

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this part, the researcher needs some theories as references related to the study and related to the problems discussed in this thesis.

2.1 Language

Language is used as a tool in communication between people. Language is a communication of thought and feelings through a system of arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds or spoken language, gestures, or written symbols as sign language. It is a system that has rules for combining its components become words, sentences or phrases. Language is also a system that is used by a nation, people or other distinct community. Every nation in the world has its own language or often called dialect.

“Those who know nothing of foreign languages, knows nothing of their own.” - Johann Wolfgang Von Goethe (1749-1832). He wants to explain that people in the world need language to communicate. People should not just understand and expert in their own language, they need foreign language to get know what and how the people in other country are. They need language to make a deal with other people, especially from abroad. “We invent the world through language. The world occurs through language.” - Mal Pancoast. He means that the world is growing because of language. Without language, the better world will never happen.

2.2 Translation

Translation is the act of translating, removing, or transferring data from source language(SL) into target language(TL). In his attempt to transfer meaning from one language (SL) to another (TL) by means of the universally known practice of translation, the translator faces a plethora of linguistic, stylistic and even cultural problems. In this regard, Popovič

(1970: 79) confirms that “this transfer is not performed directly and is not without its difficulties.” This means that the act of translation can be analyzed along a range of possibilities, which brings about a number of shifts in the linguistic, aesthetic and intellectual values of the source text (ST).

Translation is studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language text, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context. (Larson, 1984: 3).

It can be said that in the translation work, the translators should understand all about the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context of the source language, so they can analyze the meaning of the text and then they could reconstruct it into target language using lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the original language in order to deliver the message of the text.

Translation is a process of transferring the message; idea and information from Source Language (SL) to Target Language (TL).the translator goals are transfer the idea and wishes that the readers can receive the message. To translate something, there are rules and process. According to Tou (TEFLIN, II, 1989: 134), there are four main stages to be followed by translators in order to move the source language into the target language. There are the analysis of meaning, the discovery of meaning, the transfer of meaning, and the re-expression of meaning of the source into the target. The explanations are:

a. Analyzing of Meaning

The first step translation activity begins from analyzing the source data. It is an effort for translator to focus on Source data first. The translator must read the data first. It is impossible if translator

will understand the message from the data, if the translator does not read the Source data. The translator must understand the Cultural Context, Situational Context, Expressed Text, Lexicon and Grammar of the source data.

a. Discovery of meaning

The second step is discovery the meaning of the source data message. Therefore, the translator must understand and already understand the message, idea and information from the source language. About The Cultural Context, Situational Context, Expressed Text, Lexicon and Grammar, the translator must be competent to analyzing. This is the step that the translation already knows how to transfer the message from the SL to TL.

b. Transfer of meaning

After the translator understand the message and the structure of SL, and then the next step is transferring the meaning, idea, message, content and express from source language to target language. This step is according to the translation ways to solve the translation problem from SL to TL. The equivalence meanings of the SL to TL are important to get a good translation.

c. Re-expression of meaning

The translator already finds and understands the Cultural Context, Situational Context, Expressed Text, Lexicon and Grammar of the source data. The translation also already finds the equivalence message/idea from SL to TL. For this step, the translator must know about the meaning of the figurative language in SL text in a form appropriate for the TL text.

1.3 Shift

'Shift' should be redefined positively as the consequence of the translator's effort to establish translation equivalence (TE) between two different language systems.

Shifts are all the mandatory actions of the translator (those dictated by the structural discrepancies between the two language systems involved in this process) and the optional ones (those dictated by the his personal and stylistic preferences) to which he resorts consciously for the purpose of natural and communicative rendition of an SL text into another language.

Shift (Transposition & Modulation): "Transposition is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL" (Newmark, 1988: 85). It means that shift is a translation system that involves a grammatical change from SL to TL. "Modulasi melibatkan pergeseran makna karena terjadi perubahan perspektif dan sudut pandang" (Machali, 2000: 69). It means that the meaning in a translating text could be different because a perspective and point of view changing. The differences of the cultures or else between SL and TL hence a translator considers for the best in translating the text. He uses his perspective and point of view to translate same as the culture in TL, so that the readers could understand the meaning from the text.

There are two basic sources of translation shifts: source language textcentered shift and target language text-centered shift. The source language textcentered shifts are of three kinds, namely, grammatical shift, which mainly concerns particle markedness, foregrounding, and tenses; shifts related to cohesion, which mainly concern ellipsis; and textual shifts, which mainly concern genetic ambivalence, and embodiment of interpersonal meaning. The target language textcentered shift causes the main problem concerned with achieving effectiveness, pragmatic

appropriateness (including the cultural one), and information (referential) explicitness. (Machali, 1998: 160)

Catford (1965:73) defines a translation shift as departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL. He argues that there are two main types of translation shifts, namely level shifts, where the SL item at one linguistic level (e.g. grammar) has equivalent at a different level (e.g. lexis), it means that a grammatical unit in English, such as noun, affixes, etc, has a lexical unit in Bahasa Indonesia (Machali 1998: 14), and category shifts which are divided into four types.

- a. Structural shifts: these are said by Catford to be the most common form of shift and to involve mostly a shift in grammatical structure. Structure shift is the changing of words sequence in a sentence. There are amongst the most frequent category shift at all ranks in translation; they occur in phonological and graphological translation as well as in total translation.
- b. Class shifts: these comprise shifts from one part of speech to another.
- c. Unit shifts: these are shifts where the translation equivalent in the TL is at a different rank to the SL. 'Rank' here refers to the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme.
- d. Intra-system shifts: these are shifts that take place when the SL and TL possess approximately corresponding system but where 'the translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system (Catford, 1965: 80).

Simatupang (2000:88) states that every language has its own system. One language's rules do not always fit another one's. Each language has its own linguistic devices to state things. The translation shift is seen since the existence of different rules and structures between languages. Based on the Pengantar Teori book by Mauritis D.S. Simatupang, there are four types

of rank-shift in translation, such as morpheme rank-shift, syntactical rank-shift, word rank-shift and semantic rank-shift.

1. Morpheme rank-shift, for example:

- a. SL : Immoral
TL : Tidak sopan
- b. SL : Reappear
TL : Muncul kembali
- c. SL : Recycle
TL : Daur ulang

Bound morphemes (im-, re-) become words of free morphemes (tidak, kembali, ulang) but Bound morpheme might stay the same like in:

- a. SL : Discrepancy
TL : Ketidakcocokan
- b. SL : Loneliness
TL : Kesepian

2. Syntactical Rank-shift

Syntactical rank-shift in translation has five classifications, they are word to phrase, phrase to clause, phrase to sentence, clause to sentence and sentence to passage.

1. Word to phrase

Syntactical rank-shift of word to phrase is a word in source language which is translated into a phrase in target language. For example:

- a. SL : Girl
TL : Anak perempuan
- b. SL : Stallion
TL : Kuda jantan

- c. SL : Puppy
TL : Anak anjing

2. Phrase to clause

Translation shift can also occur from phrase to clause, such as:

- a. SL : Not knowing what to say (he just kept quite)
TL : Karena dia tidak tahu apa yang hendak dikatakannya (....)
- b. SL : After eating the cake, . . .
TL : Setelah dia memakan kue itu

3. Phrase to sentence

Syntactical rank-shift of phrase to sentence can happen in a translation work, for example:

- SL : His misinterpretation of the situation (caused his downfall)
- TL : Dia salah menafsirkan keadaan (dan itulah yang menyebabkan kejatuhannya)

4. Clause to sentence

This is an example of syntactical rank-shift of clause (dependent clause) to sentence (a sentence or independent clause):

- SL : Her unusual voice and singing style thrilled her fans, who reacted by screaming, crying and clapping.

TL : Suaranya yang luar biasa dan gayanya bernyanyi memikat para penggemarnya. Mereka memberikan reaksi dengan berteriak-teriak dan bertepuk tangan.

1. Sentence to passage

The example below is a shift example from sentence to passage or one sentence into some sentences.

SL : Standing in a muddy jungle clearing strewn with recently felled trees, the Balinese village headman looked at his tiny house at the end of a line of identical buildings and said he felt strange.

TL : Kepala kampung orang Bali itu berdiri di sebuah lahan yang baru dibuka di tengah hutan. Batang-batang pohon yang baru ditebang masih berserakan di sana-sini. Dia memandang rumahnya yang kecil yang berdiri di ujung deretan rumah yang sama bentuknya dan berkata bahwa dia merasa aneh.

3. Word rank-shift in translation includes noun to adjective

a. SL : He is in a bad condition

TL : Dia dalam keadaan yang buruk/ dia tidak sehat

b. SL : He is in doubt

TL : Dia ragu-ragu

Noun to verb:

a. SL : They had a long sleep

TL : Mereka tidur lama sekali

b. SL : They had a fight

TL : Mereka berkelahi

4. Semantic rank-shift, this semantic shift may occur due to the distinctions of cultures or point of views. There are big possibilities for something lost or gained in this way cause of the absence of the equivalence.

Generic meaning to specific meaning or vice versa:

- a. SL : Dia
TL : She/he
- b. SL : Girlfriend
TL : Teman perempuan/pacar (perempuan)
- c. SL : Boyfriend
TL : teman laki-laki/pacar(laki-laki)
- d. SL : Child
TL : anak laki-laki/anak perempuan

2.4 Word

Richard Nordquist on www.grammar.about.com, states that in language, a word is the smallest element that may be uttered in isolation with semantic or pragmatic content (with literal or practical meaning). This contrasts with a morpheme, which is the smallest unit of meaning but will not necessarily stand on its own. A word may consist of a single morpheme (for example: oh!, rock, red, quick, run, expect), or several (rocks, redness, quickly, running, unexpected), whereas a morpheme may not be able to stand on its own as a word (in the words just mentioned, these are -s, -ness, -ly, -ing, un-, -ed).

A complex word will typically include a root and one or more affixes (rock-s, red-ness, quick-ly, run-ning, un-expect-ed), or more than one root in a compound (black-board, rat-race). Words can be put together to build

larger elements of language, such as phrases (a red rock), clauses (I threw a rock), and sentences (He threw a rock too but he missed).

The term word may refer to a spoken word or to a written word, or sometimes to the abstract concept behind either. Spoken words are made up of units of sound called phonemes, and written words of symbols called graphemes, such as the letters of the English alphabet.

2.5 Phrase

Richard Nordquist on www.grammar.about.com says that phrase is any small group of words within a sentence or a clause. A phrase functions as a unit and includes a head (or headword), which determines the type or nature of the phrase.

Types of Phrases:

2.5.1 Absolute Phrase

A group of words that modifies an independent clause as a whole.

Example: "Still he came on, shoulders hunched, face twisted, wringing his hands, looking more like an old woman at a wake than an infantry combat soldier." (James Jones, *The Thin Red Line*)

2.5.2 Adjective Phrase

A word group with an adjective as its head. This adjective may be accompanied by modifiers, determiners, and/or qualifiers. Adjective phrases modify nouns. They may be attributive (appearing before the noun) or predicative (appearing after a linking verb), but not all adjectives can be used in both positions. An adjective phrase consists of an adjective which may be preceded and/or followed by other words. The premodifier is

always an adverb phrase, but the post-modifiers can be an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase, or even a clause. It is also possible to have a modifier that is partly in front and partly behind the head, called a discontinuous modifier, abbreviated as disc-mod. (Marjolijn Verspoor and Kim Sauter, *English Sentence Analysis: An Introductory Course*. John Benjamins, 2000)

Example:

“It is always the best policy to speak the truth--unless, of course, you are an exceptionally good liar.” (Jerome K. Jerome)

2.5.3 Adverb Phrase

A word group with an adverb as its head. This adverb may be accompanied by modifiers or qualifiers. An adverb phrase can modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, and it can appear in a number of different positions in a sentence.

Example:

“Movements born in hatred very quickly take on the characteristics of the thing they oppose.” (J. S. Habgood)

2.5.4 Gerund Phrase

A traditional grammatical term for a verbal that ends in -ing and functions as a noun. Adjective: gerundial. A gerund with its objects, complements, and modifiers is called a gerund phrase or simply a noun phrase.

Example:

“Failing the exam was a major disappointment to him, to me and to Eva.” (Judith Hubback, *From Dawn to Dusk*)

2.5.5 Noun Phrase

A word group with a noun or pronoun as its head. The noun head can be accompanied by modifiers, determiners (such as the, a, her), and/or complements. A noun phrase (often abbreviated as NP) most commonly functions as a subject, object, or complement.

Example:

“Buy a big bright green pleasure machine!” (Paul Simon)

2.5.6 Participial Phrase

A word (one of the parts of speech and a member of a closed word class) that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. The combination of a preposition and a noun phrase is called a prepositional phrase. A word group (such as in front of or on top of) that functions like a simple, one-word preposition is called a complex preposition.

Example:

“He moved ahead more quickly now, dragging his heels a little in the fine dust.” (John Steinbeck, *The Grapes of Wrath*)

2.5.7 Prepositional Phrase

A word (one of the parts of speech and a member of a closed word class) that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. The combination of a preposition and a noun phrase is called a prepositional phrase. A word group (such as in front of or on top of) that functions like a simple, one-word preposition is called a complex preposition.

Example:

“I could dance with you until the cows come home. On second thought I'd rather dance with the cows until you come home.”

(Groucho Marx)

2.5.8 Verb Phrase

a. In traditional grammar

A word group that includes a main verb and its auxiliaries.

b. In generative grammar

A predicate: that is, a lexical verb and all the words governed by that verb except a subject.

Example:

“When this is all over, your father may be going away for a little while.” (Ellen Griswold in *Vacation*, 1983).

2.6 Clause

Richard Nordquist on www.grammar.about.com explains that a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. A clause may be either a sentence (an independent clause) or a sentence-like construction within another sentence (a dependent clause).

Types of Clause:

2.6.1 Adjective Clause

A dependent clause used as an adjective within a sentence. It's also known as an adjectival clause or a relative clause. An adjective clause usually begins with a relative pronoun (which, that, who, whom, whose), a relative adverb (where, when, why), or a zero relative. There are two basic types of adjective clauses.

The first type is the nonrestrictive or nonessential adjective clause. This clause simply gives extra information about the noun. In the sentence, 'My older brother's car, which he bought two years ago, has already needed many repairs,' the adjective clause, 'which he bought two years ago,' is nonrestrictive or nonessential. It provides extra information. The second type is the restrictive or essential adjective clause. It offers essential (information) and is needed to complete the sentence's thought. In the sentence, 'The room that you reserved for the meeting is not ready,' the adjective clause, 'that you reserved for the meeting,' is essential because it restricts which room. (Jack Umstatter, *Got Grammar?* Wiley, 2007)

Example:

"He who can no longer pause to wonder and stand rapt in awe is as good as dead." (Albert Einstein)

2.6.2 Adverbial Clause

A dependent clause used as an adverb within a sentence to indicate time, place, condition, contrast, concession, reason, purpose, or result. Also known as adverbial clause. An adverb clause begins with a subordinating conjunction (such as if, when, because, or although) and includes a subject and a predicate.

Example:

a. "This is the West, sir. When the legend becomes fact, print the legend." (newspaper editor to Senator Ransom Stoddart in *The Man Who Shot Liberty Valance*, 1962)

b. "All human beings should try to learn before they die what they are running from, and to, and why." (attributed to James Thurber)

2.6.3 Comment Clause

A short word group (such as “you see” and “I think”) that adds a parenthetical remark to another word group.

Example:

“As you know, the concept of the suction pump is centuries old. Really that's all this is except that instead of sucking water, I'm sucking life.” (Christopher Guest as Count Rugen in *The Princess Bride*, 1987)

2.6.4 Comparative Clause

A type of subordinate clause that follows the comparative form of an adjective or adverb and begins with *as*, *than*, or *like*. As the name suggests, a comparative clause expresses a comparison: “Shyla is smarter than I am.”

Example:

a. “No other president ever enjoyed the presidency as I did.”
(Theodore Roosevelt)

b. “I only saw in him a much better man than I had been to Joe.”
(Charles Dickens, *Great Expectations*)

2.6.5 Complement Clause

A subordinate clause that serves to complete the meaning of a noun or verb in a sentence. Also known as a complement phrase (abbreviated as CP). Complement clauses are generally introduced by subordinating conjunctions (also known as complementizers) and contain the typical elements of clauses: a verb (always), a subject (usually), and direct and indirect objects (sometimes).

Example:

“She said she was approaching 40, and I couldn't help wondering from what direction.” (Bob Hope)

2.6.6 Conditional Clause

A type of adverbial clause that states a hypothesis or condition, real or imagined. A conditional clause may be introduced by the subordinating conjunction *if* or another conjunction, such as *unless* or *in case of*.

Example:

a. “If you want a friend in Washington, get a dog.” (Harry Truman)

b. “If we had no winter, the spring would not be so pleasant; if we did not sometimes taste of adversity, prosperity would not be so welcome.” (Anne Bradstreet, “Meditations Divine and Moral”)

2.6.7 Independent Clause

A group of words made up of a subject and a predicate. An independent clause (unlike a dependent clause) can stand alone as a sentence. By itself, an independent clause (also known as a main clause) is a simple sentence.

Example:

a. “When liberty is taken away by force, it can be restored by force. When it is relinquished voluntarily by default, it can never be recovered.” (Dorothy Thompson)

b. “The average man does not want to be free. He simply wants to be safe.” (H.L. Mencken)

2.6.8 Main Clause

A group of words made up of a subject and a predicate. A main clause (unlike a dependent or subordinate clause) can stand alone as a sentence. A main clause is also known as an independent clause.

Example:

“When people talk, listen completely. Most people never listen.”
(Ernest Hemingway)

2.6.9 Matrix Clause

In linguistics (and in generative grammar in particular), a clause that contains a subordinate clause. Plural: matrices. In terms of function, a matrix clause determines the central situation of a sentence. “A matrix clause is often a main clause . . . , but it need not be: it can itself be a subordinate clause. In the sentence The victim told police that the man who attacked her had had a beard, the subordinate clause who attacked her is contained within the subordinate clause that the man . . . had had a beard.” (R.L. Trask, Dictionary of English Grammar. Penguin, 2000)

2.6.10 Noun Clause

A dependent clause that functions as a noun (that is, as a subject, object, or complement) within a sentence. Also known as a nominal clause. Two common types of noun clause in English are that-clauses and wh-clauses:

a) that-clause: I believe that everything happens for a reason.

b) wh-clause: How do I know what I think, until I see what I say?

Example:

a. "I know that there are things that never have been funny, and never will be. And I know that ridicule may be a shield, but it is not a weapon." (Dorothy Parker)

b. "I believe that there is a subtle magnetism in Nature, which, if we unconsciously yield to it, will direct us aright." (Henry David Thoreau)

2.6.11 Relative Clause

A clause that generally modifies a noun or noun phrase and is introduced by a relative pronoun (which, that, who, whom, whose), a relative adverb (where, when, why), or a zero relative. Also known as an adjective clause. A relative clause is a postmodifier--that is, it follows the noun or noun phrase it modifies.

Example:

a. "It is not the employer who pays the wages. Employers only handle the money. It is the customer who pays the wages." (Henry Ford)

b. "Animals, whom we have made our slaves, we do not like to consider our equal." (Charles Darwin)

2.6.12 Subordinate Clause

A group of words that has both a subject and a verb but (unlike an independent clause) cannot stand alone as a sentence. Also known as a dependent clause.

Example:

- a. “When I’m good, I’m very, very good, but when I’m bad, I’m better.” (Mae West, I’m No Angel)
- b. “Memory is deceptive because it is colored by today’s events.” (Albert Einstein)

2.6.13 Verbless Clause

A clause-like construction in which a verb element is implied but not present. Such clauses are usually adverbial, and the omitted verb is a form of be. Verbless clauses are clauses in which the verb (usually a form of to be) and sometimes other elements have been deleted. Consider, for example:

- a. John believes the prisoner innocent. In this sentence the italicized sequence is a verbless clause, which we assume is a reduced version of the to-infinitive clause (b):
- b. John believes the prisoner to be innocent.

2.7 Sentence

According to Richard Nordquist on www.grammar.about.com, sentence is the largest independent unit of grammar: it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. Adjective: sentential. The sentence is traditionally (and inadequately) defined as a word or group of words that expresses a complete idea and that includes a subject and a verb. The four basic sentence structures are the simple sentence, the compound sentence, the complex sentence, and the compound-complex sentence.

2.7.1 Simple Sentence

A sentence with only one independent clause (also known as a main clause).

- a. "Children are all foreigners." (Ralph Waldo Emerson)
- b. "Mother died today." (Albert Camus, *The Stranger*, 1842)
- c. "Of course, no man is entirely in his right mind at any time." (Mark Twain, *The Mysterious Stranger*)

2.7.2 Compound Sentence

A sentence that contains at least two independent clauses. Compound sentences can be formed in three ways:

- a. Using coordinating conjunctions (and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet);
- b. Using the semicolon, either with or without conjunctive adverbs;
- c. On occasion, using the colon.

Example:

- a. "It was a bright cold day in April, and the clocks were striking thirteen." (George Orwell, *Nineteen Eighty-Four*, 1949)
- b. "The drought had lasted now for ten million years, and the reign of the terrible lizards had long since ended." (Arthur C. Clarke, *2001: A Space Odyssey*, 1968).

2.7.3 Complex Sentence

A sentence that contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The complex sentence is one of the four basic sentence structures. The other structures are the simple

sentence, the compound sentence, and the compound complex sentence.

Example:

a. "He was like a cock who thought the sun had risen to hear him crow." (George Eliot, *Adam Bede*)

b. "If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer. Let him step to the music which he hears, however measured, or far away." (Henry David Thoreau)

2.7.4 Compound-Complex Sentence

A sentence with two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. The compound-complex sentence is one of the four basic sentence structures. The other structures are the simple sentence, the compound sentence, and the complex sentence.

Example:

a. "In America everybody is of the opinion that he has no social superiors, since all men are equal, but he does not admit that he has no social inferiors, for, from the time of Jefferson onward, the doctrine that all men are equal applies only upwards, not downwards." (Bertrand Russell)

b. "Hatred, which could destroy so much, never failed to destroy the man who hated, and this was an immutable law." (James Baldwin)