan bisa memberikan saran perbaikan dari hasil terjemahan agar bisa lebih akurat. Jika ingin menggunakan Bing Translator, silakan kunjungi situsnya di [bing.com/translator](http://bing.com/translator).

#### 2. iTranslate

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## 10 Website Penerjemah Bahasa Inggris Selain Google Translate

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#### 3. Bab.la Translator

Bab.la adalah kamus yang bisa Anda akses melalui browser. Di sini, Anda bisa menerjemahkan bahasa Inggris ke Indonesia begitupun sebaliknya. Website ini bisa digunakan untuk menerjemahkan kata per kata seperti layaknya kamus.

Selain itu, ada juga contoh penggunaan kata yang diterjemahkan dari Oxford Languages. Meski seperti kamus online, Bab.la tetap bisa digunakan untuk menerjemahkan bahasa Inggris ke Indonesia dalam bentuk kalimat. Ada menu lain selain kamus, yakni Terjemahan, Konjungsi, Contoh, Kuis, dan masih banyak lagi.

#### 4. Sederet.com

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**5. Yandex Translate**

Yandex Translate berasal dari Rusia dan memiliki tampilan yang hampir sama seperti Google Translate. Website translator ini juga dipercaya sebagai situs penerjemah terbaik yang memberikan hasil akurat karena mampu menerjemahkan 94 bahasa dari seluruh dunia.

Anda bisa menggunakan website ini untuk menerjemahkan kata, kalimat, dokumen, sampai dengan situs URL yang berbahasa asing. Yandex Translate juga memiliki fitur untuk menerjemahkan kata yang terdapat pada sebuah gambar atau foto.

**6. Translate.com**

Website Translate.com juga bisa Anda gunakan sebagai alternatif Google Translate. Bukan sekadar untuk translate, di sini Anda bisa memilih gaya bahasa terjemahan, apakah ingin formal atau non-formal.

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**7. Microsoft Translator**

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Anda bisa menerjemahkan teks bergambar, tangkapan layar, hingga suara dan teks tertulis dengan lebih dari 60 bahasa. Selain itu, hasil terjemahan juga bisa Anda download dalam bentuk dokumen agar bisa dibaca kembali secara offline. Microsoft Translator juga tersedia pada jam tangan pintar alias smartwatch.

**8. Reverso Translation**

Selanjutnya ada Reverso Translation yang merupakan software besutan perusahaan Softissimo Inc. Penerjemah alternatif Google Translate ini tersedia dalam versi aplikasi dan website. Anda bisa menggunakannya untuk penerjemah bahasa Inggris melalui Mac, iOS, dan Android.

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**9. Linguee**

Linguee adalah layanan penerjemah yang sudah hadir sejak 2009. Anda bisa menerjemahkan kata atau kalimat tunggal yang didukung dengan lebih dari 25 dialek. Website penerjemah Linguee bisa digunakan di linguee.com, bahkan bisa Anda akses secara offline.

Situs ini mendukung beberapa bahasa, seperti Inggris, Jerman, Prancis, Italia, Jepang, Rusia, Spanyol, dan beberapa bahasa lainnya. Sayangnya, website penerjemah Linguee masih belum mendukung terjemahan dalam bahasa Indonesia.

**10. Babylon Translator**

Babylon Translator hadir sebagai aplikasi yang bisa digunakan sebagai penerjemah bahasa Inggris selain Google Translate, bahkan penerjemah ini sudah ada sejak belasan tahun lalu. Aplikasi Babylon Translator diklaim menyediakan 1.700 glosarium dan kamus dalam berbagai bahasa.





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DeepL adalah aplikasi yang bisa digunakan sebagai aplikasi penerjemah selain Google Translate. Anda bisa menginstalnya di Windows, MacOS, serta iOS. Ada versi gratis dan pro yang tersedia di situs resminya. Untuk versi pro menghadirkan fitur lebih lengkap dengan pilihan bahasa lebih banyak, tapi belum mendukung terjemahan dalam bahasa Indonesia.

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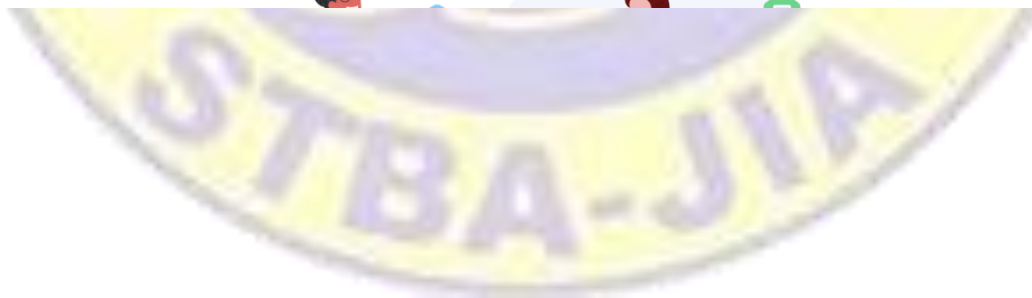
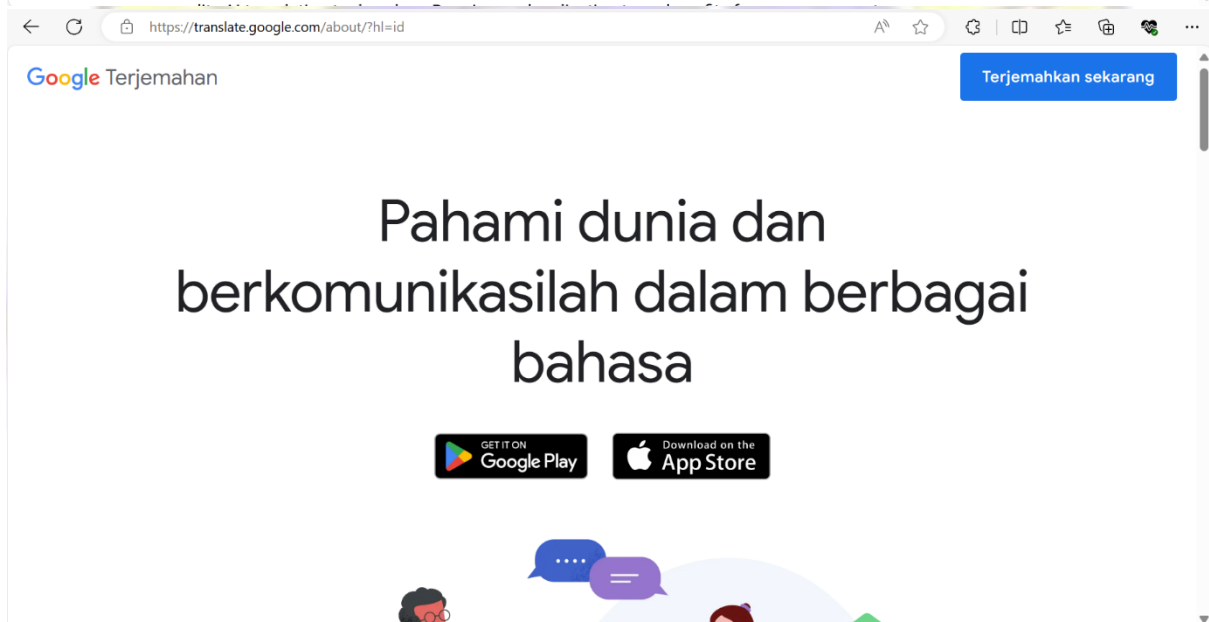
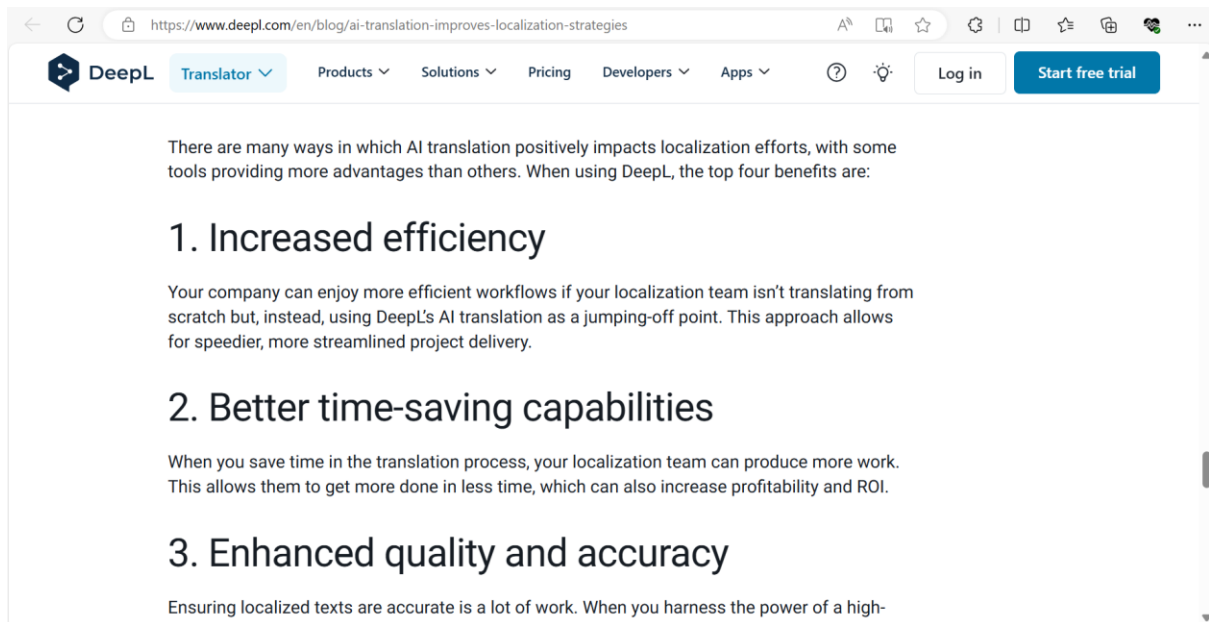


### 5. U Dictionary

Aplikasi penerjemah bahasa Inggris lainnya adalah U Dictionary yang merupakan buatan Talent Education Inc yang tersedia dalam versi gratis dan berbayar. Untuk versi berbayar, pengguna bakal mendapatkan beberapa fitur unggulan lain, seperti Magic Translation, Camera Translation, Grammar Check, Conversation Translation, dan bebas dari iklan.







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YouTube video player for 'TripLingo Demo Video' by Jesse Maddox. The video player shows the TripLingo logo and a background image of various landmarks. Below the video, there is a channel name 'Jesse Maddox' with 12 subscribers and a 'Subscribe' button. There are also social media sharing options (Suka, Bagikan) and a Spotify advertisement for '#IniSpotifyAku'.

Website page for Translatedict.com. The page features a navigation bar with social media icons (Facebook, LinkedIn, X, Pinterest, WhatsApp, Telegram). The main content area contains text describing the service: 'Welcome to Translatedict, your go-to online tool for effortless communication across languages. Our advanced platform enables seamless translation in over 90 languages, offering a comprehensive solution for both casual users and professionals. With features like precise translations, extensive language options, an intuitive interface, and tools such as text-to-speech with downloadable audio, we provide a reliable service for overcoming language barriers, enhancing proficiency, and managing complex translation needs.' The page also lists various translation services: Business Translation, Legal Translation, Academic Translation, and Technical Translation.

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## PENGEMBANGAN MODEL PENILAIAN KUALITAS TERJEMAHAN

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### ABSTRACT

*The main objective of this study is to produce a model of TQA from English into Indonesian. It employed a descriptive-qualitative approach. Its data were obtained through content analysis, interviewing with key informants, FGD and observation, and analyzed with an interactive data analysis technique. The final findings of this research indicate the followings. First, the Model of TQA produced assesses the quality of translation holistically. Second, the Model is applicable for assessing the quality of translation within the contexts of translation research and teaching and of professional settings. Third, the Model opens opportunities for raters to assess various units of translation, ranging from micro to macro levels. Fourth, the effectiveness of the Model in assessing quality of translation depends solely on the ability of the assessors or raters in applying it in various settings. Prior to its application, those engaged in every translation quality assessment should read and understand all relevant information and procedures of how it should be employed.*

**Key words:** *Model, holistic, TQA (Translation Qualitative Assessment)*

### ABSTRAK

*Tujuan utama dari penelitian ini adalah untuk menghasilkan sebuah model penilaian kualitas terjemahan dari bahasa Inggris ke dalam bahasa Indonesia. Penelitian ini menggunakan pendekatan deskriptif kualitatif. Data diperoleh melalui wawancara dengan informan kunci, pengamatan, content analysis, dan focus group discussion. Data yang diperoleh dianalisis dengan menggunakan teknik analisis interaktif. Hasil dari penelitian ini mengindikasikan bahwa pertama, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini menghasilkan evaluasi karya terjemahan secara komprehensif atau holistik. Kedua, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini sangat sesuai untuk menilai kualitas terjemahan dalam konteks penelitian dan pengajaran penerjemahan profesional. Ketiga, model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini memberikan peluang bagi para rater untuk memberikan penilaian terjemahan dalam berbagai satuan unit, baik pada tataran mikro maupun makro. Keempat, keefektifan model penilaian kualitas terjemahan ini dalam menilai kualitas terjemahan sangat tergantung pada kemampuan para penilai atau rater tersebut dalam menerapkannya di berbagai hal, utamanya bagi mereka yang terlibat dalam penilaian kualitas penerjemahan tersebut harus membaca dan mengerti semua informasi yang relevan serta prosedur bagaimana seharusnya menggunakan alat penilaian ini.*

**Kata Kunci:** *model, penilaian kualitas terjemahan, dan holistik*

yang buruk. Di kalangan orang awam di bidang penerjemahan, adaptasi atau saduran dipandang sebagai terjemahan. Pandangan yang seperti itu sangat keliru. Jika kita menelisik kembali pada konsep penerjemahan sebagai proses pengalihan pesan dari teks bahasa sumber ke dalam bahasa sasaran dengan mengutamakan kesetiaan atau keakuratan pesan, maka adaptasi atau saduran bukan termasuk terjemahan. Christina Schaffner (dalam Baker & Mamlkjer, 2001: 5) mengatakan:

Adaptation may be understood as a set of translative operations which result in a text that is not accepted as a translation but is nevertheless recognized as representing a source text of about the same length. As such, the term may embrace numerous vague notions such as imitation, rewriting, and so on. Strictly speaking, the concept of adaptation requires recognition of translation as non-adaptation, as a somehow more constrained mode of transfer.

Dari kutipan di atas tampak jelas bahwa meskipun pada adaptasi terjadi proses pengalihan pesan, adaptasi atau saduran tidak bisa dikategorikan sebagai terjemahan. Saduran adalah saduran dan terjemahan adalah terjemahan.

#### **1.4 Parameter Terjemahan Yang Berkualitas**

Terjemahan yang berkualitas harus memenuhi tiga aspek, yaitu aspek keakuratan, aspek keberterimaan dan aspek keterbacaan. Ketiga aspek tersebut diuraikan di bawah ini.

##### **1.4.1 Aspek Keakuratan**

Keakuratan merupakan sebuah istilah yang digunakan dalam pengevaluasian terjemahan untuk merujuk pada apakah teks bahasa sumber dan teks bahasa sasaran sudah

sepadan ataukah belum. Konsep kesepadanan mengarah pada kesamaan isi atau pesan antar keduanya. Suatu teks dapat disebut sebagai suatu terjemahan, jika teks tersebut mempunyai makna atau pesan yang sama dengan teks lainnya (baca: teks bahasa sumber). Oleh sebab itu, usaha-usaha untuk mengurangi atau menambahi isi atau pesan teks bahasa sumber dalam teks bahasa sasaran harus dihindari. Usaha-usaha yang seperti berarti menghinai penulis asli teks bahasa sumber dan sekaligus membohongi pembaca sasaran. Dalam konteks yang lebih luas, pengurangan atau penambahan dapat menimbulkan akibat yang fatal pada manusia yang menggunakan suatu karya terjemahan, terutama pada teks-teks terjemahan yang beresiko tinggi, seperti teks terjemahan di bidang hukum, kedokteran, agama dan teknik.

Di dalam literatur teori penerjemahan terdapat beberapa teknik penerjemahan yang dapat dimanfaatkan untuk mengatasi masalah padanan. Dua di antaranya adalah penghilangan (deletion) dan penambahan (addition). Kedua teknik penerjemahan itu bukan dimaksudkan untuk mengurangi informasi atau menambahi informasi sesuka hati, tetapi dimaksudkan untuk menghasilkan terjemahan yang berterima dan mudah dipahami oleh pembaca sasaran. Dalam praktik penerjemahan yang sesungguhnya, teknik penambahan ditujukan untuk mengeksplisitkan atau untuk memperjelas suatu konsep bahasa sumber terutama jika konsep tersebut tidak mempunyai one-to-one correspondence dalam bahasa sasaran.

##### **1.4.2 Aspek Keberterimaan**

Aspek kedua dari terjemahan yang berkualitas terkait dengan masalah keberterimaan. Istilah keberterimaan merujuk pada apakah suatu terjemahan sudah diungkapkan sesuai dengan kaidah-kaidah, norma dan budaya yang berlaku dalam bahasa sasaran ataukah belum, baik pada tataran mikro

maupun pada tataran makro. Konsep keberterimaan ini menjadi sangat penting karena meskipun suatu terjemahan sudah akurat dari segi isi atau pesannya, terjemahan tersebut akan ditolak oleh pembaca sasaran jika cara pengungkapannya bertentangan dengan kaidah-kaidah, norma dan budaya bahasa sasaran.

Dalam budaya penutur asli bahasa Inggris, seorang cucu dapat menyapa kakeknya dengan *How are you, John*. Tampak jelas bahwa sang cucu langsung menyebut nama kecil kakeknya. Penyapaan yang seperti itu tentu saja dipandang tidak sopan bagi penutur bahasa Jawa, yang selalu menyertakan sapaan Mbah yang diikuti oleh nama kecil kakeknya, misalnya Mbah Prawiro, ketika seorang cucu berinteraksi dengan kakeknya. Dalam konteks budaya bahasa batak Tapanuli, penyebutan nama kecil seorang kakek dianggap tidak sopan. Contoh ini menunjukkan bahwa konsep keberterimaan merupakan suatu konsep yang relatif. Sesuatu yang dianggap sopan dalam suatu kelompok masyarakat bisa dipandang tidak sopan dalam masyarakat lainnya.

Di atas telah dijelaskan bahwa salah satu parameter dari konsep keberterimaan adalah apakah suatu terjemahan sudah diungkapkan sesuai dengan kaidah-kaidah tatabahasa sasaran. Suatu terjemahan dalam bahasa Indonesia yang diungkapkan menurut kaidah-kaidah tatabahasa Inggris, misalnya, akan membuat terjemahan tersebut menjadi tidak alamiah dan dalam banyak kasus akan sulit dipahami maksudnya. Demikian pula, suatu terjemahan abstrak penelitian sebagai salah bentuk dari teks ilmiah akan ditolak pembaca sasaran jika terjemahan tersebut diungkapkan dengan bahasa gaul. Demikian pula sebaliknya, suatu terjemahan karya sastra akan tidak berterima bagi pembaca sasaran jika terjemahan karya sastra tersebut diungkapkan dengan kaidah-kaidah tatabahasa baku.

Suatu istilah teknis mungkin mempunyai padanan yang akurat dalam bahasa sasaran. Namun, penerjemah seyogianya tidak dengan serta merta menggunakan padanan tersebut karena bisa berakibat terjemahan yang dihasilkannya tidak berterima bagi pembaca sasaran. Dalam bidang ilmu kedokteran, misalnya, terdapat istilah vagina. Meskipun, istilah tersebut mempunyai padanan dalam bahasa Jawa, penerjemah biasanya tidak menggunakan padanan dalam bahasa Jawa tersebut karena dipandang tidak sopan.

#### 1.4.3 Aspek Keterbacaan

Pada mulanya istilah keterbacaan hanya dikaitkan dengan kegiatan membaca. Kemudian, istilah keterbacaan itu digunakan pula dalam bidang penerjemahan karena setiap kegiatan menerjemahkan tidak bisa lepas dari kegiatan membaca. Dalam konteks penerjemahan, istilah keterbacaan itu pada dasarnya tidak hanya menyangkut keterbacaan teks bahasa sumber tetapi juga keterbacaan teks bahasa sasaran. Hal itu sesuai dengan hakekat dari setiap proses penerjemahan yang memang selalu melibatkan kedua bahasa itu sekaligus. Akan tetapi, hingga saat ini indikator yang digunakan untuk mengukur tingkat keterbacaan suatu teks masih perlu dipertanyakan keandalannya. Bahkan, Gilmore dan Root (1977:102) berpendapat bahwa ukuran suatu teks yang didasarkan pada faktor-faktor kebahasaan dan pesonainsani tidak lebih dari sekedar alat Bantu bagi seorang penulis dalam menyesuaikan tingkat keterbacaan teks dengan kemampuan para pembaca teks itu. Terlepas dari belum mantapnya alat ukur keterbacaan itu, seorang penerjemah perlu memahami anggitan atau konsep keterbacaan teks bahasa sumber dan bahasa sasaran. Pemahaman yang baik terhadap konsep keterbacaan itu akan sangat membantu penerjemah dalam melakukan tugasnya.

oleh pemikiran bahwa pada dasarnya konsep keakuratan, keberterimaan dan keterbacaan merupakan konsep yang terpisah satu sama lain. Di samping itu, pemisahan penilaian itu akan membuat proses penilaian lebih fokus. Karena satuan terjemahan yang dikaji berada pada tataran kata, frasa, klausa dan kalimat, penilaian terhadap kualitas terjemahan menjadi sangat rinci. Meskipun demikian, penetapan padanan tidak akan pernah lepas dari konteksnya.

### 3.1.2 Kriteria dan Jumlah Penilai.

Untuk menjaga validitas dan reliabilitas hasil penilaian, dalam prototip model penilaian kualitas terjemahan tersebut diusulkan jumlahnya ganjil dan minimal sebanyak 3 orang penilai untuk masing-masing aspek dari kualitas yang dinilai. Seseorang yang hendak dijadikan sebagai penilai kualitas terjemahan harus memiliki kriteria atau persyaratan. Untuk tingkat keakuratan, persyaratan yang harus dipenuhi adalah 1) Penerjemah profesional dan berpengalaman di bidang penerjemahan teks-teks ilmiah dari bahasa Inggris ke dalam bahasa Indonesia, 2) Memiliki kompetensi penerjemahan yang baik, yang terdiri atas kompetensi kebahasaan, kompetensi wacana, kompetensi budaya, kompetensi bidang ilmu, kompetensi strategik dan kompetensi transfer, dan 3) Memiliki pengetahuan deklaratif dan

pengetahui prosedural atau operatif yang baik. Untuk tingkat keberterimaan, persyaratan yang harus dipenuhi adalah 1) Menguasai penggunaan tata bahasa baku bahasa Indonesia, 2) Menguasai bidang ilmu dari teks terjemahan, dan 3) Akrab dengan istilah teknis dalam bidang teks terjemahan yang dinilai. Untuk tingkat keterbacaan, kriteria yang harus dimiliki adalah mampu membaca dan memahami teks berbahasa Indonesia dengan baik dan merupakan pembaca ideal dari suatu teks terjemahan yang dinilai.

### 3.1.3 Instrumen Penilai Kualitas Terjemahan.

Instrumen penilaian kualitas terjemahan meliputi: 1) instrumen penilai tingkat keakuratan pesan, 2) instrumen penilai tingkat keberterimaan terjemahan, dan 3) instrumen penilai tingkat keterbacaan terjemahan.

Masing-masing dari instrumen penilai kualitas terjemahan terdiri atas tiga bagian. Bagian pertama menunjukkan kategori terjemahan. Bagian kedua merupakan skor atau angka dengan skala 1 sampai dengan 3, yang diurutkan menurut piramida terbalik yaitu semakin berkualitas suatu terjemahan, semakin skor atau angka yang diperolehnya dan demikian pula sebaliknya. Bagian ketiga merupakan parameter kualitatif dari masing-masing kategori terjemahan. Ketiga instrumen itu disajikan di bawah ini.

#### Instrumen Penilai Keakuratan Terjemahan

Kategori Terjemahan	Skor	Parameter Kualitatif
Akurat	3	Makna kata, istilah teknis, frasa, klausa, kalimat atau teks bahasa sumber dialihkan secara akurat ke dalam bahasa sasaran; sama sekali tidak terjadi distorsi makna
Kurang Akurat	2	Sebagian besar makna kata, istilah teknis, frasa, klausa, kalimat atau teks bahasa sumber sudah dialihkan secara akurat ke dalam bahasa sasaran. Namun, masih terdapat distorsi makna atau terjemahan makna ganda (taksa) atau ada makna yang dihilangkan, yang mengganggu keutuhan pesan.
Tidak Akurat	1	Makna kata, istilah teknis, frasa, klausa, kalimat atau teks bahasa sumber dialihkan secara tidak akurat ke dalam bahasa sasaran atau dihilangkan (deleted).

Instrumen penilai tingkat keakuratan terjemahan tersebut menganut skala 1 sampai dengan 3. Semakin tinggi skor yang diberikan penilai, maka semakin akurat terjemahan yang

dihasilkan. Sebaliknya, semakin rendah skor yang diberikan terhadap terjemahan, maka semakin rendah tingkat keakuratan terjemahan tersebut.

#### **Instrumen Penilai Tingkat Keberterimaan Terjemahan**

<b>Kategori Terjemahan</b>	<b>Skor</b>	<b>Parameter Kualitatif</b>
Berterima	3	Terjemahan terasa alamiah; istilah teknis yang digunakan lazim digunakan dan akrab bagi pembaca; frasa, klausa dan kalimat yang digunakan sudah sesuai dengan kaidah-kaidah bahasa Indonesia
Kurang Berterima	2	Pada umumnya terjemahan sudah terasa alamiah; namun ada sedikit masalah pada penggunaan istilah teknis atau terjadi sedikit kesalahan gramatikal.
Tidak Berterima	1	Terjemahan tidak alamiah atau terasa seperti karya terjemahan; istilah teknis yang digunakan tidak lazim digunakan dan tidak akrab bagi pembaca; frasa, klausa dan kalimat yang digunakan tidak sesuai dengan kaidah-kaidah bahasa Indonesia

Instrumen penilai tingkat keberterimaan terjemahan merupakan pedoman bagi penilai dalam menentukan tingkat keberterimaan terjemahan. Skala yang disediakan berkisar antara 1 sampai dengan 3. Setiap skor yang diberikan merupakan cerminan dari tingkat

keberterimaan terjemahan.

Instrumen ketiga yang digunakan adalah instrumen untuk menentukan tingkat keterbacaan terjemahan, yang juga didasarkan pada skala 1 sampai dengan 3.

#### **Instrumen Penilai Tingkat Keterbacaan Terjemahan**

<b>Kategori Terjemahan</b>	<b>Skor</b>	<b>Parameter Kualitatif</b>
Tingkat Keterbacaan Tinggi	3	Kata, istilah teknis, frasa, klausa, kalimat atau teks terjemahan dapat dipahami dengan mudah oleh pembaca.
Tingkat Keterbacaan Sedang	2	Pada umumnya terjemahan dapat dipahami oleh pembaca; namun ada bagian tertentu yang harus dibaca lebih dari satu kali untuk memahami terjemahan.
Tingkat Keterbacaan Rendah	1	Terjemahan sulit dipahami oleh pembaca

#### **3.1.4 Pembobotan**

Di atas telah dijelaskan bahwa suatu terjemahan yang berkualitas harus akurat (accurate), berterima (acceptable) dan mudah

dipahami (readable) oleh pembaca sasaran. Masing-masing dari ketiga aspek tersebut mempunyai bobot nilai yang berbeda.

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## 74 Idioms and fixed expressions – general

Idioms are fixed expressions with meanings that are usually not clear or obvious. The individual words often give you no help in deciding the meaning. The expression to feel under the weather, which means 'to feel unwell' is a typical idiom. The words do not tell us what it means, but the context usually helps.

### A Tips for dealing with idioms

Think of idioms as being just like single words; always record the whole phrase in your notebook, along with information on grammar and collocation.

This tin-opener has seen better days. [it is rather old and broken down; usually of things, always perfect tense form]

Idioms are usually rather informal and include an element of personal comment on the situation. They are sometimes humorous or ironic. As with any informal 'commenting' single word, be careful how you use them. Never use them just to sound 'fluent' or 'good at English'. In a formal situation with a person you do not know, don't say,

'How do you do, Mrs Watson. Do take the weight off your feet.' [sit down].

Instead say 'Do sit down' or 'Have a seat'.

Idioms can be grouped in a variety of ways. Use whichever way you find most useful to help you remember them. Here are some possible types of grouping.

#### Grammatical

get the wrong end of the stick [misunderstand]	}	verb + object
pull a fast one [trick/deceive somebody]		
poke your nose in(to) [interfere]		
be over the moon [extremely happy/elated]	}	verb + preposition phrase
feel down in the dumps [depressed/low]		
be in the red [have a negative bank balance]		

**By meaning** e.g. idioms describing people's character/intellect

He's as daft as a brush. [very stupid/silly]

He takes the biscuit. [is the extreme / the worst of all]

You're a pain in the neck. [a nuisance / difficult person]

**By verb or other key word** e.g. idioms with make

I don't see why you have to make a meal out of everything.

[exaggerate the importance of everything]

I think we should make a move. It's gone ten o'clock. [go/leave]

Most politicians are on the make. I don't trust any of them.

[wanting money/power for oneself]

### B Grammar of idioms

It is important when using idioms to know just how flexible their grammar is. Some are more fixed than others. For instance, barking up the wrong tree [be mistaken] is always used in continuous, not simple form, e.g. I think you're barking up the wrong tree.

A good dictionary may help but it is best to observe the grammar in real examples.

Note how Units 76–91 group idioms in different ways.



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**Advanced**

Felicity O'Dell  
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# 1 What are idioms?

## A Formulaic language

Idioms are a type of formulaic language. Formulaic language consists of fixed expressions which you learn and understand as units rather than as individual words, for example:

type of formulaic language	examples
greetings and good wishes	Hi there! See you soon! Happy birthday!
prepositional phrases	at the moment, in a hurry, from time to time
sayings, proverbs and quotations	It's a small world! Don't put all your eggs in one basket. To be or not to be – that is the question.
compounds	car park, bus stop, home-made
phrasal verbs	take off, look after, turn down
collocations	blonde hair, deeply disappointed

## B Idioms

Idioms are fixed combinations of words whose meaning is often difficult to guess from the meaning of each individual word.

For example, if I say 'I **put my foot in it** the other day at Linda's house – I asked her if she was going to marry Simon', what does it mean? If you do not know that **put your foot in it** means *say something accidentally which upsets or embarrasses someone*, it is difficult to know exactly what the sentence means. It has a non-literal or idiomatic meaning.

Idioms are constructed in different ways, and this book gives you practice in a wide variety of types of idiom. Here are some examples:

Tim **took a shine to** [immediately liked] his teacher. (verb + object + preposition)

The band's number one hit was just **a flash in the pan** [something that happens only once] (idiomatic noun phrase)

Little Jimmy has been **as quiet as a mouse** [extremely quiet] all day. (simile. **See Unit 9 for more similes.**)

We arrived **safe and sound** [safely]. (binomial. **See Unit 10 for more binomials.**)

Idioms are often based on everyday things and ideas, for example, the human body:

Mark and Alistair **don't see eye to eye**. [don't agree with each other]

## C How can I use idioms?

Many idioms are quite informal, so use them carefully. You will need to be able to understand a lot of idioms if you want to read English fiction, newspapers or magazines, or understand TV shows, films and songs. People also often use idioms for humour or to comment on themselves, other people and situations.

You will sound more natural and fluent if you can use idioms in everyday conversation or informal writing. Be careful not to use too many, though!

### Language help

The words and word order of idioms are usually fixed, and we cannot change them in any way. For example, we cannot say *gave a shine to* or *sound and safe*.

## 2 When and how are idioms used?

### A Idioms and change

Idioms frequently change in English. Although many idioms last for a long time, some disappear very quickly. Therefore, some idioms that were popular 50 years ago may sound very old-fashioned and odd today. For example, the idiom **as stiff / straight as a ramrod** [sitting or standing with a very straight and stiff back] is not frequently used nowadays. It is therefore important to be careful if you learn an idiom from, say, an older novel, as it may sound unnatural if you use it in your own speech or writing. In this book we focus only on up-to-date idioms which are still commonly used.

### B What are idioms used for?

- For emphasis, e.g. 'The singer's second album **sank like a stone**.' [failed completely]
- To agree with a previous speaker, e.g.  
A: Did you notice how Lisa started listening when you said her name?  
B: Yes, that certainly made her **prick her ears up**. [start listening carefully]
- To comment on people, e.g. 'Did you hear Tom has been invited for dinner with the prime minister? He's certainly **gone up in the world!**' [gained a better social position – or more money – than before]
- To comment on a situation, e.g. 'The new finance minister wants to **knock** the economy **into shape**.' [take action to get something into a good condition]
- To make an anecdote more interesting, e.g. 'It was just one disaster after another today, a sort of **domino effect!**' [when something, usually bad, happens and causes a series of other things to happen]
- To catch the reader's eye. Idioms – particularly those with strong images – are often used in headlines, advertising slogans and the names of small businesses. The writer may play with the idiom or make a pun (a joke involving a play on words) in order to create a special effect, e.g. *a debt of dishonour* instead of the usual **debt of honour**. [a debt that you owe someone for moral rather than financial reasons]
- To indicate membership of a particular group, e.g. surfers **drop in on** someone, meaning to get on a wave another surfer is already on. This kind of group-specific idiom is outside the focus of this book.

### C Where will you see or hear idioms?

You will see and hear idioms in all sorts of speaking and writing. They are particularly common in everyday conversation and in popular journalism. For example, they are often found in magazine horoscopes, e.g. You'll spend much of this week **licking your wounds** [trying to recover from a bad experience], or in problem pages, e.g. 'Do you think that my relationship has **run its course?**' [come to a natural end] However, idioms are also used in more formal contexts, such as lectures, academic essays and business reports, e.g. 'It is hoped the regulations will **open the door to** better management.' [let something new start] **See Unit 41 for more idioms used in formal writing.**

#### Language help

Look out for idioms being used in headlines and advertisements. Make a note of any interesting examples that you find.

# 9 Similes

## A What are similes?

Similes are expressions which compare two things; they always include the words **as** or **like**. You can use similes to make your spoken and written English more colourful and your comparisons more powerful. For example:

My brother's **as thin as a rake**. [extremely thin]  
The baby's skin is **as smooth as silk**. [extremely smooth]  
Pilar is **as bright as a button**. [extremely clever]  
I slept really well, so I feel **as fresh as a daisy** this morning. [extremely fresh and full of energy]  
George **ran like the wind** to get the message to Paula before she left. [ran extremely fast]  
I don't want to go in the car with Lottie. She **drives like a maniac!** [drives fast and badly]  
My new sweater **fits like a glove**. I'm so pleased with it. [fits extremely well]  
The two men were in the next room, but I could hear every word they said **as clear as crystal**. [very clearly]  
Ben claimed to be **as poor as a church mouse**, but we knew he was rich. [very poor]  
As Beth walked in, the house was **as silent as the grave**. [totally silent]



You should learn similes as whole phrases, because it is usually not possible to change the individual words (e.g. we do not say **as thin as a stick** or **as thin as a pole**). Where it is possible to change the individual words, the meaning of the simile often changes, for example:  
I needed a drink of water. My mouth was **as dry as a bone**. [extremely dry / thirsty]  
His lecture was **as dry as dust**, and everyone was bored. [extremely boring]

## B Everyday similes

The similes in these emails are often used in everyday conversation and informal writing.

Three screenshots of email messages. The first is from Jacek to Freya, the second is from Freya to Jacek, and the third is from Manami to Mariusz. Each email contains several similes.

**Hi Jacek.**  
It's so obvious you like Anna! You went **as red as a beetroot** when Stefan was talking about her, so it must be true! And you **were all over her like a rash** at the party last week too. Ask her out!  
Hiroshi

**Hi Freya,**  
Have you noticed how Chiara and Rita are **as thick as thieves** lately? Rita said she needed some help and **as quick as a flash** Chiara volunteered – you know, **as keen as mustard**. And just think, they used to hate each other and were always **fighting like cat and dog** over the most stupid things. Any idea what's happened? Anyway, speak later.  
Fatima

**Hello Manami,**  
I'll be late for the restaurant tonight – having a bad day at work. I've been **working like a dog**, but the boss just came in with **a face like thunder** and said I'd made a mess of some sales figures. I've tried to argue with him, but he's **as stubborn as a mule**, and you can never convince him that he's wrong.  
Time to change my job! Mariusz

### Language help

Be careful how you use similes. They have strong meanings and are often used in a humorous or sarcastic way, e.g. *My teacher's explanations are **as clear as mud*** [not clear at all].

# 10 Binomials

## A What are binomials?

Binomials are a type of idiom in which two words are joined by a conjunction (linking word), usually *and*. The order of the two words is fixed. For example, we always say **black and white**, NOT **white and black**: 'Managing climate change isn't a **black and white** issue.' [separate and clear]

The words can be

- synonyms (words which mean the same): Sara's work is always very **neat and tidy**.
- opposites: If you go for cheaper speakers, the sound quality may be a bit **hit and miss**. [sometimes good, sometimes bad (informal)]
- the same word: They finished the race **neck and neck**. [equal]
- rhyming: Tables in the canteen take a lot of **wear and tear**. [damage through everyday use]
- alliterative: After the match, the players' legs were **black and blue**. [very bruised]
- joined by words other than *and*: The traffic was **bumper to bumper** all the way to the coast. [very heavy] **Little by little**, Vera gained the horse's confidence. [gradually] The house must be worth a quarter of a million, **give or take** a few thousand. [plus or minus (informal)]

Trinomials are a similar type of idiom, in which three words are joined, e.g. 'I've looked **here, there and everywhere** for my glasses but can't find them.' [everywhere]

## B Other examples

example	meaning
Let's toss a coin to see who starts. You call: <b>heads or tails</b> ?	heads is the side of a British coin with the monarch's head on it; tails is the other side
We're <b>at sixes and sevens</b> at work this week.	in a state of confusion (informal)
Hannah had flu last week, but she's <b>out and about</b> again now.	active, doing her usual activities (informal)
Although the twins look the same, when you talk to them you realise they're like <b>chalk and cheese</b> .	totally different (informal)
It's great to leave the <b>hustle and bustle</b> of the city at the weekend.	crowds and noise
I can't do up these tiny buttons – I'm <b>all fingers and thumbs</b> today.	am awkward with my hands, unable to do what I want to do (informal)
The money for the charity appeal came in <b>in dribs and drabs</b> , but we reached our target in the end.	small amounts at a time (informal)
It took a lot of <b>blood, sweat and tears</b> to get the business going.	hard work
I've asked you <b>time after time</b> not to do that.	many times (usually suggests irritation)
Her interest in painting <b>waxed and waned</b> over the years.	fluctuated (The literal meaning of wax and wane relates to the moon's changes in shape.)
She really doesn't enjoy living in the countryside. She's a city person, <b>through and through</b> .	completely (typically used about people)
We had a great holiday and explored <b>every nook and cranny</b> of the island.	every small place

# 11 Proverbs

Proverbs are short sentences which refer to something most people have experienced and which give advice or warnings. Like idioms, their form is fixed, and it is not always possible to guess the meaning from looking at the individual words.

## A Positive situations

In these conversations, the second speaker uses a proverb to repeat and sum up what the first speaker says.

A: We all want to solve this problem, and I'm sure we'll find a solution.

B: Yes, **Where there's a will, there's a way.** [if we really want to achieve something, we can]

A: Well, we'll have to invest all of our savings and work really hard, and there's still a chance the project won't succeed.

B: I know, but **nothing ventured, nothing gained.** [you need to take risks to achieve something]

A: I was upset when I didn't get into university, but at least it leaves me free to go travelling.

B: Yeah, **Every cloud has a silver lining.** [there is something good in every bad situation]

A: My job is different every day. It's never boring.

B: Well, **variety is the spice of life,** isn't it? [change makes life interesting]

A: Josh found it impossible to get a new job, so he set up his own business instead.

B: Yes, well, **necessity is the mother of invention.** [if people really need to do something, they will find a way to do it]

## B Negative situations

In these conversations, the second speaker uses a proverb to repeat and sum up what the first speaker says.

A: Marta ended her relationship with Jakob, and the next day her friend Ellie met Jakob for a drink.

B: **All's fair in love and war!** [all behaviour is acceptable in extreme situations, especially in romantic situations and competitions]

A: What a day! My car broke down and my wallet has been stolen.

B: **It never rains but it pours.** [problems always happen together]

A: I wonder why Sylvia and Ben have broken up.

B: Well, **it takes two to tango.** [two people are equally responsible]

## C Other popular proverbs

I'm really impatient to finish decorating my flat, but **Rome wasn't built in a day!** [it takes a long time to do important things properly]

We should buy extra travel insurance for our skiing trip. **Better safe than sorry.** [it is better not to take risks, even if it seems boring or hard work]

I have to study hard and do a lot of exams to become an accountant, but **no pain no gain.** [there must be some suffering in order to succeed]

We don't have enough tickets for everybody, so it's a case of **first come, first served.** [the first to arrive will get something]

# 12 Clichés and fixed statements

## A Clichés

A cliché is a comment that is often used in certain common, everyday situations. It is a comment that most people are familiar with and is therefore not original. Clichés are often used in everyday conversation, and they are also frequently played with in advertising slogans and newspaper headlines.

**There are plenty more fish in the sea.** [There are plenty more people or possibilities. Often used to cheer up someone who has found one person or opportunity unsuccessful.]

**Look on the bright side.** [Try to see something good in a bad situation. This is usually followed by an explanation of what the bright side might be, e.g. after failing a job interview you are told that you probably wouldn't have enjoyed the job if you'd got it.]

**It's easy to be wise after the event or Hindsight is a wonderful thing.** [When you know what happens next, it's easy to say what you or others should have done.]

**It's not over until the fat lady sings.** [You cannot be sure what will happen until the very end of something, often a sports event. The expression refers to a long opera which ends with a female singing the final song.]

**Enough is as good as a feast.** [You shouldn't have more of something than you need, e.g. food.]

**Ignorance is bliss.** [You may be happier sometimes when you do not know all the facts about a situation.]

**You can lead a horse to water (but you can't make it drink).** [You can give someone the opportunity to do something, but you cannot force them to do it. The second part of the idiom (but you can't make it drink) is often not actually said.]

**Truth will out!** [The truth will always become known.]

## B Fixed statements

fixed statement	meaning
<b>Get your skates on!</b> (informal)	Hurry up!
<b>I'll believe it when I see it.</b>	I'm doubtful that it will happen.
<b>Mum's the word.</b> (informal)	I promise not to tell a secret.
<b>Good riddance!</b> (informal)	I'm happy something or someone has gone.
<b>Take it easy!</b>	Calm down! Relax!
<b>Fair's fair.</b> (informal)	Their behaviour is reasonable.
<b>So far, so good.</b>	Things are going well up to this point.
<b>Give me a break!</b> (informal)	Stop criticising me!

### Language help

It is best not to use clichés in formal writing or when you want to express an original or complex idea.



# 13 Other languages

As you probably know, English includes many words from other languages. The idiomatic expressions in this unit all come from Latin or French.

## A Latin

idiom	example	meaning
ad hoc /æd'hɒk/	He was paid on an <b>ad hoc</b> basis.	not planned but arranged or done when needed
ad infinitum /ædɪnfɪ'nɪtəm/	Their list of demands seemed to go on <b>ad infinitum</b> .	without end, forever
compos mentis /kɒmpɒs'mentɪs/	My grandfather is nearly 100, but he is perfectly <b>compos mentis</b> .	in control of his actions, mentally healthy
de facto /der'fæktəʊ/	Jorge is the <b>de facto</b> head of the organisation.	existing but not officially agreed (formal)
non sequitur /nɒn'sekwɪtə/	Keiko's response seemed like a complete <b>non sequitur</b> to me.	a statement which does not seem to be connected with what was said before
status quo /stetəs'kwəʊ/	The Conservatives favoured maintaining the <b>status quo</b> , while the Liberals hoped for change.	the present situation

## B French

**A:** Are you familiar with our health and safety procedures?

**B:** No, I'm not really **au fait** /əu'feɪ/ **with** them yet. [fully knowledgeable about]

**A:** I hate people who talk loudly on their mobile phones on trains.

**B:** I agree. They're my absolute **bête noire** /bet'nwa:/. [what the speaker hates most]

**A:** It's always beautiful weather when you have to study for exams.

**B:** I know. It's always the way. **C'est la vie** /se.la'vi:/ [you say this when something happens that you do not like but which you have to accept]

**A:** Only the very best students are accepted on this course.

**B:** I know. They really are the **crème de la crème** /krem.da.la:'krem/. [very best]

**A:** I wish he'd consulted with us first about changing the computer systems.

**B:** Yes, he just presented us with a **fait accompli** /fet.akɒm'pli:/. [a decision that has been made or a completed action that cannot be changed]

**A:** I think she should make more effort to control her children.

**B:** Yes, she has quite a **laissez-faire** /leisɛl'feɪ/ approach, doesn't she? [desire not to control]

**A:** The older generation criticising young people! There's nothing new about that.

**B:** Yes, **plus ça change** /plu: sɑ: 'ʃɑ:ʒ/ [times change, but some things stay the same.]

Translation  
Practices  
Explained



# AUDIOVISUAL TRANSLATION: SUBTITLING



INCLUDED

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SysMedia



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# 1. Introduction to Subtitling

## 1.0 Preliminary discussion

- 1.1 Do you see subtitling as a case of translation or adaptation? What are your reasons for your choice?
- 1.2 In your opinion, does it matter whether subtitling is perceived one way or another?
- 1.3 Make a list of situations where subtitles are consumed in your country.

The main aim of this book is to introduce the reader to subtitling, one of the most thriving areas within the wider discipline of Translation Studies. For many years ignored by academics and teachers alike, it has since the 1990s gained well-deserved visibility thanks to the proliferation and distribution of audiovisual materials in our society. The value of the image is of crucial importance in our daily lives and we are literally surrounded by screens of all shapes and sizes. Television sets, cinemas, computers, and mobile phones are a common and recurrent feature of our social environment, based on the power of the screen. We come across them at home, in our work place, on public transport, in libraries, bars, restaurants and cinemas. We spend a fair amount of hours watching screens and consuming audiovisual programmes to carry out our work, to develop and enhance our professional and academic careers, to enjoy ourselves and to obtain information. It would not be an exaggeration to talk about the ubiquity of the image in our time and age.

A common companion of the image since the 1930s has been the word, and with the word comes the need for translation. Scholars like Gambier (1994) and Díaz Cintas (1999) differentiate up to 10 different ways of translating audiovisual programmes, although there are three main ones: dubbing (also known as lip-sync), subtitling and voice-over. This chapter sets out to offer a definition of subtitling practice as well as a classification of the many different types of subtitles that we come across in our daily lives.

## 1.1 Definition

Subtitling may be defined as a translation practice that consists of presenting a written text, generally on the lower part of the screen, that endeavours to recount the original dialogue of the speakers, as well as the discursive elements that appear in the image (letters, inserts, graffiti, inscriptions, placards, and the like), and the information that is contained on the soundtrack (songs, voices off). In some languages, like Japanese, cinema subtitles are presented

vertically and tend to appear on the right-hand side of the screen.

All subtitled programmes are made up of three main components: the spoken word, the image and the subtitles. The interaction of these three components, along with the viewer's ability to read both the images and the written text at a particular speed, and the actual size of the screen, determine the basic characteristics of the audiovisual medium. Subtitles must appear in synchrony with the image and dialogue, provide a semantically adequate account of the SL dialogue, and remain displayed on screen long enough for the viewers to be able to read them.

## 1.2 Translation or adaptation? Audiovisual Translation (AVT)

For some, this activity falls short of being a case of translation proper because of all the spatial and temporal limitations imposed by the medium itself (§4) which constrain the end result. They prefer to talk about adaptation – an attitude that has stymied the debate about AVT and could be tainted as having been one of the main reasons why the whole area has been traditionally ignored by scholars in translation until very recently.

Audiovisual programmes use two codes, image and sound, and whereas literature and poetry evoke, films represent and actualize a particular reality based on specific images that have been put together by a director. Thus, subtitling – dubbing and voice-over too – is constrained by the respect it owes to synchrony in these new translational parameters of image and sound (subtitles should not contradict what the characters are doing on screen), and time (i.e. the delivery of the translated message should coincide with that of the original speech). In addition, subtitles entail a change of mode from oral to written and resort frequently to the omission of lexical items from the original. As far as space is concerned, the dimensions of the actual screen are finite and the target text will have to accommodate to the width of the screen. Although the figures vary, this means that a subtitle will have some 32 to 41 characters per line in a maximum of two lines. These tend to be the main reasons put forward by those who have looked down on this activity, considering it as a type of adaptation rather than translation. It is indeed this attitude that can be held responsible “for the fact that translation studies of all disciplines have been rather reluctant to include film translation among their subjects of study” (Delabastita 1989:213). For others, this concept of adaptation seems to equate the process to a lesser activity and becomes enough of an excuse to carry out a linguistic transfer that is clearly inadequate but nonetheless justified since it is only a case of adaptation.

Jakobson (1959) is often cited as being one of the first academics to open up the field. He famously established three types of translation: intralingual

to help bridge any possible divides (Díaz Cintas 2005b). In societies that aim at being more just and inclusive, accessibility has a social function and means making an audiovisual programme available to people that otherwise could not have access to it. In this sense, to lip-sync, to subtitle or to voice-over a programme shares as much the idea of accessibility as SDH or AD. Only the intended audiences are different. Whether the hurdle is a language or a sensorial barrier, the aim of the translation process is exactly the same: to facilitate access to an otherwise hermetic source of information and entertainment. In this way, accessibility becomes a common denominator that underpins these practices.

Finally, computer games and interactive software programmes are taking subtitling to the borders between AVT and localization since these games travel not only subtitled, but also adapted to the cultural sensibilities of the target gamers. Likewise, subtitling is re-entering the domain of speech when summarizing techniques and interpreting are combined in teletext subtitling for the deaf and hearing impaired through voice recognition. These trends are representative of a broader move: different forms of audiovisual translation and other translation modes are converging, creating new hybrid forms and sometimes catering for very different and well-defined target audiences. The key word for successful audiovisual translation is insight and understanding of the product and its expected function, combined with desire to learn and willingness to adapt.

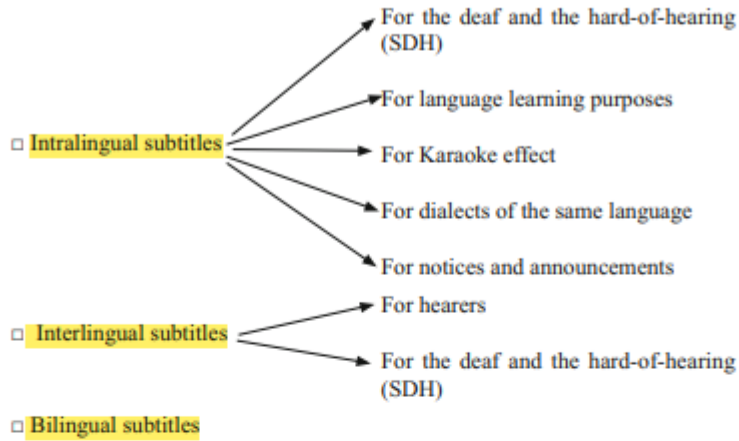
### **1.3 Classification of subtitles**

Different typologies of subtitles can be established depending on the criteria that are used at the onset. Subtitling has a very close relationship with technology and one of the main problems encountered when trying to come up with a fixed classification of subtitles is the speed at which technological developments take place. No sooner has one classification been made than new types of subtitles appear on the market.

In an attempt to offer a comprehensive overview of the many different types of subtitles in existence, we have decided to group them according to the following five criteria: linguistic, time available for preparation, technical, methods of projection, and distribution format.

#### **1.3.1 Linguistic parameters**

One of the most traditional classifications of subtitles focuses on the linguistic dimension. From this perspective, we can find the following types:



Intralingual subtitling involves a shift from oral to written but stays always within the same language, hence the reluctance of some to call it translation. The first type, SDH, is primarily aimed at people who are deaf and people with a hearing impairment, in order to ensure greater democratic access to audiovisual programming. This variety is also known as (closed) captioning in American English. On television, these subtitles are broadcast by means of an independent signal activated only by those interested in accessing pages 888 or 777 of teletext in most European countries. In North America they are transmitted on what is known as line 21. The oral content of the actors' dialogues is converted into written speech, which is presented in subtitles of up to three, or occasionally four, lines. They generally change colour on television depending on the person who is talking or the emphasis given to certain words within the same subtitle. Besides the dialogues, they also incorporate all paralinguistic information that contributes to the development of the plot or to the creation of atmosphere, which a deaf person cannot access from the soundtrack, e.g. the irony of a statement, a telephone ringing, laughter, applause, a knock on the door, the sound of an engine, and the like. Although they are usually presented at the bottom of the screen, they lend themselves more to physical manipulation, as it is possible to move them to the left or right of the screen when it is necessary to identify speakers or to make clear where the sound is coming from.

SDH is undoubtedly one of the forms of audiovisual communication which is developing most at present, thanks to the success achieved by pressure groups campaigning for the interests of this sector of the audience. The fruit of their work is evident from the announcement of new legislation in many countries obliging television channels to broadcast a certain percentage of

their programmes with this type of subtitles. The European Year of Disabled People in 2003 helped in great measure to give increased visibility to the issue of accessibility to audiovisual media, particularly in those countries that had been lagging behind (see also Neves 2005). As far as television broadcasting is concerned, the volume of SDH has undergone spectacular growth in recent years. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation) is, without a doubt, on a global level, one of the most advanced in this area, having pledged to broadcast 100% of their programming with subtitles for the deaf and hard-of-hearing by 2008. In Canada, the Global Television Network has been subtitled all its programming, twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week, since January 2005. In Spain, the public television station TVE subtitled some 550 hours in 1999, while four years later the number of hours was in the region of 2,500. In 2003, TVE increased its subtitled programming by 73% compared to the previous year (Moreno Latorre 2003). The DVD has also exploited the potential of this type of subtitling and has made it more widely accessible. On a pedagogical note, few educational institutions offer programmes of study that focus on this type of subtitling, and the field is still to be developed.

A second group of intralingual subtitles are those specifically devised as a didactic tool for the teaching and learning of foreign languages. This function of interlingual subtitles has long been recognized. In an article published as early as 1974, Dollerup was already highlighting the didactic value of interlingual subtitles as a language learning tool and stating that in Denmark “many people must [...] be using foreign programmes as a means for keeping up, possibly even improving their command of foreign languages” (ibid.: 197). Watching and listening to films and programmes subtitled from other languages helps us not only to develop and expand our linguistic skills, but also to contextualize the language and culture of other countries. We familiarize ourselves with the foreign language through the soundtrack (vocabulary, intonation, pronunciation), and the images bring us into contact with the mannerisms and behaviours of other cultures (gesticulation, way of dressing, interpersonal relationships, geographical spaces). It is precisely this unique possibility of having direct access to the original and being able to compare it with its translation that has been stressed by many theoreticians as one of the most positive additional bonuses of subtitling (D’Ydewalle and Pavakanum 1992; Koolstra and Beentjes 1999).

But, to return to intralingual subtitling, it can be argued that SDH also offers great educational potential to people with limited knowledge of a country’s language, e.g. immigrants and foreign students, but the fact is that it is not openly targeted at these social groups. Many scholars have discussed the issue (Danan 1992 and 2004, Vanderplank 1988 and 1992). Some firms and distribution companies have recognized this educational potential, seen a niche in the market and responded with their own initiatives. Columbia Tristar Home Video, for example, was one of the first companies in the 1990s



to launch a collection of English language film videos with English subtitles entitled *SpeakUp*. Viewers were thus able to read on the screen the written dialogue of the actors and recognize or confirm what they had not understood aurally. The conventions applied in this type of subtitling differ substantially from those followed in interlingual subtitling, and it is not uncommon to find subtitles of three lines, full of lexical repetitions and incomplete sentences that are a literal transcription, word for word, of the dialogues, putting some pressure on reading speed. The Spanish newspaper *El País* also jumped on board, in collaboration with Disney, with its collection *Diviértete con el inglés* [Have Fun with English]. Over several months in 2002, many classics from Disney were distributed on video in their original English format with English subtitles so that young people could become familiar with the English language in an enjoyable way.

Although, by and large, the only movies that come onto the market with this type of subtitling are in English, other languages and institutions do seem to be awaking to the attraction exerted by the audiovisual world and the potential it offers for exporting their language and culture. Television has not been immune to these experiments and the international French channel, *France 5*, has for years been broadcasting some of its programmes in French with open subtitles also in French, in order to promote the learning of the language.

The arrival of DVD has also meant the consolidation of didactic subtitles, as a track distinct to and independent from that of SDH. Their use is not confined to helping foreigners learn languages, but can also be an aid to children in consolidating their mother tongues, given that many societies are now so thoroughly immersed in the world of the image and audiovisual communication. Big distributors like Disney and Paramount have for some time been marketing a number of their DVDs with two tracks of subtitles in English: one for the deaf and another which is didactic. Again, to date English is the only language in which this dual subtitling is found on DVD, although the situation might well change in the future.

A third type of intralingual subtitling that is gaining tremendous popularity nowadays is known as karaoke. It is generally used with songs or movie musicals so that the public can sing along at the same time as the characters on screen. The movie *The Sound of Music* has been advertised for many years in a central London cinema as follows: "The classic film musical, now with subtitles so everyone can join in!" It has been a tremendous hit, consistently sold out, and has initiated a tradition with the intralingual subtitling of other movies and programmes such as *The Rocky Horror Picture Show*, *Abba Live in Concert*, and *Joseph and the Amazing Technicolor Dreamcoat*.

Another example of intralingual subtitling is the use of subtitles in movies and programmes for the dialogues of people whose accents are difficult to understand for audiences who, in principle, share the same language. Languages that are spoken far and wide throughout the world, such as English,

Spanish, or French, are those that are commonly affected. But other lesser spoken languages also transcribe the dialogues. On Flemish television in Belgium intralingual subtitles are often used to 'translate' linguistic variants that the producer of a particular programme feels will not be understood by the entire population. This means that not only are some Dutch programmes from the Netherlands intralingually subtitled on Flemish television, but also some TV series, and parts of reality shows, whenever a character or speaker uses a (regional) Flemish variant that may not be understood by the entire Flemish community, due to phonetic or lexical variation. The language used in these subtitles is standard Dutch, which means that all *couleur locale* is lost. The desirability of such subtitling is the topic of much debate (Vandekerckhove *et al.* 2006).

Although rare, this strategy can be used throughout an entire programme. One such example is the British film *Trainspotting*, where the actors speak English with such a strong Scottish accent that the movie was distributed in the United States with English subtitles. However, the common practice is to resort to these subtitles only in sporadic cases where there is a need to transcribe utterances from people who speak the language either as a foreign language or as their native language, but with a strong, local accent and lexical variation that makes it difficult to understand for the rest of the speakers of that language.

The fifth and last category of intralingual subtitling can be seen on monitors in underground stations and other public areas where subtitles are used for advertising, as well as for broadcasting the latest news. The use of written texts on screen allows the information to be transmitted without sound, so as not to disturb the public.

The other major type of subtitling falls under the category of interlingual, and implies the translation from a source to a target language. Gottlieb (1994) calls it 'diagonal subtitling' since it involves a shift from one language to another along with a change of mode, from oral to written. This subtitling is the main focus of this book and will be analyzed in depth in the chapters to follow.

The traditional, broad distinction between interlingual (for hearers) and intralingual (for the deaf) subtitling has systematically overlooked a professional practice that has existed for several years and that is acquiring greater visibility thanks to DVD: **interlingual subtitles for the deaf and the hearing impaired**. Historically, in countries with a strong tradition of dubbing, such as Spain, Germany, Austria, France or Italy, the deaf could only watch programmes that had been originally produced in Spanish, German, French or Italian, and later also subtitled intralingually into these languages. Given that the translating custom of these five countries favours the dubbing of the vast majority of programmes imported from other countries, it has been difficult for the deaf and hard-of-hearing to access the information contained in these

programmes and they have had to content themselves with the few foreign ones to be broadcast with subtitles. In other countries with a stronger subtitling tradition like for instance Portugal, Greece or the Scandinavian nations, the deaf have normally been served by the same interlingual subtitles as the hearing viewers, even when these have clearly been inappropriate to their needs since they do not incorporate the paralinguistic information necessary for the deaf to be able to contextualize the action.

However, with the arrival of the DVD the situation has changed and is continuing to change radically. Pressure groups in countries such as Germany, UK and Italy have managed to get many foreign films marketed in their countries with two different tracks of interlingual subtitles: one for the hearing population and a second one that addresses the needs of the deaf. We now have many American films that have two subtitle tracks in Italian and German – one for the hearing and another for the deaf and the hard-of-hearing. This is also the case with films like the Spanish *Women on the Verge of a Nervous Breakdown*, which is sold on DVD with two interlingual subtitle tracks in English and a further two in German. Unfortunately, these are to date the only three languages making full use of interlingual SDH. The rest seem to lag behind in these new developments. Although all languages are supposed to be equal in principle, it would appear that in the film and DVD industries, English, German and Italian are 'more equal' than the other languages in regard to SDH. Strangest of all is that it is generally the same distributor who markets the films in all countries, which makes it hard to understand why some languages can have two subtitle tracks and others just one. Only through pressure groups campaigning for the interests of these sectors of the population can social advances aimed at facilitating access to all media in all languages for everybody be achieved.

**Bilingual subtitles are the third type within this category and are produced in geographical areas where two languages are spoken.** In Belgium, in an attempt to satisfy the Walloon and Flemish communities, subtitles in the cinema are in French and Flemish. In Finland, where Swedish is an official language on a par with Finnish, bilingualism is also respected in certain regions and television and cinema resort to subtitles in both languages. Outside Europe, in countries such as Jordan and Israel, Hebrew and Arabic co-exist at the bottom of the screen. In these cases, the two lines available for subtitles are in constant use, each one dedicated to a different language. **To avoid excessive pollution of the image, they tend to use only two-liners, although subtitles of four lines may also be found. The additional pressure on space renders bilingual subtitling an endeavour that borders on the unattainable.**

Another setting where bilingual subtitles are resorted to is in international film festivals. In order to attract a wider audience, many of these festivals screen their foreign films – say Iranian, Spanish or Japanese – with two sets of subtitles. One set is in English, to satisfy the needs of an international au-

## A COMPARISON BETWEEN HUMAN AND GOOGLE TRANSLATIONS

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### ABSTRACT

*The main objective of this research was to know the comparison between human and Google translations in terms of accuracy, acceptability, and readability at the fifth semester students of Muhammadiyah University of Makassar. The researcher applied comparative study which compared the quality of Google and human translations based on the criteria of acceptability, readability and accuracy aspects proposed by Nababan. This comparative study was done at Muhammadiyah University of Makassar. The subject research was 50 students at the fifth semester of Muhammadiyah University of Makassar in 2017-2018. The instrument was a text in Indonesian. The findings of this research were the different scores which showed the different quality between human and Google translations in the terms of accuracy, acceptability, and readability. The average score of human translation was 2.16, while the average score of Google translation was 2.67. Therefore, it can be concluded that there were some differences between human and Google translations in terms of accuracy, acceptability, and readability in which Google translation had higher score than human translation. In this case, the quality of human translation was reflected by the quality of the English Department students at the fifth semester at the year of 2017-2018.*

**Keyword:** *Translations, The Comparison of Quality, Human Translation, Google Translation*

### ABSTRAK

*Tujuan utama dari penelitian ini adalah untuk mengetahui perbandingan antara terjemahan manusia dan Google dalam hal akurasi, penerimaan, dan keterbacaan pada mahasiswa semester lima Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar. Peneliti menerapkan studi komparatif yang membandingkan kualitas Google dan terjemahan manusia berdasarkan kriteria penerimaan, keterbacaan, dan aspek akurasi yang diajukan oleh Nababan. Studi banding ini dilakukan di Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar. Subjek penelitian adalah 50 siswa pada semester kelima Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar pada 2017-2018. Instrumennya adalah teks dalam bahasa Indonesia. Temuan penelitian ini adalah skor yang berbeda yang menunjukkan kualitas yang berbeda antara terjemahan manusia dan Google dalam hal akurasi, penerimaan, dan keterbacaan. Skor rata-rata terjemahan manusia adalah 2,16, sedangkan skor rata-rata terjemahan Google adalah 2,67. Oleh karena itu, dapat disimpulkan bahwa ada beberapa perbedaan antara terjemahan manusia dan Google dalam hal akurasi, penerimaan, dan keterbacaan di mana terjemahan Google memiliki skor lebih tinggi daripada terjemahan manusia. Dalam hal ini, kualitas terjemahan manusia tercermin oleh kualitas mahasiswa Jurusan Bahasa Inggris pada semester kelima tahun 2017-2018.*

## A COMPARISON OF TRANSLATION READABILITY BETWEEN GOOGLE TRANSLATE AND HUMAN TRANSLATOR IN THE MEDICAL BOOK ENTITLED '*MEDICAL-SURGICAL NURSING*'

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### Abstract

This study aims to analyze the readability of translation outputs by Google Translate and human translator. This study was categorized as a descriptive qualitative research that the scale of readability level was used to analyze the data. The source text was the English text from the book '*Medical-Surgical Nursing*', while the target text was the translation outputs produced by Google Translate. The Indonesian version of this book entitled '*Keperawatan Medikal Bedah*' was used as the output of the target language which was produced by human translators. A questionnaire in the form of a Google Form was distributed to nine respondents to determine the readability level of each translation. The result showed that the percentage of readability level produced by Google were 52% highly readable, 29.6% readable, 16% somewhat difficult, and 2.4% very difficult. Meanwhile, the readability level of the human translation was 55.1% highly readable, 31.2% readable, 12.6% somewhat difficult, and 1.1% very difficult. The results indicated that there is a slight difference of 4% in the result of the readability level produced by Google Translate and human translators. The result of the translations prove that the result of Google's translation is now more natural, almost as natural as human translation, and makes it easier to understand. However, the results of the translation produced by Google Translate still require an editing process by human translators to produce a more contextual translation.

Keywords: google translate, human translation, readability, translation

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### INTRODUCTION

Translation is a process of translating text or concept in the source language into the target language. Translation relates to how the translator can understand an idea or concept in the source language and able to reproduce the concept with equivalent words or phrases in the target language. Moreover, a translation of a

text cannot be exactly the same in the target language, because of the characteristics or differences owned by every language as it is influenced by its different structure and cultural background (Darso, 2018).

Throughout the history of translation, translation does not only have a significant role in every aspect of society, especially in communication but also makes a huge impact on religion, politics, education, and other fields

**COMPARISON OF HUMAN TRANSLATION WITH GOOGLE  
TRANSLATION OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES IN PROCEDURES TEXT**

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**Abstract**

This study aims to analyze the similarity between human translation and machine translation to translate procedural text. This research uses Content Analysis approach (Content Analysis). The analysis was performed on English procedural text on a "VIXAL Lebih Wangi" cleanliness product translated into Indonesian by Nia Kurniawati (representing human translation). Meanwhile Google translation is used to represent machine translation. The study of the equations compared in this study is from the aspect of the phrase and the meaning of the whole sentence in the results of the two translations. The result of the discussion shows that the equation between human translation and machine translation in translating procedural text is low, i.e 29%. Machine translation still requires manpower to produce better translations.

**Keywords:** equality aspect, human translation, machine translation, text procedure

**Introduction**

Translation is a mental activity in which a meaning of given linguistic discourse is rendered from one language to another (Osman: 2017). There are many aspects should be considered in doing translation. One of them is finding the equivalency of word from the source language toward the target language. Therefore, as it is said by Thriven (2002) that "Translation is not simply a matter of seeking other words with similar

meaning but of finding appropriate ways of saying things in another language".

Recently, in doing translation humans are helped by a technology. Technology has a powerful impact on all area for society. It includes the whole aspect of human living (Pérez, Celia Rico, 2001). Technology is created and designed for the purpose of making it easy for people in all walks of life. Technological developments have penetrated the world of translation. The

**TRANSLATION ACCURACY OF TRANSLATION SHIFT AND  
METHOD FOUND IN SELECTED TED TALK SUBTITLE (ENGLISH  
INTO INDONESIAN)**



A Thesis

*Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Sarjana Humaniora in English and Literature Department of Adab and  
Humanities faculty of Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar*

by:

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2023

## ABSTRACT

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Faculty : Adab and Humanities  
Title : Translation Accuracy of Translation Shift and Method Found in Selected Ted Talk Subtitle (English Into Indonesian)  
Supervisor I : H. Muhammad Nur Akbar Rasyid, M.Pd., M.Ed., Ph.D.  
Supervisor II : Helmi Syukur, S.Pd.I., M.Pd.

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The purposes of this research were to figure out the Translation accuracy of translation shift, and method found in the subtitle of the Ted Talk video English into Indonesian under the title "How to Stop Screwing Yourself Over, by Mel Robbins". The researcher uses mixed method approaches to figure out the purpose of research. It is analyzed based on the Translation Shift by Hatim (2014), Method of Translation by Vinay (2013), and Nababan et al. (2012) theory for Translation Accuracy. Meanwhile, the data was collected through questionnaires distributed to the informants. The research finding showed that the translator applies five translation shifts, seven methods of translation. There are two kinds of data in this research: affective and objective data. The affective data are from key-informants in the form of scale. Objective data are from transcript of the subtitle of the Ted Talk video choosen randomly sampling in the form of words, phrases, clauses, sentences and text. The findings of this research shows that The dominant translation shift is unit shift 74, structure shift: 73, intra-system shift: 26, level shift: 18 and, class shift: 16. The dominant translation method is modulation method: 61, equivalence: 60, literal: 36, borrowing: 23, transposition: 10, calque: 1, adaptation: 1. Meanwhile, the average score for the accuracy of the translation is 2,6 out of 3. Which indicates that the translation is accurate.

**Keywords:** *Translation accuracy; subtitle; method; shift; translation quality*



**AN ANALYSIS OF ACCURACY LEVEL OF GOOGLE  
TRANSLATE IN ENGLISH - INDONESIAN  
TRANSLATION**

**A Thesis**

**Submitted as a Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for S1-degree**

**By**

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NPM. 1711040223**

**Study Program : English Education**

**Advisor : Satria Adi Pradana, M.Pd.**

**Co-Advisor : Agus Hidayat, M.Pd**



**ENGLISH EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM  
TARBIYAH AND TEACHER TRAINING FACULTY  
RADEN INTAN STATE ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY  
LAMPUNG  
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## ABSTRACT

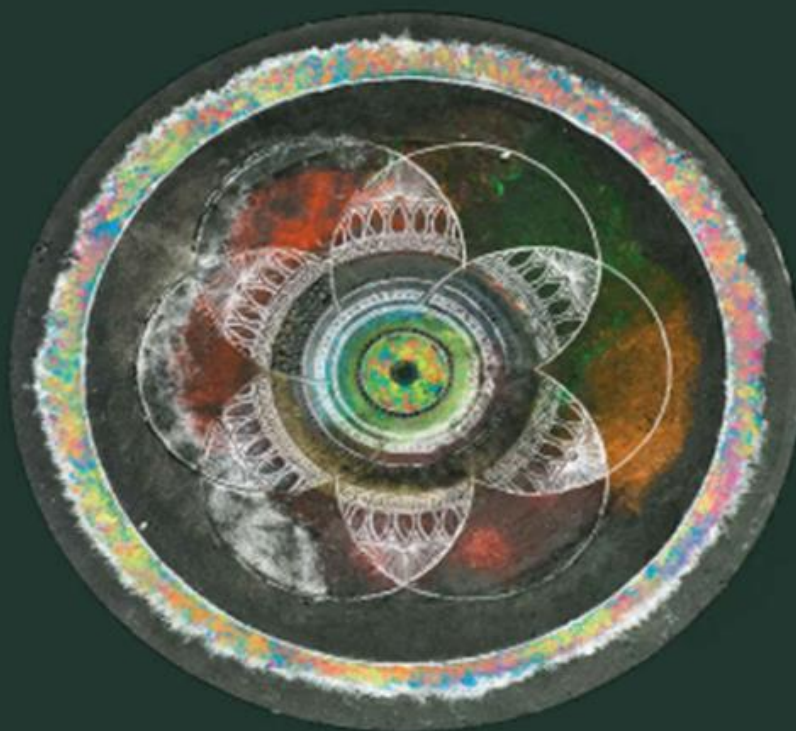
This study conducted to determine the level of accuracy of Google Translate in translating abstract text results from English to Indonesian. Google Translate was widely used by language learners and those who needed help with translation. Many international journals required authors to translate articles into English, mostly abstracts. Therefore they used google translate to be more effective in translating.

This research was descriptive qualitative research that investigated the level of accuracy of Google Translate in English-Indonesian translation. The main data source was the translated text from Google Translate. The sample text of this research was 5 abstract texts about English education. The instrument in this research was the accuracy assessment by Nababan. The validity in this research was analyzed as valid by a translation expert under Ridho Kholid, M.Pd

After analyzing the data, the results showed that There are 5 abstracts separated into 27 sentences. Google Translate's ability to translate accurately with 18 translations (66.67%), was less accurate with 9 translations , and there were no inaccurate categories. This means that because the results of the analysis showed that the accuracy of the google translate translation was in the accurate category, it became concluded that google translate was suitable to used as a translation tool for the student to understand the text as a whole so that it was became a solution in understanding text in a foreign language, such as English.

**Keywords: Accuracy level, Google translate, Translation**

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FIFTH EDITION

# RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative, Quantitative, and  
Mixed Methods Approaches





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## The Three Approaches to Research

In this book, three research approaches are advanced: (a) qualitative, (b) quantitative, and (c) mixed methods. Unquestionably, the three approaches are not as discrete as they first appear. Qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be viewed as rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites, or dichotomies. Instead, they represent different ends on a continuum (Creswell, 2015; Newman & Benz, 1998). A study *tends* to be more qualitative than quantitative or vice versa. **Mixed methods research** resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Often the distinction between **qualitative research** and **quantitative research** is framed in terms of using words (qualitative) rather than numbers (quantitative), or better yet, using closed-ended questions and responses (quantitative hypotheses) or open-ended questions and responses (qualitative interview questions). A more complete way to view the gradations of differences between them is in the basic philosophical assumptions researchers bring to the study, the types of research strategies used in the research (e.g., quantitative experiments or qualitative **case studies**), and the specific methods employed in conducting these strategies (e.g., collecting data quantitatively on instruments versus collecting qualitative data through observing a setting). Moreover, there is a historical evolution to both approaches—with the quantitative approaches dominating the forms of research in the social sciences from the late 19th century up until the mid-20th century. During the latter half of the 20th century, interest in qualitative research increased and along with it, the development of mixed methods research. With this background, it should prove helpful to view definitions of these three key terms as used in this book:

- **Qualitative research** is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final written report has a flexible structure. Those who engage in this form of inquiry support a way of looking at research that honors an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning, and the importance of reporting the complexity of a situation.

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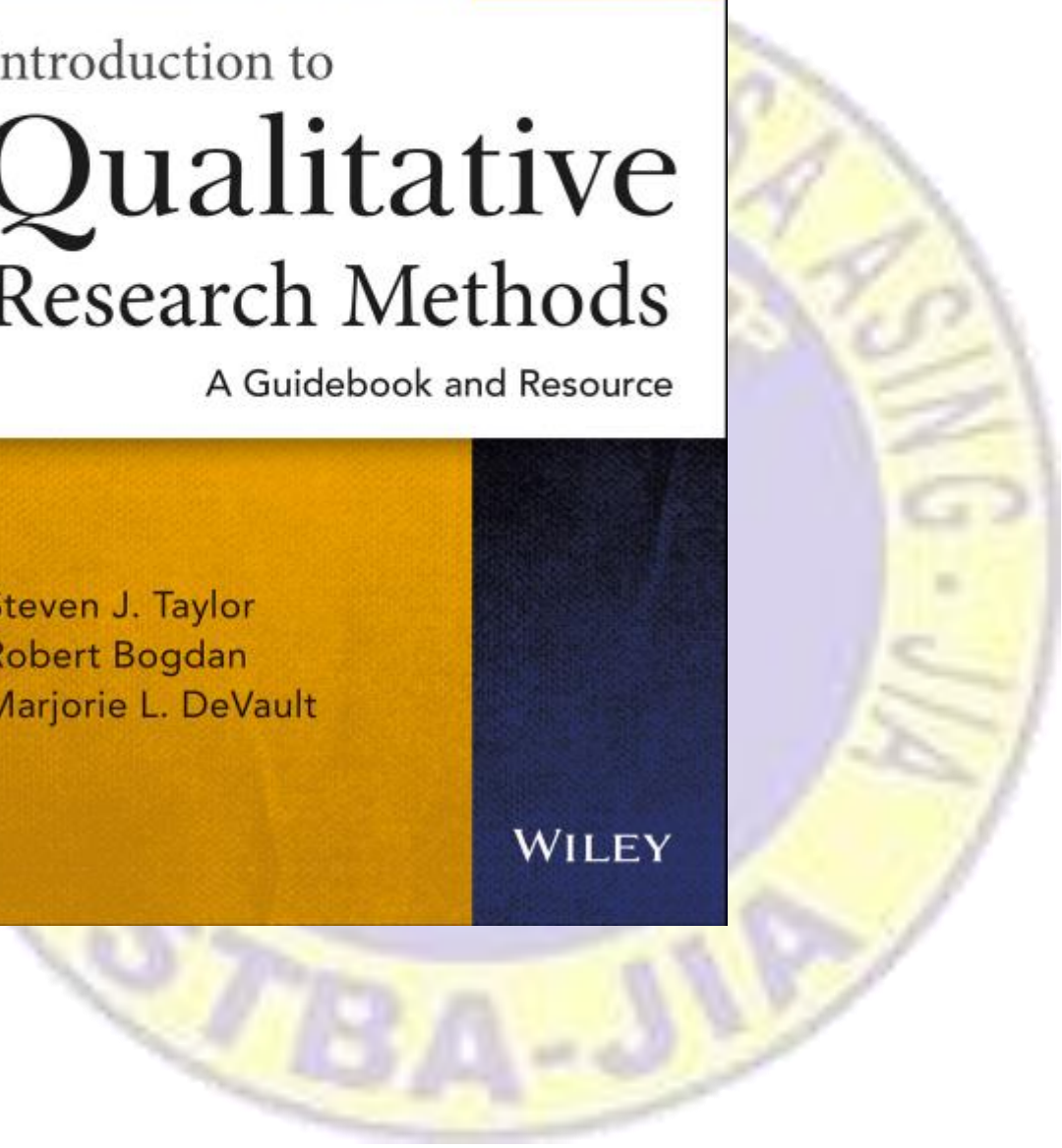
Introduction to

# Qualitative Research Methods

A Guidebook and Resource

Steven J. Taylor  
Robert Bogdan  
Marjorie L. DeVault

WILEY



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## CHAPTER 1

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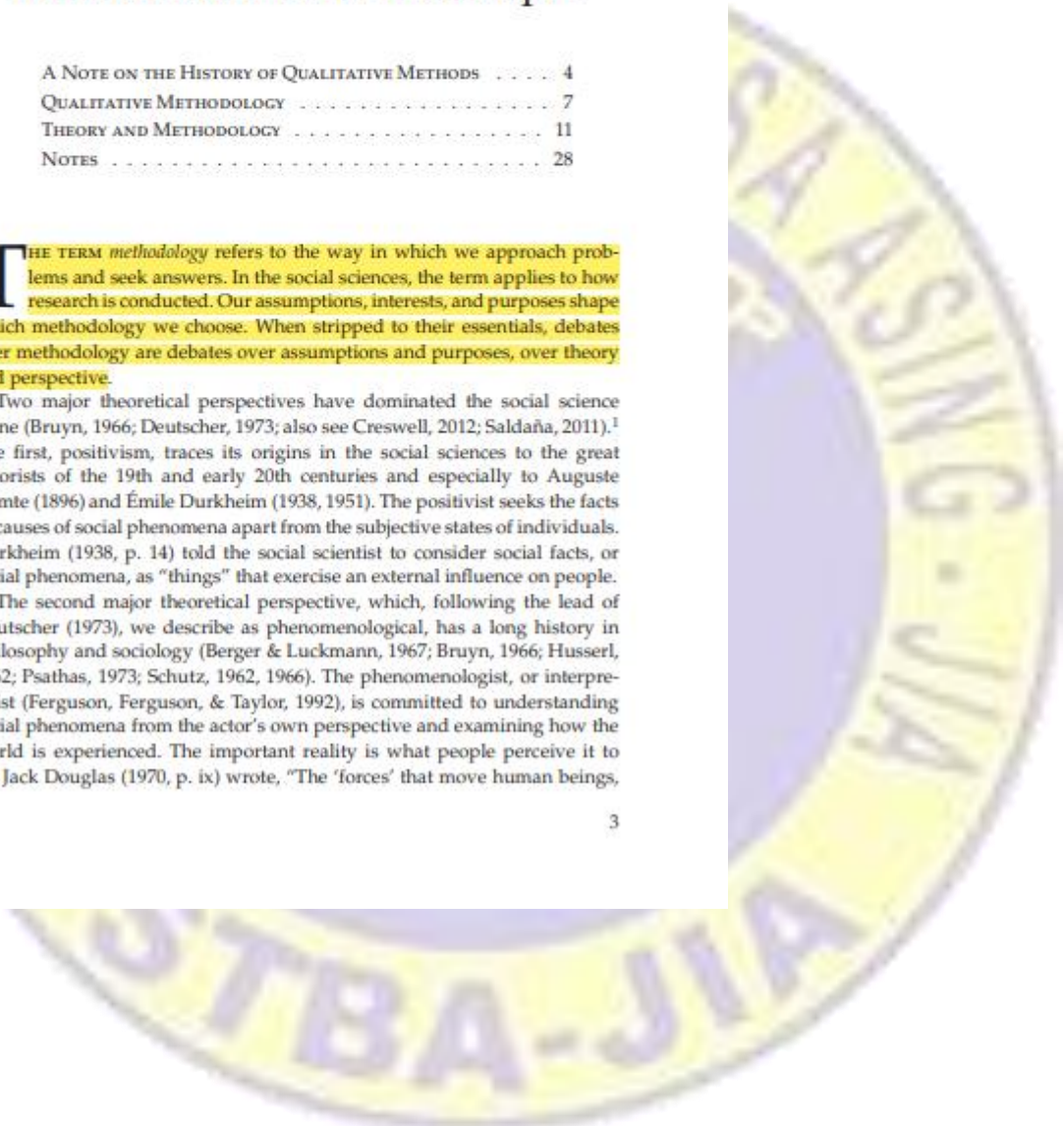
# Introduction: Go to the People

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**T**HE TERM *methodology* refers to the way in which we approach problems and seek answers. In the social sciences, the term applies to how research is conducted. Our assumptions, interests, and purposes shape which methodology we choose. When stripped to their essentials, debates over methodology are debates over assumptions and purposes, over theory and perspective.

Two major theoretical perspectives have dominated the social science scene (Bruyn, 1966; Deutscher, 1973; also see Creswell, 2012; Saldaña, 2011).<sup>1</sup> The first, positivism, traces its origins in the social sciences to the great theorists of the 19th and early 20th centuries and especially to Auguste Comte (1896) and Émile Durkheim (1938, 1951). The positivist seeks the facts or causes of social phenomena apart from the subjective states of individuals. Durkheim (1938, p. 14) told the social scientist to consider social facts, or social phenomena, as “things” that exercise an external influence on people.

The second major theoretical perspective, which, following the lead of Deutscher (1973), we describe as phenomenological, has a long history in philosophy and sociology (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Bruyn, 1966; Husserl, 1962; Psathas, 1973; Schutz, 1962, 1966). The phenomenologist, or interpretivist (Ferguson, Ferguson, & Taylor, 1992), is committed to understanding social phenomena from the actor’s own perspective and examining how the world is experienced. The important reality is what people perceive it to be. Jack Douglas (1970, p. ix) wrote, “The ‘forces’ that move human beings,





Paralleling the growing interest in qualitative research in sociology has been an increased acceptance of these methods in other disciplines and applied fields. Such diverse disciplines as geography (DeLyser, Herbert, Aitken, Crang, & McDowell, 2010; Hay, 2010), political science (McNabb, 2004), and psychology (Camic, Rhodes, & Yardley, 2003; Fischer, 2005; *Qualitative Research in Psychology*) have seen the publication of edited books, texts, and journals on qualitative research methods over the past decade and a half. The American Psychological Association started publishing the journal *Qualitative Psychology* in 2014. Qualitative methods have been used for program evaluation and policy research (Bogdan & Taylor, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; M. Q. Patton 1987, 2008, 2010, 2014; Rist 1994). Journals and texts on qualitative research can be found in such diverse applied areas of inquiry as health care and nursing (Latimer, 2003; Munhall, 2012; Streubert & Carpenter, 2010; *Qualitative Health Research*), mental health, counseling, and psychotherapy (Harper & Thompson, 2011; McLeod, 2011), education (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*; Lichtman, 2010; *Qualitative Research in Education*), music education (Conway, 2014), public health (Ulin, Robinson, & Tolley, 2005), business (Meyers, 2013), theology (Swinton & Mowat, 2006), disability studies (Ferguson et al., 1992), human development (Daly, 2007; Jessor, Colby, & Shweder, 1996), social work (Sherman & Reid, 1994; *Qualitative Social Work*), and special education (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

One does not have to be a sociologist or to think sociologically to practice qualitative research. Although we identify with a sociological tradition, qualitative approaches can be used in a broad range of disciplines and fields.

Just as significant as the increasing interest in qualitative research methods has been the proliferation of theoretical perspectives rooted in the phenomenological tradition underlying this form of inquiry. We consider the relationship between theory and methodology more fully later in this chapter.

## QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The phrase *qualitative methodology* refers in the broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data—people’s own written or spoken words and observable behavior. As Ray Rist (1977) pointed out, qualitative methodology, like quantitative methodology, is more than a set of data-gathering techniques. It is a way of approaching the empirical world. In this section we present our notion of qualitative research.

1. *Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning people attach to things in their lives.* Central to the phenomenological perspective and hence qualitative research is understanding people from their own frames of reference and





# Qualitative Research from Start to Finish

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Robert K. Yin

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## Five Features of Qualitative Research

Instead of trying to arrive at a simple definition of qualitative research, you might consider five features, listed next and then discussed individually.

### Chapter 1. What Is Qualitative Research?

9

Together, the five features distinguish qualitative research, including its specialized types, from other forms of social science research:

1. Studying the meaning of people's lives, in their real-world roles;
2. Representing the views and perspectives of the people (labeled throughout this book, as the **participants**<sup>2</sup>) in a study;
3. Explicitly attending to and accounting for real-world contextual conditions;
4. Contributing insights from existing or new concepts that may help to *explain* social behavior and thinking; and
5. Acknowledging the potential relevance of multiple sources of evidence rather than relying on a single source alone.

Starting at the top of the list, qualitative research most of all involves studying the meaning of people's lives, as experienced under real-world conditions. People will be performing in their everyday roles or will have expressed themselves through their own diaries, journals, writing, and photography—entirely independent of any research inquiry. Social interactions will occur with minimal intrusion by artificial research procedures, and people will be saying what they want to say, and will not, for example, be limited to responding to researchers' pre-established questionnaires. Likewise, people will not be inhibited by the confines of a laboratory or any laboratory-like setting. And, they will not be represented by such statistical averages as the average American family having 3.14 persons (as of the 2010 census)—which at once may represent accurately an entire population but in fact by definition only relates awkwardly to *any* single, real-life family.

Second, qualitative research differs because of its priority devoted to representing the views and perspectives of a study's participants. Capturing their

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## Chapter 14

# Collection of Data

Research tools are administered on the sample subjects for collecting evidences or data. Most educational research will lead to the gathering of data by means of some standardized test or self-constructed research tools. It should provide objective data for interpretation of results achieved in the study. The data may be obtained by administering questionnaires, testing, personal observations, interviews and many other techniques of collecting quantitative and qualitative evidence.

The researcher must know how much and what kind of data collection will take place and when. He must also be sure that the types of data obtainable from the selected instruments will be usable in whatever statistical model he will latter use to bring out the significance of the study. The data collection is the accumulation of specific evidence that will enable the researcher to properly analyse the results of all activities by his research design and procedures. The main purpose of data collection is to verify the research hypotheses.

### NEED FOR DATA COLLECTION

The data are needed in a research work to serve the following purposes:

1. Collection of data is very essential in any educational research to provide a solid foundation for it.
2. It is something like the raw material that is used in the production of data. Quality of data determines the quality of research.
3. It provides a definite direction and definite answer to a research inquiry. Whatever inquiry has to give a definite answer to an investigation. Data are very essential for a scientific research.
4. The data are needed to substantiate the various arguments in research findings.
5. The main purpose of data collection is to verify the hypotheses.
6. Statistical data are used in two basic problems of any investigation:
  - (a) Estimation of population parameters, which helps in drawing generalization.
  - (b) The hypotheses of any investigation are tested by data collection procedure.
7. The qualitative data are used to find out the facts and quantitative data are employed to formulate new theory or principles.
8. Data are also employed to ascertain the effectiveness of new device for its practical utility.
9. Data are necessary to provide the solution of the problem.

### MEANING OF DATA

Data means observations or evidences. The scientific educational researches require the data by means

FOURTH EDITION

# EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

PLANNING, CONDUCTING AND EVALUATING  
QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH



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required to submit written information about the project to proceed. Such information might include:

- ◆ Why their site was chosen for study
- ◆ What will be accomplished at the site during the research study (i.e., time and resources required by participants and yourself)
- ◆ How much time you will spend at the site
- ◆ What potential there is for your presence to be disruptive
- ◆ How you will use and report the results
- ◆ What the individuals at the site will gain from the study (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998)

Let's look at an example of using a gatekeeper in a qualitative study:

While conducting a qualitative study exploring the behavior of informal student cliques that may display violent behavior, a researcher talks to many high school personnel. Ultimately, the social studies coordinator emerges as a good gatekeeper. She suggests the researcher use the school cafeteria as an important site to see school cliques in action. She also points out specific student leaders of cliques (e.g., the punk group) who might help the researcher understand student behavior.

## WHAT TYPES OF QUALITATIVE DATA WILL YOU COLLECT?

Another aspect of qualitative data collection is to identify the types of data that will address your research questions. Thus, it is important to become familiar with your questions and topics, and to review them prior to deciding upon the types of qualitative data that you will collect. In qualitative research you pose general, broad questions to participants and allow them to share their views relatively unconstrained by your perspective. In addition, you collect multiple types of information, and you may add new forms of data during the study to answer your questions. Further, you engage in extensive data collection, spending a great deal of time at the site where people work, play, or engage in the phenomenon you wish to study. At the site, you will gather detailed information to establish the complexity of the central phenomenon.

We can see the varied nature of qualitative forms of data when they are placed into the following categories:

- ◆ Observations
- ◆ Interviews and questionnaires
- ◆ Documents
- ◆ Audiovisual materials

Specific examples of types of data in these four categories are shown in Figure 7.3. Variations on data collection in all four areas are emerging continuously. Most recently, videotapes, student classroom portfolios, and the use of e-mails are attracting increasing attention as forms of data. Table 7.1 shows each category of data collection listed, the type of data it yields, and a definition for that type of data. Now let's take a closer look at each of the four categories and their strengths and weaknesses.

### Observations

When educators think about qualitative research, they often have in mind the process of collecting observational data in a specific school setting. Unquestionably, observations represent a frequently used form of data collection, with the researcher able to assume different roles in the process (Spradley, 1980).

## Documents

A valuable source of information in qualitative research can be documents. Documents consist of public and private records that qualitative researchers obtain about a site or participants in a study, and they can include newspapers, minutes of meetings, personal journals, and letters. These sources provide valuable information in helping researchers understand central phenomena in qualitative studies. They represent public and private documents. Examples of public documents are minutes from meetings, official memos, records in the public domain, and archival material in libraries. Private documents consist of personal journals and diaries, letters, personal notes, and jottings individuals write to themselves. Materials such as e-mail comments and Web site data illustrate both public and private documents, and they represent a growing data source for qualitative researchers.

Documents represent a good source for text (word) data for a qualitative study. They provide the advantage of being in the language and words of the participants, who have usually given thoughtful attention to them. They are also ready for analysis without the necessary transcription that is required with observational or interview data.

On the negative side, documents are sometimes difficult to locate and obtain. Information may not be available to the public. Information may be located in distant archives, requiring the researcher to travel, which takes time and can be expensive. Further, the documents may be incomplete, inauthentic, or inaccurate. For example, not all minutes from school board meetings are accurate, because board members may not review them for accuracy. In personal documents such as diaries or letters, the handwriting may be hard to read, making it difficult to decipher the information.

### Collecting Documents

With so much variation in the types of documents, there are many procedures for collecting them. Here are several useful guidelines for collecting documents in qualitative research:

1. Identify the types of documents that can provide useful information to answer your qualitative research questions.
2. Consider both public (e.g., school board minutes) and private documents (e.g., personal diaries) as sources of information for your research.
3. Once the documents are located, seek permission to use them from the appropriate individuals in charge of the materials.
4. If you ask participants to keep a journal, provide specific instructions about the procedure. These guidelines might include what topics and format to use, the length of journal entries, and the importance of writing their thoughts legibly.
5. Once you have permission to use documents, examine them for accuracy, completeness, and usefulness in answering the research questions in your study.
6. Record information from the documents. This process can take several forms, including taking notes about the documents or, if possible, optically scanning them so a text (or word) file is created for each document. You can easily scan newspaper stories (e.g., on speeches by presidential candidates) to form a qualitative text database.

Collecting personal documents can provide a researcher with a rich source of information. For example, consider a study that used journals prepared by several women:

An important source for learning about women in superintendent positions is for them to keep a personal journal or diary of their experiences. A researcher asked three women superintendents to keep a diary for 6 months and record their reactions to being a woman in their capacity of conducting official meetings comprised primarily of men.

These journals were useful for learning about the working lives of women in educational settings.

### Audiovisual Materials

The final type of qualitative data to collect is visual images. **Audiovisual materials** consist of images or sounds that researchers collect to help them understand the central phenomenon under study. Used with increasing frequency in qualitative research, images or visual materials such as photographs, videotapes, digital images, paintings and pictures, and unobtrusive measures (e.g., evidence deduced from a setting, such as physical traces of images such as footsteps in the snow; see Webb's [1966] discussion about unobtrusive measures) are all sources of information for qualitative inquiry. One approach in using photography is the technique of photo elicitation. In this approach, participants are shown pictures (their own or those taken by the researcher) and asked to discuss the contents. These pictures might be personal photographs or albums of historical photographs (see Ziller, 1990).

The advantage of using visual materials is that people easily relate to images because they are so pervasive in our society. Images provide an opportunity for the participants to share directly their perceptions of reality. Images such as videotapes and films, for example, provide extensive data about real life as people visualize it. A potential disadvantage of using images is that they are difficult to analyze because of the rich information (e.g., how do you make sense of all of the aspects apparent in 50 drawings by preservice teachers of what it is like to be a science teacher?). Also, you as a researcher may influence the data collected. In selecting the photo album to examine or requesting that a certain type of drawing be sketched, you may impose your meaning of the phenomenon on participants, rather than obtain the participants' views. When videotaping, you face the issues of what to tape, where to place the camera, and the need to be sensitive with camera-shy individuals.

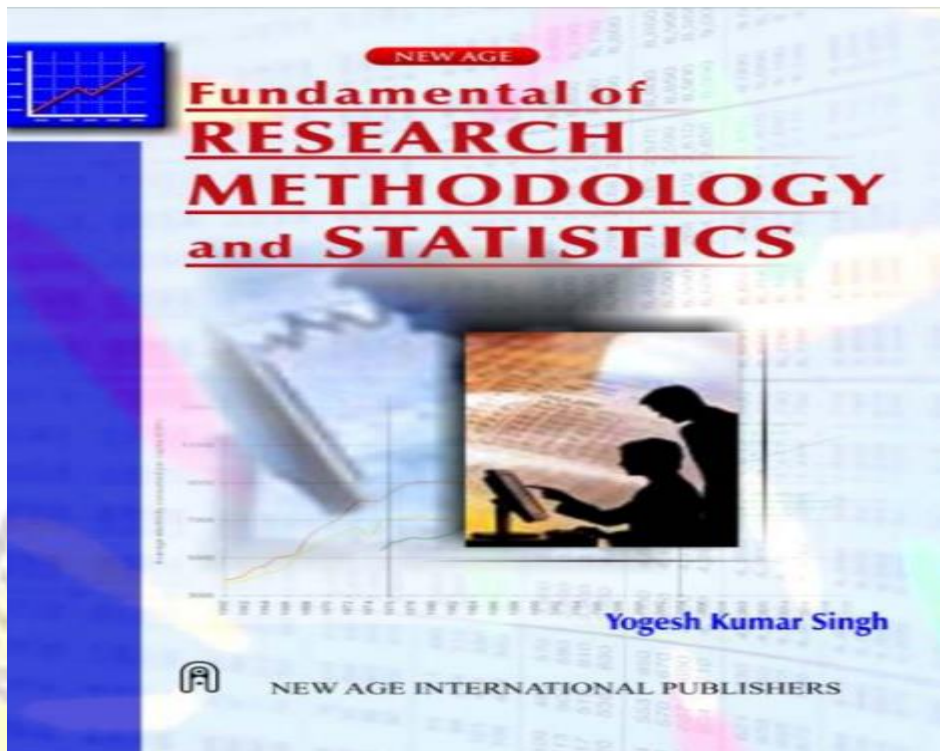
### Collecting Audiovisual Materials

Despite these potential problems, visual material is becoming more popular in qualitative research, especially with recent advances in technology. The steps involved in collecting visual material are similar to the steps involved in collecting documents:

1. Determine what visual material can provide information to answer research questions and how that material might augment existing forms of data, such as interviews and observations.
2. Identify the visual material available and obtain permission to use it. This permission might require asking all students in a classroom, for example, to sign informed consent forms and to have their parents sign them also.
3. Check the accuracy and authenticity of the visual material if you do not record it yourself. One way to check for accuracy is to contact and interview the photographer or the individuals represented in the pictures.
4. Collect the data and organize it. You can optically scan the data for easy storage and retrieval.

To illustrate the use of visual material, look at an example in which the researcher distributed cameras to obtain photographs:

A researcher gives Polaroid cameras to 40 male and 40 female fourth graders in a science unit to record their meaning of the environment. The participants are asked to take pictures of images that represent attempts to preserve the environment in



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There are two approaches which are employed in analysis of data: Parametric analysis of data and non-parametric analysis of data. The details of these approaches have been discussed in this chapter.

### SELECTING THE LEVEL OF DATA

If we are working with variables which do have a quantitative aspect we can use the data collecting process of measurement. In this process we attempt to achieve some quantitative estimate of the variable or, more realistically of the amount of the variable which each of our research subject has. We can aspire to four different levels of measurement – Nominal, Ordinal, Interval and Ratio—and these are listed from the weakest level (nominal) to the strongest level (ratio).

Here is seldom any question In labelling nominal data for nonquantitative data are typically obvious to researcher and reader alike. However, for quantitative data, the distinction between ordinal and interval or ratio data is a critical one and moreover, one which different researchers see differently. Some research specialists or guides advise as a general principle in planning data analysis that the researcher considers the data ordinal, unless he can specifically identify a rationale other than the assignment of consecutive digits to consider them interval data. This rationale may be purely intellectual and based on the processes involved in selecting the various points on a scale, or the rationale may be empirical and based on the data collected during pilot work from which the final instrument was derived. But there should be some specific set of reasons or data which can be cited when the researcher departs from treating his numerical data as ordinal data.

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis of data means studying the tabulated material in order to determine inherent facts or meanings. It involves breaking down existing complex factors into simpler parts and putting the parts together in new arrangements for the purpose of interpretation.

A plan of analysis can and should be prepared in advance before the actual collection of material. A preliminary analysis on the skeleton plan should as the investigation proceeds, develop into a complete final analysis enlarged and reworked as and when necessary. This process requires an alert, flexible and open mind. Caution is necessary at every step. In case where a plan of analysis has not been made beforehand. Good. Barr and Scates suggest four helpful modes to get started on analysing the gathered data:

- (i) To think in terms of significant tables that the data permit.
- (ii) To examine carefully the statement of the problem and the earlier analysis and to study the original records of the data.
- (iii) To get away from the data and to think about the problem in layman's terms.
- (iv) To attack the data by making various simple statistical calculations.

In the general process of analysis of research data, statistical method has contributed a great deal. Simple statistical calculation finds a place in almost any research study dealing with large or even small groups of individuals, while complex statistical computations form the basis of many types of research. It may not be out of place, therefore to enumerate some statistical methods of analysis used in educational research.



# Qualitative Research from Start to Finish

SECOND EDITION

Robert K. Yin

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## CHAPTER 8

# Analyzing Qualitative Data, I

## Compiling, Disassembling, and Reassembling

The analysis of qualitative data usually moves through five phases, the first three of which are covered in the present chapter. The first analytic phase, compiling data into a formal database, calls for the careful and methodic organizing of the original data. The second phase, disassembling the data in the database, can involve a formal coding procedure but does not need to. The third phase, reassembling, is less mechanical and benefits from a researcher's insightfulness in seeing emerging patterns. Discussed are various ways of creating data arrays that can help to reveal such patterns in this third phase.

The chapter offers various ideas, not only for working on these three phases but for proceeding from one phase to another without getting stalled. Also discussed are the pros and cons of using computer software to assist in the analysis process. One caution is that, whether or not researchers decide to use such software, all analytic decisions must be made by the researcher. Another caution is the added attention needed to follow the software's procedures and terminology. Such attention may detract from the desired analytic thinking, energy, and decisions needed to carry out a strong analysis.

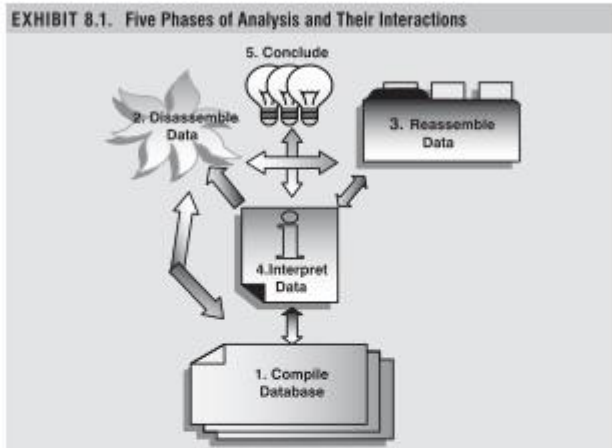
OK, so now comes that magical moment. Somehow, you are going to amass and sort all your qualitative data in some efficient manner. You are going to follow some instructional cookbook that makes your procedure methodic. And this analytic process will lead directly to your ability to draw the needed findings for your study and to write them up.

The preceding scenario can produce two opposing reactions. First, some people wish that the scenario was true. They even may believe that, by using computer software specially designed to analyze qualitative data, they will find the needed sanctuary. Second, other people know that the scenario is not true. However, they revel at the opportunity presented by qualitative research and the freedom *not* to be encumbered by some fixed methodology.

Whichever view you embrace, and however you end up analyzing your data, the most important part of the scenario is the part about methodic-ness (recall the discussion in Chapter 1, Section C). During analysis, the methodic-ness comes in part by exercising three precautions:



the entire exhibit suggests how analysis is likely to occur in a nonlinear fashion. The following preview quickly defines each phase, after which the remainder of Chapter 8 as well as the entirety of Chapter 9 discuss how the phases work.



Your formal analysis begins by **Compiling** and sorting the field notes amassed from your fieldwork and other data collection. Informal analysis should have started during data collection, when you were assessing the adequacy of your data (see Chapter 6, Section G). At that stage, you would have refined your notes nightly, as previously described in Chapter 7 (Section C), and you might have separately amassed notes about the data in archival sources. However, such refining would not necessarily have led to putting your notes into any permanent order. The first phase—**Compiling**—therefore means formally arranging all the notes in some useful order. The completed compilation might be considered a database.

The second phase calls for breaking down the compiled data into smaller fragments or pieces, which may be considered a **Disassembling** procedure. The procedure may (but does not have to) be accompanied by your assigning new labels, or “codes,” to the fragments or pieces. The disassembling procedure may be repeated many times as part of a trial-and-error process of testing and refining labels, accounting for the two-way arrow between these first two phases.

The second phase is followed by using substantive themes, based on combinations of disassembled items, to reorganize the fragments or pieces into different groupings and sequences than might have been in the original notes. This third phase may be considered a **Reassembling** procedure. The rearrangements and recombinations may be facilitated by depicting the data graphically or by arraying them in lists and other tabular forms. Again, the two-way arrow in Exhibit 8.1 suggests how the reassembling and disassembling phases may be repeated two or more times in alternating fashion.

The fourth phase involves using the reassembled material to create a new narrative, with accompanying tables and graphics where relevant, that will become the key analytic portion of your draft manuscript. This phase may be considered one of *Interpreting* the reassembled data. The initial interpretations also may lead to the desire to recompile the database in some fresh way, or to disassemble or reassemble the data differently, all being sequences represented by the respective one-way and two-way arrows.

The fifth and final phase may be considered one of *Concluding*. It calls for drawing the conclusions from your entire study. Such conclusions should be related to the interpretation in the fourth phase and through it to all the other phases of the cycle.

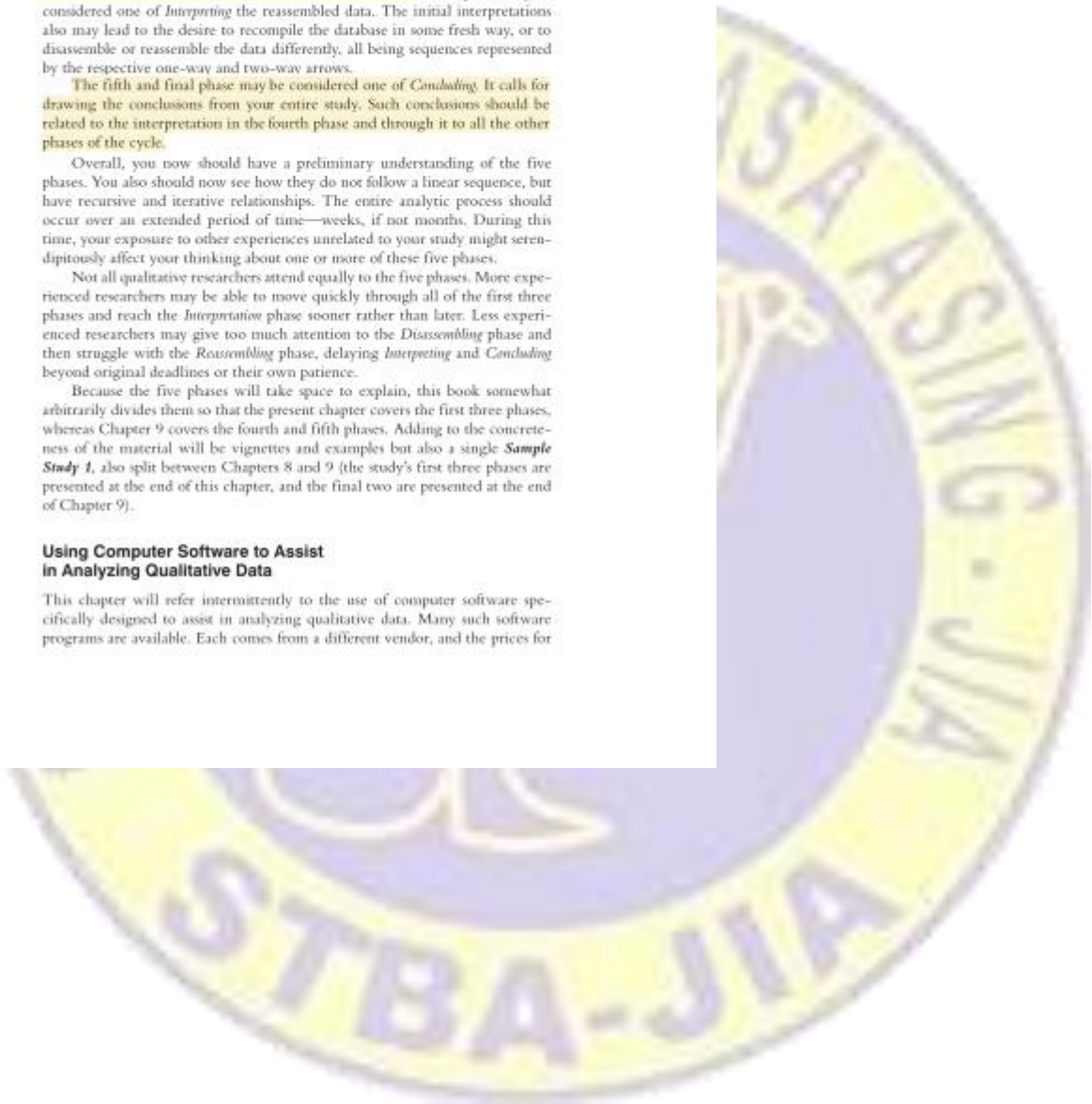
Overall, you now should have a preliminary understanding of the five phases. You also should now see how they do not follow a linear sequence, but have recursive and iterative relationships. The entire analytic process should occur over an extended period of time—weeks, if not months. During this time, your exposure to other experiences unrelated to your study might serendipitously affect your thinking about one or more of these five phases.

Not all qualitative researchers attend equally to the five phases. More experienced researchers may be able to move quickly through all of the first three phases and reach the *Interpretation* phase sooner rather than later. Less experienced researchers may give too much attention to the *Disassembling* phase and then struggle with the *Reassembling* phase, delaying *Interpreting* and *Concluding* beyond original deadlines or their own patience.

Because the five phases will take space to explain, this book somewhat arbitrarily divides them so that the present chapter covers the first three phases, whereas Chapter 9 covers the fourth and fifth phases. Adding to the concreteness of the material will be vignettes and examples but also a single **Sample Study 1**, also split between Chapters 8 and 9 (the study's first three phases are presented at the end of this chapter, and the final two are presented at the end of Chapter 9).

#### Using Computer Software to Assist in Analyzing Qualitative Data

This chapter will refer intermittently to the use of computer software specifically designed to assist in analyzing qualitative data. Many such software programs are available. Each comes from a different vendor, and the prices for



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The collection of unobtrusive measures alone will not likely produce sufficient evidence to support a qualitative study fully. However, you can use the measures to complement the collection of interview or other data within the same qualitative study. Because these other data are susceptible to a researcher's influence, having some data that are based on a nonreactive source can greatly strengthen your study. Whether one or more unobtrusive measures might be relevant to your study therefore deserves your careful consideration.

### Deriving Meaning from Observations, and Triangulating Observational Evidence with Other Sources

Even if you are dealing with unobtrusive measures, what makes observing difficult is that you will not simply want to record observations as if you were a mechanical device. Your qualitative study is likely to be concerned with broader concepts regarding people's activities, such as their routines, rituals, and interactions with other people. You need to make and record your observations so that you will have the opportunity, if not at the time of your observations at least in your later analytic procedures, to define these more meaningful concepts.

The meanings you derive from your observations will be inferences of a sort—for example, whether a particular interaction between two people represented the disapproval of one person by the other, or whether the office trappings of an official reflected a person of high status in an organization. You can strengthen these inferences by collecting other data, such as interview data, to corroborate or challenge your inferences. Doing so would be an example of “triangulating” that is an essential part of qualitative data collection and that is discussed more fully later in this chapter.

## E. Collecting and Examining

### PREVIEW—What you should learn from this section:

1. The variety of objects that can be collected and examined.
2. Two ways of keeping the collection of objects within reasonable limits regarding the time and effort you spend in your fieldwork.

“Collecting” refers to compiling or accumulating objects (documents, artifacts, archival records, videos, or social media information) related to your study topic. Most of the collecting will occur while you are in the field, but you also can collect objects from other sources, including library archives, electronic sources, and websites (see “Intertwining Historical and Field Evidence,” Vignette 6.9). Sometimes you will not be able to take an object away with you. In these situations, you may want to spend time examining it. This subsection's reference to “collecting” is intended to include such examining.

Any of the collected (or examined) objects can produce a variety of verbal, numeric, graphic, and pictorial data. The data can be about the physical and social

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# Research Methodology

## Methods and Techniques

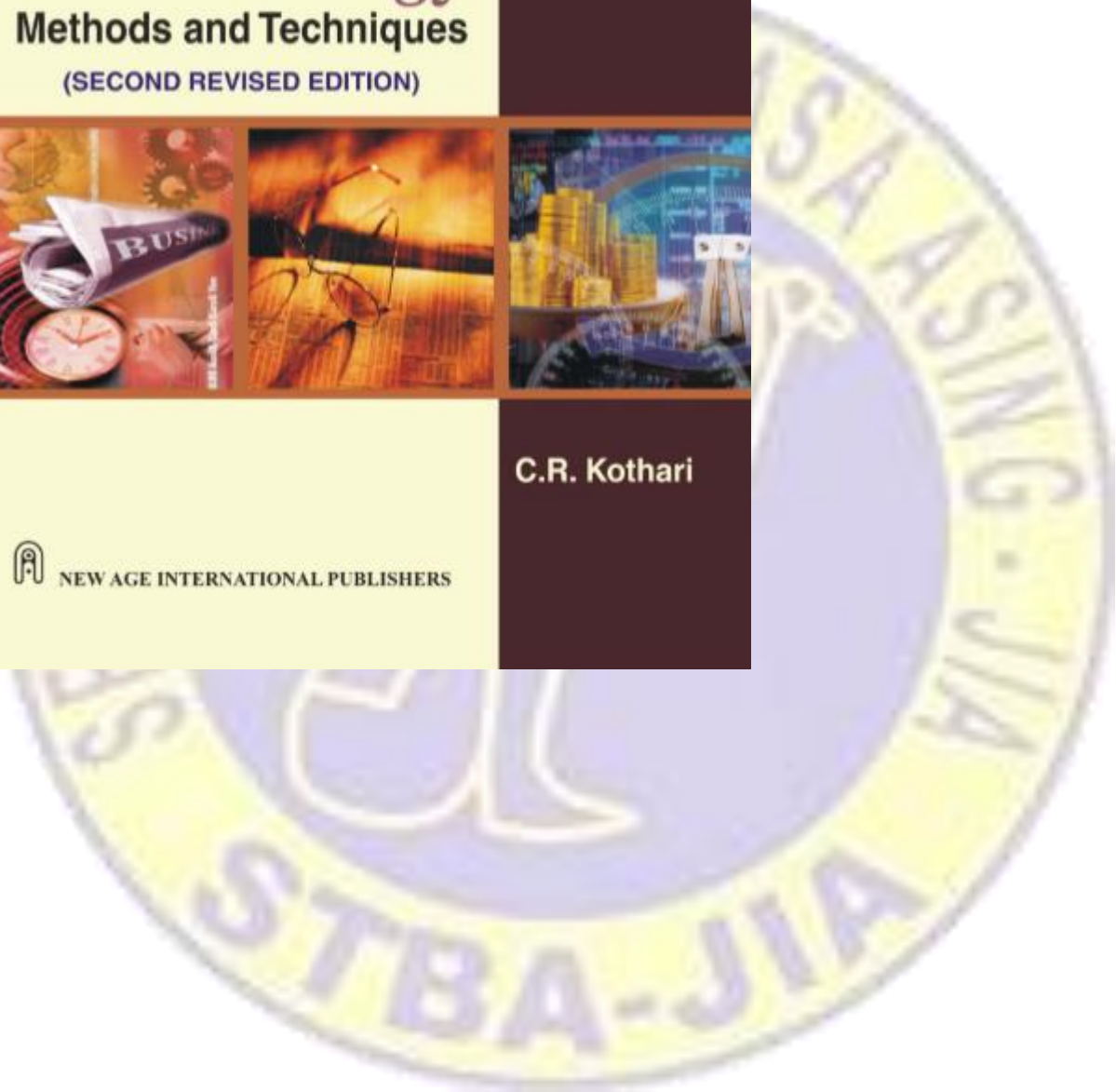
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C.R. Kothari



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## Methods of Data Collection

The task of data collection begins after a research problem has been defined and research design plan chalked out. While deciding about the method of data collection to be used for the study, the researcher should keep in mind two types of data viz., primary and secondary. The primary data are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character. The secondary data, on the other hand, are those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process. The researcher would have to decide which sort of data he would be using (thus collecting) for his study and accordingly he will have to select one or the other method of data collection. The methods of collecting primary and secondary data differ since primary data are to be originally collected, while in case of secondary data the nature of data collection work is merely that of compilation. We describe the different methods of data collection, with the pros and cons of each method.

### COLLECTION OF PRIMARY DATA

We collect primary data during the course of doing experiments in an experimental research but in case we do research of the descriptive type and perform surveys, whether sample surveys or census surveys, then we can obtain primary data either through observation or through direct communication with respondents in one form or another or through personal interviews.\* This, in other words, means

\*An experiment refers to an investigation in which a factor or variable under test is isolated and its effect(s) measured. In an experiment the investigator measures the effects of an experiment which he conducts intentionally. Survey refers to the method of securing information concerning a phenomena under study from all or a selected number of respondents of the concerned universe. In a survey, the investigator examines those phenomena which exist in the universe independent of his action. The difference between an experiment and a survey can be depicted as under:



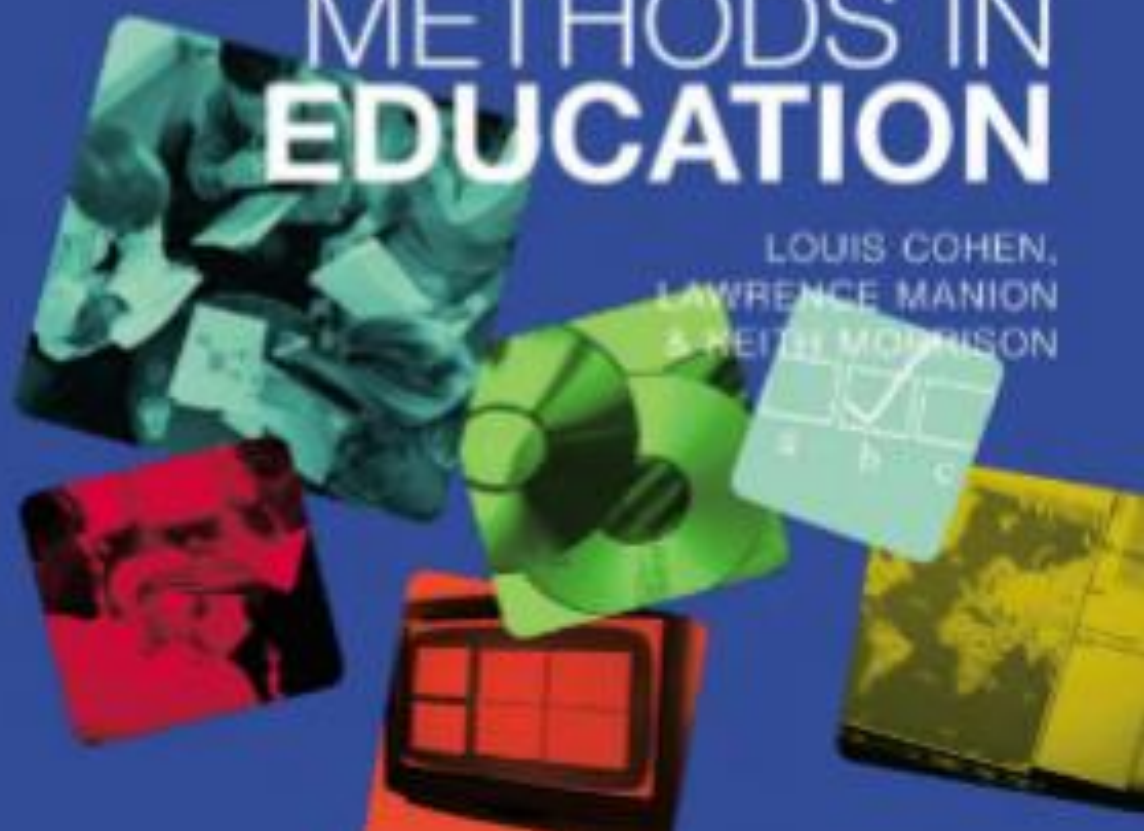


✧ *SIXTH EDITION* ✧

RESEARCH METHODS IN  
EDUCATION

# RESEARCH METHODS IN EDUCATION

LOUIS COHEN,  
LAWRENCE MANION  
& KEITH MORRISON



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involvement and in-depth responses of individuals secure a sufficient level of validity and reliability. This claim is contested by Hammersley (1992: 144) and Silverman (1993: 153), who argue that these are insufficient grounds for validity and reliability, and that the individuals concerned have no privileged position on interpretation. (Of course, neither are actors 'cultural dopes' who need a sociologist or researcher to tell them what is 'really' happening!) Silverman (1993) argues that, while immediacy and authenticity make for interesting journalism, ethnography must have more rigorous notions of validity and reliability. This involves moving beyond selecting data simply to fit a preconceived or ideal conception of the phenomenon or because they are spectacularly interesting (Fielding and Fielding 1986). Data selected must be representative of the sample, the whole data set, the field, i.e. they must address content, construct and concurrent validity.

Hammersley (1992: 50–1) suggests that validity in qualitative research replaces certainty with confidence in our results, and that, as reality is independent of the claims made for it by researchers, our accounts will be only representations of that reality rather than reproductions of it.

Maxwell (1992) argues for five kinds of validity in qualitative methods that explore his notion of 'understanding':

- *Descriptive validity* (the factual accuracy of the account, that it is not made up, selective or distorted): in this respect validity subsumes reliability; it is akin to Blumenfeld-Jones's (1995) notion of 'truth' in research – what actually happened (objectively factual).
- *Interpretive validity* (the ability of the research to catch the meaning, interpretations, terms, intentions that situations and events, i.e. data, have for the participants/subjects themselves, in their terms): it is akin to Blumenfeld-Jones's (1995) notion of 'fidelity' – what it means to the researched person or group (subjectively meaningful); interpretive validity has no clear counterpart in experimental/positivist methodologies.

- *Theoretical validity* (the theoretical constructions that the researcher brings to the research, including those of the researched): theory here is regarded as explanation. Theoretical validity is the extent to which the research explains phenomena; in this respect it is akin to construct validity (discussed below); in theoretical validity the constructs are those of all the participants.
- *Generalizability* (the view that the theory generated may be useful in understanding other similar situations): generalizing here refers to generalizing within specific groups or communities, situations or circumstances validly and, beyond, to specific outsider communities, situations or circumstances (external validity); internal validity has greater significance here than external validity.
- *Evaluative validity* (the application of an evaluative, judgemental of that which is being researched, rather than a descriptive, explanatory or interpretive framework). Clearly this resonates with critical-theoretical perspectives, in that the researcher's own evaluative agenda might intrude.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods can address internal and external validity.

#### Internal validity

Internal validity seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data. In some degree this concerns accuracy, which can be applied to quantitative and qualitative research. The findings must describe accurately the phenomena being researched.

In ethnographic research internal validity can be addressed in several ways (LeCompte and Preissle 1993: 338):

- using low-inference descriptors
- using multiple researchers
- using participant researchers
- using peer examination of data

# Expanding Approaches for Research: Understanding and Using Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research

By Norman A. Stahl and James R. King

Qualitative inquiry has recently experienced a burgeoning in the field of educational research. Qualitative research is uniquely positioned to provide researchers with process-based, narrated, storied, data that is more closely related to the human experience. One can learn so much from another's experience, and from a good story. Yet, the degree of trust one has in the person telling the tale has much to do with the degree of trust attributed to the telling. It is the same with studies conducted from a qualitative research approach. Indeed, building trust is imperative. Fortunately, there have been several attempts by qualitative methodologists to specify how trust in qualitative findings might be conveyed and enhanced for consumers. But be advised beforehand, even the construction of trustworthiness is far from an exact procedure. This column presents recommendations from several research writers for developing and relying on trust for another's research findings, with particular focus on the academic success fields of developmental education and learning assistance. Lincoln and Guba's (1985) seminal overview and organizational scheme provides the main focus, and others' work on trustworthiness is synthesized and then integrated into the mix.

## Why Worry About Trustworthiness?

Reading reports of qualitative research can be a highly variable experience. The methodologies that organize qualitative findings and the rhetorical structures that guide writing are many. Some researchers make lists; others make maps. Some writers of qualitative research use a narrative approach and tell a "good story." Others provide what has been described by Clifford Geertz (1973) as "thick description." With this term, he intends that readers would be treated to texts so rich in details that the event or the object of description is palpable. Given such variety in method, and with multiple genre that do not adhere to a single organizational structure, readers must often stake their own claims about the writers' thinking. These discourse transactions are always operating in any written communication. But readers who review a research report written about a quantitative study, such as a study of a Supplemental Instruction pod for a college algebra course, can rely on a standard structure. Readers usually know what to expect in a research report, at least in terms of organization. So where should learning assistance professionals and developmental educators as consumers of qualitative research hang their hats? Trustworthiness of the research is one of those shared realities, albeit a subjective one, wherein readers and writers might find commonality in their constructive processes.

Another characteristic of qualitative inquiry that may interfere with common interpretations is that, unlike quantitative studies, qualitative research does not seek replicability. As an example, with an investigation of a basic writing corequisite class, the events and participants are understood to create unique circumstances that the qualitative researcher documents, interprets, and writes

up. On a different day, with a different researcher, in a different place, with a different writing class, consumers can and should expect different findings. Even when a given set of data is collected and shared, different writers can generate unique outcomes. This is because, for most qualitative researchers, reality is constructed. Therefore, the quantitative concept of validity is simply not a goal of qualitative research. It can't be. Rather, qualitative researchers strive for the less explicit goal of trustworthiness, which means that when readers interpret the written work, they will have a sense of confidence in what the researcher has reported. Still, even with that confidence, readers would not expect to regenerate the exact findings in their own applications of the research.

Certain research procedures in which researchers engage create trustworthiness within their research activity and in their reports. Lincoln and Guba (1985) rely on four general criteria in their approach to trustworthiness. These are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. We consider each of these factors and add perspectives from others who have written on trustworthiness in qualitative research.

*"Thick description"...intends that readers would be treated to texts so rich in details that the event or the object of description is palpable.*

## Credibility and Trustworthiness

Credibility asks the "How congruent are the findings with reality?" As mentioned previously, this is a highly subjective question, one that relies on individual judgments. Asking about findings' congruence in qualitative research is analogous with questions about internal validity in quantitative research. One is seeking to understand how the reported findings "hang together" in that the ideas should share some relationship with each other. But unlike quantitative research, there is no expectation that all reactions to coherence credibility would result in the same answer. Credibility is a construction on the part of the reporter(s) and the subsequent reader(s).

One method of promoting credibility is through the various processes of triangulation. Roughly stated, triangulating means using several sources of information or procedure from the field to repeatedly establish identifiable patterns. Recognizing similar outcomes repeatedly through various data sources is a different phenomenon than replicability in an a priori empirical study. Multiple forms of triangulation exist. These include *Methodological triangulation*, the use of more than one method of collecting or analyzing data (i.e., in a study of reading demands in a gatekeeper course drawing upon a student survey, focus groups, and class observations); (a) *data triangulation*, the use of more than a single type of data to establish findings (i.e., data from transcript audits, test scores, protocol analyses, all focused on the same phenomenon); (b) *Investigator triangulation*, the use of multiple researchers to complete comparative analyses of individual findings (i.e., each member of a research team studying the effectiveness of an adjunct study strategy class fully evaluates the data from a source(s) and

draws conclusions to be shared and analyzed by team members); (c) *Theoretical triangulation*, the use of multiple theoretical orientations to understand findings or to direct the research (i.e., employing social constructivism, transactional theory, and poststructuralism to study the curriculum and instruction for a college reading class); and (d) *Environmental triangulation*, using more than one situation or context to study the intended focus (i.e., studying basic composition instruction at several community colleges). Triangulation is the use of multiplicity to test the credibility of one's research.

Another way to pursue credibility is to involve informants (e.g., tutees, tutors, and program coordinators from a writing center) in verifying researchers' interpretations after the fact. This has often been called member checking, where "member" refers to various participants in multiple roles within a given qualitative study. In fact, member checking from various roles and participation levels within a given study is seen as a productive research practice. Often, research participants are provided a pre-publication copy of research write-ups to solicit their feedback regarding the accuracy of data. Member checking can also occur in face-to-face interviews. However, it is important to remember the various inherent power stances of participants and researchers and how those relationships might influence sharing feedback as well as acquiescence to its recommendations. Similarly, peer debriefing with coresearchers and colleagues can provide field-based researchers with noninvolved--or even detached--reactions to initial research procedures and, subsequently, to findings. Related to peer debriefing is the habit of institutional checking on research (e.g., permissions, procedures, and findings) with supervisory personnel or direct superiors. Although one might regard IRB approval as a form of member checking, the previous suggestions are less formal than an evaluative gatekeeping relationship, and can help researchers shape practice and interpretations. Above all else, member checking of any sort should lead to trust in the researchers.

Additional factors influence, indeed may impinge upon, the credibility of qualitative inquiry. Prolonged engagement, at least for a complete cycle in the life of the research context (e.g., an entire semester for a learning to learn class) has long been recognized as desirable. Researchers would be engaged in the site, with the participants, as well as with the external influences as these unfold within a recognized or bounded time frame, and/or recursive cycle in the context of events. It is reasonable to expect the researcher to become deeply familiar with recurring instances within a schedule. It is also important to point out that observations conducted during a complete cycle would be regular, persistent, and natural (from the point of view of the participants). During these long-term, persistent observations, researchers practice what is known as reflexive self-analysis, often facilitated through daily jottings in research logs. Indeed, researchers are relentless in questioning their own findings, providing bracketed comments on any opinions and/or evaluative comments that may have found their way into what is intended to be "thick description" or notes that include rich descriptive data. Of course, much of this learned behavior for trustworthiness, as well as that of write-ups, improves with experience. This is particularly important for the profession as graduates from the fledgling doctoral programs in the field assume the roles of neophyte researchers and translators of research to praxis. Time in the profession is an important factor in weighing trustworthiness.

### Transferability in Trustworthiness

A second factor for trustworthiness offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is transferability. This proposition is somewhat tricky, given that by design qualitative research does not (cannot) aim for replicability. Yet, qualitative researchers maintain that patterns and descriptions from one context may be applicable to

another. After all, if one cannot learn from study extensions that might fit with a subsequent set of circumstances, the impact from the original study is limited. Just as it is valid and important to create new knowledge from emergent discovery-oriented qualitative research, it is also productive to seek understanding from others' systematic qualitative inquiry. It is with such intentions that an analogy to both external validity and generalizability in quantitative research might be productive. As with quantitative research, qualitative inquiry seeks to expand understanding by transferring findings from one context to another. Of course, this can't be apportioned by the researcher, but must be imputed by those who wish to compare the research with their personal contexts, as in "lessons from somewhere else." For instance, reviewing research drawn from a learning to learn class at Texas State University would be undertaken to develop greater understanding of a learning to learn course at a similar institution in Texas.

Transfer is only possible when a thick description provides a rich enough portrayal of circumstance for application to others' situations, and usually at the behest of the local constituents. Transfer applications such as these rely on the researchers' thick descriptions that would include contextual information about the field work site, organizations and other influential participants in the original study would have been stipulated and described in detail. Likewise, any precluded membership that would have influenced data collection would be documented.

Methods and time frames for the collection of data in the original study must be completely described, as well the entire duration of the field study. These factors influence the degree to which the completed research may have application to an additional site or context. The bottom line for transfer is that the lessons from one study, such as that of the student experience in a community college site.

That is, transfer in qualitative research is not a recipe, but rather a suggestion that must itself be researched for its applicability to a new context.

### Dependability as part of Trustworthiness

A third perspective on trustworthiness offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is dependability, or the trust in trustworthiness. In qualitative research in which researchers, both producers and consumers, actively build their trust in the events as they unfold, there are a few concrete research practices that not only produce trust but also feel trustworthy when they are executed. Peer debriefing or peer scrutiny are solid communication habits that create trust. Using another researcher to read and react to field notes, with their embedded researcher interpretations, is a confirmation that creates a tacit reality for the researcher. At its most oblique, one can muse "I may have made this up, but somebody else saw it the same way, and that must mean something." It is like asking for participants to member-check but with peer-level members: The professional level of the peers conveys a sense of self-credibility. Also, since the scrutiny is from a peer, it provides the researcher an insider analysis and feedback before the study goes public, itself an act of trust.

Another aspect of dependability has to do with the researchers' anticipation of review by a peer (in a sense not unlike the review process for a journal like the *Journal of Developmental Education* or the *Journal of Basic Writing*). Presumably, awareness that the work and the products from the work are to be inspected by a peer would cause the researcher to be careful with what is recorded as fact and what is set aside as researchers' interpretive comments about the data. This habit of data separation into observations and interpretations is called bracketing. That such a practice as bracketing exists points to the pervasive effects of reflexive analysis and the bracketing that the analysis induces. It is not the case that the researchers' bracketed musings are devalued or in any way embarrassing, but

CONTINUED ON PAGE 28

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## Member checking of any sort should lead toward trust in the researchers.

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**TRANSLATION QUALITY OF GOOGLE TRANSLATE IN  
ABSTRACT TEXT FROM JAPANESE LITERATURE IN  
STBA JIA**

**THESIS**

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language-JIA as a partial fulfillment of  
requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme



**VINCENSLA YUDITA**

**43131510190065**

**ENGLISH LITERATURE PROGRAMME  
SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES-JIA**

**2023**

Agg. Babes

## 2. Transferability

The stage that a finding that can be sent to other setting with a similar context as a transferability. The researcher gets transferability when Google Translate is translating a source language into target language. Afterwards, the researcher analyzes the translation quality (accuracy, acceptability and readability) with advisors' by using Nababan's theory and dictionaries.

## 3. Dependability

Dependability is an evaluation from participant about the finding, interpretation, and recommendation of the research. The researcher revises this paper uses advisors' suggestion in order to reach dependability.

## 4. Confirmability

The proof from research finding that related to the research topic. The evidence can collected from research context also the subject of research. The confirmability is from a thesis test when examiners ask questions about a result in this paper.





## watch your back

idiom

to be careful of the people around you, making certain that they do nothing to harm you:

- *I have to watch my back at work - there are a lot of people who would like my job.*

+ SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

(Definition of watch someone's back from the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus © Cambridge University Press)



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Meaning of take it easy in English

## take it easy

idiom

rest, relax, or be calm:

- *You'd better take it easy until you feel better.*
- *Take it easy - don't get mad.*

More meanings of take it easy

- All

[take it/things easy, idiom](#)

[See all meanings](#)

+ Idioms and phrases



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為什麼會顯示這則廣告?

Meaning of *payback's a bitch* in English

## payback's a bitch

idiom US Informal Add to word list

If a person says *payback's a bitch*, they mean that something bad has happened as a result of something else.

(Definition of *payback's a bitch* from the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus* © Cambridge University Press)

Word Scramble

Play now

PERINGATAN: KARENA BERISIK DIA TERIMA KANCAH TINGGIOROKAL LUKMAN BERIKUT: BERISIK (080-177486)

Selengkapnya

Meaning of *stare someone in the face* in English

## stare someone in the face

idiom Informal Add to word list

If something stares someone in the face, it is very easy to see or obvious:

- *The answer has been staring us in the face all along!*

Word Scramble

Play now

Ads by Google

Stop seeing this ad

Why this ad?

Meaning of *beat someone at their own game* in English

## beat someone at their own game

idiom Add to word list

to use to your own advantage the methods by which someone else has tried to defeat you


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**have the last laugh** | AMERICAN DICTIONARY  
*idiom* (also get the last laugh)

**to succeed when others thought you would not:**

- *She was fired from the company last year, but she had the last laugh when she was hired by their main rival at twice the salary.*

(Definition of have the last laugh from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)



**BLOG**  
 Worse than or worst of all? How to use the words 'worse' and 'worst'  
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**point the finger at someone** | AMERICAN DICTIONARY  
*idiom*

**to say that someone should be blamed:**

- *I just tried to do what was right, and now everyone's pointing the finger at me.*

(Definition of point the finger at someone from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

an animal that produces eggs and uses the heat of the sun to keep its blood warm.  
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 Worse than or worst of all? How to use the words 'worse'  
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**be someone's bag**  
*idiom* • old-fashioned slang

**If something is your bag, you are interested in it and do it for pleasure:**

- *Tennis isn't really my bag, I'm afraid.*

**SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases**  
**Making people excited and interested**  
[absorbed](#)     [animate](#)  
[arouse someone's curiosity](#)     [bedazzle](#)

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**WORD OF THE DAY**  
**reptile**

Google Ads



Buat iklan untuk **menjangkau** pelanggan Anda dengan Google Ads

Hubungi

Meaning of **keep someone posted** in English

## keep someone posted

idiom

Add to word list

to make sure someone knows what is happening, esp. in a situation that is quickly changing:

• *The doctors kept me posted about her condition.*

(Definition of **keep someone posted** from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

Browse

Play our new game now

W o r d

Play now

More meanings of **keep someone posted**

– All

[keep sb posted](#)  
[keep someone posted](#)



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Create Your Google Ads Account - Previously Google AdWords

hold your tongue | AMERICAN DICTIONARY

## hold your tongue

idiom

Add to word list

to stop yourself from speaking:

• *I wanted to scream, "You're an idiot!" but I held my tongue.*

(Definition of **hold your tongue** from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

Translations of **hold your tongue**

in Chinese (Traditional)

別說話

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Worse than or worst of all? How to use the words 'worse' and 'worst'

June 05, 2024

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Tanpa beranjak dari ruangan, temukan cahaya yang lebih nyaman

Hanya dijual online

keep up with life

Meaning of **be big of someone** in English

## be big of someone

idiom • informal disapproving

Add to word list

If an action is big of someone, it is kind, good, or helpful. This phrase is usually used humorously or angrily to mean the opposite:

• *You can spare me an hour next week? That's really big of you!*

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**Kind & thoughtful**

[accommodating](#)

[accommodatingly](#)

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Meaning of *change of heart* in English

# change of heart

idiom

[Add to word list](#)

C2

If you have a change of heart, you change your opinion or the way you feel about something:

• *She was going to sell her house but had a change of heart at the last minute.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

[Changing your mind](#)

180

[about-face](#)

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WORD OF THE DAY

nest

Meaning of *be all ears* in English

# be all ears

idiom

[Add to word list](#)

to be waiting eagerly to hear about something:

• *I'm all ears - tell us what they had to say.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

[Using the ears](#)

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# have a (good) nose for something

idiom informal

[Add to word list](#)

to be good at finding things of the stated type:

• *She has a good nose for a bargain.*

• *As a reporter, he had a nose for a good story.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

[Skill, talent and ability](#)

[ability](#)

[accomplishment](#)

[accuracy](#)

[acumen](#)

[adroitness](#)

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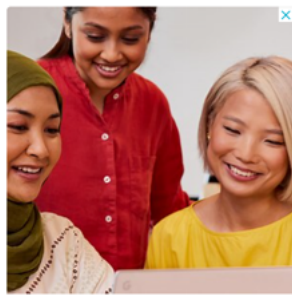
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Meaning of *out of line* in English

## out of line

idiom

Add to word list

beyond what is considered acceptable behavior:

- *You can disagree with her, but calling her dishonest was out of line.*

(Definition of *out of line* from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

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More meanings of *out of line*

- All

[step/be out of line idiom](#)



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Meaning of *what on earth* in English

## what on earth

idiom

Add to word list

used for showing surprise:

- *What on earth is going on in there?*

(Definition of *what on earth* from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

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More meanings of *what on earth*

- All

[how what why etc on earth idiom](#)



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Meaning of *on your own* in English

## on your own

idiom

Add to word list

alone:

- *I don't mind going to the movies on my own.*

▶ on your own

If you do something on your own, you do it without help from anyone else:

- *Bridget learned to tie her shoes on her own when she was three.*

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More meanings of *on your own*

- All

[\(all\) on your own phrase](#)  
[\(all\) on your own](#)



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Meaning of *be behind someone (all the way)* in English

## be behind someone (all the way)

idiom

Add to word list

**B1**

to support someone (completely) in what they are doing

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

**Backing, supporting & defending**

- [adopt](#)
- [affirmation](#)
- [argumentation](#)
- [advocacy](#)
- [ally yourself to/with someone](#)
- [bail out](#)

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WORD OF THE DAY

# reptile

time is on someone's side

English

Grammar English-Spanish Spanish-English

Meaning of *time is on someone's side* in English

## time is on someone's side

idiom (also have time on your side)

Add to word list

If you say that time is on your side, or that you have time on your side, you mean that you do not have to do quickly whatever it is that you want or have to do:

- *We don't have to make a final decision till next week, so time is on our side.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

**Spending time & time passing**

Word Scramble

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WORD OF THE DAY

# reptile

Meaning of *be in the same boat* in English

## be in the same boat

idiom

Add to word list

**C2**

to be in the same unpleasant situation as other people:

- *She's always complaining that she doesn't have enough money, but we're all in the same boat.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

**Expressions used to describe situations**

- [all things being equal idiom](#)
- [all's well that ends well idiom](#)

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keep sb on their toes Learner's Dictionary English Grammar English-Spanish



Meaning of **keep sb on their toes** – Learner's Dictionary

## keep sb on their toes


to make sure that someone gives all their attention to what they are doing and is ready for anything that might happen

(Definition of **keep sb on their toes** from the *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary* © Cambridge University Press)

Translations of **keep sb on their toes**

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WORD OF THE DAY

nest

Contents LEARNER'S DICTIONARY TRANSLATIONS To top

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Meaning of **be (as) thick as thieves** in English

## be (as) thick as thieves

idiom Informal

to be very close friends and share secrets, etc.:

- I'm sure she tells Ruth everything we say - they're as thick as thieves, those two.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

**Friendly**

<a href="#">affability</a>	<a href="#">affable</a>
<a href="#">affably</a>	<a href="#">affiliative</a>
<a href="#">agreeableness</a>	<a href="#">conversable</a>
<a href="#">convivial</a>	<a href="#">conviviality</a>

Word Scramble

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WORD OF THE DAY


nest

UK /nest/ US /nest/

Contents ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS To top

Dictionary Translate Grammar Thesaurus +Plus Shop

on its way English Grammar English-Spanish Spanish-English



Meaning of **on its way**

## on its way

idiom

happening or arriving soon:

- They have three kids, and another on the way.*
- My school is well on its way to a championship.*
- We're on our way from Logan, and should be there soon.*

▶ on your way

If you are on your way you are leaving:

- Give me a kiss and I'll be on my way.*

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Image quiz featuring a parrot and a snail.

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WORD OF THE DAY

nest

UK /nest/ US /nest/

Contents AMERICAN To top



Dictionary

Definition

# let's roll idiom

chiefly US, informal

→ used to tell another person or a group of people to start leaving a place or to start doing something

"Let's roll," the sergeant shouted to his men.

Entries Near

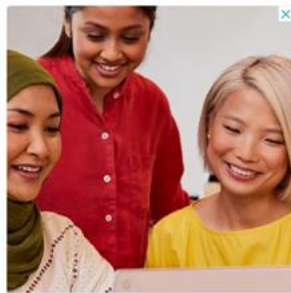
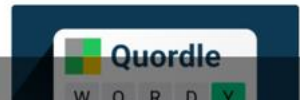
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Meaning of waste your breath in English

## waste your breath idiom

If you waste your breath, you spend time and energy trying to give advice that is ignored:

• *Honestly, you're wasting your breath - he doesn't want to hear what anyone else has got to say.*

SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

Giving advice

advice column

advice columnist

Play our new game now

Word

Scramble

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Meaning of all eyes are on someone/something in English

## all eyes are on someone/something idiom

If all eyes are on someone or something, everyone is watching that person or thing and waiting to see what will happen:

• *All eyes are on the president to see how he will respond to the challenge to his leadership.*

SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

Using the eyes

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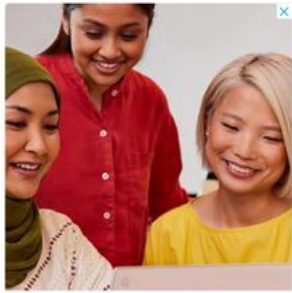
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Meaning of *snap out of it* in English

## snap out of it

idiom (also *snap out of something*)

Add to word list

to stop experiencing something unpleasant or stop behaving in a negative way:

- *I was depressed, and I couldn't snap out of it.*
- *Johnson has finally snapped out of a four-week hitting slump.*

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(Definition of *snap out of it* from the *Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary* © Cambridge University Press)

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More meanings of *snap out of it*

- All

[snap out of something](#)

[See all meanings](#)

you got it

English

Grammar

English-Spanish

Spanish-English



Meaning of *you got it* in English

## you got it

idiom US Informal

Add to word list

used to say that you will quickly do what someone has asked you to do:

- *"Would you get me a coffee?" "Sure, you got it!"*

- SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

[Words & phrases expressing agreement & acceptance](#)

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Play now

More meanings of *you got it*

- All

[get \(someone\) off \(something\)](#)

## Dictionary

Definition

Entries Near

Show More

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# you take it from here idiom

→ used to tell someone that he or she is responsible for something from now on

I've done my part. *You take it from here.*



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Quordle



Meaning of have (got) to hand it to someone in English

## have (got) to hand it to someone

idiom

Add to word list

C2

If you say you have (got) to hand it to someone you mean that they have been very successful or skilful:

- *I mean you've got to hand it to her, she's brought up those three children all on her own.*

— SMART Vocabulary: related words and phrases

[Praising and applauding](#)

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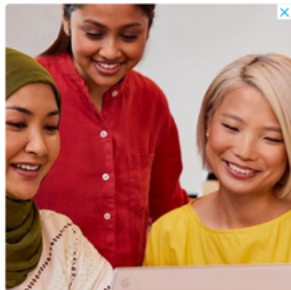


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f X

WORD OF THE DAY

nest



(Definition of what the heck from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

what the heck | AMERICAN DICTIONARY

## what the heck

idiom

Add to word list

used for showing anger or surprise:

- *What the heck are you doing to my car?*

(Definition of what the heck from the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary © Cambridge University Press)

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to build a nest, or live in a nest

About this



BLOG

Worse than or worst of all? How to use the words 'worse'

Translations of what the heck

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# Arti Peribahasa Buah Jatuh Tidak Jauh dari Pohonnya, Lengkap dengan Ciri-Ciri Peribahasa

Amirul Nisa - Kamis, 23 Desember 2021 | 20:45 WIB



Ada beberapa jenis peribahasa yang banyak digunakan.

Jenis-jenis peribahasa itu adalah pepatah, ungkapan, bidal atau pameo, perumpamaan, tamsil atau ibarat, dan semboyan.

Kali ini kita akan membahas salah satu jenis peribahasa, yaitu perumpamaan.

## Arti Peribahasa Buah Jatuh Tidak Jauh dari Pohonnya

Peribahasa ini merupakan sebuah perumpamaan tentang sifat buah.

Bila teman-teman memiliki pohon yang berbuah, maka buah akan jatuh di sekitar pohon.

Hal itu dianggap mirip dengan penurunan sikap orang tua pada anak-anaknya.

Sehingga peribahasa tersebut memiliki arti sifat anak tidak jauh berbeda dengan ayah atau ibunya.



**ANTARIKSA**  
Jangan Terlewat, Malam Ini Akan Ada Fenomena Super Blue Moon, Apa Itu?



**SEKOLAH**  
Mengubah Kalimat Langsung Jadi Tidak Langsung, Kelas 5 SD Kurikulum Merdeka



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**SEKOLAH**  
Jawab Soal 'Jelajah a' Halaman 5 SD Kurikulum Merdeka



**SEKOLAH**  
Perbedaan Teks Fiksi dan Nonfiksi, Materi



## JAGALAH MULUTMU

📅 07 Juni 2017 ⌚ 3 mnt baca 📄 Artikel 📶 1013

Ahmad Thib Raya | Guru Besar UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta |



Lidah adalah salah satu organ tubuh yang sangat vital bagi manusia. Dengan lidah seseorang bisa berbicara, bisa bercakap, bisa menyampaikan isi hatinya secara lisan. Bisa anda bayangkan kalau Anda tidak memiliki lidah, kalau Anda suatu saat mengalami sariawan, Anda setengah mati mau berbicara tidak bisa.

Lidah bisa mengucapkan apa saja, yang baik maupun yang buruk, yang kasar maupun yang lembut, yang jorok maupun yang santun. Ajaran puasa yang sedang kita laksanakan pada bulan Ramadhan ini mengajarkan kita untuk menahan lidah kita dari ucapan yang buruk, dan mendidik lidah kita untuk berucap yang baik, yang sopan, dan yang santun. Sebab, puasa itu tidak hanya menahan perut agar tidak makan dan minum dan berhubungan dengan suami/isteri.

Jagalah lidahmu. Menjaga lidah berarti menahan lidahmu dari ucapan yang kotor, dusta, bercerita tentang orang lain, memaki orang lain, ucapan yang menimbulkan permusuhan, menjadi saksi palsu, dan lain-lain. Jika ada orang yang melukaimu dengan ucapannya, katakanlah kepadanya bahwa aku sedang berpuasa. Hal ini seperti yang digambarkan oleh Rasulullah dalam hadis riwayat Abu Dawud yang



🏠 Nasional

## Sudah Keluar Jalur, Sivitas Akademika UGM Peringatkan Jokowi Lewat Petisi Bulaksumur dan Himne UGM

FX Harminanto - Rabu, 31 Januari 2024 | 16:36 WIB



Krjogja.com - SLEMAN - Sivitas akademika UGM yang terdiri dari guru besar, dosen, mahasiswa dan alumni berkumpul di Balairung UGM, Rabu (31/1/2024) sore. Mereka mengingatkan Presiden Jokowi yang dinilai keluar jalur, lewat Petisi Bulaksumur.

Profesor Koentjoro mewakili sivitas akademika UGM membacakan Petisi Bulaksumur di atas mimbar ditemani para guru besar UGM. Dalam petisi tersebut, Koentjoro juga menyanyikan Himne Gadjah Mada dengan mengutip lirik 'Bagi kami almamater kuberjanji setia. Kupenuhi dharma bakti tuk Ibu Pertiwi. Di dalam persatuan jiwa seluruh bangsaku. Kujunjung kebudayaanmu kejayaan Nusantara.'

Begitu ia menyanyikan itu, sivitas akademika yang ada pun ikut dalam lantunan nada. Koentjoro meminta Presiden Jokowi sebagai alumni UGM untuk selalu mengingat janji sebagai alumni Universitas Gadjah Mada.



## Sesungguhnya Kita di Perahu yang Sama



Aya Ummu Najwa May 15, 2024

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Select Category ▾

### Terbaru

- 10 August 2024  
Syahidnya Ismail Haniyah, Semangat Perjuangan Melemah?
- 10 August 2024  
Aborsi Legal, Moral Generasi Kian Liar
- 10 August 2024  
Anak Muda Harus Berani Bermimpi
- 07 August 2024  
Alat Kontrasepsi Legal bagi Remaja, Ada Apa?
- 07 August 2024  
Hebatnya Ayat Kursi

### Terpopuler

- 29 April 2022  
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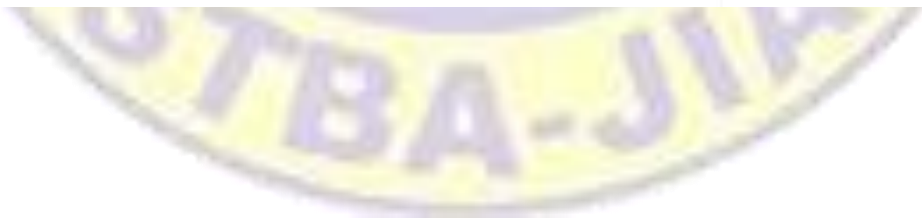


Menjadikan Islam sebagai landasan negara, menjadikan umat kuat dalam persatuan. Seorang khalifah yang keras terhadap musuh Islam, dan kasih sayang terhadap umat. Khalifah yang dikabarkan oleh Rasulullah sebagai perisai umat Islam, di mana umat akan berperang melawan musuh-musuhnya di belakangnya. Tidakkah kita rindu bersatu mengayuh perahu yang sama bernama Khilafah?

### Khatimah

Untuk itu wahai umat Islam, sesungguhnya kita ada di perahu yang sama. Perbedaan organisasi dan gerak dakwah hanyalah wadah kita berjuang, tak selayaknya menjadi penghalang umat untuk bersatu. Jangan hanya karena kepentingan pribadi atau golongan, membuat kita mudah untuk menikam saudara sendiri. Sejatinya musuh kita sama, yaitu orang-orang kafir yang menghalangi Islam tegak kembali. Oleh karena itu, agenda umat selanjutnya adalah menjalin persatuan dalam jalinan ukhuwah islamiah agar dakwah Islam makin solid, sehingga semangat kebangkitan pun makin membara. Sungguh kebangkitan itu telah ada di depan mata. Bersatulah wahai umat! Bergabunglah dalam satu perahu!

Wallahu a'lam bishshawab.[]



## Dalam Perahu yang Sama

Oleh **Adjie Suradji**

18 Agustus 2017 03:00 WIB · 4 menit baca

A TEKS ▾



Membaca sejarah perjuangan bangsa Indonesia mencapai kemerdekaan ibarat melihat ulangan tragedi memilukan. Sejak abad ke-16, perlawanan bangsa Indonesia terhadap kaum kolonial lahir. Semangat mengusir penjajah-Portugis, Belanda, dan kemudian Jepang-lewat \gerakan atas tanah\ dan \gerakan bawah tanah\ terus digelorakan. Hasilnya, 17 Agustus 1945, para *founding fathers* membangun "Jembatan Emas" kemerdekaan, menuju negeri impian. Sayang, negeri impian yang adil-makmur, aman, sejahtera, dan sentosa belum mewujudkan hingga 72 tahun kemudian. "Jembatan Emas" justru menggiring bangsa ini masuk pusaran arus konspiratif yang melahirkan pertikaian berlatar perbedaan pemahaman (agama) yang sarat dengan intrik politik. **Gerakan bawah tanah** Sepanjang era Reformasi, dari 2000 sampai Juni 2017 aparat keamanan (polisi) telah

OPINI Dalam Perahu yang Sama

A TEKS ▾



separatis yang berkonspirasi dengan elite politik, bahkan berkolaborasi dengan organisasi kejahatan: sindikat narkoba, penyelundup, dan pemalsu uang, untuk mencapai tujuannya. Pola operasinya pun menyimpang dari tujuan gerakan bawah tanah yang sesungguhnya karena seperti dirumuskan Machiavelli: cara apa pun digunakan-intoleransi hingga teror-asal tujuan tercapai. Majalah politik *Der Hausfreund* (The House Friend) edisi Agustus tahun 1832 memuat artikel karya Carl-Josef Meyer (1796-1856), pendiri *Bibliographisches Institute Hildburghausen*, Jerman, berjudul "Lupakan perbedaan. Kita telah duduk dalam perahu yang sama!" Barangkali, terinspirasi judul provokatif tersebut, dua Jerman-Republik Demokratik Jerman ("Jerman Timur") dan Republik Federal Jerman ("Jerman Barat")-akhirnya bersatu kembali (*German Deutsche Wiedervereinigung*), 3 Oktober 1990. Bersatunya dua Jerman mempertontonkan kepada dunia bahwa negara yang pernah terbelah dalam empat zona pendudukan pasca-Perang Dunia II tersebut telah "melupakan perbedaan". Sayang, melupakan perbedaan ternyata bukan sesuatu yang mudah dilakukan di Indonesia. Bangsa yang telah duduk dalam perahu yang sama, 72 tahun merdeka, belakangan ini justru memiliki kegemaran berkelahi (*belligerent*) dan mendramatisasi atau



UTBK-SBMPTN Bahasa & Linguistik Mata Pelajaran Ujian

# Majas Sinekdoke – Pengertian, Ciri-Ciri, dan Contohnya

by Jihan Ayyesa — Mei 23, 2022 — 0

“Semua untuk satu dan satu untuk semua.”

Hayo, siapa, nih, yang familiar dengan slogan tersebut? Kayaknya elo udah cukup familiar, ya? Apalagi slogan ini sudah cukup banyak dipakai. Salah satunya dalam *tagline* stasiun TV “SCTV satu untuk semua” dan juga dialog Spongebob dan Mr. Crab pas rebutan harta karun, hahaha.

Nah, sekarang gue pengen ngajak elo mempelajari hal baru yang berhubungan dengan slogan tersebut, nih. Ada yang bisa nebak nggak? Yap, benar banget, gue sekarang pengen ngajak elo buat sama-sama mempelajari majas sinekdoke.

Hah? Apa itu majas sinekdoke dan apa hubungannya sama slogan tadi, ya?

Supaya elo lebih mendapatkan gambaran jelas mengenai sinekdoke, berikut adalah berbagai contoh kalimat majas sinekdoke berdasarkan jenisnya.

## 1. Contoh Kalimat Majas Sinekdoke Pars Pro Toto

1. “Aku sudah lama tidak melihat *batang hidungnya*.”
2. “*Sepetak tanah* itu akhirnya berhasil terjual dengan harga Rp600 Juta”
3. “Budi memiliki 7 *ekor kelinci* di rumahnya.”
4. “Semua *mata* tertuju padamu.”
5. “Kamu harus cepat *angkat kaki* dari bangunan tua ini.”

## 2. Contoh Kalimat Majas Sinekdoke Totem Pro Parte

1. “*Warga Jakarta* menyaksikan pertunjukan konser Tahun Baru di Gelora Bung Karno”

