CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

This chapter elaborates several key points of theories related to this study. Section 2.1 explains translation theories including the definitions of translation, the kinds of translation, and translation process. Section 2.2 expounds the types of translation shift. Section 2.3 expounds noun phrase including English and Indonesian noun phrases. Section 2.4 explains short story. Section 2.5 explains change of meaning. The last, section 2.6 explains tree structure.

2.1   Translation

2.1.1   Definitions of Translation

Based on Newmark's theory (1988), translation is interpreting the meaning of a text into a different language using certain procedures. Additionally, Larson (1984) stated that translation is replacing the form of the source language into the form of receptor (target) language. The other opinion comes from Catford (1965) in his book entitled *A Linguistics Theory of Translation*. He (1965) said that translation is "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (p.20). Moreover, Munday (2008) explained that translation refers to the general subject field, the text and the process of producing the translation.

From the four definitions of translation above, several key words can be obtained such as meaning, equivalent, text, source language and target language. Hence, translation can be defined as an activity of transferring equivalent meaning from source language into target language which is expressed in written form.

2.1.2 Kinds of Translation

Larson (1984) noted that translation is divided into two kinds namely literal and idiomatic translation. The first kind is literal translation that is defined as a form-based translation trying to follow the form of the SL. Since the literal translation is a form-based translation, the grammatical constructions of SL are adapted to their nearest TL equivalents (Newmark, 1988). Example [a] shows that literal translation is used in ST "we had birds, gold-fish, a fine dog, rabbits, a small monkey, and a cat" which is translated into TT "*kami memelihara burung, ikan koki, seekor anjing yang manis, beberapa ekor kelinci, seekor kera kecil dan seekor kucing*". The grammatical construction of ST and TT are same. Both of ST and TT have pattern: Pronoun (PRO)/Subject (S) + Verb (V)/Predicate (P) + Noun(N)/Object (O).

[a]

Source language text :

We	Had	birds, gold-fish, a fine dog, rabbits, a small monkey, and a cat.
PRO/S	V/P	N/O

Target language text :

Kami	*Memelihara*	*burung, ikan koki, seekor anjing yang manis, beberapa ekor kelinci, seekor kera kecil, dan seekor kucing.*
PRO/S	V/P	N/O

The second is idiomatic translation. It is a meaning-based translation that attempts to transfer the meaning of the source language text into the natural form of the target language. Newmark (1988) noted that "idiomatic translation reproduces the "message" of the original but tends to distort nuance of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original". In example [b],

"kick the bucket" which is an English idiomatic expression is translated idiomatically into "*mati konyol*". Idiomatic translation is used in translating "kick the bucket" into "*mati konyol*" in order to get the equivalent meaning between the source language and the target language.

[b]

Source text : Kick the bucket

Target text : *Mati konyol*

2.1.3 Process of Translation

The concept of translation process was recently explored by Larson (1984). He noted that a main key word in the process of translation is meaning. Therefore, to produce a good translation, a translator has to discover the meaning of the text in the SL then re-express the meaning in new words in the TL. The following figure might enhance the understanding of Larson's concept:

SOURCE LANGUAGE   **RECEPTOR LANGUAGE**

Text to be translated   Translation

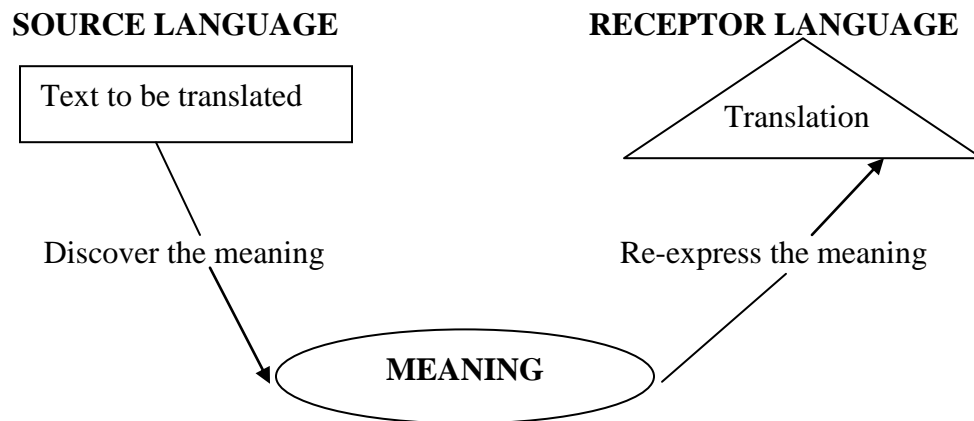Discover the meaning   Re-express the meaning

MEANING

Figure 2.1

Nida and Taber (1969) classified the process of translation into three parts: 1) analyzing message in SL; 2) transferring message of SL into TL, and ; 3)

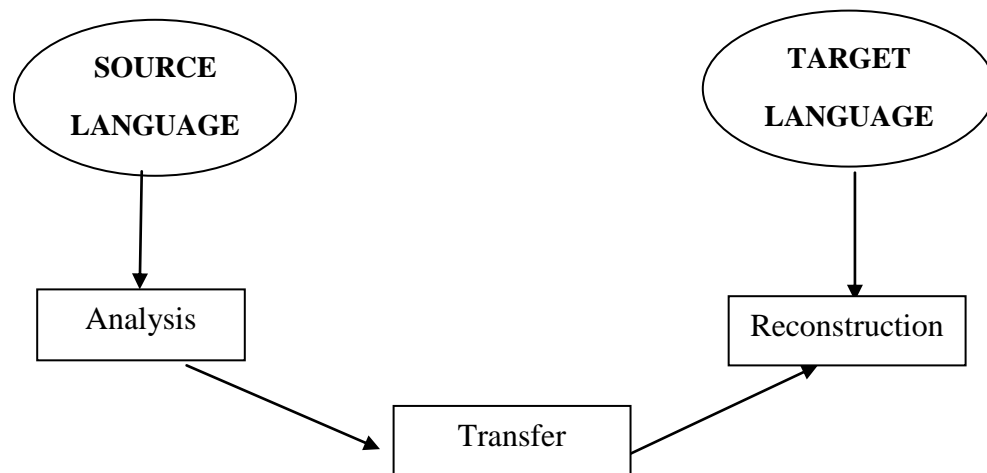reconstructing of transferred message in TL. The following figure describes this process of translation.

Figure 2.2

2.2 Translation Shift

Catford (1965) concluded that shift in translation is a change in the process of going from the SL into the TL regarding formal match. One of the factors which brings on translation shift is the difference of linguistic system between SL and TL. The differences can be shown in table 2.1 (as cited in Maharani, 2012). Table 2.1 illustrates that determiner of noun phrases in SL such as "some" from noun phrase "some fresh air" which means "*beberapa*" and "a" in noun phrase "a silly premonition" which means "*sebuah*" are not translated. The reason why those two determiners were not translated is because without them the translation has been already clear. Moreover, the first phrase is shifted from modifier (adjective: fresh) +

head (noun: air) in SL into head (noun: *udara*) + modifier (adjective: *segar*) in TL. Then, the second is shifted from modifier (adjective: silly) + head (noun: premonition) in SL into head (noun: *firasat*) + modifier (adjective: *konyol*) in TL.

Table 2.1 Examples of Translation shift

Source language	Target language
Some fresh air	*Udara segar*
A silly premonition	*Firasat konyol*

There are two main shifts in translation. Those are level shift and category shift. Level shift is elaborated in 2.2.1 and category shift is discussed in 2.2.2.

2.2.1 Level Shift

As noted by Catford (1965) level shift happens when the translation of TL which is translated from SL has equivalent translation, however, there is a change of TL level. The examples of level shift is given in [c]. According to the following example, there is a shift from grammar to lexis in which the pattern "to be + v-ing" (grammar) in the source language text is translated into lexicon "*sedang*" in the target language.

[c]

Source language   : He **is** walk**ing**

Target language   : *Dia **sedang** berjalan*

2.2.2 Category Shift

Catford (1965, p.73) defined category shift as "departures from formal correspondence in translation". It is classified into four types. Those are structure shift, class shift, unit shift, and intra system shift. Structure shift is discussed in 2.2.2.1, class shift is explained in 2.2.2.2, unit shift is elaborated in 2.2.2.3, and intra system shift is explained 2.2.2.4.

2.2.2.1 Structure Shift

Structure shift happens in phonological and graphological translation as well as in total translation. It is a kind of shift that occurs mostly in translation (Catford, 1965). The example of the structure shift in [d] shows that the noun phrase 'beautiful girl' in the source language text is constructed of pre modifier (beautiful) + head (girl). The position of the head of the English noun phrase in source language is at the right end. However, in the target language, the noun phrase is translated into *"gadis cantik"* which is constructed of head (*gadis*) + post modifier (*cantik*). The position of the head of the Indonesian noun phrase in target language is at the left end then it is followed by post modifier.

[d]

Source language　　　: Beautiful girl

Target language　　　: *Gadis cantik*

2.2.2.2 Class Shift

Class shift happens when the translation equivalent of a SL item is a member of a diverse class from the original item. As seen in example [e], there is an existence

of translation shift in which the noun phrase 'a polite smile' in the source language text is translated into the verb phrase *"tersenyum sopan"* in the target language text.

[e]

Source language   :A polite smile

Target language   :*Tersenyum sopan*

2.2.2.3   Unit Shift

In English grammar, unit involves sentence, clause, and group. Each of these is the carrier of the particular kind of meaningful grammatical pattern. Unit shift encompasses change in rank. Additionally, it undergoes from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL is the unit at a different rank in the TL.

In example [f], a phrase is translated into a clause. "Each for his own destination" is a phrase because it has no subject or predicate in it. Exactly, there is no verb which can function as a predicate. Nevertheless, in the target language text, it is translated into *"masing-masing menuju tujuan mereka sendiri"* which is a clause. This is because the preposition 'for' is translated into verb *"menuju"*. The verb functions as the predicate of the clause and words *"masing-masing"* functions as the subject.

[f]

Source language   : In due course, the brothers separated, **each for his own destination**.

Target language   : *Pada saatnya, ketiga kakak-beradik ini terpisah, **masing-masing menuju tujuan mereka sendiri.***

2.2.2.4 Intra System Shift

Intra-system shift is used for cases where the shift ensues internally, within a system; that is, for cases where SL and TL possess systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system (Catford, 1965).

The example of intra system shift is shown in [g]. 'Eyes' in the source language text is a plural form. It is translated into *"mata"* in the target language text in a singular form. This occurred because of the different system between SL and TL. Plural in SL is marked by adding "s" or "es" in the end of noun, for example: 'books'. Meanwhile, in TL, plural form is repetition of a noun, for example: "*buku-buku*". However, in this case, the word "eyes" cannot be translated into "*mata-mata*". This is not only because of different system between SL and TL but also the different meaning of SL "*mata-mata*" which means "spy". According to Catford, the changing from plural to singular form can be categorized into intra system shift.

[g]

Source language: …when Scrubb's **eyes** opened wide with horror…

Target language: *…ketika **mata** Scrubb melebar ketakutan…*

2.3 Noun Phrase

Noun phrase is a phrase which can occupy the function as a subject or an object in a clause (Chaer, 2009) and consists of noun as the most meaningful part within it (Thomas, 1993). Thomas also stated that noun is the requisite constituent in noun phrase as a head.

Both English and Indonesian have dissimilar features including type and structure of noun phrase. The differences between these two languages will be explained in the following section.

2.3.1 English Noun Phrase

According to Thomas (1993), English noun phrase consists of Noun (N), Determiner + Noun (Det+N), and Pronoun (Pro). Table 2.2 shows the examples of N, Det+N and Pro.

Table 2.2 Examples of Noun Phrase

Det+N		N	Pro
Det	N		
An	Apple	Apple	It
The	Boy	Boy	He/him
Those	Students	students	They/them

2.3.1.1 Modifiers in English Noun Phrase

Thomas (1997) argued that noun phrases consist of one constituent, the head (e.g. Pro) or more than one constituent (e.g. Det+N). Constituents that modify the head noun are known as modifiers. The modifiers which exist before the head noun are named pre-modifiers. While, those which exist after the head of noun are termed post-modifier.

Most often, pre-modifiers are determiners (DET), adjective phrase (AP), and nouns (N). Thomas (1997) classified determiners into several types which can be seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 The Examples of Determiners

Types of determiners	Examples
Indefinite article	A, an
Definite article	The

Demonstrative	This, that, these, those
Quantifiers	Some, any, each, every, no
Possessives	My, your, her, his, its, our, your, their
Wh-determiners	Whose, what, which

Adjective phrase (AP) can consist of one or more than one element (e.g. beautiful, very beautiful). The function of AP within the NP is to pre-modify the head. Murphy (2004) stated that to pre-modify head noun can be used both fact and opinion adjectives. Opinion adjectives are positioned before fact adjective. Fact adjectives include size, age, shape, color, origin, material and purpose. Table 2.4 displays example of the word order of the AP within the NP.

Table 2.4 The Word Order of AP within the NP

Det	AP								Head
	Opinion adjective	Fact adjective							
		Size	Age	Shape	Color	Origin	Material	Purpose	
The	expensive	old	large	Round	brown	Javanese	Wooden	dining	Table

As the previous explanation, there are also post-modifiers which exist at the right of the head noun (Thomas, 1997). Two types of post-modifiers are prepositional phrase (PP) and relative clause. Prepositional phrase is the extension of preposition. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is usually a noun phrase or a wh-clause or V-ing clause (Quirk

and Grenbaun: 1973). Examples of prepositional phrases are exemplified in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 The Examples of Prepositional Phrases

Preposition	Prepositional Complement	Types of Prepositional Complement
At	the bus-stop	noun phrase
In	the bus station	noun phrase
On	the bus	noun phrase
From	what the lecturer said	wh-clause
By	completing the thesis	V-ing clause

The function of prepositional phrase after the noun is to modify the noun by more narrowly defining or describing it. At the higher level, the function of the entire noun phrase (including the prepositional phrase) is as a direct object of the sentence.

Meanwhile, relative clause is part of a sentence which cannot exist independently and which describes a noun which comes before it in the main part of the sentence functioning as a nominal modifier (Keenan, 1985, as cited in Payne, 1997). Thomas (1997, p.95) also stated that "relative clause is a kind of subsidiary sentence into the main one". Additionally, there are two kinds of relative clauses namely "restricted" and "unrestricted" contrasting with or without commas (Whitman, 1975). Restricted relative clause which is differed without using commas provides essential information for the identification of the head noun. However, unrestricted relative clause which is differed with using commas provides extra and inessential information of identification of the head noun. The examples of restricted and unrestricted relative clause are displayed in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 The Examples of Types of Relative Clauses

Restricted relative clause	Unrestricted relative clause
The man **who is smiling** is my brother.	The man**, who is smiling,** is my brother.
(without commas)	(with commas)

According Table 2.6, the example of restricted relative clause is "The man **who is smiling** is my brother". Relative clause "who is smiling" delivers important information to identify "man" as the head noun. Without the relative clause "who is smiling", the reader could not be sure which man is my brother. Nevertheless, the relative clause "**, who is smiling,** " in the example "The man**, who is smiling,** is my brother" is unrestricted relative clause. The relative clause "**, who is smiling,**" delivers additional and inessential information since the reader already knows which man is being discussed.

2.3.1.2 The Types of English Noun Phrase

Based on Keizer (2007) English noun phrase is categorized into three types. Those are 'binominal' phrases, possessive constructions and discontinuous noun phrases. Binominal is also called two-noun noun phrase having N1-of-N2 constructions. Examples of binominal phrases are shown in [h], [i] and [j].

[h]

a fool of a beggar

   NI   N2

[i]

a devil of a row

   NI   N2

[j]

a wonder of a city

NI   N2

From these examples, it can be known that N2 (the second noun) of [h], [i] and [j] is the head of the binominal and N1 (the first noun) of [h], [i] and [j] is the modifier of the binominal. According to Quirk et al. (1985, as cited in Keizer, 2007), constructions of binominal allow for a paraphrase in the form of a copular sentence, i.e. with a predicate relation between the two nouns (see examples [h.1], [i.1] and [j.1]).

[h]

[h.1] a fool of a beggar - the beggar is a fool

[i]

[i.1] a devil of a row – the row is a devil

[j]

[j.1] a wonder of a city – the city is a wonder

The other way to distinguish the function of N1 (as modifier) and N2 (as head) is by changing class/rank of N1 into adjective. This is exemplified by [h.2], [i.2] and [j.2].

[h]

[i.2] a fool of a beggar – a foolish beggar

[i]

[i.2] a devil of a row – a devilish row

[j]

[j.2] a wonder of a city – a wonderful city

The second noun phrase is possessive constructions. It is divided into two types namely prenominal possessive and a post-nominal of construction. Some examples are shown in the Table 2.7 (Quirk et al., 1985, as cited in Keizer, 2007).

Table 2.7 Prenominal Possessive and Post-nominal of Construction

Types of possessive construction	Prenominal possessive	Post-nominal of construction
Proper names referring to person	Tom's father	Father of Tom
Common nouns referring to person	The boy's new bicycle	The new bicycle of the boy
Higher animals	the horse's tail	the tail of the horse
Collective nouns denoting groups of people	the government's plans	The plans of the government
Geographical names	Europe's mainland	the mainland of Europe
Locative nouns	earth's interior	the interior of the earth
Temporal nouns	the decade's events	the events of the decade
Special relevance to human activity	the brain's total weight	The total weight of the brain
Concrete or inanimate noun	the car's engine	The engine of the car

Based on Table 2.7, frequently, possessive constructions which are found as possessor nouns in prenominal position are proper names referring to persons (e.g. Tom's father). Prenominal possessive "Tom's father" can be changed into post-nominal of construction 'father of Tom'. The second type is common nouns referring to persons (e.g. the boy's new bicycle). Prenominal possessive "the boy's new bicycle" can be changed into post-nominal of construction "the new bicycle of the boy". The other type is noun which denotes higher animals (e.g. the horse's tail). Prenominal possessive "the horse's tail" can be changed into post-nominal of construction "the tail of the horse". Additionally, genitive constructions are often used with collective nouns denoting groups of people (e.g. the government's plans). Prenominal possessive "the government's plans" changes into post-nominal of construction "the plans of the government". Moreover, the genitive can also be found with geographical names (e.g. Europe's mainland). Prenominal possessive "Europe's

mainland" modifies into post-nominal of construction "the mainland of Europe". Thus, genitive construction occurs in locative nouns, for example "the earth's interior becomes "the interior of the earth', temporal nouns (e.g. "the decade's events" changes into "the events of the decade"), as well as with other nouns 'of special relevance to human activity', for example, the brain's total weight becomes the total weight of the brain. In some cases even a concrete or inanimate noun can appear in genitive position (e.g. the car's engine). Prenominal possessive "the car's engine" modifies into post-nominal of construction "the engine of the car".

Sometimes, "a post-nominal of" construction is used to avoid ambiguity in constructions. An adjective can be construed as modifying either the genitive noun or a compound noun the first element of which is a bare genitive. For example, 'a poor doctor's daughter' may be have two meanings. First, "poor" can only modify the noun "doctor", thus, the adjective can be interpreted as modifying the possessive compound "doctor's daughter". To prevent the misconception, "a poor doctor's daughter" can be altered into "a post-nominal of" construction "a poor daughter of a doctor" (Keizer, 2007).

The last type of noun phrase is discontinuous noun phrase also known as displacement or extraposition. Usually, all the words in a noun phrase will be connected with the noun, however, there is also a probability for a noun phrase to be broken. One very good purpose for a discontinuous noun phrase is to balance a subject and its predicate. Discontinuous noun phrase is classified into three kinds. They are "of-phrase", "participle phrase" and "to infinitive phrase".

Example [k] is a discontinuous noun phrase with "of-phrase" as post modification. Instead of writing "**a review of his new book** came out yesterday", the writer broke the construction of the "of-phrase".

[k]

A review came out yesterday **of his new book**.

In example [l], we can see a discontinuous noun phrase with "participle" as post modification. Instead of writing "**several accidents involving passengers falling from trains** have been reported", the writer broke the construction of the "participle phrase".

[l]

Several accidents have been reported **involving passengers falling from trains.**

The last example of discontinuous noun phrase is noun phrase with "to infinitive" (see example [m]). Instead of writing "**the time to stop spending money foolishly and to put something away for the future** had come", the writer broke the construction of the "to infinitive phrase".

[m]

The time had come **to stop spending money foolishly and to put something away for the future**

2.3.2   Indonesian Noun Phrase

Indonesian noun phrase is known as *frasa nomina*. Loewen (2011) noted that the head noun in Indonesian usually appears at the left edge of the noun phrase.

2.3.2.1   Modifiers in Indonesian Noun Phrase

Indonesian noun phrase can be followed by a number of modifiers, for instance, adjectives [n], possessors [o], prepositional modifiers [p] and demonstratives [q] (Loewen (2011).

[n]

kuda putih

horse   white

'a white horse'

[o]

kucing Linda

cat   Linda

"Linda's cat"

[p]

guru dari Jakarta

teacher from   Jakarta

"the teacher from Jakarta"

[q]

pohon itu

tree   that

"that tree"

However, Djenar (2003) termed modifier as combination. She categorized combination of Indonesian noun phrase into four categories such as "noun + possessor", "noun + another noun", "noun + adjective", "noun + verb" and "noun + demonstrative". The first category is "noun + possessor". It means that the noun refers to something that belongs to a person or animal. In example [r], "*pensil*" is being referred to, so it comes first. While, "Tommy" (name of a person) specifies to whom the pen belongs, so it is positioned at the right of the noun.

[r]

Noun	Possessor	English meaning
Pensil	*Tommy*	Tommy's pencil

The second category is "noun + another noun". In this category, "another noun" specifies the location mentioned in the head, such as "*sekolah*" in "*perpustakaan sekolah*" (see example [s]). It explains that "sekolah" is the location of "*perpustakaan*".

[s]

Noun	Another noun	English meaning
Perpustakaan	*sekolah*	School library

The third category is "noun + adjective". The adjective which follows the noun describes such thing as the size, color, taste and the quality of the thing referred to by the noun. Example [t] shows "*cantik*" is the quality of the head noun "*gadis*".

[t]

Noun	Adjective	English meaning
Gadis	*cantik*	Beautiful girl

The forth category is "noun + verb". When a verb follows a noun, that verb shows the activity for which the noun is used. We can see in example [u] that verb "*mandi*" indicates the activity for which the noun "*kamar*" is used.

[u]

Noun	Verb	English meaning
Kamar	*mandi*	Bathroom

The last category is "noun + demonstrative". Demonstrative which is positioned after noun is a word that is used to point at something, such as "*ini*" (this) and "*itu*" (that). In example [v], demonstrative "*ini*" points at "*universitas*".

[v]

Noun	Demonstrative	English meaning
Universitas	*ini*	This university

2.3.2.2 Types of Indonesian Noun Phrase

Oka and Suparno (1994) explained that Indonesian noun phrase is divided into three types. They are coordinative noun phrase, attributive noun phrase and appositive noun phrase. Coordinative noun phrase contains two nouns or more connecting with coordinative conjunction "*dan*" or "*atau*". The example of coordinative noun phrase is displayed in [w]. The example [w] displays "*kakak*" as N1 (first noun), "*dan*" as coordinative conjunction and "*adik*" as N2 (second noun).

[w]

N1	Conjunction	N2
Kakak	*dan*	*adik*
Rumah	*atau*	*mobil*

In attributive noun phrase, the head noun is attributed by other elements, such as noun, adjective, article and prepositional phrase. Example [x] shows the example of attributive noun phrase. "*Sepatu*" as the head noun is attributed by noun "*merah*", adjective "*baru*" and prepositional phrase *"dari Bandung"*.

[x]

Head	Modifiers		
	noun	adjective	prepositional phrase

Sepatu	*merah*	*baru*	*dari Bandung*

However, in appositive noun phrase, the head noun is extended by apposition which is a noun phrase which has the same reference with the head noun (Alwi et al., 1998:247). The head noun and apposition is separated by comma. The example of appositive noun phrase (see example [y]) shows that the head noun "Indonesia" is extended by apposition *"negara kami yang sangat kami cintai"*.

[y]

Head	Apposition
Indonesia	*,negara kami yang sangat kami cintai*

2.4 Change of Meaning

There are four types of change of meaning. The first is *explicitation* which means that when a SL unit with a more general meaning is replaced by a TL unit with a more specific meaning (Klaudy, 1998). The second is *implicitation* when a SL unit with a specific meaning is replaced by a TL unit with a more general meaning (Klaudy and Karoly, 2005). The third is *substitution* which means item in the SL that is translated by no means unusual in the TL (Akbari, 2012). The fourth is *null change* which there is no change of meaning between SL and TL.

2.5 Tree Structure

According to Fabb (2005, p.49), "tree structure is made of labelled nodes and line which connect those nodes". Tree structure is applied to identify the word order of a sentence, clause, or phrase. Hence, the research on analyzing noun phrase can be supported by tree structure in order to know the word order in each noun phrase.