CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of theoretical literature and researches supporting the analysis of this research, namely: the definition of translation, translatability and untranslatability, translation equivalence, and shift in translation.

2.1 The Definition of Translation

Many experts have defined translation into various point of views. Munday (2008, p.5) defines that translation has several meanings which are product and process. The product is the text that has been translated from source language into target language while the process is an act of a translator translating the text. Machali (2009, p.30) also adds translation as the process which refers to the stages of translating, including the translator who decides to apply method, procedure and chooses the appropriate meaning, etc.

Another definition proposed by Catford (as cited in Machali, 2009, p.25), translation is replacing textual material in one language into another language equally. In addition, Nida and Taber (as cited in Zuchridin Suryawinata & Sugeng Hariyanto 2003, p.12) propose, “translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.” According to the two definitions, translation is not only transferring the message or meaning from source language to target language, but it is also finding the most equivalent message or meaning and style on the target language.
Furthermore, Hartono (2011, p.6) defines translation as Tripartite Cycle Model,

“translation is reading the author’s will and purpose in the form of message which contains both denotative and connotative meanings that exist in the source text that must be reproduced by translators into the receptor’s language. This process runs in a simultaneous cycle”.

In other words, simultaneous cycle involves author, receptor and translator. Translators play a role as a reader that can be a bridge to read or interpret the author’s purpose and will to the receptor.

According to the definitions, it can be concluded that translation is process of transferring the message or meaning from source language (SL) to target language (TL). In order that the product of translation is readable and understandable, translators must take considerations the equivalent message or meaning than the form in target language.

2.2 Translatability and Untranslatability

The concept of translatability and untranslatability have been discussed by many scholars. Anything can be translated from source language into target language is simply said as translatability. According to Hatim and Munday (2004), they give argumentation about translatability:

“translatability is a relative notion and has to do with extent to which, despite obvious differences in linguistic structure (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), meaning can still be adequately expressed across language. But, for this to be possible, meaning has to be understood not only in terms of what the ST contains, but also and equally significantly, in terms of such factors as communicative purpose, target audience and purpose of translation” (p.15)
The phenomena of untranslatability cannot be avoided. Basnett (2002, p.39) argues that when such difficulties are encountered by the translator, the whole issue of the translatability of the text is raised.

Catford (as cited in Bassnet, 2002, p.39) distinguishes two types of untranslatability, namely linguistic untranslatability and cultural untranslatability.

1. Linguistic Untranslatability

Untranslatability occurs when there is no lexical or syntactical substitute in the TL for an SL item. For expressing plural and simple present verbs in third-person singular by adding the suffixes, sometimes it becomes a problem in certain situation. Translators have to understand the context in order to understand the meaning. In English, “time flies” it can be translated into Bahasa Indonesia “waktu berjalan dengan cepat” or “menghitung kecepatan lalat-lalat”. (Muttaqien, 2011, p.21)

2. Cultural Untranslatability

This untranslatability occurs because of the absence in the TL culture of a relevant situational feature for the SL text. He quotes the example of the different concepts of the term “bathroom” in English, Finnish or Japanese context, where both the object and the use made of that object are not all alike. However, Catford also claims that more abstract lexical items, such as the English term “home” or “democracy” cannot be described as untranslatable, and argues that the English phrases “I’m going home” or “He’s at home” can ‘readily be provided with translation equivalents in most languages’ whilst the term “democracy” is international.
In addition, Popovic (as cited in Bassnet, 2002, p.42), also distinguishes two types of untranslatability as follows:

1. A situation in which the linguistic elements of the original cannot be replaced adequately in structural, linear, functional or semantic terms in consequence of a lack of denotation or connotation.

2. A situation where the relation of expressing the meaning, i.e. the relation between the creative subject and its linguistic expression in the original does not find an adequate linguistic expression in the translation.

2.3 Translation Equivalence

A translator is obligated to find out the equivalence meaning from source language into target language in order that the product of translation is understandable, acceptable, and readable by receptor. The term equivalence in translation is the degree of sameness between the situation described in source language and the situation described in target language (Setyabudi, 2016, p.15). In translating, two different languages can be equivalent in different degrees. As Vinay and Darbelnet (as cited in Munday, 2008, p.58) state “equivalence refers to cases where languages describe the same situation by the different stylistic or structural means”. Further, Jakobson (as cited in Munday, 2008, p.37) points out that for the message to be equivalent in both languages, the code units can be different because of two different sign systems (languages).
2.3.1 Types of Equivalence

The concept of equivalence in translation is specified by some experts. Nida (as cited in Munday, 2008, p.42) divides equivalence into two types, namely: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. These are explained as follows:

1. Formal equivalence involves the form and content. The target language should match as closely as possible the different elements in source language. In addition, it is oriented towards the structure of source language which exerts the correctness and accuracy.

2. Dynamic equivalence relates the message of target language should be substantially the same as that exists in source language. In other words, to complete naturalness of translation product (TL), the translator finds out the closest natural equivalent the message of source language.

Meanwhile, an important distinction between formal correspondence and textual equivalence is made by Catford (as cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004, p.27).

1. Formal correspondence refers to the equivalents of linguistic category, including unit class, element of structure, etc.) between two different languages.

2. Textual equivalence involves any target language text which is observed on a particular occasion to be equivalent of the given source language text.

Further, Popovic (as cited in Bassnett, 2002, p.33) distinguishes four types of translation equivalence as follows:

1. Linguistic equivalence, where there is homogenity on the linguistic level between source language and target language.
(2) *Paradigmatic equivalence*, where there is equivalence of ‘the elements of a paradigmatic expressive axis’.

(3) *Stylistic (translational) equivalence*, where there is ‘functional equivalence of elements in both original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning’.

(4) *Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence*, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a text.

### 2.4 Shift in Translation

Related to the Jakobson’s explanation about equivalence, the translator may change the form of source language in order to get equivalence translation product. It is supported by Larson (as cited in Hartono, 2011, p. 2) that focuses on the meaning must be held constant rather than the forms of both languages. Therefore, it affords the presence of shift in order to get a good translation product.

Some scholars have investigated the notion of translation shifts, since the translation involves two equivalent meanings in two different code units. According to translation descriptive studies, Catford is the most prominent name in this field since he is the first scholar using translation shift. Catford (as cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004, p.26), defines the small linguistic changes that occurs between source language and target language are known as translation shift. Meanwhile, Vinay and Darbelnet called translation shift as transposition. They also define, “transposition involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message” (as cited in Venuti, 2000, p.88).
Catford (as cited in Venuti, 2000, p.141), defines shift as the departure from formal correspondence in the process of going from the source language to the target language. In other words, shift tends to occur when textual equivalents or the translational equivalents are not in formal correspondence. Further, he classified two main types of shift, namely: level shift and category shift. He also subdivides category shifts into four, they are: structure shift, class shift, unit shift, and intra-system shift.

2.4.1 Level Shift

Level shift occurs when one linguistic level in source language has a translation equivalent in target language at different level (Catford (as cited in Venuti, 2000, p.141)). In other words, a grammatical unit in source language has a lexical unit in target language and vice-versa. “Something which is expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another” (as cited in Munday, 2008: 60). For example :

1) In English (SL) : Farlan has finished his work
   In Bahasa Indonesia (TL) : Farlan telah menyelesaikan pekerjaannya

From the example above, the level shift of source language is grammar due to it follows the formula of present perfect tense [has + finished (V3)]. As the distinction of grammar, it is translated into lexis [telah/sudah + menyelesaikan] in target language.

2.4.2 Structure Shift

Catford (as cited in Venuti, 2000, p. 143) states that structure shift becomes the most frequent form of shift which occurred at all ranks. This shift
occurs since a change in grammatical structure or word order between source language (SL) and target language (TL). For example:

1) In English (SL) : *He was not here yet*

   In *Bahasa Indonesia* (TL) : *Dia belum datang*

   According to the example above, it can be seen that source language “*He was not here yet*” is translated into a nominal sentence. However, it becomes a verbal sentence “*Dia belum datang*” in target language.

### 2.4.3 Class Shift

Munday (2008, p.61) describes these comprises shift from one part of speech to another. In other words, this shift involves a change of word classes between source language and target language. It is known that there are eight word classes (parts of speech) in English, including noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, determiner, and conjunction. Class shift occurs in other classes, from adjective to verb, verb to noun, noun to adjective, and so forth. For instance, from adverb to verb. In addition, Catford (as cited in Prawita, 2014, p.25) points out that structure shifts entail class shift because of logical dependence of class on structure. For example:

1) In English (SL) : *Her stepmother is in doubt*

   In *Bahasa Indonesia* (TL) : *Ibu tirinya ragu-ragu*

   According to the example above, the word “*doubt*” is categorized as an adjective in source language. It is translated into “*ragu-ragu*” which is a noun in target language.
2.4.4 Unit Shift

Unit shift is the product of translation in target language which has a different rank in source language. It can be said that unit shift involves the change of ranks. The rank includes the hierarchy of linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme. For example:

1) In English (SL) : calf
   In Bahasa Indonesia (TL) : anak sapi

   Based on the example above, the rank of “calf” in the source language is word. Then, it is translated into “anak sapi” in target language. The rank of “calf” in target language is phrase.

2.4.5 Intra-system Shift

Intra-system shift is a departure from formal correspondence when a system of source language has a non-corresponding term in target language system. It is supported by the definition proposed by Catford (as cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004, p. 146), intra-system shift occurs internally, within a system; that is, for those cases where source language and target language possess systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitutions, but when translation involving selection of a non-corresponding term in target language system. The example of intra-system shift is presented as follows:

1. In English (SL)
   A dog is an intelligent animal
   In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
   Anjing (adalah) binatang yang cerdas
The translational version, in Bahasa Indonesia, it can be translated into formal equivalent “Seekor anjing adalah seekor binatang yang cerdas”. However, it is not going to be clearly accepted. Hence, this shift occurs “Anjing (adalah) binatang yang cerdas” (Alzuhdy, 2014).

According to the aforementioned example, determiner or article is not applied in translation. This phenomenon is generally called as zero translation or omission. For expressing the number in Bahasa Indonesia, the translator does not emphasize “a” into “seekor” if it refers to a generic noun.

In the aforementioned example in English, the expression of “a dog” and “an...animal” can be transferred into plural form without changing the generic noun and the function of sentence. However, an adjustment must be applied to other words in order that the sentence is acceptable. The translational version, in Bahasa Indonesia has the same meaning “Anjing (adalah) binatang yang cerdas”. In addition, the sentence cannot be expressed into plural form “Anjing-anjing adalah binatang-binatang yang cerdas”.

2. In English (SL)

_Dolphins are highly intelligent marine mammals_

In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)

_Lumba-lumba adalah mamalia laut yang sangat cerdas_

Noun is formed repeatedly to indicate that it is plural in Bahasa Indonesia (SL) and the use of word “banyak”, “beberapa”, “sejumlah”, etc. Moreover, it tends to still focus on the deixis (for example : “mereka” to infer the indefinite subject) and to reject the use of articles (Setyabudi, 2016, p.22).
Besides, English has its own terms to express the quantity by using “many”, “some”, “any” followed by countable or uncountable noun, and cardinal number followed by things [two (cardinal number) + cars (noun)]. In addition, it is added the suffixes “-s”, “es”, “en”.

In the aforementioned, the words “dolphins” is translated into “lumba-lumba” in order to make it acceptable in source language. It sounds strange to translate “dolphins” into “lumba-lumba – lumba-lumba”.

3. In English (SL)                      In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)

   A pair of trousers          sebuah celana

Intra-system shift occurs when a certain word has different concept of plurality. Two communities of languages have different points of view which lead shift occured in process of translation. According to the example above, trouser “sebuah celana” is a part of object in Bahasa Indonesia. On the other hand, in English, “a pair of trousers” consider as two parts in order that function is appropriate with its purpose. Therefore, the translator must be aware when translate from Bahasa Indonesia into English. It occupies repetition or cardinal number followed by the things and suffixes in Bahasa Indonesia.

In English (SL)                      In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)

   Two pairs of trousers       dua celana

However, the concept will be different if it is a pair of objects. This kind of objects are separated but it normally goes together. Hence, the objects are considered to be two separate parts.
4. This shift also occurs because the concepts of time and tenses are different. For instance, in Bahasa Indonesia, “Saya sudah bertemu Budi minggu lalu”. Then, the translators have to choose whether they apply perfective tense “have+V3” or emphasize an event that happened at the past, by using “V2”. The translational version becomes “I have met Budi” or “I met Budi last week”. We cannot express both of them “I have met Budi last week” due to it is not going to be acceptable according to the grammar system of its language.

Another theory is stated by Simatupang. Every language has its own rules. In other words, a language has its own ways to use linguistic devices for expressing the meaning. The rules in one language does not necessarily occur in other languages. In addition, it occurs to all elements of languages, including grammar, phonology, and semantic. Hence, this condition leads a shift in translation (Simatupang, 2000, p.88). Further, he defines kind of shift as follows:

1. Shift on the morpheme rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In English (SL)</th>
<th>In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impossible</td>
<td>tidak mungkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reexamine</td>
<td>memeriksa kembali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recycle</td>
<td>daur ulang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bound morpheme (-im and -re) become word or free morpheme (tidak, kembali, ulang). However, there is a bound morpheme brings together in
English and Indonesian. For example: greatness—kebesaran; disharmony—ketidak-harmonisan.

2. Shift on the syntactic rank

- A shift of word to phrase

  In English (SL)           In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
  girl                      anak perempuan
  stallion                  kuda jantan

- A shift of phrase to clause

  In English (SL)
  Not knowing what to say, (he just kept quiet)
  In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
  (karena) dia tidak tahu apa yang hendak di katakannya, (...)

- A shift of phrase to sentence

  In English (SL)
  His misinterpretation of the situation (caused his downfall)
  In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
  Dia salah menafsirkan situasi (dan itulah yang menyebabkan kejatuhannya)

- A shift of clause to sentence

  In English (SL)
  Her unusual voice and singing style thrilled her fans, who reacted by screaming, crying, and clapping.
  In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
Suaranya yang luar biasa dan gayanya bernyanyi memikat para penggemarnya. *Mereka memberikan reaksi dengan cara berteriak-teriak dan bertepuk tangan.*

- A shift of sentence to discourse

In English (SL)

*Standing in a muddy jungle clearing strewn with recently felled trees, the Balinese village headman looked at his tiny house at the end of a line of identical buildings and said he felt strange.*

In *Bahasa Indonesia* (TL)

Kepala kampung orang Bali itu berdiri di sebuah lahan yang dibuka di tengah hutan. Batang-batang pohon yang baru ditebang masih berserakan disana-sini. Dia memandang rumahnya yang kecil yang berdiri di ujung deretan rumah yang sama bentuknya dan berkata bahwa dia merasa aneh.

3. **Shift on word category**

- A shift of noun to adjective

In English (SL) In *Bahasa Indonesia* (TL)

He is in a good *health* Dia *sehat*

He’s in *danger* Dia dalam keadaan *bahaya*

- A shift of noun to verb

In English (SL) In *Bahasa Indonesia* (TL)

They had a *quarrel* Mereka *bertengkar*

No, we’re *stranger* Kami tidak saling *mengenal*
4. **Shift on semantic rank**

Shift also occurs on semantic rank. It was due to the difference point of view and cultural languages speaker.

- A shift of generic meaning to specific one and vice versa

  In translation, the equivalence of a word in source language cannot be found in target language. For instance, a word in source language has generic and equivalent meaning in target language. It does not refer to generic meaning but more specific.

  In English (SL) | In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)
  --- | ---
  Generic | Specific
  sibling | *adik, kakak*
  sister | *adik (perempuan),
  kakak (perempuan)*

- A shift of meaning caused by cultural languages speaker

  In English (SL)

  *The space-ship travelled deep into space*

  In Bahasa Indonesia (TL)

  *Kapal ruang angkasa itu terbang jauh ke ruang angkasa*

  English people relates outer space with a depth, while Indonesian people with a height (ketinggian) or distance (kejauhan).

  Catford and Simatupang define similar opinion about translation shift, but Catford makes it more detail by categorizing shift, namely: shift of structure, class, unit, and intra-system. Further, he also states that a translation shift is
deemed to have occurred. As explained in previous section, it is because translation will completely deal with two different languages with different characteristics, including linguistics, stylistic and culture. The translators apply this kind of shift in order to overcome deadlock and to avoid distortion or even loss in meaning of source language. Therefore, it can be concluded that shift is unavoidable in translation.