CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the researcher presents the review of related literature in which it covers the definition of translation, translation shift, English verb phrase, and Indonesian language verb phrase.

2.1 Definition of Translation

Translation is the way to send the meaning. It is also meant to deliver the same information in the TL as well as in SL though in the different forms. Prospective translators have to master the knowledge of the translation, such as linguistic and non-linguistic context. Further, linguistic is the study of semantic (meaning) while non-linguistic is the study of pragmatic (language use).

According to the aspects above, there are some theories based on the viewpoint of the experts. Firstly, Larson (1984:3) states that translation is transferring the meaning of the original language into the receptor language. This is done by going from the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant. Secondly, Munday (2001: 5) conveyed that translation is the process of rendering meaning or messages between two different languages and required the translator to translate the language from the SL into TL. Thirdly, Bassnett (2002: 12) defined that translation is a way of the SL text into the TL so as to ensure that surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar.
It can be concluded that translation is a process of transferring the meaning of the source language into the target language. The language that is to be translated is called source language (SL), whereas the text to be translated is called the source text (ST). The language that is to be translated into is called the target language (TL); while the final product is called the target text (TT).

2.2 Translation Shift

Shift describes some changes occurring in a translation process. Translation shifts occur both at the lower level of language. In addition, translation is transferring the meaning between two different languages. Catford (1978) divided the shift in translation into two major types, level/rank shift, and category shift. Level/rank shift refers to a source language item at one linguistic level that has target language translation equivalence at a different level. In other words, it is simply a shift from grammar to lexis. While Munday (2001: 55) conveyed that translation shift is a small linguistic change occurring in the translation of ST and TT.

Pursuant to theories above, translation shift is the small linguistic changes that occur between ST and TT. ST is the original language while TT is translated from the ST. Nevertheless, there are two kinds of shifts in translation namely level shift and category shift.
The following section describes what level shift and category shift are:

2.2.1 Level Shift

The level shift occurs when ST meets TT at different linguistic level. Catford (2000: 141-3) said that one language and lexis indicate level shifts in syntax. In addition, the shift is from grammar to lexis at the linguistic level. For example:

SL: Bayu has gone.
TL: Bayu sudah pergi.

In conclusion, the form “has gone (has + past participle)” is grammatical form in English in which it shows a period that continues until now while its translation in Indonesian is using “sudah” which is a lexical form. Therefore, the difference linguistic level has occurred by the shift at one language level.

2.2.2 Types of Shift

Two theories comprise the types of translation shift which are drawn in this chapter. The first is described by Catford’s model of equivalence (1965). He says that there are two types in equivalence, they are:

1. Formal correspondence is any TL category (unit, class, element of structure, etc) which can be said to occupy as nearly as possible the “same” place in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. For example: translating a verb by a noun.
Textual Equivalence is any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text. For example: translating nominal by a verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Language Text</th>
<th>Target language Text</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discombobulated</td>
<td>Membingungkan</td>
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</table>

The second is described by Nida and Taber’s types of equivalence (1982). Nida argued that there are two different types of equivalence, namely formal correspondence and dynamic equivalence. The formal correspondence is centralized by attention on the own meaning, in both form and content. However, dynamic equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect. This comprised as a translation principle in which prospective translators can find to translate the meaning of the original text.

Most of the theories above focus on the same perception that the formal correspondence progresses in the form and content. Both also say that the second types are about textual in equivalence; however, Nida and Taber confer the equivalence effect.
2.2.3 Categories of Shift

As far as translation shifts are concerned, there are several categories in translation shift. Catford (1965) defines them as 'departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL'. In addition, Catford (1965) argued that there are two main types of translation shifts, namely level shifts, where the SL item at one linguistic level (e.g. grammar) has a TL equivalence at a different level (e.g. lexis), and category shifts. Moreover, Catford (2000:143-7) divides into four types of category shifts: structure shifts, class shifts, unit shifts, and intra-system shifts that elaborated in the following section:

2.2.3.1 Structure Shifts

These are among the most frequent category shift at all ranks in translation. It involves a grammatical change between the structure of the ST and that of the TT. The example of structure shift is elucidated as follows:

ST: Giant Contract
TT: kontrak besar

The example above is included to structure shift because there is a shift from M-H (Modifier-Head) to H-M (Head-Modifier) between both version above.

2.2.3.2 Class Shift

This contains shifts from one part of speech to another. It occurs when the translation equivalence of an SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. SL item is translated with a TL item which belongs to a different grammatical class.
The example of class shift is elucidated as follows:

ST: We have a very nice discussion [N].

TT: Kami berdiskusi[V] dengan sangat menyenangkan.

It means that “discussion” is noun then it will change in TT as “berdiskusi” which is in verb form. Therefore, this example is changing the class shift, because it has a different class from the original item.

2.2.3.3 Unit Shift

It changes of rank- that is, departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalence of a unit at one rank in the SL is a unit at different rank in the TL. The example of unit shift is elucidated as follows:

ST: daughter, son

TT: anak perempuan, anak laki-laki

From the example above, the unit shift can be found at the Source Language (SL) is “son” (noun), that is translated into Target Language (TL) “anak laki-laki” (noun phrase). It means that it is the change from a noun into a noun phrase.

2.2.3.4 Intra-System Shift

It occurs when '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. For instance, the SL singular becomes a TL plural. The example of intra-system shift is elucidated as follows:
ST: This is the place for cats [plural].

TT: Ini adalah tempat untuk kucing [singular].

Succeeding the example above, it can be seen at Source Language (SL) “cats” belongs to the plural that the translator can say it in plural “kucing-kucingan” in Target Language (TL); however, it belongs to singular. Therefore, this category is called as intra-system shift.

2.3 English Verb Phrase

Every sentence must have a verb. Verbs, from the Latin verbum meaning word, is a part word (part of speech) that in syntax conveys an action (bring, walk, run) an occurrence (happen, become) or a state of being (be, exist, stand). A phrase is a group of words which have a particular meaning when used together. Boeree (2010) said that a verb phrase is composed of a verb plus optional auxiliary verbs, object noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and adverbial phrases. Moreover, Suhardi (2013: 42) noted that verb phrase is a phrase that is formed from two words or more in which it is a verb as the main verb.

Therefore, verb phrase is a part of a word from two or more words that contains an auxiliary and a verb as the main verb. The main verb is in underline in the following examples:

is studying have been arriving may go was running
Furthermore, Radford (1988) has found that there are 6 patterns of verb phrases, those are:

1. **ASP + V**

   ASP is the auxiliary that contains a perfect form, progressive form, and passive form. V-bar can be expanded by the addition of appropriate specifiers into a V-double-bar constituent. For instance: *are reading* [ASP + V]

2. **M + V + PP**

   “M” is a modal auxiliary such as *can, may, might, and must*. While “PP” is a prepositional phrase such as *below, at, in, on, under, since, after, before, by, etc.*. Example: *She will work at the job.* [S M V PP]

3. **V + PP**

   It is the same as the above construction of VP without the modal auxiliary. For example: *decide on the boat* [V PP]

4. **V + NP + PP**

   Example: *buy the book on Tuesday* [V NP PP]

   This sentence seems to contain V-bar constituents of the semantic form [ V + NP + PP].

5. **ASP + V + PP₁ + PP₂**

   Another possibility, the verb phrase seems in double PP. PP₁ means the word after *to- V_{ininitive}* and followed by a noun. However, PP₂ can be said in the another PPs constructions. For instance:

   *Be going to the cinema on Tuesday* [V PP PP]
6. **ADVP + V + NP or V + NP + ADVP**

Adjectival Phrases used to premodify nominals have Adverbial counterparts used to premodify the corresponding verbal expressions. For example:

*She totally read the book.*  [S  ADVP  V  NP]

Or

*She read the book totally.*  [S  V  NP  ADVP]

Both sentences actually have the same meaning but different pattern. In English grammar, we can put the ADVP after the subject or before the noun phrase.

### 2.4 Indonesian Verb Phrase

In Indonesian language, verb phrase is called *frasa verbal* in which it is a group of words formed with the verb. In addition, a verb phrase belongs to a part of the endocentric phrase. According to Tarigan (2009: 104), *frasa verbal* is composite two words or more phrase or word which is verb form.

Moreover, Suhardi (2013: 42) defines there are two types of verb phrase which is a part of the endocentric phrase; namely:

a. **Frasa Verba Endocentric Attributive (VEA)**

*VEA* is a modifier-head phrase which is headed by a verb. For example:

*akan pergi*  (will go)

*harus datang*  (must come)
b. *Frasa Verba Endocentric Coordinative (VEK)*

*VEK* is the composite of two verbs which are commonly indicated with the conjunction *dan* or *atau*. For example:

*Menangis dan meratapi nasibnya* (cry and lament his destiny)

*Mengakui atau mengingkari janjinya* (admit or deny his promises)

### 2.4.1 Indonesian Language Verb Phrase Patterns

The Indonesian language has some patterns of *frasa verba* (verb phrase). This point is shared by Kridalaksana (1987:94) that Indonesian language verb phrase has some patterns as follows:

### Active VP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V + N \pm C$</td>
<td><em>bermain bola</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V + N + \text{another } V$</td>
<td><em>membantu adik menulis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V + N_1 + N_2$</td>
<td><em>membuatkan ayah kopi</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V + N_2 \pm {untuk/bagi/kepada} + N_1$</td>
<td><em>membuatkan kopi untuk ayah</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2.1*

Active Verb Phrase Patterns

Those parts are a group of VP with using active $V$. Active $V$ is that the subject does an action which is directly on the object. The verb usually begins with *me-* or *ber-*.
The patterns of figure 2.2 are the parts of the passive verb. In addition, the passive verb is that the subject gets/subjected an action that forms the predicate to object. The Verb uses prefix *di-, ke-an, or ter*.
In figure 2.3, there are four patterns of a verb such as ergative, antipassive, subordinating, and coordinative verb. Firstly, the ergative verb is verbs that affect the action of the subject, not an object. Secondly, the antipassive verb is active verbs that cannot be converted into a passive verb. Thirdly, the subordinating verb is intransitive verbs that follow with another verb. Lastly, the coordinative verb is 2 verbs that are combined into one.
These patterns also belong to the verb phrase in which all of them use different patterns of the previous pattern. In addition, there are other examples of verb phrase “$V_{\text{intrasitive}} + \{\text{di/ke/akan/tentang/dengan}\} + N = me- + V + \{i/kan/\text{Ø}\} + N$”, as follows:

- *Senang akan* → *menyenangi*
- *Lewat di* → *melewati*
- *Bertemu dengan* → *menemui*
**Ingat akan** → mengingat

**Benci akan** → membenci

**Cinta akan** → mencinta

**Sayang akan** → menyayangi

**Naik ke** → menaiki

In conclusion, verb phrase is the combined two or more words that are endocentric attributive or endocentric coordinative with verbs as a core component. Tarigan (2009: 104) said that *frasa verbal* is composite two words or more phrase or word which is verb form, for instance: *akan pergi* (will go). The construction of Adv + V is the pattern from “akan pergi”. 