CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In the previous chapter, the researcher has mentioned some researchers who studied about translation shift. Next discussion is about the theory related to the analysis. Those theories become the standard to analyze data in this analysis. The researcher arranges the explanation as follows:

2.1   Definition of Translation

The term translation is known as the way to convey message from one language (source language) to another language (target language). The definition of translation has stated by some experts, such as Catford (1965: 20) who defined translation as the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). In his theory, he emphasized in structural terms in SL and TL. The opinions expressed by Catford fairly still can not be a reference in translating well. It is because in the translation, we can not just focus on the structural side. In translation, we must also consider the element of information or messages that are in the source language. This is very important because in translation, the most important thing is to keep the message in SL that can be delivered into the TL.

Therefore Nida (1982:12) stated that translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms

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of style. Based on his statement, it can include the pragmatic translation which emphasizes the "message" in terms of translation. It means that the translation of the SL must be delivered to the TL well. He considers that translation must contain the messages of the original text. Translators should not translate the target text rigidly, but they must harmonize message in source text (ST) in order to easier to understand in the target text (TT). Thus target text will not be confusing and acceptable.

Pragmatic translation is important in the translation because it can help the addressee to understand the message in the original text which contains a foreign language. However, it should be remembered that besides structure of language, socio-culture in translation is also must be translated properly. Translators have to know about differentiation of culture and custom in target language. It is things that are also must be considered by the translator. Based on Larson's opinion (1984) in her book entitled "Meaning Based Translation", translation is transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language by way of semantic structure. It is the meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant. In the opinion of Larson, it can be concluded that the translation is a way to transfer information from the source language to the target language appropriately. Translators must be able to adjust to every word, phrase and sentence in the SL with the style of language or culture in the TL. The example is:

SL: I have to finish my *homework* quickly.

TL: Saya harus menyelesaikan *PR* ku dengan cepat.

In the sentence above, the word *homework* in SL is translated into *PR* in TL. This is because in Indonesian the task of the school is commonly known as *PR*, but this is definitely different from other countries. Therefore, the translator must quite understand about the socio-culture of the receptor.

Based on the three opinions above, the researcher concludes that a good translation is a translation that is able to convey the intent of the SL properly in accordance with the conditions language style that exists in the TL.

2.2 Translation process

Translation process is a stage of transferring the meaning start from source language into target language. In transferring meaning, translators must pass through some steps to make meaning in SL translated well in TL. Transferring meaning is more complex than it seems, a good translation is when the message, which is expressed in SL, is linguistically well transformed and the readers easily to understand the TL (Pradipta, 2013: 12). The translation should be analyzed first in order to the message transferred well.

In the process of translation, Nida (1982) states that there are three steps can be used by the translators: 1) analysis, 2) transferring, 3)

restructuring. Analysis is the process to understand message in source text related grammatical and semantic aspect. The translators should analyze first the grammatical and semantic aspect of source language in order to they will understand the message clearly. After analysis, next step are transferring. It is the process to transfer the result of analysis from source text to target text. Then, restructuring is the process to re-establishing text in different style. After transfer the message from SL into TL, the translators must be deciding what style that used to write translation in target text. Style of translation may include the word selection, language style, or the methods that want to use. All of processes above are conducted for make translation easier to understand in target text.

2.3 Translation shift

Translation shift is a process shifting of items in source language to the target language with a same equivalence. Catford (1965:73) defines *'shifts'* as different approach from formal correspondence in the process of going from the source language to the target language. He states two major types of translation shifts as follows:

2.3.1 Level shift

It meant a source language item in one linguistic level has a target language translation equivalent at a different level. Shifts from grammar to lexis and vice-versa are the only possible level shifts in translation and such shifts are, of course, quite common.

2.3.2 Category shift

Category shift is departure from correspondence in translation. It is the shift that happens in the theoretical categories such as structures, class, unit and intra-system.

a) Structure shift. It involves a grammatical change between the structure of the SL and the TL. It also occurs when the structure of TL is different from the structure of SL equivalent at a different level. For example *Old man* (M → H) in SL translated into *Laki-laki tua* (H → M) in TL.

b) Class shift is a shift occurs in the part of speech in a translation. It occurs when one word in one class shifting into another class. Catford (1965) states that class shift occur when the translation equivalent of a source language item is a member of a different class from the original item. It changes in word class. He also writes that structure shifts usually need class shifts because of the logical dependence of class on structure in both of them, though this may be demonstrable only at a secondary degree of delicacy. For example medical student translated into *mahasiswa kedokteran*, to change modifier → head become head→ modifier, structure shift need class shift to translated *medical* (adjective) to *kedokteran* (Noun) so it becomes an equivalence translation in TL. The other example is verb in original translated into adverb in the target language.

SL : Mother sat in front with Daddy (V)

TL : *Ibu di depan di samping Ayah* (Adv)

c) Unit Shift. According to Catford (1965:79), unit shift involves changes of rank. It is departure from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL is a unit at a different rank in the TL. Based on his statement, it can conclude that unit shift may happen in word to phrase, phrase to clause, or clause to sentence.

SL : They started soon after breakfast. (N)

TL : *Mereka berangkat sehabis makan pagi.* (NP)

d) Intra system shift refers to the shift that occurs internally within the system. It cases where the source language and the target language possess systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but the translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the target language system. (E.g. singular form can be translated in plural).

2.4 Method of Translation

In translation, the translators usually have their own method of translating a translation. It is because each translator has his/her own style and purpose in translating. Each of the methods used to show a success rate translator in translating, if the method chosen by the translator less precise, the result of translation can also certainly be less than perfect. The method chosen by a translator will affect the translation of the whole text. Here are some methods of translation that proposed by Newmark (1988)

that divided into two emphasize; the first is source language emphasize and the second is target language emphasize. Translation method that emphasizes source includes word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, and semantic translation. Then, the second are translation method that emphasizes target language include adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation, and communicative translation. The explanation discusses clearly as follows:

1. **Word-for-word translation**

   This translation method, translate the source language (SL) word-per-word and directly placed in the target language (TL). Translator is just looking for a closest meaning in the SL into the TL. Every word was translated one by one based on common sense without any adjustment to the context. Cultural words are translated literally. The main use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or to construe a text difficult, as a pre-translation process. This method is usually used if the translator was having trouble finding an appropriate match in the SL.

2. **Literal Translation**

   In this method, the translator translated SL by finding the grammatical construction that is equivalence with the TL. In the process, first translator using a word-for-word, the translator tried to adapt them to the wording in accordance with the structure of

language in SL. Although the translator tries to adjust grammatical arrangement with SL but in this method, the translation was still out of context.

3. **Faithful translation**

A faithful translation attempts to reproduce the appropriate contextual meaning of the SL within the constraints of the grammatical structures in TL. It 'transfers' cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical 'abnormality' in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL. This method is usually used to translate important documents so that the translator must maintain the structure in SL that does not alter the original meaning. The rules in the TL are less attention because it is restricted to the rules in SL.

4. **Semantic translation**

This method is a better method than previous methods. In this method, the translator translates SL with aesthetics and adjusts the translation to the context in TL. This method is almost the same as the faithful translation, but in this method, the translation becomes flexible due to adjustment to the context of the SL into the TL. Translators have started to give their perspective and idea in translating. They try to make the result of translation looks better and natural.

5. **Adaptation**

This method is the 'Freest' form of translation. In this method, the translator translates the original freely but it did not come out of a theme in SL. This method is commonly used in the translation of poetry and drama. In the process, translator translating a work by adjusts it with the existing culture in the TL. It is like in *Oedipus* story translated into Indonesian be *Sangkuriang* story. Although the names of the characters in the SL and TL are not the same, but the plot and characterizations in the story should be still same as the original. Translators may not change the theme of the original and they have to defend it in the target language.

6. **Free translation**

This method is kind of translation that prioritizes the contents of the SL. This method usually makes the translation becomes longer because the translator usually paraphrase words in SL. This is intended to make the addressee are more familiar with the message in SL. Translators wants to make addressee understand well with the massage that has delivered. Besides that, this method used to make the translation is like the original. It means that the translator wants to make the translation readability as well as in the original.

7. **Idiomatic translation**

This method is a method of translation that uses the natural form in TL, which is in accordance with the form of grammatical and lexical choice. The results are very natural translation as text in the original. This method reproduces the text message in the TL more natural and be well received.

8. **Communicative translation**

Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. This method is very concerned on addressee's ability to understand the message that the translation made as possible so as not to confuse addressee.

Based on the methods already mentioned above, Newmark (1988:47) argues that the most appropriate method of translating is a semantic and communicative translation method. This is because the methods are considered able to adjust message well either in terms of grammatical or cultural components. Semantic translation tries to make the structure of TL equivalence with the original. Then, communicative translation tries to replace the message of SL with a closest one in TL. In his opinion, the translator should be used those method to make the best translation.

2.5 Nida's Theory of Equivalence in Translation

Nida in his book "Toward a science of translating", argues that there are two types of equivalent in translation, namely formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence is the equivalence in translation that tries to translate with retaining the original text, without adding the thought of translator in translation. It focuses attention on the message itself, in the both form and content. The message in the target language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language (Nida, 1964:159).

The dynamic equivalence is an approach to the translation where the original language is translated with consideration of thoughts or ideas translator. Dynamic equivalence involves taking each sentence of the original text and rendering the sentence into the target language text with the same meaning, but it does not always use the right phrase or idiom of the original. It aims to make the reader well informed without feeling confused. Dynamic equivalence sacrifices some fidelity the original text in order to achieve a more natural translation. It is designed to make translation easier to understand (Nida, 1964:159-160).

2.6 English Clause

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb. It can be independent or dependent. An independent clause is a complete sentence which contains the main subject and verb. Dependent clause is a clause contains subject and verb but it can not stand by itself without

independent clause. It must be connected to an independent clause. The combination independent and dependent clause is called complex sentence (Azhar, 2002:239). There are some types of dependent clause in English. Commonly, those are noun clause, adjective clause (relative clause), and adverbial clause.

2.6.1 Noun Clause

Noun clause is dependent clause that functions as a noun. Because of it functions as a noun, noun clause can be used as subject or object in a sentence. In its application, noun clause always begins with clause marker. It can be that, how, if, where, who, whom, when, whose, whether, which, and various forms of –ever (Azhar, 2002). According to Wren and Martin (2000:196), noun clause have some function in complex sentence, those are

a. The Subject of a verb. (*What he said* is true)

b. The Object of a transitive verb. (I heard *what he said*)

c. The Object of a preposition. (She dispense wisdom to *whoever will listen*)

d. In Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun. (It is feared *that he will not come*)

e. The Complement of a verb of incomplete predication. (Live is *what we make it*)

2.6.2 Adjective Clause

Adjective clause is dependent clause that modifies noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about noun (Azhar, 2002:267). He states "an adjective clause is also called a relative clause". Relative clause has function as post modifiers in a noun phrase or prepositional phrase. It typically begins with the relative pronoun and relative adverb. It called so because it has function to relate the clause to the word, normally a noun or pronoun which is the head of the noun phrase. Relative pronoun consists of *who, whose, whom, which,* and *that,* whereas relative adverb consist of *where, when,* and *that.* In fact, adjective clause has a same characteristic with noun clause which uses WH-marker, but they certainly have a difference (Leech, 1982:99). The differences of the use WH-marker in the noun clause and the relative clause are in adjective clause WH-marker used to describe a noun or pronoun that existed before relative pronoun. Then WH-marker in noun clause functions as noun in sentence.

The uses of relative pronoun and relative adverb have their own role in adjective clause. They have their own function in relating word in a sentence. The brief explanations about those functions are described below:

1. Who is used for persons only, it is either singular or plural. It is also sometime used in referring animals. Commonly, it is used to replace the subject in the second sentence in complex sentence.

2. Which is used for things without life and for animals.

3. Whose is the possessive form of *who* that used in speaking of persons, animals, and things without life. It serves to replace the second sentence. It usually has features *whom + noun*.

4. Whom is used to replace the verb object. The hallmark of this relative pronoun is *whom + subject*.

5. When is used for show time in sentence.

6. Where is used for indicating a place in a sentence, but sometimes *which* can also be used to indicate place by combining *in + which*.

7. That is used to replace the subject or object of the first sentence that has the same function as the previous sentence.

Besides the use of relative pronouns that have differences in the adjective clause, there is also something else of concern. It is a restrictive clause and non-restrictive clause. Both have an important function also in forming a perfect relative clause. Different use between the two, able to make the message delivered to be different.

Restrictive clause or defining relative clause is described as a clause describing the preceding noun where the information in the clause is required in the sentence. The information in restrictive clause can not be removed because it will change the meaning or message in the sentence. Then, non-restrictive clause or non-defining relative clause is clause describing preceding noun by adding additional non-essential information. The information can be removed at any time because it will not change the

meaning of the sentence. A non-restrictive clause is usually marked by a comma (,) between the subject and the clause.

∗ My brother who is a doctor has gone to America

∗ My brother, who is a doctor, has gone to America.

From the above examples, there is a difference in the first sentence, the subject *brother* indicates that the author has more than one brother so to clarify which *brother* is meant, then there is addition of clause *who is a doctor* used as explanation. The information contained in the clause can not be removed because if the information is lost it will be *my brother has gone to America.* It is not clear which *brother* that the author is discussing so there must be a clause that explains it.

While in the second sentence, it is clear that the *brother* is only one because of there is coma as a confirmation that the subject covered only one. If any additional information is abolished then it does not matter because of the presence or absence of that information, the meaning of the sentence will remain the same. It is *my brother has gone to America.* Because the author has only one brother then there is no need for additional information to explain which *brother* is meant. The addition of information is just information from the author to describe the brother who is just that one.

2.6.3 Adverbial Clause

Adverbial clause can be classified semantically according to what questions they answer. It may modify verb, adjective, or adverb in the main clause. All adverbial clauses are introduced by a conjunction (Leech, 1982:97). There are some kinds of adverb clause that classified as:

a. Adverb clause of time is introduced by subordinating conjunction *whenever, while, after, before, since, as*, and etc.

b. Adverb clause of place is introduce by the subordinating conjunction *where* and *whereas*.

c. Adverb clause of purpose is introduced by the subordinating conjunction *so that, in order at*, and *lest*.

d. Adverb clause of cause is introduced by subordinating conjunction *because, as since, that*.

e. Adverb clause of condition is introduced by subordinating conjunction *if, whether,* and *unless*.

f. Adverb clause of consequence is introduced by subordinating conjunction *that, so* or *such*.

g. Adverb clause comparison degree and manner is introduced by subordinating conjunction *as, as if,* and *as though*.

h. Adverb clause of supposition is introduced by subordinating conjunction *though, although*, and *even if*.

2.7 Indonesian Clause

A clause is a construction which contains a predicate with some minor exceptions, a subject. It is either independent or dependent. An independent clause is a clause which can stand by itself as a simple sentence. A dependent clause is a clause which can not stand by itself without independent clause or other clauses to form sentence (Sneddon, 1996:231). There are some types of clause in Indonesian, but the researcher just explains more about Indonesian relative clause. It is because the focus of this analysis is about relative clause that translated into *yang* in Indonesian. The further explanation about Indonesian relative clause described below:

2.7.1 Indonesian Relative Clause

In Indonesian grammar, relative clause is one way of adding information about a noun by incorporating a clause within the noun phrase. Commonly, it is preceded by *yang*. The head of the noun phrase corresponds to some component within the relative clause. The noun phrase within which relative clause occurs is called the embedding phrase. There are some kinds of Indonesian relative clause, namely defining relative clause, topic-comment relative clauses, prepositional relative clauses and locative relative clause. They become differentiation between relative clause in English and relative clause in Indonesian. The further explanation and the examples explained as follows:

A.   Defining Relative Clause

A defining relative clause is one whose subject correspond the head noun of the embedding phrase. It is referred to relative clause, being by far the most common type of relative clause. The clause is incorporated within the noun phrase by deleting its subject which is identical to the head noun of the embedding phrase. It also placing *yang* before it (Sneddon, 1996:285).

1. *Orang itu duduk dekat jendela*

   (That person is sitting near the window)

2. *Orang itu bekerja dengan saya*

   (That person works with me)

3. *Orang yang duduk dekat jendela itu bekerja dengan saya.*

   (The person who is sitting near the window works with me)

The first sentence can be embedded within the subject noun phrase of the second sentence. The combination both of the sentences can be clearer by giving relative pronoun *who* after the subject or noun.

Relative clauses can also derive from other basic clause types. Those are verbal clause and non-verbal clauses. Non-verbal clauses are divided into noun relative clause and adjective relative clause.

a. Verbal relative clause. Since the head noun stands in the same relationship to the verb as the subject of the clause, that relationship must be shown by the verb. If the relationship is that of actor the

verb must be active, whereas if the noun stands as object the verb must be passive.

For examples:

- *Orang yang membangun rumah saya*   (as actor)

  (The person who built my house)

- *Rumah yang sudah dibangun*   (as noun)

  (House which has been built)

b. Noun relative clause can be used when the speaker want to distinguish a person from other people with similar characteristics, especially the same name (Sneddon, 1996:288).

For example:

Ibu Alieve, yang seorang ibu, akan kami jemput

(Mrs. Alieva, who is woman, will be met by us)

c. Adjective relative clause is a relative clause that used to expressing a single idea without any emphasis on the adjective. Use of *yang* separates the adjective from the noun and gives emphasis to it.

For example

Anak yang seperti Tini

(Chidren who are like Tini)

B.   Topic-comment Relative Clause

Topic-comment relative clause is divided into possessor topic-comment relative clause meaning "whose" and object topic-comment relative clauses. In the possessor topic-comment relative clause, the

subject of the relative clause is the thing possessed by the head noun. Then object topic-comment relative clause, the head of the embedding phrase is identical to the object of the relative clause. It is marked by –*nya* occurring in object position within the clause (Sneddon, 1996:288). The examples of both are mentioned as follows:

1. *Seorang <u>pejabat yang</u> tidak akan disebutkan namanya*

   (An official whose name will not be mentioned)

2. *<u>Senjata</u> yang tidak setiap musuh bias menghadapi<u>nya</u>*

   (Weapons which not every enemy can face)

C.   Prepositional Relative Clause

In this type of relative clause, the head of the embedding phrase is not identical to the subject (or topic) of the relative clause. It is identical to the noun in a prepositional phrase, usually indicating location. It occurs at the beginning of the relative clause, immediately after *yang*. Usually prepositional relative clause is the combination of prepositional + relative clause. By the addition, both of them will make the new meaning as an example below.

Meja yang diatasnya tersedia makanan

(The table on which food is set).

In the example above shows that there is preposition *on* + relative pronouns *which* that used to indicate location of object namely *food*.

D.   Locative Relative Clause

It is differ from other kinds of relative clause that not proceeded by *yang*. The more traditional construction begins with *tempat* using "where", though some people still translated it by *dimana*. In spite of all of it, the important thing is locative relative clause always explained the place of something.

Pabrik tempat mereka bekerja tidak jauh dari sini.

(The factory where they work is not far from here.

2.8   Indonesian Sentence

According to Sneddon (1996), a sentence is a construction which is grammatically complete. It can stand by itself as a complete utterance. In writing a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark. Sentences are either simple or complex. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause. A complex sentence is one which consists of more than a single clause. When two clauses occur in the one sentence, they are sometimes linked by a conjunction. It can link the clauses so the sentence will be well structure.

For example:

- *Nenek membaca komik di kamar*   (Simple sentence)

  (Grandmother reading comic in the bedroom)

- *Nenek membaca komik dikamar, sedangkan kakek membaca koran dikebun*   (Complex sentence)

(Grandmother reading comic in the bedroom, while grandfather reading newspaper in the garden)

2.9   Children's Literature

According to Ritta Oittinen (2000:4) children literature has its own special features. It is often illustrated and often meant to be read aloud. The illustration in children's literature is more important than the words. It is because the picture in the illustration can extract children to read it. Besides illustration in the story, the character of children's literature is usually the writer insert moral values in the stories so that children obtain the positive effect by reading the book.

"Five on a Treasure Island" novel is a story about the adventures of four children with a dog in the search for a secret treasure island. In this adventure, they face many obstacles before they finally get a precious treasure. They went through all the obstacles together, though it is heavy and hard, they stick together to help each other. In Indonesia, this novel has been translated by Agus Setiadi in the August of 1982. The story is a good read of children, because in the story the writer gives the message that any difficult obstacles will be lighter if faced together. Mutual assistance is the key in resolving a difficult hurdle. No matter how severe the problem encountered as long as it carried out together, the problem will be resolved properly.