

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To make a good analysis, the researcher of this thesis must be supported by several related theories. The theories which are applied in this thesis are definition of translation, translation and cultures, approaches in translation, definition of translator, process of translation, problem in translation, language varieties, address terms, and sociolinguistics.

2.1 Translation

Translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text (Newmark, 1988:5). As a means of communication, translation is used for multilingual notices, which at last appeared increasingly in public places. Furthermore, as a technique for learning foreign languages, translation is a two-edged instrument. It has the special purpose of demonstrating the learner's knowledge of the foreign language, either as a form of control or to exercise the learner's intelligence in order to develop the competence.

Translating a text or written translation is not only changing one language into another language, but also sending a meaningful message so that the readers can understand. It is because translation deals with many aspects, such as social aspects, cultural aspects and linguistic aspects. Translation has an important role to make the text grammatically correct and natural as a result the text can be easily understood by

the readers. The goal of translation is generally to establish a relation of equivalence between the source and the target language. Here are some definitions of translation which are proposed by some experts. Catford (1974:20) states that “Translation is replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”. Meanwhile, Nida and Taber (1974:12) states that “Translation consists of reproducing the receptor language to the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in term of meaning, secondly in term of style”.

Based on the definitions of translation according to the experts above, It can be concludes that translation replaced the textual material in one language into another language which the target language is the closest natural equivalent of the source language.

In other word, translation means delivery of message contained in source language (SL) into target language (TL), and the message transferred in TL is closely similar with the message in SL. Translation is an operation of some languages; it is a process of transferring ideas, thoughts and purposes from one language (SL) into another language (TL).

Translation activities do not only deal with transferring words from the source language into the target language, but also deal with the most important thing such as culture.

2.2 Translation and Cultures

According to Hoed (2006: 14) Culture is a complex collection of experiences which condition daily life. In culture there are seven elements, social organizations, work, science, technology, religion, art, and language. Language is one of culture elements, and it can be presented in a text. However, in a text, the cultural elements are not always fully presented, because each country has their own cultural background including the language which they used as an instrument to do an interaction with others. Different languages have their own vocabularies. The vocabularies from one culture may not be understandable in another culture. A vocabulary from source language may seem strange in target language. So, it is very important to notice culture in translation.

Cultural translation is a translation in which the content of the message is changed to conform to the receptor culture in some way, or in which information is introduced which is not linguistically implicit in the original (Nida and Taber, 1982: 199). It can be said that to make the target reader comfortable with the translation work, the content of the message from source language can be changed into the content of the culture in target language.

In doing cultural translation, a translator may often face some problem in translating the cultural aspect. One of the problems which may arise in translating the cultural aspect is translating address terms as one of the personal references. In addressing others, Indonesian people usually consider the age, social status, sex of others and intimacy in every situation. There are indeed many ways in solving that

problem by finding the equivalence in the target culture, eliminate it, or just left it being not translated. For that reason a translator must have a large knowledge and good understanding, not only the languages but also the cultures in both countries.

Definition of translation and culture above cannot separate from the approaches in translation because it is one of theory to support the translation, and an approach in translation is basic of translation.

2.3 Approaches in Translation

Translation is for discussion both in its referential and its pragmatic aspect. It has an invariant factor, but this factor cannot be precisely defined since it depends on the requirements and constraints exercises by one original on one translation. Nothing is purely objective or subjective, everything is more or less. There is an assumption of “normally” or “usually” or “commonly” behind each well-established principle. Qualifications such as “always”, “never”, “must” do not exist, there are no absolute. There are two approaches in translation according Newmark (1988:21) they are:

- a. Start translating sentence by sentence in order to get the feel and the feeling tone of the text, then deliberately sit back, review the position and read the rest of the source text.
- b. Read the whole text two or three times and find the intention, register, tone, mark the difficult words, and start translating.

The first approach may be more suitable for a literary text. The disadvantages of the first approach are that it may leave too much revision on the early part and it will be takes many times.

The second approach may be more suitable for technical or an institutional text. A translational text analysis is useful as a point of reference, but it should not inhibit the free play of one's intuition.

From the explanation above, it can be conclude that the first approach is for a relatively easy text, and the second approach is for the harder one.

To get a better result, approaches in translation must be used by a translator.

2.4 Translator

Translator is a person who translates a text from Source Language into Target Language. The translator can no longer be thought of as a ghostly perfect bilingual, but as a living being with a role and abilities that can be described and discussed (Campbell, 1998:4). Thus, it is good to discuss about translator because translation will not be accomplished without the existence of translator. Translator is the most important one in translation. Thus, there will be no translation in the world without the existence of translators. In Indonesian, translator means penerjemah atau pengalih bahasa (Echols and Shadily, 1992:601). Beside translator there is also someone who called an interpreter. It is a person whose job is to translate what somebody is saying into another language. Furthermore, interpreter is one who interprets or translates

specifically, one who serves as oral translator between people speaking different languages.

From the explanations about translator and interpreter above, it could be known that both translator and interpreter are people who translate one language into another. Translator mostly does writing translation, but interpreter does speech or oral translation.

According to Dolet in Bassnet-McGuire (1980:54), in order to get a good translation, there are five principles for a translator:

1. The translator must fully understand the sense and the meaning of the original author, although he is at liberty to clarify obscurities.
2. The translator should have a perfect knowledge of both source language and target language.
3. The translator should avoid word-for-word rendering.
4. The translator should use forms of speech in common use.
5. The translator should choose and order words appropriately to produce the correct tone.

Machali (2000:11) states that “a translator should have good mastery in both Source Language and Target Language skills in handling different problems in rendering the source text, understanding the source text is the key to successful translation”. It can be said that to get a successful translation, a translator should be mastering, understanding, and handling different problems in translating the source text well into the target text.

In doing a translation, a translator should transfer the message of source language into the target language. Transferring processes are done by a translator called as process of translation.

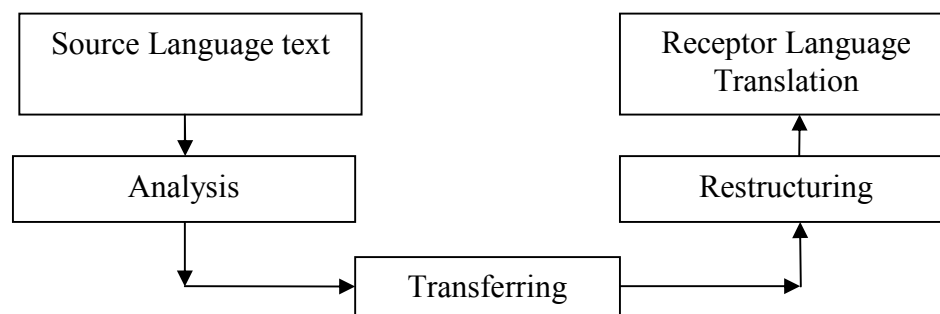
2.5 Process of Translation

The process of translation is series of activities which be done by a translator at the time she/he transfers the message from the source language into the target language (Nababan, 1997:6). A translator should be careful in doing the activity of translation, because a mistake in one point may result mistakes in another point. If this happened, the result of the translation would be less satisfying.

According to Nida and Taber in Hoed (1993:57), the processes of translation are:

1. Analyzing (learning the source text). It is the first step in which the content and the purpose in the source text is entirely to be read and to be understood.
2. Transferring (replacing the substance of source language with its equivalence substance of target language). In this step, the message in the source text is transferred into the target text. The message can be a content, idea or thought.
3. Restructuring (adapted the translated text to the turn of reader). Restructure means rearrange. In other word, after transferring the message from source text into the target text, a translator has to rearrange the translation work.

According to Larson (1984:17), when translating a text, the translator's goal is an idiomatic translation which makes every effort to communicate their meaning of the source text into the natural forms of the receptor language. Larson simply presents the diagram of the process of translation which is quoted from Susan Bassnet in translation studies (1991: 16).



**Figure 2.1: Diagram of translation Process
Quoted from Susan Bassnet in Translation Studies (1991:16)**

Based on the diagram above, we can conclude that process of translation can be divided into three parts.

The first is analysis; it means the surface structure (message) as given in the source language is analyzed in terms of the grammatical relationship and the meanings of the words and combination of words. The second is transfer; it means the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from the source language to the receptor language. The last process is restructuring; means that the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the target language.

They describe that in translation text, the forms of the source language may be changed into appropriate forms of the receptor language in order to achieve the idiomatic translation.

By knowing the processes according to some experts above, anyone can do translation easily. It is because the processes above give explanation that anyone can follow. But in translating a text, someone must face some problems. There are so many problems in translation process faced by a translator.

2.6 Problems in Translation

Nababan (1999:54-60) explains that in translating process, there are some problems that are caused by some factors, such as the differences of language systems, the complexity of semantic and stylistic, the translator's competence, and also the quality of source text.

1. The differences of language systems

There is no language that has the same form and systems in terms of syntax, lexical and morpheme. In English, there is a rule that some plural words are added with "s" such as pens. However, in Indonesian there is no rule like that.

2. The semantic and stylistic complexity

There is no country that has the same culture as the other countries. The translator will face a problem in translating the terms of source language socio-culture into the target language. Stylistic complexity is also one of the factors that make the translator difficult to transfer the message. Because of the difference of

source and target language's cultures and the style of those languages is also different.

3. The translator's competence

Nababan (1999:59-60) says that the translator is the main subject in translating process. A translator should have language competence, cultural competence, subject competence, textual competence, transfer competence, and sufficient experiences in translating. If the translators do not have good competence, they will not be able to produce a good quality of translation.

4. The quality of source text

Nababan (1999:60) states that the problems of translation also can be caused by the low quality of the source language text. The message of the source language will be difficult to be understood if quality of the source language text is not good, such as wrong grammar, ambiguous sentences, poor coherency within sentences or paragraph, missed punctuation, etc.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that to get a better result a translator should have good competence, if the translators do not have good competence, they will not be able to produce a good quality of translation. The most important competences that a translator must own are language competence and culture competence which have influences in language varieties.

2.7 Language Varieties

The choice of language variety used depends on circumstances and people whom the speaker talks to. Variety is a neutral term which simply refers to any 'kind of language' without being specific (Trudgill, 1974: 17). Hudson (1980: 22) states that variety of language or just variety for short is different from one another. What make one variety of language different from another are the linguistic items. Thus, Hudson defines variety of language as a set of linguistic items.

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that every language has its own varieties which are created by language users themselves. A whole language is so vast and heterogeneous. Language varieties are any kind of language used by people or community.

Language varieties have some types. According to Hudson (1980: 24), the very general notion 'variety' includes examples of what would normally be called language, dialect, and register. The three types are extremely problematic. It is not easy to find a general definition for each one which will distinguish it from the others and also to find criteria for delimiting varieties.

1. Language

Language is such a complex phenomenon that no one viewpoint can see it as a whole (Pit Coder, 1973:21). Haugen in Hudson (1980:31) states that Language is larger than a dialect.

2. Dialect

According to Trudgill (1974:17), the term of dialect refers to differences between kinds of language which are differences of vocabulary and grammar as well as pronunciation. On the contrary, the term accent refers to differences of pronunciation. Holmes (1992: 142) states that there are two kinds of dialect, namely regional dialect and social dialect. Regional dialect involves features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar according to the geographical area the speakers come from. And, social dialect is distinguished by features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar according to the social group of the speaker.

3. Register

Register is a variety related to the wider social role being played by the performer at the moment of utterance (Catford, 1965: 85). According to Hudson (1980: 45), the term register is widely used in sociolinguistics to refer 'varieties according to use', in contrast with dialects, defined as 'varieties according to user'.

There is considerable variation in address terms usage, across language, across national boundaries, across social groups within the same country, from one individual to the next, and even in the behavior of the same person from one instance to another. There are at least two sources of variation in the use of address terms. First, there are group differences. Second, even within the same social groupings,

there is considerable freedom to select one or other of the acceptable general patterns on an individual basis (Fasold, 1990:16).

2.8 Address Terms

Address terms are the words speakers use to designate the person they are talking to (Fasold, 1990:1-2). In most languages, there are two main kinds of address terms: names and second person pronouns. Just a brief moment's reflection will show you that you can, in principle at least, address anyone in either of two ways: by their first name or by their title and last name. Address terms are really part of complete semantic systems having to do with social relationships. It is not really sufficient to look only at addressing by name and second person pronoun. There are languages in which many other devices are used for the expression of social relationships. Furthermore, there is the whole question of kin terms (Words for kinship relationships like 'mother', 'brother', 'cousin'). We will mention kin terms only where they are used to address people, as in 'Uncle Harry'. The other case is when the speaker simply does not know the other person's name. It is possible, of course, to step out of a discourse and ask for an introduction ('I'm sorry, I didn't get your name'), but this play is awkward and embarrassing. Failing this, Ervin-Tripp's chart leads us to 'title', 'Mr.' 'Mrs', or 'Miss' plus an empty last name.

Address terms are used when a speaker already has the listener's attention and summonses are used to get their attention.

Based on theory from Fasold above, the researcher classified the data analysis into four address terms. They are pronoun, kinship, name, and title. Each of them is described below:

2.8.1 Pronoun

Pronoun is a part of speech as one of a class words that serves to replace a noun phrase that has already been or is about to mention in the sentence or context (Collins in Brata, 2010:2). Besides replacing a noun phrase, pronoun also used for addressing in the forms of lexical or phrasal choice belonged to a group of people in a certain society used by the addresser to address the addressee (Braun, 1988:5).

Second person represents the audience which the speaker is addressing. ‘You’ and ‘your’ are the pronouns used as second person. Pronoun ‘you’ is used to address single person or a group of persons i.e., it is used both in singular and plural forms. The pronoun ‘you’ can be used in singular form to communicate to a single person. For example, “Mother, before **you** head for Milan city, please remembers to read the checklist of stationery shopping I have kept on the table. Love, yours Rose.” The same pronoun ‘you’ can be used in plural form to communicate with a group of people. For example, “Team, **you** need to be prepared for the next set of projects that are coming up in few weeks.” Second person ‘you’ represents subjective case if it is used as a subject in a sentence. ‘You’ can be used in objective case as well. Possessive case of second person is ‘your’ or ‘yours’. For example “**You** should

exercise **your** rights as Indian citizens and vote in the next year's election". Here, 'you' represents subjective case while 'yours' represents the possessive case. In the sentence "I gave it to you", the second person 'you' is used in objective case. In literary writing, second person may refer to the reader/audience or the central character. (<http://lifestyle.iloveindia.com/lounge/types-of-person-in-grammar-14006.html>)

Besides that, second person 'you' can be represents vocative case if it is used as a vocative in the sentence. Vocative is a word or phrase used to address a reader or listener directly, usually in the form of a personal name, pronoun, or title. For example:

SL: "Did **you** ever see me again?" he asked. (Page 89 line 4)

TL: "*Pernahkah **kau** bertemu lagi denganku?*" tanyanya. (Page 92 line 28)

The utterance above was uttered by captain to Eddie. Captain is the second person who Eddie meets in heaven. Both of them have been ever meet in a war. It indicates that they have a sufficiently close personal relationship. In fact, the conversation happens in heaven between Captain and Eddie in informal situation.

In the utterance, there is second personal pronoun **you** as a vocative in the sentence and refers to Eddie. And that second personal pronoun **you** are translated into **kau**. It is one kind of translation variation of second personal pronoun **you** which commonly used in informal situation or between participants who have a sufficiently close personal relationship.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that in this context the second personal pronoun **you** are translated into **kau** because the addresser (captain) and the addressee (Eddie) are in informal situation and they have a sufficiently close personal relationship.

2.8.2 Kinship

According to Fasold (1990:3), Address terms are really part of complete semantic systems having to do with social relationships. It is not really sufficient to look only at addressing by name and second person pronouns. There are languages in which many other devices are used for the expression of social relationships. Furthermore, there is the whole question of kin terms (Words for kinship relationships like ‘mother’, ‘brother’, ‘cousin’). We will mention kin terms only where they are used to address people, as in ‘Uncle Harry’. Another related phenomenon is how a person is referred to as well as how he or she is addressed. A man can be expected to address his wife by her first name, but may refer to her as ‘Mom’, ‘my wife’, ‘Marry’, ‘Mrs Harris’, or ‘Tommy’s mother’, depending on how it is he is talking to.

To make it clear, here is the example from the novel *The five people you meet in heaven* by Mitch Albom and its translation *Meniti bianglala* by Andang H. Sutopo:

SL: "You hear me? **Dad**?" (Page 144 line 14)

TL: "*Kaudengar aku, **Ayah**?*" (Page 148 line 12)

The utterance above was uttered by Eddie to his father. It indicates that they are intimate to each other. This is uttered when Eddie wants to apologize to his father in informal situation.

In the utterance, there is a word which refers to second person address in kinship term. It is **Dad** as a vocative in the sentence and refers to Eddie's father. In this utterance the word **Dad** is translated into *Ayah*. Both of them used to designate male parent.

From the explanation above, it can be conclude that in this context the word **Dad** is translated into *Ayah* which designate to male parent, because the addresser (Eddie) is the son of the addressee (Eddie's father).

2.8.3 Name

Brown and Ford's in Wardhaugh (2006:268) state that study of naming practices in English was based on an analysis of modern plays, the naming practices observed in a business in Boston, and the reported usage of business executives and children in the mid-western United States and in 'Yoredale' in England. They report that the asymmetric use of title plus last name, and first name (TLN/FN). Title plus last name (TLN) was indicated inequality and unfamiliarity, meanwhile First Name only (FN) was indicated equality and familiarity. The switch from mutual TLN to FN is also usually initiated by the more powerful member of the relationship. Knowing and using another's first name is, of course, a sign of considerable intimacy or at least

of a desire for such intimacy. Using a nickname or pet name shows an even greater intimacy. When someone uses your first name alone in addressing you, you may feel on occasion that person is presuming an intimacy you do not recognize or, alternatively, is trying to assert some power over you.

To make it clear, here is the example from the novel *The five people you meet in heaven* by Mitch Albom and its translation *Meniti bianglala* by Andang H. Sutopo:

1. First Name

SL: "Hiya, **Eddie**," Marguerite says. (Page 77 line 16)

TL: "*Hai, **Eddie**,*" kata Marguerite. (Page 81 line 19)

The utterance above was uttered by Marguerite to Eddie. The relationship between Marguerite and Eddie is a husband and wife. So when Marguerite addressing her husband with FN (First Name) only, it indicated an equality and familiarity between participants.

The translator keeps the word **Eddie** in TL. It is unnecessary for the translator to change the name of person into Indonesian term, because it will change the meaning of the whole text in TL.

2. Title plus last name

SL: "HAP-PY BIRTH-DAY, **MR. ED-DIE!**" (Page 152 line 17)

TL: "*HAP-PY BIRTH-DAY, **MR. ED-DIE!***" (Page 156 line 22)

The utterance above was uttered by a group of children to Eddie. They are a group of children who brings by Marguerite to Eddie's Birthday little party. They are

younger than Eddie. Both of them have never known yet. So, when a group of children addressing Eddie with TLN (Title plus Last name), it indicated an inequality and unfamiliarity between participants.

2.8.4 Title

Title is a word used for showing somebody's rank, profession marital status, etc (Oxford Dictionary). It indicates there is no or least intimacy between addresser and addressee, and it usually designates one's rank or occupation such as *Doctor, Lord, Prince, Lady, Prime Minister, Etc.*

Fasold (1990: 15) state that:

The other case is when the speaker simply does not know the other person's name. It is possible, of course, to step out of a discourse and ask for an introduction ('I'm sorry, I didn't get your name'), but this play is awkward and embarrassing. Failing this, Ervin-Tripp's chart leads us to 'title', 'Mr.' 'Mrs', or 'Miss' plus an empty last name.

But while it is perfectly acceptable to address a priest, for example, as 'Father', or a physician as 'Doctor'. It is odd to address someone as just 'Mrs'. Ervin-Tripp (1972:228-9) proposes that this problem be solved by changing metaphors. So to speak, and adds rules of the following form to her model:

Father + \emptyset \rightarrow Father

Mr + \emptyset \rightarrow \emptyset

In other words, ‘Father’ plus an empty last name adds up to ‘Father’, but ‘Mr’ plus an empty last name adds up to nothing and the speakers use no name at all.

Address by title alone is the least intimate form of address in that titles usually designate ranks or occupations, as in *Colonel*, *Doctor*, or *Waiter*. They are devoid of ‘personal’ content. We can argue therefore that *Doctor Smith* is more intimate than *Doctor* alone, acknowledging as it does that the other person’s name is known and can be mentioned.

It is common for American English speakers to get the attention of virtually any adult male by calling him ‘sir’, but it would most likely sound overly stiff to use ‘sir’ once you have his attention. For example if a driver in a car wanted to get directions from a pedestrian, this might well be achieved by saying something like: ‘Sir, how do I get to the airport?’ It would be odd for the same person to say in the middle of the conversation something like: ‘Did you say three stop lights before I turn, sir?’

Definition of address terms above cannot separate from sociolinguistics, because Address Terms itself is a branch of sociolinguistics in sub chapter Solidarity and Politeness.

2.9 Sociolinguistics

According to Wardhaugh (2006:13) Sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationships between language and society with the goal being a

better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages function in communication.

The equivalent goal in the sociology of language is trying to discover how social structure can be better understood through the study of language, e.g., how certain linguistic features serve to characterize particular social arrangements.

Hudson (1996:4) has described the difference as follows: sociolinguistics is ‘the study of language in relation to society,’ whereas the sociology of language is ‘the study of society in relation to language.’ In other words, in sociolinguistics we study language and society in order to find out as much as we can about what kind of thing language is, and in the sociology of language we reverse the direction of our interest.

Using the alternative terms given above, Coulmas (1997:2) says that ‘micro-sociolinguistics investigates how social structure influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as class, sex, and age.

Meanwhile, Macro-sociolinguistics, studies what societies do with their languages, that is, attitudes and attachments that account for the functional distribution of speech forms in society, language shift, maintenance, and replacement, the delimitation and interaction of speech communities.