CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter gives further explanations regarding the theories used to analyze the data in this research. It is divided into four main points, i.e. an introduction to translation, surface (grammatical) structure including language units and interjections, deep (semantic) structure including meaning properties and meaning properties in semantic rules, and translation shifts. Each of the four main points consists of several applied theories in this research.

2.1 An Introduction to Translation

The theory of translation is concerned with a certain type of relation between languages. It is consequently a branch of comparative linguistics (Catford, 1969: 20). Many experts mention translation process into several terms, such as render, replace and reconstruct. However, they have same purpose in defining the translation itself; that is the process of transferring the meaning and form.

Newmark (1988: 5) stated that translation is a process of rendering the meaning of a text from one language into another language in the way the author intended the text. It means that one has to be able to deliver the meaning of a text as well in one language as in another. Along with the Newmark's definition of translation, Catford (1969: 20) defined translation as a process of replacing textual

material in one language (Source Language) by the equivalent textual material in another language (Target Language). There are two terms which emerge in the definition of translation mentioned by Catford. They are textual material and textual equivalent. The use of the term textual material underlines the fact that in normal condition, it is not the entirety of a SL text which is replaced by TL equivalents. At one or more levels of language there may be simple replacements, by non-equivalent TL material. For example, the SL text (English text) *where do you live?* might be translated into TL text (Indonesian text) *dimana rumahmu*? in which there is more simple replacement of a text. Moreover, the term of textual equivalent is described as any TL form (text or portion of text) which is observed to be the equivalent of a given SL form (text or portion of text). Both of the experts agreed that in translating, the essential process is transferring meaning.

Furthermore, Larson (1984: 3) said that:

> Translation is a process of reconstructin**g** the same meaning of a Source Language using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the Receptor Language (Target Language) and its cultural context. In translation, the form of the source language has to be replaced by the form of the receptor language (target language).

It means that in translating, it is not only a meaning which has to be transferred well to the target language, but also the form of the source language has to be adjusted the form of target language. Thus, it will produce a natural result of translation.

There are two components which have a great rule in translating process, i.e. surface structure and deep structure. According to Larson (1984: 3) translation is basically a change of form. Speaking about the form of a language, it is

referring to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, or even paragraphs, which are spoken or written. There, forms are referred to as the surface structure of a language in which it is the structural part of language which is actually seen in print or heard in speech. In translation, the form of the source language is replaced by the form of the target language by way of semantic structure or known as deep structure. Thus, in translating a text, the meaning must be held constantly and only the form may be changed.

2.2 Surface Structure

According to Larson (1984: 3), surface structure is referring to the grammatical structure of a language. It is related to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc., which are spoken or written. In other words, it is related to the language units.

2.2.1 Language Units

Every language has its own language unit. In English, the language unit contains of morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. Borjars (1986: 17) stated that morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in the structure of the language. Morphemes can be divided into free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morpheme is morpheme which can exist on its own without should be bound with other morphemes. Meanwhile, bound morphemes are normally affixes. Affixes can be divided into sub-classes depending on the place they are attached.

If placed before the stem, it is called prefix. If placed after stem, it is called suffix. If placed inside the stem, it is called infix.

Bloomfield (in Alwasilah, 1993: 120) stated that word is a minimum free from a linguistic unit which does not permit the insertion of other linguistic material. Furthermore, according to Borjars (1986: 45), there are eight word categories in English included Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Determiners, Conjunctions and Interjections. Since this research is focused on analyzing interjection, it will be further described in the following clarification.

Language unit also contains of phrase. Richard et.al (in Sulistiowati, 2008: 9) stated that phrase is a group of words which form a grammatical unit. A phrase does not contain a finite verb and does not have subject-predicate structure. There are five phrases in English included noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, prepositional phrase and adverb phrase. Moreover, differ from phrase; clause is defined as a group of words which forms a grammatical unit which contains a subject and a finite verb (Richard in Sulistiowati, 2008: 12). There are three clauses for English included noun clause, adjective clause and adverbial clause.

Borjars (1986: 117) stated that there are four main types of sentences which can be distinguished structurally for English. They are declaratives, imperatives, interrogatives and exclamatives.

2.2.2 Interjections

As mentioned above, there are eight word categories in English. However, in this research, it is only focused on the description of interjection.

Interjection is a word or a group of words interjected (thrown) in a sentence to denote strong feeling or sudden emotion (Harman, 1950: 20). By using interjection, people can express their emotions and feelings. Along with Harman's description of interjection, Burton (2007: 15) stated that interjection is a part of speech consisting of exclamatory terms, such as words that are capable of standing alone to express emotion.

Interjections are usually in the form of words. However, according to Irmscher (in Rinowati: 1996), all words, phrases, or clauses which are pronounced by stressing or marked by exclamatory mark (!) can be mentioned as interjections.

Keraf (1984) divided the type of interjection into three major types. Those are:

a. Pure interjection
b. Interjection which derives from common words. Nouns or other words which usually used as exclamatory words
c. Interjection which derives from expressions, either Indonesian or other languages.

While Fatimah (1996: 12) divided the types of interjection into:

a. Negative interjection

b. Positive interjection

c. Interjection of surprise

d. Interjection of invitation

e. Interjection of attention for call

2.3 Deep Structure

In every language, there is a distinction between deep (semantic) and surface (grammatical, lexical, and phonological) structures of a language. Larson (1984: 26) stated that an analysis of the surface structure of a language does not help us in comprehending the information we need to know about the language in order to translate. Behind the surface structure is the deep structure. Thus, this meaning (deep structure) has a role in serving as the base for translation into another language.

The meaning is not just an inaccessible mass, but it can be analyzed and represented in ways that are useful to the translator. It is not ordered in the same ways in which the surface structure must be ordered, but it is a network of semantic unit and relation. These unit and relations can be represented in various ways.

It is generally agreed that meaning is important in translation. Translation has often been defined with reference to meaning; that is a translation is said to have the same meaning as the original. Since the biggest point of view of

translation is maintaining the meaning, it is a role of deep structure. According to that matter, meaning properties are presented as the continuance of a concept which mentioned that every languages has its own way in delivering information of its surface structure.

2.3.1 Meaning Properties

We not only know what the morphemes or the words of our language are, but also know what they mean. Most words and morphemes in the language have their own meanings. We know the meaning of thousand of words and know how to use the words appropriately in sentences and to understand them when they are heard. Every word has its own meaning properties. For instance, the word "Boy" has meaning properties such as, [HUMAN], [MALE] and [YOUNG]. Fromkin (1983: 164) states that the same meaning properties may be part of the meaning of many different words. The meaning property [FEMALE] is *girl, actress, widow,* and *woman*.

Meaning properties play an important role in the description of human language. As Akmajian (1995:223) stated that the central meaning property of words (and morphemes in general) is the property of being meaningful or being meaningless.

2.3.2 Meaning Properties in Semantic Rule

Meaning is a property of a language (Catford, 1969: 35). Every language has a different semantic combination. Thus, in translation process, the formal correspondence does not always exist. A formal correspondence is any TL category (unit, class, structure, and element of structure) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the same place in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL (Catford, 1969: 32). For example, the SL text *I'm pregnant right now* is translated into the TL text *Saat ini saya sedang hamil*. The SL text *right now* is shared into the TL *saat ini* and *sedang*. The word *sedang* appears as a consequence of SL meaning *right know* which is shared.

2.4 Translation Shifts

Shift means departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL. According to Catford (1969: 73), there are two major types of shift. Those are, level shifts and category shifts.

2.4.1 Level Shifts

Catford (1969: 73) defined level shifts as a source language item at one linguistic level has a target language translation equivalent at a different level, i.e. phonology, graphology, grammar, and lexis. He has pointed out that translation between the levels of phonology and graphology or vice versa is impossible. But

level shifts would be something which is expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another.

(SL): *He is writing some poetry.*

(TL): *Ia sedang menulis beberapa puisi.*

The sentence contains progressive aspect. Aspects in source language (English) are stated in grammatical level, but in target language (Indonesian) they are not stated in grammatical level but in lexical level.

2.4.2 Category Shifts

Catford (1969: 73) divided category shifts into four kinds, they are: structure shifts, class shifts, unit sifts (rank shifts), and intra system shift.

2.4.2.1 Structure Shifts

Catford (1969: 77) said that structure shifts are the most common form of shift and to involve mostly a shift in grammatical structure. In grammar, structure shifts can occur at all. Here is an example of structure shift implemented in translating from English into Indonesian.

1. Sentence

(SL): She did not go

(TL): *Dia tidak pergi*

SL text and TL text are not formal correspondence. In source language text, it occurs auxiliary verb *did* to make the sentence negative, but in target language

text, no auxiliary verb is used to make the sentence negative. This condition brings about structure shift in sentences.

2. Clause

(SL): The girl you loved …

(TL): *Gadis yang kamu cintai …*

Source language text and target language text are not formal correspondence. In source language text, there is no relative pronoun between *the girl* and *you.* This form is usually used in informal situation. Meanwhile in target language text, relative pronoun *yang* is a must. If relative pronoun *yang* is deleted (*gadis kamu cintai*), the structure is ungrammatical. This condition brings about structure shift in clause.

3. Phrase

(SL): Old book (adjective + noun)

(TL): *Buku tua (noun + adjective)*

Source language text and target language text are not formal correspondence. The pattern of source language phrases is *adjective+noun*, but in target language it is *noun+adjective*. It causes structure shift in phrase.

2.4.2.2 Class Shifts

Catford (1969) also defined class shift as comprises shifts from one part of speech to another. Below is an example of class shift.

(SL): Medical student (adjective + noun)

(TL): *Mahasiswa kedokteran* (noun + noun)

In source language, the adjective *medical* operating as modifier is translated into a noun *kedokteran* in target language. Shift occurs from adjective into noun.

2.4.2.3 Unit Shifts or Rank Shifts

Unit shifts or rank shifts are shifts in which the translation equivalence in the target language is at a different rank to the source language. *Rank* here refers to the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group word and morpheme. (Catford, 1969, p.79).

1. Unit word – phrase

(SL): Stallion

(TL): *Kuda jantan*

A word, *stallion* is translated into a noun phrase, *kuda jantan*. It causes unit shift from word into phrase.

2. Unit phrase – word

(SL): Face pack

(TL): *Masker*

A noun phrase, *face pack* is translated into a word, *masker*. It causes unit shift from phrase into word.

3. Unit phrase – clause

(SL): …the gross commercialism and ostentatious life style of many of the newly rich in modern Southeast Asia.

(TL): *Orang kaya baru di Asia Tenggara dewasa ini memperlihatkan komersialisme yang kasar dan dalam gaya hidup yang suka memamerkan kekayaannya.*

Source language text in the form phrase is translated into a clause. It causes shift from phrase into clause.

4. Unit clause – sentence

(SL): There is a big mango tree in my garden which is bearing plenty of fruits each year.

(TL): Di kebun saya ada pohon mangga yang besar. Tiap tahun pohon itu menghasilkan banyak buah.

Source language text in the form clause is translated into a sentence. It causes shift from clause into sentence.

2.4.2.4 Intra System Shift

Intra System Shifts are shifts that take place when the source language and target language possess approximately corresponding systems but the translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the target language system (Catford, 1969, p.79). Below is the example of intrans-system shift

(SL): She has beautiful eyes

(TL): *Dia memiliki mata yang indah*

In source language, the word *eyes* is plural and it is translated into the singular form of TL *mata*. It is not translated into *mata-mata* since the language system of TL does not require the form of plural to translate the SL word *eyes*