

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter talks about the related literature of this research. It contains the theory of translation and noun phrase.

2.1 Previous Study

To get more information, the writer presents the previous research studies about the translation of English noun phrase into Indonesian. Krisetyawati (2010) states there are some difficulties in transferring English noun phrase into Indonesia. In her research, she found 355 errors (39.44%) of the possible errors made by the students in translating English noun phrases into Indonesian (900) that are classified into four types. They are omission errors (175 or 49.30% of the total number of errors), misformation errors (144 or 40.56% of the total of errors), misordering errors (27 or 7.61% of the total number of errors), and addition errors (9 or 2.53% of the total number of errors). From the four types of error, omission errors have the highest number of errors. Because the total errors made by the students are 355 errors (39.44% out of possible errors), the correct answers are 545 (60.56%). Referring to Suharsimi's opinion it is classified as fair. It means that the students still have problems in these areas.

In addition, according to Yuwono (2010), the difficulty is not only that nearly all the modifiers in the Indonesian NPs come after the noun head, but partly because sometimes the modifier in the English NP is in the form of one word or a phrase, but in its Indonesian equivalent the modifier may or should appear as a clause. In his research, he draws some conclusions, such as:

1. English NPs have a different system of word order from that their Indonesian equivalents.
2. The modifiers in the English NPs may occur before or/and after the noun head.
3. The modifiers in the Indonesian NPS occur only after the noun head except when the modifier is a kind of noun determiner that denotes quantity.

According to Arantis (2014), there are two kinds of noun phrase. It is the similar structure and different structure of noun phrase in the source language. She also finds four types from the analysis in the target language. Those are: (1) the structure consisting of diterminer + head + post-HM in TL; (2) the structure consisting of head + post-HM in TL; (3) the structure consisting of determiner +

without head + post-HM in TL; and (4) the structure consisting of subject+predicate+object (from the head of SL) in TL. The change of structure level in TL occurs because of the context in this fiction story. There is variation of the structure in TL because this is a fiction story.

2.2 Translation

The existence of translation can help the readers to understand the materials written in foreign language. There are many books about translation give the definition of translation, although there are similarities on the point. Catford (1965:20) defines a translation as the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). The difference of grammatical structure between source language and target language makes a difficulty of transferring an exactly equivalent translation. Transferring message of source language into target language can be only a word, phrase, or clause without any changing the meaning.

Newmark (1987:5) states that translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text. In addition, translation involves the rendering of a source language (SL) text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and the structures of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted (Bassnett 1998:12).

2.3 Common Problems of Non-equivalence

The common problem dealing with translation is the difficulties of finding equivalent translation in target language. The translators must choose whether should translate literally or freely. According to Baker (1992:20-23), non-equivalence at word level means that the target language has no direct equivalence for a word which occur in source language. Here are some common problems of non-equivalence at word level.

- a. Culture-specific concept
- b. The source-language concept is not lexicalized in the target language
- c. The source-language word is semantically complex
- d. The source and target languages make different distinction in meaning
- e. The target language lacks a super-ordinate
- f. The target language lacks a specific term (hyponym)
- g. Differences in physical or interpersonal perspective

- h. Differences in expressive meaning
- i. Differences in Form
- j. Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific form
- k. The use of loan words in the source text

2.4 Translation Strategies

A professional translator will not translate source language into target language explicitly, however it is difficult to find equivalent translation in target language. According to Baker (1992: 26-38), there are some strategies used by professional translators.

a. Translation by a more general word (superordinate)

These strategies are dealing with many types of non-equivalence, particularly in the area of propositional meaning.

Example:

Source text (Kolestral Super):

Shampoo the hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO and lightly towel dry.

Target text 1 (Spanish):

Lavar el cabello con un champú suave de WELLA y frotar ligeramente con una toalla.

Wash hair with a mild WELLA shampoo and rub lightly with a towel.

The examples above illustrate the use of general word (superordinate) to overcome a relative lack of specificity in the target language compared to source language. ‘Shampooing’ can be seen as a type of ‘washing’ since it is more restricted in its use.

b. Translation by a more neutral/less expressive word

The translators avoid conveying the wrong expressive meaning.

Example:

Source text (*A Study of Shamanistic Practices in Japan-Blacker, 1975*)

The shamanic practices we have investigated are rightly seen as archaic mysticism.

Target text (back-translated from Japanese):

The shamanic behavior which we have been researching should rightly be considered as **ancient** mysticism.

c. 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 propositional meaning but is likely to have a similar impact on the target reader. The main advantage of using this strategy is that it gives the reader a concept with which s/he can identify something familiar and appealing. The translator's decision to use this strategy depends on how much license is given to him/her by those who commission the translation and the purpose of the translation.

d. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation

This strategy is particularly common in dealing with culture-specific items, modern concepts, and buzz word.

e. Translation by paraphrase using a related word

This strategy tends to be used when the concept expressed by the source item is lexicalized in the target language but a different form, and when the frequency with which a certain form is used in the source text significantly higher than would be nature in the target language.

f. Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words

The paraphrase strategy can still be used in some contexts if the concept expressed by some source item is not lexicalized at all in the target language. Instead of a related word, the paraphrase may be based on modifying a super-ordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question is semantically complex.

g. Translation by omission

This strategy may sound rather drastic, but in fact it does no harm to omit translating a word or expression in some contexts. 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 length explanation, translator can and often do simply omit translating the word or expression question.

Example:

Source text (China's Panda Reserves):

The panda's mountain home is rich in plant life and gave us many of the trees, shrubs and herbs most prized in European gardens.

Target text (back-translated from Chinese):

The mountain settlements of the panda have rich varieties of plants. There are many kinds of trees, shrubs and herbal plants that are preciously regarded by European gardens.

The source text addresses a European audience, and the use of *gave us* highlights its intended orientation. The Chinese translation addresses the different audience and therefore suppresses the orientation of the source text by omitting expression which betray its original point of view.

h. Translation by illustration

This strategy is a useful option if the word which lacks an equivalent in the target language refers to a physical entity which can be illustrated, particularly if there are restrictions on space and if the texts have to remain short, concise, and to point.

2.5 Structure of English Noun Phrases

Noun phrases consist a head, which is typically a noun, and of the elements which (either obligatory or optionally) determine the head and (optionally) modify the head, or complement another element in the phrase (Quirk et al 1985:62). The position of noun phrase is typically as subject, object, complement of sentence, and part of prepositional phrases. For instance, look the table below:

Table 2.1 Noun Phrases with Pre-Headed Modifier and Post-Headed Modifier

Pre-Headed Modifier		Head	Post-Headed Modifier
Determinative	modifier		
		Peter	
Alice's		Wedding	
		Girl	with the red hair
all those	fine warm	Days	In the country last year
A	Better	Story	than that
The	Best	Trip	that I ever had

By looking at the examples above, noun phrases with noun headwords may typically be preceded by premodification and followed by postmodification. Here are some constructions of English noun phrase:

1. Head only
2. Pre-Headed Modifier (HM) + Head
3. Head + Post-Headed Modifier (HM)
4. Pre- Headed Modifier (HM) + Head + Post- Headed Modifier (HM)

According to Ryšavá (2012), Premodification can be most typically expressed by an article, a genitive phrase, a pronoun, an adjective (adjective phrase), an adverb or adverb phrase or another noun (noun phrase). Whereas, postmodification may consist of a prepositional phrase and subordinate clause. Some minor possibilities of postmodification are an adverb phrase and an adjective except for modifiers and determiners which are very important part of a noun phrase because determiners may be divided into predeterminers (all), central determiners (the, this, some), and postdeterminers (three, many, few). For instance, look the table below:

Table 2.2 Noun Phrases with Pre-Headed Modifier and Post-Headed Modifier

Pre-Headed Modifier			Head	Post-Headed Modifier	
Specifier		Modifier			
Pre-det	Cent-det		Post-det		
	The			Tramp	
half	A			Book	
	His			magazine	
Both	These		Lovely	children	
		Two		Boys	with red hair
All	The	Ten	French	soldiers	who survived the crash
			White	Milk	in bottles

Wekker & Haegeman (1985:42)

2.6 Nominal Phrase Qualifier and Complement

Post-head dependent elements in nominal phrase structure realized by embedded clauses can have a role as qualifiers or as complements, firstly, by **prepositional phrases** and, secondly, by a range of non-finite **embedded clauses** (Morley, 2000:203).

1. Prepositional phrases

Prepositional qualifiers with an attributive function provide a descriptor to the headword and will give sensible answers to the question 'Which X?' meaning 'What sort of X (is it)?' or 'What is X like?', where X refers to the particular headword. Some examples are:

- a. *the girl with long hair*
- b. *a man of great courage*
- c. *the house like a box*

In some instances the prepositional phrase qualifier may be paralleled by a structure consisting of a copula **verb** + **adjectival** element, such as *the man is very courageous*. In the last example listed is only possible with the help of '**-like**' to form the adjective, e.g. *the house is box-like*. In other instances the preposition may carry the meaning of 'has' in the sense of possessing a physical characteristic/property or abstract quality. Thus one can say here that *the girl has long hair*. Indeed many attributive prepositional qualifiers can be related to similarly paraphrased structures in which they appear as adjectival or participial premodifiers, thus:

- a. *the girl with long hair - the long-haired girl*
- b. *a man of great courage - a very courageous man*

Huddleston (1988a: 94) in Morley (2000:208) comments that 'the preposition in a complement is selected by the noun head, whereas in a modifier it is potentially semantically contrastive' and may thus be able to be replaced by a different preposition. He compares *her reliance on the premier* (complement) with *the book on the table* (modifier).

2. Embedded Clauses

a. Relative

Morley (2000:209) states that reduced relative clause qualifiers have a determinative role and answer the question 'Which X?'. They fit the formulae The X (who/which/that/when/where/why) (one/you/he/she, etc.)

For examples:

- a. *the person to follow ('The person (who) you should follow.')*
- b. *the box to take ('The box (which/that) you should take.')*
- c. *the place to be ('The place (where) you should be.')*
- d. *the time to leave ('The time (when) you should leave.')*
- e. *the way to come ('The way you should come.')*
- f.

b. Identifying

Identifying clause complements also occur with non-finite embedded clauses. They respond typically to the question 'What is the X?', which in the case of infinitive clause complements is on the basis of 'X is Y' or 'X is identified as being Y' (Morley 2000: 210).

For examples:

- a. *his decision to resign* ('His decision is to resign.')
- b. *the need to see the machine* ('The need is for us to see the machine.')
- c. *his willingness to help* ('His willingness is identified as being to help.')
- d. *his ability to write*
- e. *her will to win*

2.7 English Derived Noun

Quirk et al (1985:71) defines morphological form is a realization of more than one lexical item. A morphological form may be simple or complex. The morphological form of a word may therefore be defined as its composition in term of morphemes, stems, and affixes. Furthermore, according to Mc-Carthy (2002:48-52), the notion that derivation can occur without any overt change in shape may at first seem strange. Some linguists have accordingly decided that HOPE and FEAR, as nouns, are really 'zero-derived', carrying a phonologically empty and therefore unpronounceable '**zero suffix**'. One of the processes available in derivational morphology is **conversion**, whereby a lexeme belonging to one class can simply be converted to another, without any overt change in shape.

The head of noun phrase can be from a noun derived from verb or adjective. Noun derived from verb and adjective are extremely numerous. Most of derived noun from verb and adjective are added by suffixes. Indeed, all verbs can form nouns with it irrespective of whatever other suffixes they may use. There are some suffixes used to derive nouns from verb, such as *-ance*, *-ence*, *-ment*, *((a)tion*, *-al*, and *-er* and here are also some suffixes that produce derived noun based on adjective: *-ity*, *-ness*, and *-ism*. Although affixation is by far the most common way which lexemes are derived in English, it is not the only way. There are some non-affixal ways of deriving abstract nouns, such as: change in the position of the stress, change in the final consonant, and change in a vowel. For instance, look the table below:

Table 2.3 Derived Noun from Verb

Verbs	Suffixes	Derived noun
Perform	<i>-ance</i>	Performance
Ignore		Ignorance
Refer	<i>-ence</i>	Reference
Converge		Convergence
Announce	<i>-ment</i>	Announcement
Commit		Commitment
Develop		Development
Ignore	<i>Ing</i>	Ignoring
Denunciate	<i>-((a)t)ion</i>	Denunciation
Confuse		Confusion
Refuse	<i>-al</i>	Refusal
Arrive		Arrival
Pain	<i>-er</i>	Painter
Sing		Singer

Mc-Carthy (2002:51)

Table 2.4 Derived Noun from Adjective

Adjective	Suffixes	Derived noun
Pure	<i>-ity</i>	Purity
Equal		Equality
Good	<i>-ness</i>	Goodness
Sensitive		Sensitiveness
Radical	<i>-ism</i>	Radicalism
Conservative		Conservatism

Mc-Carthy (2002:50)

Table 2.5 Non-affixal Derived Nouns (Zero Suffix)

Verb	Derived Noun
Permit	Permit
Transfer	Transfer
Believe	Belief
Prove	Proof
Sing	Song

McCarthy (2002:52)

2.8 Structure of Indonesian Noun Phrase

Djenar (2003:12) defines that a noun phrase is a phrase in which the head is a noun. The construction of English noun phrase and Indonesian noun phrase are different. According to Yuwono (2010), the modifiers in the Indonesian noun phrases occur only after the noun head except when the modifier is a kind of noun determiner that denotes quantity. In addition, Tandiana (2015) states that in Indonesian noun phrases are commonly expanded at the back of the head. In Indonesian noun phrases, the head comes before the other word(s), while in English it is generally the other way round. According to Djenar (2003:19), when translating complex noun phrases from English, work your way from right to left. There are five combinations that are commonly found in Indonesian noun phrase:

2.8.1 Noun + Possessor

Djenar (2003:12) states that in this type of noun phrase, the noun refers to something that belongs to a person or animal. For instance, in *buku Nina* (Nina's book), a book is being referred to, so the word *buku* comes first. *Nina* (name of a person) specifies to whom the book belongs, so it is placed after the noun. Similarly, in *ayah saya* (my father), 'father' is being referred to, and the word 'my' specifies that the father belongs to you, so *ayah* comes first and *saya* after.

2.8.2 Noun + Another noun

In this type of noun phrase, the second noun is also related to the head noun, but not as a possessor as in the above. The second noun may specify the location mentioned in the head, such as 'school library' (library located at a school) or 'football field' (a field for playing football, or give other specifications).

Table 2.6 Indonesian Noun Phrase (Noun + Another noun)

Noun Phrases		English meaning
Noun	Another noun	
<u>Perpustakaan</u> (library)	Sekolah(school)	school <u>library</u>
<u>Lapangan</u> (field)	<u>sepak bola</u> (football)	football <u>field</u>
<u>Sampul</u> (cover)	<u>Buku</u> (book)	book <u>cover</u>
<u>Merek</u> (brand)	<u>Komputer</u> (computer)	computer <u>brand name</u>

Djenar (2003:14)

2.8.3 Noun + Adjective

In this type of noun phrase, the adjective that follows the noun describes such things as the size, colour, taste or, generally, the quality of the thing referred to by the noun.

Table 2.7 Indonesian Noun Phrase (Noun + Adjective)

Noun Phrases		English meaning
Noun	Adjective	
rumah (house)	besar (big)	big <u>house</u>
sepeda (bicycle)	kecil (small)	small <u>bicycle</u>
balon (balloon)	hijau (green)	green <u>balloon</u>
teh (tea)	manis (sweet)	sweet <u>tea</u>

.Djenar (2003:16)

2.8.4 Noun + Verb

Djenar (2003:16) states that when the noun is followed by a verb, the verb indicates the activity for which the noun is used. For example, *gedung olahraga* (sport hall), the word ‘gedung’ is the head of the noun phrase which is modified by the word ‘olahraga’ comes after the head. Likely, in *kamar mandi* (bathroom), ‘kamar’ is the head of the noun phrase which is followed the word ‘mandi’ as the modifier.

2.8.5 Noun + Demonstrative

A demonstrative is a word that can be used to point at something, such as *ini* (this) and *itu* (that). In this type of noun phrase, the demonstrative is placed after the noun.

Table 2.8 Indonesian Noun Phrase (Noun + Demonstrative)

Noun Phrase		English meaning
Noun	Demonstrative	
universitas (university)	itu (that)	that <u>university</u>
kotak (box)	ini (this)	this <u>box</u>

Djenar (2003:17)