CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter describes theories that are used in this research, including the structural shift theory by Catford (1965) which is also supported by other translation theories such as the theories on translation procedures from Nida and Taber (1969) as well as Newmark (1988). Theories from Larson (1998), Kreidler (1998), and Saeed (2009) on semantic analysis as well as from Yule (1996) and Cruse (2000) on pragmatic analysis are also described.

2.1 Notion of Translation

This sub-chapter presents definition of translations, types of translation, translation procedures, and translation shifts.

2.1.1 Definition of Translation

Translation is defined as a change of form of SL (source language) by equivalent text in TL (target language), in terms of meaning and style (Larson, Catford, Nida and Taber: 1998, 1965, 1969). According to this definition, there are several terms that must be considered in translation: source language, target language, and equivalent. Source language is the original language used by the author, when target language is a different language that is used to translate. Equivalent means that, after going through the translation process, the meaning of both source and target language is equal.

Munday (2001: 4-5) and Bell (1991: 13) mentioned that there are three terms that must be considered when discussing translation, they are:

1. Translating as the activity of producing the translated text.
2. A translation as a product of the translating process or the translated text.
3. Translation as a concept of both process and product, as a field of applied language science.

Another term about translation is a translator, defined by House (1977:1) in Bell (1991: 15), stating that a translator is a "mediator bilingual of two monolingual communication in different languages". What translator does are (1) converting the message from source language to target language, (2) focusing on the same message

as was received, and (3) conveying the message that has been converted to a group of receivers (target language user) who has different language. Simply, a translator is someone who does the whole process of translating.

2.1.2 Types of Translation

Based on Catford (1965), here are the types of translation, as follow:

2.1.2.1 The Extent Terms: Full vs Partial Translation

This type is based on syntactical element that consists of two sub-types, full translation and partial translation. Full translation is the translation with the entire source text is replaced by the target language when the partial translation is a translation that some parts of the source language are left untranslated.

2.1.2.2 The Level Terms: Total vs Restricted Translation

This type sees the translation based on the language level in the translation, and it consists of two sub-types, total translation and restricted translation. Total translation

is defined as the replacement of source language grammar and lexis by equivalent target language grammar and lexis (at all level). Different to total translation, the restricted translation is the replacement of the source language textual material by equivalent target language textual material at only one level.

2.1.2.3 Categories of translation in term of ranks: Word-for-word translation, Free Translation, and Literal Translation

There are translation types related to ranks, they are word-for-word translation, free translation, and literal translation. Word-for-word translation is a rank-bound translation at word rank which means a word can be translated by another word. This method can be applied only when there are no different grammatical elements, additional words, or changing structures in both of source and target languages. On the contrary, the free translation isunbounded-rank translation which is the source language has equivalent target language in a different rank and usually it is in a higher rank, sometimes larger than sentence. However, the literal translation is between word-for-word and free translation, it is like word-for-word translation but with additional words or changing structures in target language grammar.

2.1.3 Process of Translation

This section discusses two translation procedures, the first is from Nida and Taber (1969: 33), and the second is from Newmark (1988:19-37).

2.1.3.1Translation Procedure from Nida and Taber (1969:33)

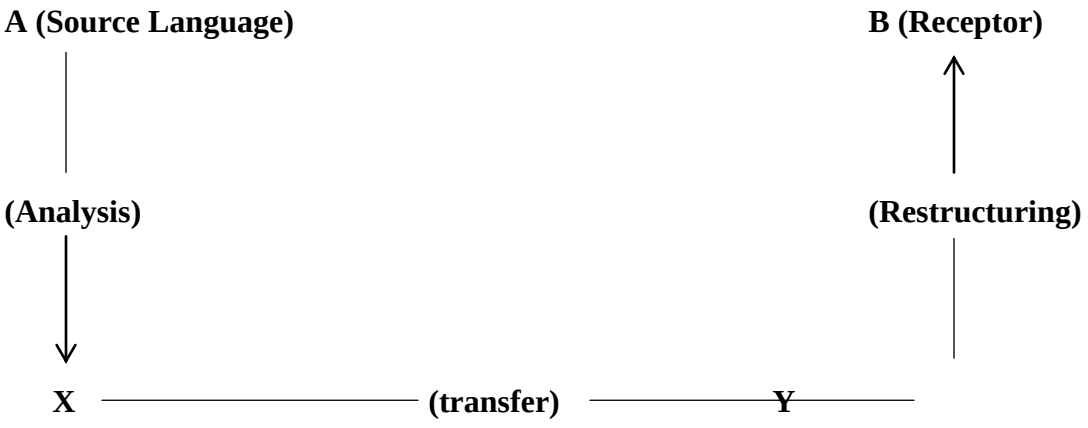


Fig 2. Nida and Taber's Translation Procedures

Nida and Taber stated that translation process has three steps as follows:

1. Analysis, the SL structure is analyzed based on the grammatical relationship, the lexical item combination, and the meanings of the words.
2. Transfer, the analyzed text is transferred in the mind of the translator from the SL to TL.
3. Restructuring, the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the target language.

Here, this study used Nida procedures to see how the translation process works and to determine the equivalences. First the data is being analyzed, then transferred into the target language and being restructured according the target language grammar.

2.1.3.2Translation Procedure based on Newmark (1988: 19-37)

Newmark proposes the translating process as described by the following diagram below:

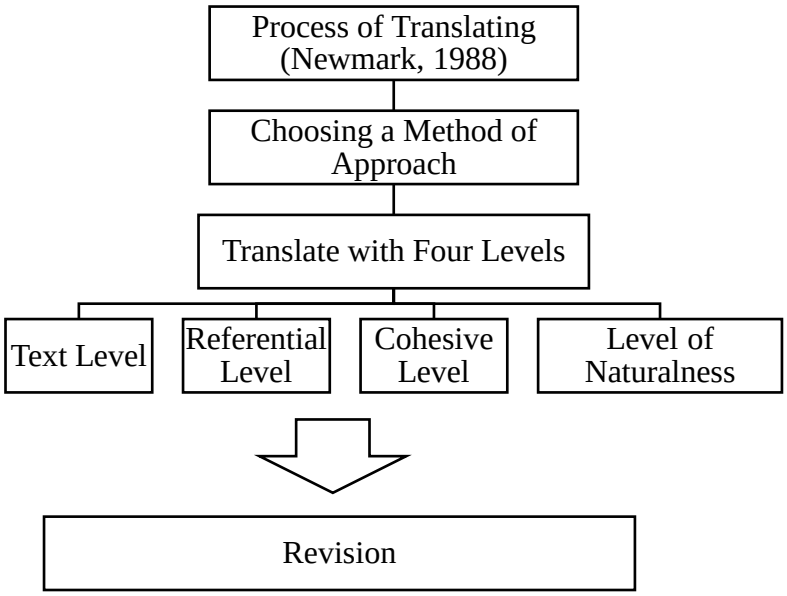


Fig 3. Newmark's Translation Procedures

1. Choosing an Approaching Method

According to Newmark, there are two approaching methods that can be chosen by the translator. The first method is started by translating sentence by sentence to a paragraph or a chapter, reviewing the result, and then re-read the SL text to make sure the translation is already good and appropriate. The second method isstarted by reading the whole text several times, find the register, language style, the difficult vocabularies, the tone of the text, and then start to translate when the translator feels ready. The translator may choose one of those approaching method or choose tocombine both of them.

2. Translate with Four Levels

There are four levels that mentioned by Newmark, textual level, referential level, cohesive level, and naturalness level. Those levels are:

- Textual Level: a translator transposes the SL grammar (sentences, clauses, groups)and the lexical unit into the appropriate grammar and the lexical unit in TL language.
- Referential Level: the reference expression does not lead to ambiguity whether the text refer to something abstract, concrete, or figurative. If necessary, a translator may add additional information about the reference expression mentioned by the SL text in TL text.

- Cohesive Level: analyzing the text based on its cohesiveness. The cohesive level follows both structure and mood.
- Naturalness Level: the translator must be make the whole passage sounds natural in the sense of TL.A text must be natural both in grammatical and lexical unit.
- Revision: this stage is the most important stage that may spend translating time 50-70%. During this stage, a translator constantly tries to edit the text based on naturalness and make sure that there is no substantial sense component lost.

2.1.4 Translation Shift

There are shifts in translation, as defined by Catford (1965:73) and Newmark (1988:85), translation shiftis a process of grammatical changes from SL to TL.Furthermore, according to Catford (1965:73), there are two major types of translation as follows:

2.1.4.1 Level Shift

Level shift is a shift between levels, it happenswhen a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different linguistic level. The form of this shift is the shift from grammar to lexis, such as tense to lexis, and vice versa. This shift often occurs in translation.

Example:

SL: John has gone.

(has + participle)

TL: *John sudah pergi*.

The shift occurs above is level shift between grammatical to lexis. In English, the form ‘has gone’ (has + participle) is grammatical which indicates a period from past that continues until now or to indicate that the event currently happening, while its translation in Bahasa Indonesia is using ‘*sudah*’, which is lexical form.

2.1.4.2 Category Shift

Different to level shift, category shift has four sub-types, they are class shift, unit shift, inter-system shift, and structural shift. The explanation about these four sub-types as follows:

2.1.4.2.1 Class Shift

Class in linguistics means a grouping of members of a unit like adjective, adverb, noun, and verb in English grammar or phoneme in English phonology. Class shift is a change between classes which means a class in the SL has different class equivalent in the TL form.

Example:

SL: Aeronautical engineering (adjective + noun)

TL: *Teknik penerbangan* (noun + noun)

The English grammatical form *aeronautical engineering* consists of adjective and noun, while the Bahasa Indonesia equivalent for this form is *teknik penerbangan* which consists of noun and noun. Since the adjective class in example above has different equivalent in Bahasa which is noun class, the shift occurs in the example is a class shift.

2.1.4.2.2 Unit Shift

Unit or rank in linguistic consists of several kinds like tone-group in English phonology or sentence, clause, and phrase in English grammar. Unit shift is a change between these ranks, which means one rank in SL is equivalent at different rank in TL.

Example:

SL: After spending the money, …

TL: *Setelah dia menghabiskan uang itu*, …

The grammatical form in English SL, *after spending the money*, is an adverbial phrase when the equivalent Bahasa Indonesia TL, *setelah dia menghabiskan uang itu*, has a clause form since it has subject (*dia*) and predicate (*menghabiskan*). This change which consists of phrase to clause change is a unit shift.

2.1.4.2.3 Intra-System Shift

System in linguistic is a set of alternative which belongs to a certain class. For example, there is a number system in English grammar which is different in another language such as Arabic or Japanese. The intra-system shift occurs when the SL system has different equivalent system in TL.

Example:

SL: A pair of trousers (plural)

TL: *Sebuah celana* (singular)

2.1.4.2.4 Structural Shift

Structural shift is a shift occurs related to structure in clause rank which consists of Subject or S, Predicate or P, Adjunct or A, and Complement or P. The structure in linguistics is a pattern of these arrangements elements, when the structural shift means that a SL language structure has different equivalent structure in TL language.

Example:

SL: It’s a beautiful girl! (S+P+C)

TL:*Gadis itu cantik*!(S+A+C)

The English grammatical in SL structure has *it* as subject, *is* as predicate and *beautiful girl* as complement when the equivalent structure in Bahasa Indonesia has *gadis* as subject, *itu* as adjunct, and *cantik* as complement. The change of structure in both of sentences above is structural shift.

Structural shift often occurs in many forms, one of those form is addition. As structural shift, addition affects the TL surface structure which is shown by the added element(s) that absent in SL structure. This technique intended for the compensation of structural elements implicitly present in the source text or paradigm forms missing in the target language.

Example:

SL:Not audible, not visible.

TL:*Tidak terdengar dan tidak terlihat <u>oleh siapapun</u>.*

In the source language structure, there is just *not audible, not visible* and vice versa, but in the target language structure there is an addition *olehsiapapun*. However, this addition is intended to explain the agent of the situation which describes as *not audible, not visible*. The agent is anyone, it is implied in the structure, but if the addition is not appeared in the target language structure it may lead to misunderstanding.

.

2.2 Semantics in Translation Analysis

Semantics is study of meaning, and as study of meaning, it has important role to the translation process.Semantic translation according to Newmark “is a mode of text transfer which involves using the TL syntactic and semantic to reproduce the exact contextual meaning of the author intended”(1988: 22). This study is applying two semantics analysis, lexical items and proposition.

2.2.1 Lexical Items

Lexical items or words, according to Cruse (2000: 87) and Saeed (2009: 259), is an element that can be moved about in the sentence and it is built up by combination of meaning components which are different depends on the language it belongs to. Related to lexical items, there is a concept term, refers to the meaning content in any given language. Together withmeaning components, they are classified semantically as things, events, attributes, and relations. Things refer to all animate being and all inanimate entities. Events consist of processes, experiences, and actions. Attributes

refers to all attributes of quality and quantity that describes the things or events. And relation consists of all relation between two semantic units.

Moreover in concept, a concept may be divided into several specific concepts such as a concept RAM can be broken down as [SHEEP], [MALE], and [ADULT].Barnwell (1980:141) in Larson (1998: 60) state that the concept is not always in word form, but it also can be represented by a morpheme, or by an idiomaticexpression, or by tone, or by word order.

All languages have different concepts since not all language communities will have the same ideas. To help this difficulty, there is a method called componential analysis which divides the component of meaning or concept into brackets. It also a helpful tools to looking for equivalents in translation.

For example, the word *spinster*is a hyponym of a woman. Look at the componential analysis below.

Spinster [FEMALE] [ADULT] [HUMAN] [UNMARRIED]

Woman [FEMALE] [ADULT] [HUMAN]

The further example is a word, *colorful*, based on dictionary entries with the selectional restriction (with the sign <>).

Colorful {ADJ}

a. (color) [abounding in contrast or variety of bright colors) <(physical object) or (social activity)>
b. (appearance) [outward aspect, look, external show]
c. (evaluative) [having distinctive character, vividness, or picturesqueness] <(aesthetic object) or (social object)>

2.2.2 Proposition

A proposition is more abstract than sentence but as the unit of meaning, it can be expressed in different senteces or as another sentence with the similar basic meaning as stated by Kreidler (1998: 62)and Bell (1991: 107).However, different to a sentence, a proposition is more semantic analysis than the syntactic analysis. It reveals semantic roles and predicate and it cannot be analyzed by subject, predicate, object, complement or adverb, or any inflections (such as modality, tense, and aspect).

Every proposition has a predicate and argument(s). The meaning of a predicate is determined by how many arguments the proposition has and what role those arguments have. The roles of these arguments named semantic roles, as follow (Kreidler, 1998: 70):

1. Actor:The role of an argument that acts without affecting any other arguments. Example: Nadia run. Nadia is the actor.
2. Agent:The role of an argument that by its action affects another arguments. Example: John hit Peter. John is the agent.
3. Affected: The role of an argument that is affected by another argument or event. Example: John hit Peter. Peter is the affected.
4. Affecting: The role of an argument that affects another argument without any action. Example: Betty likes reading. Reading is the affecting.
5. Associate: The role of an argument that tells the status or identity of another argument. For example: John is a student. A student is the associate.
6. Effect: The role of an argument that comes into existence through the action of the predicate. For example: I cooked the soup. The soup is the effect.
7. Place: The role of an argument that includes the location of the predicate occurs. Example: I went to school yesterday. School is the place.
8. Theme: The role of an argument as a stative predicate which does not express any action. Example: John is a student. John is the theme.

Another terms that must be considered that as a concept of meaning, they are events, attributes, things or participants, and relations.According to these terms (Larson, 1998: 209),there are two major types of propositions, first is Event Proposition and the second is State Proposition. Event Proposition has an event as central concept which may refers to an action, an experience, or a process. Action may refer to concepts such as hit, run, or walk. Experience refers to concepts

including five sense or cognitive or psychological activities such as smell, see, or think. Process is a change from a state to another state like freeze or die. However, State Proposition consists of things and attributives which are related by state relation. It has two main parts, main topic as the concept that being talked about, and the comment which consists of attribute or thing to describe the main topic.

Example:

1. Event Proposition

   Source Language: The complimented was received well by Mary.

   Proposition: (Someone) complimented Mary

   Mary responded well.

2. State Proposition

   The car is mine. Car … ownership … Me.

2.2.3 Meaning Equivalence

The ideal of total equivalence is impossible since languages are different from each other in surface structure or grammatical forms. According to Hartmann and Stork (1972:713), equivalent has different degrees which means a text can be fully or partially equivalent based on the context, semantics, grammar, and lexis and also the

text can be equivalent at different rank. Furthermore, the equivalent degrees will be described as follow:

2.2.3.1 Full Equivalence

Full equivalence means if the meaning from the source text language is completely rendering, without any changes of meaning, into the target text language.

Example:

SL: What would we do without you, Frypan?

TL: *Apa yang akan kita lakukan tanpamu, Frypan?*

In example above, the source text transferred completely without any changes or lost meaning in source language text.

2.2.3.1 Partial Equivalence

Partial equivalence means that there are some elements or meaning lost or changes from source language text to target language text.

Example:

SL: Seriously.

TL: *Ini serius.*

In the example above, there are changes, as can be seen there are *ini* added as a subject. Here the target text language has partial equivalence from the source language text.

2.2.3.2 No Equivalence

No equivalence means that there is no transferred meaning or the meaning is totally different in target language text.

Example:

SL: But at my age, one takes no risks.

TL: *Seumur aku ini, lebih baik tidak ambil risiko*.

From the example above, *one* as the one subject is translated into an adverb *lebih baik*, and which has totally a different meaning.

2.3 Pragmatics in Translation Analysis

Besides semantics, pragmatics is also applied to analyze the data found in this study.

2.3.1 Context

The context in utterance must be analyzed if a proposition analysis does not enough to explain the whole meaning. Different to a proposition, the context is dynamically changing depends on the participants in the current situation. To determine the context in an utterance, these questions below must be answered:

1. Who is speaking?
2. Who is being addressed?
3. When does the interaction take place?
4. Where does the interaction take place?

5. What is being discussed?

6. What is already known to speaker and listener?

Furthermore, there are also context that related to lexical items. The context in lexical items may be consists as connotative, it can be positive and negative. The word *"pelacur"* (prostitute) in Bahasa Indonesia has negative connotation than *"pramuria"*, also in Bahasa Indonesia, that has neutral connotation. It may differs in connotative meanings because culture such as "*pig"* in the Jewish culture has very negative connotation while in the Papua New Guinea it has very positive connotation since it is an important part of their culture. It may also differs in politeness or the meaning components of the word. In Bahasa Indonesia, *"Anda"* is more polite than *"Kamu"*, and it is using in a formal situation, when English just has one word for every situation, *"You"*. An example for the meaning components related to the context is a word bank that may refers to a rising ground bordering a lake, sea, or river, or it may refers to a place for people to save their money.

2.3.2 Presupposition

A presupposition is something the speaker assumption about some infornation before he/she makes utterance (Yule, 1996: 25). Look at example below:

"Hannah's sister bought three apples."

From the utterance above, the speaker will normally be expected to have the presupposition that a person called Hannah is exist, andshe has a sister.

Presupposition is a relation between two propositions, and there is a law that called constancy under negation which means that the presupposition will not change even it is added by not.

Example:

a. Hannah's sister is cute. (=p)
b. Hannah has a sister. (=q)
c. p >> q

The utterance p includes proposition q, which means it is true that Hannah has a sister. Example below is for the negation form:

a. Hannah's sister isn't cute. (NOT p)
b. Hannah has a sister. (q)
c. NOT p >> q

The relation between proposition p and q remains the same even with the negation in sentence.

2.3.3 Deixis

Deixis means pointing via language, orto point out something when the speaker and the hearer share the same immediate context (Yule, 1996: 9). There are three type of deixis, to point people the deixis used is person deixis, to point place the deixis used is spatial deixis, and to point time, the deixis used is temporal deixis. Deixis is tied to the speaker's context with the basic distinction is between "near" the speaker and "away" from the speaker. The "near speaker" is called proximal terms and they are 'this', 'here', and 'now'. The "away speaker" is called distal terms and they are 'that', 'there', and 'then'. Another form of deixis is reference, which is also used to refer or identify something or someone.

2.3.4 Implicature

Implicature, according to Cruse (2000: 349) is when there is a propositions or assumptions that beyond the literal sense of what is explicitly stated. There are two main types of implicature, they are conventional implicature and conversational implicature. Conventional implicature can be found in a sentence when the

conversational implicature can be found in the utterance, whether it is specific and dependent to context or not.

Below are examples of implicature:

Conventional Implicature: Arif is meeting a woman this evening

- ⇨ The woman Arif is meeting this evening is not his mother, his sister, or his wife.

Conversational Implicature:

A: Am I in time for supper?

B: I've cleared the table.

- ⇨ It implies that A is late to the supper.

2.4 Addition as a Translation Strategy

Translation strategies are method which is used by the translator totranslate a text from source language into the target language. It"involve(s) the basic task of choosing the foreign text to be translated anddeveloping a method to translate it" (Venuti, 1998:204). There are many translation strategies such as omission, addition, explicitation, and foreignization. Those strategies are applied based on the needs.

From semantics point of view, addition is a strategy to cope the whole meaning of sentence in order to prevent the meaning loss of the source language text. Meanwhile, from pragmatics point of view, addition may refers to cultural or the context which the utterance occurs while with the addition the equivalent meaning can be achieved in the target language. Furthermore, as Newmark stated (1988: 91)that the addition is normally cultural (considering the differences between SL and TL culture), technical (relating to the topic), or linguistic (explaining the meaning components).