

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into three main parts: previous studies, translation and speech act.

2.1. Previous Study

To get more information, the writer presents the previous studies about the translation and speech act of refusal. The first thesis is about politeness strategy which is presented by Elsafitri (2016) entitled *Politeness Strategy on Refusal Expression in Stephen King's Carrie*. This study is about the application of politeness strategy on refusal expressions. The writer uses several related theories which are Sociolinguistics, communication, FTA (Face Threatening Act), Politeness and Speech Act. The writer found 98 refusals in total and it is separated into several forms. 41 data are Bald-On record, 10 data are positive politeness, 14 data are negative politeness, and 33 data are off record strategy. In conclusion, the strategy which used to refuse is four strategies.

Furthermore, to get more valid information about translation of refusal, the writer presents a thesis written in Indonesian entitled *Analisis Terjemahan Kalimat yang Mempresentasikan Tuturan Penolakan dan Rangkaianannya (Refusal Set) Pada Novel 'The Deception Point' dan Dampaknya Terhadap Kualitas Terjemahan (An Analisis of Sentences which Present Refusal Expression and the Set (Refusal Set) in 'The Deception Point' and Its Impact toward the Translation Quality)* (Rusjayanti, 2015). Based on her finding of 225 data, the refusal expressions are of three kinds; direct refusal strategy, indirect refusal strategy and the combination of direct and indirect refusal strategy. She applied Molina and Albir theory to analyze the translation of refusal. Based on her finding, the techniques in translating refusal speech act (refusal set) are applied in the form of single, couplet, triplet and quartet translation techniques. Single and couplet translation are commonly used by the translator because the construction of the refusal are mostly simple and easy to understand. There are five data showing translation shift because the application of discursive creation, modulation, and reduction technique.

2.2. Translation

According to Newmark (1998:5), translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text. Rendering a text may be simple for some people, but it might be complicated for the others. Not all people could say something well in one language to another one. Consequently, in many types of text (legal, administrative, dialect, local, cultural) the temptation is to transfer as many SL (Source Language) words to the TL (Target Language) as possible. However, to translate the text is not simple.

2.2.1. Equivalence VS Non-Equivalence in Translation

Baker (1992) explores the notion of equivalence at different levels, in relation to the translation process, including all different aspects of translation hence putting together the linguistic and the communicative approach. She distinguishes between:

1. Equivalence that can appear at word level and above word level when translating one language to another language.
2. Grammatical equivalence, when referring to diversity of grammatical rules across languages
3. Textual equivalence, when referring to the equivalence between SL text and a TL text terms of information and cohesion.

Equivalence is one important key concept in translation, and awkwardness or miscommunication in TL (target language) text may be an indication of non-equivalence in the translation. Non-equivalence at word level means that the target language has no direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the SL (source text) (Baker, 1992:21). On the other hand, Baker (2011) declares about the types of non-equivalence which often presents complexities for the translator and some confirmed strategies to deal with them. (Baker, 2011:15-45)

Baker affirmed the types of non-equivalence below:

1. Cultural specific concepts
2. The source-language concept is not lexicalized
3. The source-language word is semantically complex
4. The source and target language make different distinctions meaning
5. The target language lacks a super-ordinate

6. The target language lacks specific term (hyponyms)
7. Differences in physical or interpersonal perspective
8. Different in expressive meaning
9. Different in form
10. Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific form
11. The use of loan words

2.2.2. Strategies of Translating Non-equivalence

Different kinds of non-equivalence require different strategies, some very straightforward, and the other is more involved and difficult to deal with. Baker identifies some strategies used by professional translator for dealing with various types of non-equivalence:

1. Translation by more general word. For instance in the advertisement slogan of Wella Shampoo, “Shampoo the hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO and lightly towel dry”. The back-translation in Spanish becomes “Wash hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO and rub lightly with towel”. Here, the word *shampoo* is translated by using the superordinate *wash*, since shampooing can be seen as a type of washing.
2. Translation by a more neutral/ less expressive word. For example, the sentence “someone mumbles” is translated into Italian language as “Qualcuno suggerisce” and then back-translated into “someone suggest”. There is a noticeable difference in the expressive meaning of *mumble* and its nearest Italian equivalent, *mugugnare*. The English verb *mumble* suggest confusion or embarrassment, while Italian near equivalent, *mugugnare*, on the other hand, tends to suggest dissatisfaction rather than embarrassment or confusion. Possibly to avoid conveying the wrong expressive meaning, the Italian translator opted for more general word, *suggerisce* (‘suggest’).
3. Translation by cultural substitution. This strategy involves replacing a culture-specific item or expression with a target-language item, which does not have the same proportional meaning but is likely to have similar impact on the target reader. For example, a text in Italian says “*porca, porca, porca, ...*” is translated into English as “*bitch, bitch, bitch, ...*”. The word *porca* is actually the female swine, but in the text is applied to a woman to indicate unchastity or harlotry. The word *bitch* represents a straightforward cultural substitute.

4. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation, it means that one item may not exist in the particular language because it depends on the environment culture. For example, the word *Cream Tea* in English is translated in many other languages the way it is since it is hard to determine the suitable equivalence.
5. Translation by paraphrasing use a related word. This strategy tends to be used when the concept which is expressed by the source item is lexicalized in the target language but in different form. Then, when the frequency with a certain form is used in the SL text is significantly higher than would be natural in the TL. As an example, in English text says, "There is strong evidence, however, that giant pandas are related to the bears." When it is back-translated from Chinese, it becomes "but there is rather strong evidence that shows that big pandas have a kinship relation with the bears."
6. Translation by paraphrase using unrelated word. This strategy is used when the concept expressed by the SL is not lexicalized at all in the TL. Instead of a related word, the paraphrase maybe based on modifying a superordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question semantically complex. As an example, an English text says, "there are two reasons for giving them only the most tangential treatment here." This text is back-translated from Japanese becomes "there are two reasons for us not having treated this social power in this book except in a very slight degree is which is like touching slightly."
7. Translation by omission. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text to justify distracting the reader with lengthy explanation, translators can and often do simply omit translating the word or expression in question (Baker, 1992). For instance, an English text says, "the panda's mountain home is rich in plant life and gave us many of trees, shrubs, and herbs most prized in European gardens." When it is back-translated from Chinese, it becomes "the mountain settlements of the panda have rich varieties of plants. There are many kinds of trees, shrubs, and herbal plants that are preciousy regarded by European garden." Here, the item 'gave us' is omitted since it not significant enough for the message of the text.
8. Translation by illustration. This strategy is very useful with condition if the word lacks an equivalent on the TL, refers to a physical entity which can be

illustrated, particularly if there are restrictions on space and if the text has to remain short, concise, and to the point. For example:

SL : Lipton Yellow Label Tea (tagged teabag product)

TL : (*explained with a picture*)

2.3. Speech Act

In accordance with Austin (1962), speech act is a unit of speaking which is used to perform different function in communication and to reach specific purposes. In every speech act, there are three things which can be distinguished:

1. The locutionary act, it is type of utterance which is constructed by its literal meaning.
2. The illocutionary act, it is intended when the speaker communicate with addressee.
3. The perlocutionary is the effect which the addressee gets of the speaker's utterance.

2.3.1. Types of Speech Act

According to Austin's original explanations of speech act theory there have been a number of works which endeavor to organize the approach. One important focus has been categorized the types of speech act possible in languages. For instance, J.R. Searle varies speech acts into five types, as below (1976:10-16):

1. Representatives, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding);
2. Directives, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, questioning);
3. Commissive, which commits the speaker to some future course of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening, offering);
4. Expressive, which express a psychological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating);
5. Declarations, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, marrying, firing from employment.).

On the other hand, Kreidler (1998:183) states that utterances in speech acts are divided into seven types;

1. Assertive utterances

Assertive verbs are, in English, followed by a full clause. They include *allege, announce, agree, report, remind, predict, protest*.

2. Performative utterances

Performative is a speech act that brings about the state of affairs: bids, blessings, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, declaring a mistrial. The verbs which included to performatives are *bet, declare, baptize, name, nominate, pronounce*.

3. Verdictive utterances

It is a speech act in which the speaker makes an assessment or judgement about the acts of another, especially the addressee. Verdictive verbs: *accuse, charge, excuse, thank* in the explicit frame *I ____ you off/for ____-ing*.

4. Expressive utterances

These are some example of expressive verbs; acknowledge, admit, confess, deny, and apologize.

5. Directive utterances

The directive utterances include command, request, and suggestion.

6. Commissive utterances

It is a speech act which commits a speaker to a course of action. It is include promises, pledges, threats and vows. Commissive verbs are illustrated by *agree, ask, offer, refuse, swear*, all with following infinitives. A commissive predicate is one that can be used to commit oneself (or refuse to commit oneself) to some future action.

7. Phatic utterances

Phatic utterances include greetings, farewells, polite formulas such as "Thank you," "You're welcome," and "Excuse me".

2.3.2. Commissive Speech Act (Refusal)

Refusal expression is categorized in commissive speech act. This speech act commits a speaker to a course of action. Refusing is one of many commissive verbs. The speech act of refusal occurs when a speaker directly or indirectly says no to a request or invitation. Refusal is a face-threatening act to the listener/requestor/inviter, because it contradicts his or her expectations, and is

often realized through indirect strategies. Thus, it requires a high level of pragmatic competence (Chen, 1996).

2.3.3. Refusal Expressions in English

Refusal expression in English is divided into two, direct refusal and indirect refusal.

2.3.3.1. Direct Refusal:

a. Performatives

For instance, “I refuse” is an utterance which is used speaker for refusing something. Performatives are self-naming utterances (Leech, 1996:215). The performative verb usually refers to the act in which the speaker is involved at the moment of speech.

b. Non-performative

Non performative direct refusal can be expressed by saying “no”. Saying “no” for refusing is common and it shows that the speaker refusing directly. Furthermore, non performative direct refusal can be expressed by using negative willingness/ ability. The use of negative willingness can be shows by saying “I can’t...”, “I won’t...”, “I don’t think so...”.

2.3.3.2. Indirect Refusal

Beebe, Takashi and Uliss-Weltz (noted in Tanck, 2004), studying refusals produced by American English speakers and Japanese EFL learners, and analyzed the refusals as a formulaic sequence, comprised-in the case of refusing an invitation. The classification of the indirect refusal strategies can be seen below (Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, noted in Arum, 2012):

a. Statement of Regret

There are some expressions to show sorry or regret that usually used by the speaker by saying “I’m sorry ...”, “I feel terrible ...”

b. Wish

To refuse something, the speaker can use the statement of wish, for instance, “*I wish* I could help you.”

c. Excuse, reason, explanation

Commonly, people use this category for refusing which they give reason or explanation. For instance: “My children at home ...”, “I’m headache ...”

d. Statement of alternative

The speaker usually adds alternative statement to refuse something. For instance: “I’d rather ...”, “I’d prefer ...” or “Why don’t you ask someone else? ...”

e. Set condition for future or past acceptance

In this situation, the speaker gives an opportunity for the hearer by past acceptance in which the hearer does not ask the speaker. It can be shown by saying “If you had asked me earlier, I would have ...”

f. Promise of future acceptance

Promising is another strategy for refusing which can be performed as “I’ll do it next time ...”, “I promise I’ll ...”, “Next time I’ll ...”

2.3.4. Refusal Expressions in Indonesian

Speech act of refusal can be a sentence or utterance which containing information or response to refuse. In Indonesia, type of refusal expression can be expressed in direct way and indirect way. In accordance with Kartomiharjo (1993: 153-158), the refusal expression is divided into seven classes which can be seen below:

1. Refusal which uses *no*

This type of strategy to refuse essentially gives a negative statement to refuse toward an offer or a statement.

2. Refusal uses reason.

This kind of refusal strategy uses reason to reject or refuse a statement, request and invitation. The explanation can be put in to the reason.

3. Refusal uses condition.

4. Refusal uses suggestion or choice.

5. Refusal uses thanking expression.

6. Refusal uses comment.

7. Refusal uses non-verbal expression, such as gesture, body movement.