CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

There are some researches related to this topic of study which also discussed noun phrase and shift which occur in the translation studies. Therefore we need to do the literature review in order to know how the other researchers analyze the topic, so that we can avoid the possibility of duplication. There are some theses and journal related to this topic are reviewed.


Andini (2007) in her research entitled “Translation Shift Found in the Novel No Greater Love by Danielle Steel” discusses about the types of shift and equivalence occurs from the data collected from the source. She concludes that there are structural and class shift occur in the translation. However, the shifts do not change the meaning. They can be understood by the reader. Andini’s research is the
same with this study in which both discuss about the shifts in the translation. However, the difference is this study is just focused on the shifts of noun phrase in the translation.

2.1 Definitions of Translation

There are many definitions of translation defined and it is defined in many ways. If we analyze the translation, we will see that there are two languages involved in translation. That is the reason of knowing what translation is. In her book entitled *Meaning-Based Translation* (1984), Larson argued the definition of translation by some statements. She stated that: Translation is basically a change of form. When we speak of the form of a language, we are referring to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc., which are spoken or written. These forms are referred to as the surface structure of a language (Larson, 1984: 3).

She also added that: The form from which the translation is made will be called the source language and the form into which it is to be changed will be called the receptor language (Larson, 1984: 3). Another definition of translation was also proposed by Catford in his book entitled *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1965), he stated about the definition of translation that says: Translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in other (Catford, 1965: 1). He also added: Translation can be defined as follows: The replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL) (Catford, 1965: 20).
Catford also stated about translation, as a process, is always uni-directional: it is always performed in a given direction; from a Source Language into a Target Language. He used the abbreviations: SL for Source Language and TL for Target Language.

2.2 Kinds of Translation

According to Larson in her book entitled Meaning-Based Translation, there are two kinds of translation, one is form-based and the other is meaning-based translation. They are called the literal translation and idiomatic translation. To make it clear, let us see the discussion below.

1. Literal Translation

Literal translation is a form-based translation; in literal translation, the form of the source language is transferred into the form of the target language. Although this literal translation is useful for the purposes that related to the study of the source language, it has little help to the speakers of the receptor language who are interested in the meaning of the source language text. A literal translation has little communication value.

According to Larson in his book entitled Meaning-Based translation, literal translation is: Form-based translations attempt to follow the form of the source language and are known as literal translations (Larson, 1984: 17). Here is an example of literal translation:
SL: Koan daro (Chuava – Papua New Guinea).


Larson stated that this literal translation makes little sense in English. The appropriate translation would be *What is your name?* (Larson, 1984: 17).

This literal translation gives priority to form whether that in words, clause, or sentence and it makes the result of the translation sounds unnatural and has a little communication value. This translation often becomes a bad translation because the translator makes over the use of equivalent of the appropriate words with the contextual meaning. Examples:

1. SL: Who has he been living with? (Margono, 1999: 4)
   TL: Siapa telah dia tinggal dengan? (Margono, 1999: 4)

   TL: He has left before us (Margono, 1999: 7).

The translations above sound unnatural. The word *who* is simply translated into *siapa*. *Has* is translated into *telah*, *he* is translated into *dia*, *been living* is translated into *tinggal* and *with* is translated into *dengan*. The result is translated by word – for – word translation and it causes the combination of the target language sentence sounds unnatural and it usually makes the readers confused. This case also happens in the second example. The word *beliau* is translated into *he*, *sudah* into *has*, *mendahului* into *left before* and *us* into *kita*.

Larson in her book *Meaning-Based translation* quoted Barnwell’s statement (Barnwell 1980:18). It says: If the two languages are related, the literal translation can
often be understood, since the general grammatical form may be similar. However, the literal choice of lexical items makes the translation sound foreign. The following bilingual announcement was overheard at an airport.

2. **Idiomatic Translation**

Idiomatic translation is the second types of translation. It can be found that the definition of idiomatic translation in Larson’s *Meaning-Based translation* which is written: Idiomatic translation is meaning-based translations which make every effort to communicate the meaning of the source language text in the natural forms of the receptor language (Larson, 1984: 17).

Based on Larson’s statement, idiomatic translation uses meaning-based in the translating process. It means that a translator basically needs to know about the meaning of the source language before he transfers this meaning into other languages. Idiomatic translation uses the natural forms of the receptor language, both in the grammatical constructions and in the choice of lexical items. The idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation, it sounds like it was written originally in the receptor language.

Usually, some good translations are finished using mixtures of a literal transfer of the grammatical units along with some idiomatic translation. So, by doing it, the results of the translation will sound more natural. Example:

SL: Who has he been living with? (Margono, 1999: 4)  
TL: Dengan siapa dia tinggal? (Margono, 1999: 4)
In example above, we can see that there is a change of structure. The word *dengan* is placed in front of the sentence and it makes the sentence better. The result of the translation is easier to understand and to accept by the readers.

Further, there are some types of translation proposed by Margono (1999). This explanation is based on *Essential of Theory and Practice of Translation* (Margono, 1999: 4). According to Margono, there are several types of translation:

**a. Morpheme-by-morpheme Translation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Has</th>
<th>He</th>
<th>Been</th>
<th>Liv-</th>
<th>-Ing</th>
<th>With</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Penanya orang</td>
<td>Kata bantu aspek perfect</td>
<td>Personal tunggal maskulin</td>
<td>Past Participles be</td>
<td>hidup</td>
<td>Sedang</td>
<td>Dengan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example above shows that the type of translation that used is morpheme-by-morpheme translation. Lexical morpheme (in this example *live* : *hidup*) in the translation is presented differently from grammatical morphemes. In this case, every morpheme is given an explanation about its function rather than its equivalent in the target language.

**b. Word-by-word Translation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Has</th>
<th>He</th>
<th>Been</th>
<th>Living</th>
<th>With</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Siapa</td>
<td>Telah</td>
<td>Dia</td>
<td>Tinggal</td>
<td>Dengan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Word-by-word translation is used in the example above. Each word in the source language is translated into a word in the target language. If one of them has not a corresponding form, the word can be left untranslated (e.g. been).

c. Sentence-by-sentence Translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Who has he been living with?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Dengan siapa dia tinggal?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A sentence above is considered as a unit of grammatical structure, it is not a text. Because it has not contexts, the translation is usually disappointed.

d. Contextual Translation

Margono concerned the discussion in this type of translation. When the translation is related to its context, a possible translation might be like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Who has he been living with?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>Selama ini dengan siapa dia tinggal disana?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To make the sentence better and also fits the context, an addition selama ini in the beginning of the sentence and di sana in the end of the sentence is needed. These additions make the result of the translation better and acceptable in the target language.

2.3 The Process of Translation

Larson described about the process or steps of translation in her book entitled Meaning-Based translation; and here is the overview of the translation task:
Based on the diagram, it can be found that there are three major steps in the process of translation. Firstly, a translator needs to discover the meaning of the message in the source language (there is a text to be translated). After the translator gets the meaning, the process of determining the meaning that related to the communicated is needed. Finally, a translator needs to re-explain or re-express the meaning (the message) in target language using the translation equivalent.

2.4 Noun phrase

Radford (1988) defines Noun Phrase as meaning phrase containing a head Noun. A noun phrase is either a pronoun or any group of words that can be replaced by a pronoun. Part of speech in English grammar consists of noun, adjective, verb, and adverb. The noun phrase is a quintessential part of every sentence, it is potentially infinite in length, and it can include any number of other phrases (e.g. noun, adjective, and adverb) within its structure. Noun Phrase comes from two of words, noun, and phrase. Some of experts give the similar definition of noun. Sanford (1997) stated that noun is a word or group of words used to name someone or
something. According to Gleason (1965), a noun is a name of a person, place, or thing. Some recently proposed definitions have been in terms of inflection: a noun is a word, which forms a plural by adding \(-s\) or the equivalent. Whereas a phrase is a group of related words used as a single part of speech. In different definition phrase is an expression forming a grammatical constituent of a sentence but not containing a finite verb (WordReference.com). Nominal group and noun phrase are synonymous term found in different Grammars: systematic grammars favoring the former, for instance and traditionally native grammar the latter. They refer to a structure, which has a noun (nominal), or pronoun as a head, with or without modifier. According to Cook and Sutter (1980: 35), a noun is a grammatical class consisting of a noun or pronoun and any immediate modifiers (the term modifiers refer to any grammatical element, which limits the meaning of some others, elements).

Noun phrases are any group of words, which consist of head and modifier. Head here consists of noun itself, pronoun, and sometime adjective. Whereas modifiers consist of two modifiers, they are premodifier and post-modifier. Pre-modifier includes noun, adjective, adjective phrase, participle \(-ed\) and \(-ing\). Post-modifier includes prepositional phrase, relative clause non-finite clause \((-ing\) clause, \(-ed\) clause and infinitive clause) and complementation. Noun phrases are traditionally thought of as consisting minimally of a head noun, together with any number of noun phrases modifier, they are determiners, quantifiers and quantifiers phrases, adjective and adjectives phrases, noun and noun phrases, ad position and ad position phrases
and clause (Brown & Miller, 1999). There are not only pre-modifier and post-modifier but also there is determiner in forming noun phrase.

According to Howard Jackson in Grammar and Meaning (1990), Nouns can be defined as participants who are explained as the person, other animate beings and the things (both concrete and abstract) that are involved in the state, event or action. There are two broad types of specification that participants may have:

1. Identification which provides a means of identifying which and what general type of participant is being referred to and of keeping track of a participant through text.
2. Classification and description which provide means of making specific the type of participant being talked and of giving information about a participant’s characteristics or features.

2.5 Translation Equivalence

Equivalence is very important in translating a language into other languages; it lies between the source and the target language. In understanding the equivalence, Catford stated a statement about equivalence in his book *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1965).

According to Catford, it is possible to generalize the condition for translation equivalence as follows: Translation equivalence occurs when a SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance (Catford, 1965: 50).
Based on the statement, it means when a source language text or item has some language relations at least the some features of substance with the target language, it is possible for the translation equivalence to occur. The translation cannot be based only upon some of meanings but however it must be related to some situations or contexts where the equivalence should be established.

If the requirement of the equivalent in the source language and target language are relatable, a problem that usually faced in founding this relation is caused by the quit difference cultures of the people who speak the target language with the target language. Examples:

1. **SL:** Jam tangan anda sangat canggih.
   **TL:** Your watch is very sophisticated (Margono, 1999: 7).

2. **SL:** Lontong
   **TL:** Cooked rice wrapped in banana leaf (Margono, 1999: 2).

The example (1) jam tangan in source language has an equivalence watch in the target language, so there is not translating problem found here. But in example (2), lontong is difficult to translate to English. There is not English word that can be used to match lontong. So, the translator decided to modify it by using an explanation that is cooked rice wrapped in banana leaf.

### 2.6 Definition of Translation Shifts

Translation shifts is a changing of form when it is translated from the source language into target language. Catford, in his book entitled *A Linguistic Theory of*
Translation (1965) explained the definition and concept of translation shifts. He stated that: By ‘shifts’ we mean departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL (Catford, 1965: 73).

Further, Catford stated about the relationship between translation shifts and formal correspondence. He also divided translation shifts into two major types. He stated that two major types of shift occur; they are level shifts and category shifts (Catford, 1965: 73).

2.7 Level Shifts

In A Linguistic Theory of Translation, Catford stated that:

By shift of level we mean that a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level (Catford, 1965: 73).

Then, he stated that by level shift means a shift from grammar to lexis; and here are the examples:

1. SL: I am working hard.
   TL: Saya sedang bekerja keras (Margono, 1999: 21).

2. SL: I have worked hard.
   TL: Saya sudah bekerja keras (Margono, 1999: 21).

From the text in the source language above, it is found that the grammatical item to be + -ing (pattern of Present Continuous Tense in English) in the source language is translated into sedang in the target language. So the level shift in the
translation is indicated by grammar in the source language which is translated into lexis in the target language.

Level shift also happens in the example (2) because the form *have + Perfect Tense marker* (pattern of Present Perfect Tense in English) in the source language is translated into target language by using the lexis *sudah*.

### 2.8 Category Shifts

According to Catford, the second type of translation shifts is category shift. Catford defined that:

Category shifts are departures from formal correspondence in translation (Catford, 1965: 76).

It means that category shifts are related with formal correspondence and Catford also stated about this formal correspondence as follows:

A formal correspondence is any Target Language (TL) category which may be said to occupy as nearly as possible, the ‘same’ place in the economy of the Target Language (TL) as the given source language (SL) category occupies in the source language (SL). (Catford, 1965: 32)

He explained that in grammar, for example: structure-shifts can occur at all ranks. It has a large part in the translation shifts that may happen. In order to understand more about category shifts, it should be discussed about the classification of category shifts. The category shift is divided into four, they are: structure shift, class shift, unit shift and intra system shift (Catford, 1965: 76). Further explanation about them will be given on next subs. There are four types of category shifts: Structure shifts, Class shifts, Unit Shifts and Intra-system shifts.
1. Structure Shifts

The most frequent category shift that occurs in translation is structure shift. It occurs at all rank in translation. It occurs in phonological and graphological translation as well as in total translation. (Catford, 1965: 6)

According to Catford’s concept about structure, it is said that:

A structure is an arrangement of elements (subject, predicator, object, and complement, adjunct) (Catford, 1965: 6).

Structure shifts is indicated by a situation when there are two languages which have different element of structure. Besides, the source language and target language should have formal correspondence. Examples:

1. SL: *I wash myself.*
   
   \[
   \begin{array}{ccc}
   S & V & O \\
   \end{array}
   \]
   
   
   \[
   \begin{array}{cc}
   S & P \\
   \end{array}
   \]

2. SL: *The book is on the table.*
   
   \[
   \begin{array}{cc}
   M & H \\
   \end{array}
   \]
   
   
   \[
   \begin{array}{cc}
   H & M \\
   \end{array}
   \]

In the example above, it can be found that the source language has different structure of sentence level and phrase level with the target language. In the example (1) the source language has sentence structure *I* (S), *wash* (V) and *myself* (O). Its translation has different sentence structure in the target language, that is *saya* (S) and
mandi (P). From its translation, it can be seen that one element that is object *myself* in the source language is not translated in target language.

In example number (2) it is found that the translation has different structure of phrase from the *the book* into *buku itu*. The phrase *the book* in the source language consists of Modifier-Head (MH) pattern, modifier *the* and head *book*. It is translated into *buku itu*, which consists of Head-Modifier (HM) pattern; head *buku* and modifier *itu*.

2. Class Shifts

Class shift, as explained by Catford, is a shift that occurs when the translation equivalent of a SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. It means that SL has different class with TL (Catford, 1965: 78).

A shift of class can happen from a noun into adjective, verbs into adjectives etc. To simplify the illustration of each word classes, we may explore the explanations of word classes by Quirk in his book entitle *A University Grammar of English* as follow.

Classes of word in English are adjective, adverb, noun, pronoun, and verb. *Adjective* is a word that describes a noun or pronoun. We can identify a word is an adjective by considering what inflections or affixes it will allow. Adjective can be modified by the intensifier *very*, as in *The children are very happy* (Quirk, 1973: 114). Adjective also shows comparative and superlative form, *The children are happier now* as an example (Quirk, 1973: 115). Adjective functions as attributive, as
shown in *The beautiful painting* (Quirk, 1973: 115). Adjective functions as object complement, for example: *He pulled his belt tight* (Quirk, 1973: 115). And adjective also functions as head of noun phrase, as like in the following example *The extremely old need a great deal of attention* (Quirk, 1973: 118).

*Adverb* is a word or group of words that describes or adds to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a whole sentence. The most characteristic of the adverb is morphological; the majority of the adverbs have the derivational suffix *-ly*. Adverb has two characteristics (functions); those are adverbs functions as adverbial, can be seen from *He spoke to me about it briefly*. The second function is adverb as modifier of adjective and adverb, which can be seen from *She has a really beautiful face*, and *They are smoking very heavily* (adverb as intensifier) (Quirk, 1973: 125-127).

*Noun* is a word or group of words that refers to a person, a place, a thing or activity, or a quality or an idea. Noun can be divided into two subclasses; they are *Count Noun* and *Non-Count Noun*. Count noun means the noun which must be seen as individual countable entities and cannot be viewed as an undifferentiated mass (such as: chair, word, finger, remark). And Non-Count Noun means the noun which must be seen group of things as an undifferentiated mass or continuum (such as: grass, warmth, humor). Basically, the noun is also as the noun phrase that functions as subject, object, complement of the sentence, and as complement in prepositional phrase. In *The girl is Mary Smith* (Quirk, 1973: 59), *the girl* functions as a subject.
**Pronoun** is a word that is used in place of a noun or noun phrase. Pronoun constitutes a heterogeneous class of items with numerous subclasses, like: they, we, I, you, he, she, it, etc.

**Verb** is the element of sentence that expresses or describes an action, an event, experience, or a state which is performed by the subject and it stands before object. One example of verb is *grew* in *His brother grew happier gradually* (Quirk, 1973: 12). The word *grew* in the example above is a verb; the word here can be said as a verb because it states an action of the subject. And here are the examples of class shift:


From the example above, the source language is Indonesian and the target language is English. In the example (1), the word *lambat* in the source language functions as an adjective; and the word *slowly* in the target language functions as an adverb. So, the translation equivalent of the adjective *lambat* in the source language is the adverb *slowly* in the target language.

Class shift also occurs in the example (2). It happens from an adjective into an adverb. The word *gigih* in the source language is an adjective and it is translated into *resolutely* which is categorized as an adverb in the target language.
3. Unit/rank Shifts

Catford defined unit shift as a change of rank, departures 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 (Catford, 1965: 79).

Unit shift as a change of rank may happen from word to phrase, phrase to word or phrase to clause. Oxford dictionary defined word as a sound or group of sounds that expresses a meaning and forms an independent unit of a language (Oxford Dictionary: 1374). Whereas Longman Dictionary defined it as the smallest unit of spoken language which has meaning and can stand alone, such as: good, goodness (Longman Dictionary: 1213).

Phrase by Oxford dictionary was defined as a group of words without a verb, especially one that forms part of sentence: The green car and a half past four are phrases (Oxford dictionary: 868). Both phrases in examples above have a higher position (unit/rank) than word.

A shift of unit can happen from word to phrase, phrase to word or phrase to clause. Here are examples of unit shifts:

Examples:

1. SL: Your **watch** is very sophisticated.
   TL: **Jam tangan** anda sangat canggih (Margono, 1999: 6).

2. SL: There is **an exhibition**.

In the example (1), it is found that a unit shift in translation shows a change of rank. As we see, the word **watch** (in lower rank) in the source language is translated
into a phrase *jam tangan* (in higher rank) in the target language. Unit shift is also found in the second example, the noun phrase *an exhibition* (higher rank) in source language is translated into a word *pertunjukan* which is a part of the lower rank in the target language.

4. **Intra-system Shifts**

Intra-system shift is the shift occurs internally, within a system: that is, for those cases where the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) possess systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but it does not occurs when translation involves the selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system (Catford, 1965: 80). Moreover, in each language, the system is one of two terms, they are *singular* and *plural* and these terms are also regarded as formally corresponding. Below are the examples of intra-system shift:

Examples:

1. **SL:** Balinese *people* go to the exhibition.
   
   **TL:** *Orang* Bali menonton pertunjukan itu. (Margono, 1999: 15)

2. **SL:** Tourists pay attention to the exhibition.
   
   **TL:** *Wisatawan* menaruh perhatian kepada pertunjukan itu. (Margono, 1999: 15)

   From both examples, it can be found that there are departures from the source language into target language. There is a corresponding plural form for *people* through a repetition of the word *orang* (*orang-orang*) in Indonesian, but the Indonesian language system shows it in a singular form *orang*. It also has a
corresponding plural form for tourists through a repetition of the word wisatawan (wisatawan-wisatawan) or using additional word para + wisatawan in Indonesian, but the system of Indonesian language still shows it in a singular form wisatawan.