TRANSLATION SHIFT OF NOUN PHRASE IN WEDNESDAY SERIES

REFERENCES

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language – JIA as partial fulfilment of the
Requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme

RICO WIBOWO
43131.51019.0048

ENGLISH LITERATURE PROGRAMME SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES – JIA
2023

REFERENCES

Bassnet, S. (2002) *Translation Studies*. (3 rd ed). New York: Routledge.

NEW ACCENTS third edition

Translation Studies

Susan Bassnett

Also available as a printed bo
see title verso for ISBN details

physical metaphors that stress both the creativity and the independence of the translator.[6]
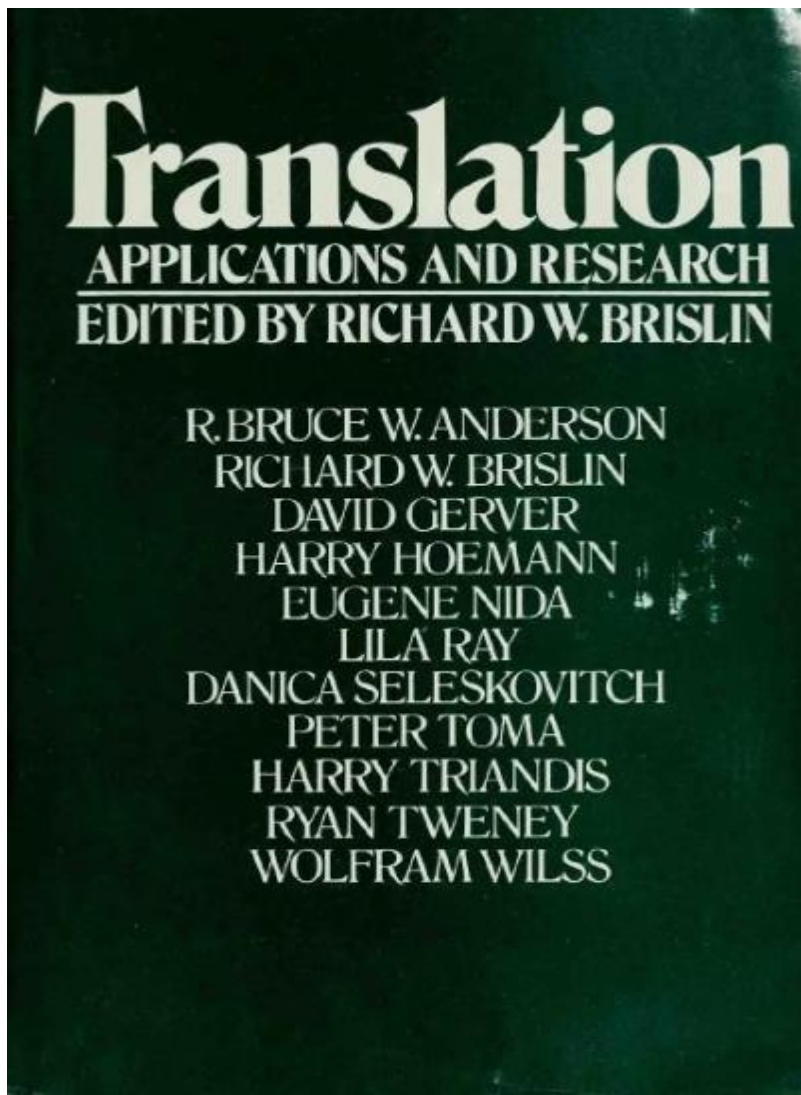
Today the movement of peoples around the globe can be seen to mirror the very process of translation itself, for translation is not just the transfer of texts from one language into another, it is now rightly seen as a process of negotiation between texts and between cultures, a process during which all kinds of transactions take place mediated by the figure of the translator. Significantly, Homi Bhabha uses the term 'translation' not to describe a transaction between texts and languages but in the etymological sense of being carried across from one place to another. He uses translation metaphorically to describe the condition of the contemporary world, a world in which millions migrate and change their location every day. In such a world, translation is fundamental:

> We should remember that it is the 'inter'—the cutting edge of translation and renegotiation, the *in-between* space—that carries the burden of the meaning of culture.[7]

Central to the many theories of translation articulated by non-European writers are three recurring strategems: a redefinition of the terminology of faithfulness and equivalence, the importance of highlighting the visibility of the translator and a shift of emphasis that views translation as an act of creative rewriting. The translator is seen as a liberator, someone who frees the text from the fixed signs of its original shape making it no longer subordinate to the source text but visibly endeavouring to bridge the space between source author and text and the eventual target language readership. This revised perspective emphasizes the creativity of translation, seeing in it a more harmonious relationship than the one in previous models that described the translator in violent images of 'appropriation', 'penetration' or 'possession'. The post-colonial approach to translation is to see linguistic exchange as essentially dialogic, as a process that happens in a space that belongs to neither source nor target absolutely. As Vanamala Viswanatha and Sherry Simon argue, 'translations provide an especially revealing entry point into the dynamics of cultural identity-formation in the colonial and post-colonial contexts.'[8]

Brislin, R. (1976). *Translation: aplication and research*. NewYork:

GardenePress. Inc.

Translation
APPLICATIONS AND RESEARCH
EDITED BY RICHARD W. BRISLIN

R. BRUCE W. ANDERSON
RICHARD W. BRISLIN
DAVID GERVER
HARRY HOEMANN
EUGENE NIDA
LILA RAY
DANICA SELESKOVITCH
PETER TOMA
HARRY TRIANDIS
RYAN TWENEY
WOLFRAM WILSS

TRANSLATION
Applications and Research
Edited by Richard W. Brislin

The chapters in *Translation: Applications and Research* have the common element of increasing our understanding of the range of skills a translator must have and the range of places in which the skills of a translator can be used. At the same time the authors of the chapters make more precise exactly what translators do, and what they must do to be better in their work. The authors are specialists in various areas including linguistics, psychology, sociology, literature, and education.
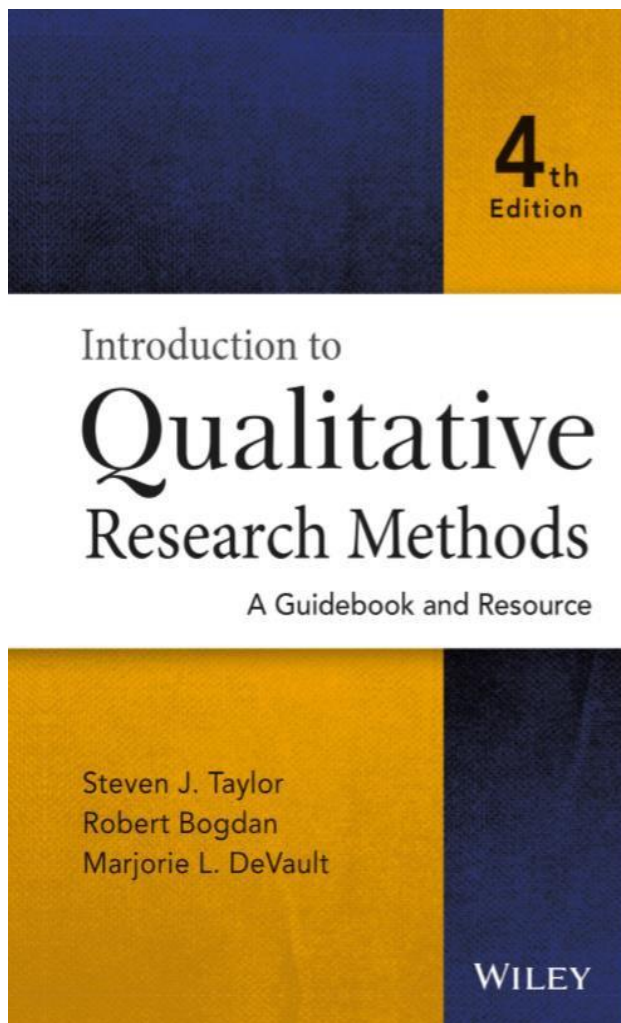
FEATURES . . .
- covers a wide range of interdisciplinary issues including knowledge demanded of the translator, attention to the social setting, affect and emotion, and social role of the translator/interpreter.
- increases understanding of the range of skills a translator must have.
- emphasizes the role of the translator as an active processor of information.
- organizes arguments in terms of types of translation including pragmatic, ethnographic, aesthetic-poetic, and linguistic.
- reviews research on empirical studies of translation and on translation as a research tool.

Introduction

RICHARD W. BRISLIN

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE TASK of translating from one language to another has led to such statements as the following: translating is "probably the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos (Richards, 1953, p. 250)." Eugene Nida, who is probably the world's leading scholar on translation, ends his chapter in this book with this quote, and it provides a good starting point to introduce all the chapters. It is easy to overemphasize the importance of one's own speciality, and yet the range of skills demanded of a good translator make the quote by Richards defensible. Just the necessity for communicating the following terminology begins to show the range of translators' skills. *Translation* is the general term referring to the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language (source) to another (target), whether the languages are in written or oral form; whether the languages have established orthographies or do not have such standardization; or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign languages of the deaf. *Interpretation* is one type of translation, and it refers to oral communication situations in which one person speaks in the source language, an interpreter processes this input and produces output in a second language, and a third person listens to the source language version. When both terms are used in the same discussion by a given writer, as in the chapter by D. Seleskovitch, *translation* becomes a more specific term and refers to the processing or written input, and *interpretation* to the processing of oral input.

Bogdan, R., Taylor, S. J., & DeVault, M. (2016). *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods: A Guidebook and Resource*. Fourth edition. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

4th Edition

Introduction to

Qualitative
Research Methods

A Guidebook and Resource

Steven J. Taylor
Robert Bogdan
Marjorie L. DeVault

WILEY

Paralleling the growing interest in qualitative research in sociology has been an increased acceptance of these methods in other disciplines and applied fields. Such diverse disciplines as geography (DeLyser, Herbert, Aitken, Crang, & McDowell, 2010; Hay, 2010), political science (McNabb, 2004), and psychology (Camic, Rhodes, & Yardley, 2003; Fischer, 2005; *Qualitative Research in Psychology*) have seen the publication of edited books, texts, and journals on qualitative research methods over the past decade and a half. The American Psychological Association started publishing the journal *Qualitative Psychology* in 2014. Qualitative methods have been used for program evaluation and policy research (Bogdan & Taylor, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; M. Q. Patton 1987, 2008, 2010, 2014; Rist 1994). Journals and texts on qualitative research can be found in such diverse applied areas of inquiry as health care and nursing (Latimer, 2003; Munhall, 2012; Streubert & Carpenter, 2010; *Qualitative Health Research*), mental health, counseling, and psychotherapy (Harper & Thompson, 2011; McLeod, 2011), education (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*; Lichtman, 2010; *Qualitative Research in Education*), music education (Conway, 2014), public health (Ulin, Robinson, & Tolley, 2005), business (Meyers, 2013), theology (Swinton & Mowat, 2006), disability studies (Ferguson et al., 1992), human development (Daly, 2007; Jessor, Colby, & Shweder, 1996), social work (Sherman & and Reid, 1994; *Qualitative Social Work*), and special education (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

One does not have to be a sociologist or to think sociologically to practice qualitative research. Although we identify with a sociological tradition, qualitative approaches can be used in a broad range of disciplines and fields.

Just as significant as the increasing interest in qualitative research methods has been the proliferation of theoretical perspectives rooted in the phenomenological tradition underlying this form of inquiry. We consider the relationship between theory and methodology more fully later in this chapter.

QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The phrase *qualitative methodology* refers in the broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data—people's own written or spoken words and observable behavior. As Ray Rist (1977) pointed out, qualitative methodology, like quantitative methodology, is more than a set of data-gathering techniques. It is a way of approaching the empirical world. In this section we present our notion of qualitative research.

1. *Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning people attach to things in their lives*. Central to the phenomenological perspective and hence qualitative research is understanding people from their own frames of reference and

Catford, J.C. (1965). *A Linguistic Theory of Translation.* Oxford:Oxford

University Press.

J. C. CATFORD

LANGUAGE
and
LANGUAGE
LEARNING

A Linguistic Theory of Translation

Oxford University Press

12

Translation Shifts

HAVING reviewed all types of restricted translation we return, now, to general discussion; in particular, to a brief systematic survey of some of the changes or 'shifts' which occur in translation. By 'shifts' we mean departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL. Two major types of 'shift' occur: *level shifts* (12.1) and *category shifts* (12.2).

12.1 *Level shifts.* By a shift of level we mean that a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level.

We have already pointed out (7.6) that translation between the levels of phonology and graphology—or between either of these levels and the levels of grammar and lexis—is impossible. Translation between these levels is absolutely ruled out by our theory, which posits 'relationship to the same substance' as the necessary condition of translation equivalence. We are left, then, with shifts from *grammar* to *lexis* and vice-versa as the only possible level-shifts in translation; and such shifts are, of course, quite common.

12.11 Examples of level shifts are sometimes encountered in the translation of the verbal aspects of Russian and English. Both these languages have an aspectual opposition—of very roughly the same type—seen most clearly in the 'past' or *preterite* tense: the opposition between Russian *imperfective* and *perfective* (e.g. *pisal* and *napisal*), and between English *simple* and *continuous* (*wrote* and *was writing*).

There is, however, an important difference between the two aspect systems, namely that the *polarity of marking* is not the same. In Russian, the (contextually) marked term in the system is the *perfective*; this explicitly refers to the *uniqueness* or *completion* of the event. The *imperfective* is unmarked—in other words it is relatively neutral in these respects (the event may or may not actually be unique or completed, etc., but at any rate the imperfective is

73

indifferent to these features—does not explicitly refer to this 'perfectiveness').[1]

In English, the (contextually and morphologically) marked term is the *continuous*; this explicitly refers to the development, the *progress*, of the event. The 'simple' form is neutral in this respect (the event may or may not actually be in progress, but the simple form does not explicitly refer to this aspect of the event).

We indicate these differences in the following diagram, in which the marked terms in the Russian and English aspect-systems are enclosed in rectangles:

Event		
in progress	repeated	unique, completed
pisal		napisal
was writing		wrote

12.12 One result of this difference between Russian and English is that Russian *imperfective* (e.g. pisal) is translatable with almost equal frequency by English *simple* (wrote) or *continuous* (was writing). But the *marked* terms (napisal—was writing) are mutually untranslatable.

A Russian writer can create a certain contrastive effect by using an imperfective and then, so to speak, 'capping' this by using the (marked) perfective. In such a case, the same effect of explicit, contrastive, reference to *completion* may have to be translated into English by a change of lexical item. The following example[2] shows this:

[1] My attention was first drawn to this difference between English and Russian by Roman Jakobson in a lecture which he gave in London in 1950.
[2] From *Herzen*, cited by *Unbegaun* in Grammaire Russe, p. 217.

74

'Čto že *delal* Bel'tov v prodolženie etix des'ati let? Vse
il počti vse. Čto on *sdelal*? Ničego ili počti ničego.'

Here the imperfective, *delal*, is 'capped' by the perfective
sdelal. *delal* can be translated by either *did* or *was doing*—but, since
there is no contextual reason to make explicit reference to the
progress of the event, the former is the better translation. We can
thus say 'What *did* Beltov *do* . . .?' The Russian perfective,
with its marked insistence on *completion* can cap this effectively:
'What did he *do and complete*?' But the English marked term
insists on the *progress* of the event, so cannot be used here. ('What
was he *doing*' is obviously inappropriate.) In English, in this case,
we must use a different lexical verb: a *lexical* item which includes
reference to completion in its contextual meaning, e.g. *achieve*[3].
The whole passage can thus be translated:

'What did Beltov do during these ten years? Everything,
or almost everything. What did he achieve? Nothing, or
almost nothing.'

12.13   Cases of more or less incomplete shift from grammar to
lexis are quite frequent in translation between other languages.
For example, the English: *This text is intended for* . . . may have
as its French TL equivalent: *Le présent Manuel s'adresse à.* . . .
Here the SL modifier, *This*—a term in a *grammatical* system of
deictics—has as its TL equivalent the modifier *Le présent*, an
article + a lexical adjective. Such cases are not rare in French,
cf. also *This may reach you before I arrive* = Fr. *Il se peut que ce mot
vous parvienne avant mon arrivée.* Once again the grammatical item
this has a partially lexical translation equivalent *ce mot*.[4]

12.2   *Category shifts.* In 2.4 we referred to *unbounded* and *rank-
bound* translation: the first being approximately 'normal' or 'free'
translation in which SL-TL equivalences are set up at whatever
rank is appropriate. Usually, but not always, there is sentence-

[3] Another possibility would be 'What *did* he *get done*?', but this would be
stylistically less satisfactory.

[4] Examples from Vinay et Darbelnet, *Stylistique Comparée du français et de
l'anglais*, p. 99.

sentence equivalence[5], but in the course of a text, equivalences
may shift up and down the rank-scale, often being established at
ranks lower than the sentence. We use the term 'rank-bound'
translation only to refer to those special cases where equivalence
is *deliberately limited* to ranks below the sentence, thus leading to
'bad translation' = i.e. translation in which the TL text is either
not a normal TL form at all, or is not relatable to the same
situational substance as the SL text.

In normal, unbounded, translation, then, translation equi-
valences may occur between sentences, clauses, groups, words
and (though rarely) morphemes. The following is an example
where equivalence can be established to some extent right down
to morpheme rank:

Fr.   SL text   J'ai laissé mes lunettes sur la table
Eng. TL text   I've left my glasses on the table

Not infrequently, however, one cannot set up simple equal-
rank equivalence between SL and TL texts. An SL *group* may
have a TL *clause* as its translation equivalent, and so on.

Changes of rank (unit-shifts) are by no means the only changes
of this type which occur in translation; there are also changes of
structure, changes of *class*, changes of *term* in systems, etc. Some of
these—particularly *structure-changes*—are even more frequent than
rank-changes.

It is changes of these types which we refer to as *category-shifts*.
The concept of 'category-shift' is necessary in the discussion of
translation; but it is clearly meaningless to talk about category-
shift unless we assume some degree of formal correspondence
between SL and TL; indeed this is the main justification for the
recognition of formal correspondence in our theory (cf. Chapter
4). Category-shifts are *departures from formal correspondence* in
translation.

We give here a brief discussion and illustration of category-
shifts, in the order *structure-shifts*, *class-shifts*, *unit-shifts* (rank-
changes), *intra-system-shifts*.

[5] W. Freeman Twaddell has drawn my attention to the fact that in German-
English translation, equivalence may be rather frequently established between
the German *sentence* and an English unit greater than the sentence, e.g.
paragraph.

12.21 *Structure-shifts*. These are amongst the most frequent category shifts at all ranks in translation; they occur in *phonological* and *graphological* translation as well as in *total translation*.

12.211 In *grammar*, structure-shifts can occur at all ranks. The following English-Gaelic instance is an example of *clause-structure shift*.

> SL text   *John loves Mary*   = SPC
>
> TL text   *Tha gradh aig Iain air Mairi* = PSCA

(A rank-bound word-word back-translation of the Gaelic TL text gives us: *Is love at John on Mary*)

We can regard this as a structure-shift only on the assumption that there is formal correspondence between English and Gaelic. We must posit that the English elements of clause-structure S, P, C, A have formal correspondents S, P, C, A in Gaelic; this assumption appears reasonable, and so entitles us to say that a Gaelic PSCA structure as translation equivalent of English SPC represents a *structure-shift* insofar as it contains different elements.

But the Gaelic clause not only contains different elements—it also places two of these (S and P) in a different sequence. Now, if the sequence $\overrightarrow{SP}$ were the only possible sequence in English (as $\overrightarrow{PS}$ is in Gaelic) we could ignore the *sequence* and, looking only at the particular elements, S and P, say that the English and Gaelic structures were the same as far as *occurrence* in them of S and P was concerned. But sequence *is* relevant in English and we therefore count it as a feature of the structure, and say that, in this respect, too, structure-shift occurs in the translation.

12.212 Another pair of examples will make this point clearer by contrasting a case where structure-shift occurs with one where it does not.

A. English   The man /   is   / in the boat
               S   P   A

               P   S   A
Gaelic   Tha   /   an duine / anns a' bhata

---

and

B. English   Is /   the man   / in the boat?
               P   S   A

               P   S   A
Gaelic Am bheil / an duine   / anns a' bhata?

In B, there is complete formal correspondence of clause-structure (no structure-shift): in A, there is a structure-shift at clause-rank.

These two examples, in fact, provide us with a commutation which establishes the following translation equivalences:

> A.   English $(\overrightarrow{SP})$ Gaelic V^A at P
>
> B.   English $(\overleftarrow{SP})$ Gaelic V^I at P

In other words, the Gaelic translation equivalent of the English sequence → of S and P in clause-structure is the occurrence in Gaelic of a verbal group of the class *Affirmative* as exponent of P; the Gaelic translation equivalent of the English sequence ← of S and P in clause-structure is the occurrence in Gaelic of a verbal group of the class *Interrogative* as exponent of P.

These two examples in fact illustrate two different types of translation-shift; in A, there is structure-shift; in B, there is unit-shift, since in this case the Gaelic equivalent of a feature at *clause*-rank is the selection of a particular term in a system operating at *group* rank.

12.213 Structure-shifts can be found at other ranks, for example at group rank. In translation between English and French, for instance, there is often a shift from MH (modifier + head) to (M)HQ ((modifier +) head + qualifier), e.g. *A white house* (MH) = *Une maison blanche* (MHQ).

12.22 *Class-shifts*. Following Halliday, we define a *class* as 'that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above'. Class-shift, then, occurs when the translation equivalent of a SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. Because of the logical dependence of class on structure (of the unit at the rank above) it is clear that structure-shifts usually entail class-shifts, though

this may be demonstrable only at a secondary degree of delicacy.

For example, in the example given in 12.213 above (*a white house = une maison blanche*), the translation equivalent of the English *adjective* 'white' is the French adjective 'blanche'. Insofar as both 'white' and 'blanche' are exponents of the formally corresponding class *adjective* there is apparently no class-shift. However, at a further degree of delicacy we may recognize two sub-classes of adjectives; those operating at M and those operating at Q in Ngp structure. (Q-adjectives are numerous in French, very rare in English.) Since English 'white' is an M-adjective and French 'blanche' is a Q-adjective it is clear that the shift from M to Q entails a class-shift.

In other cases, also exemplified in the translation of Ngps from English to French and vice-versa, class-shifts are more obvious: e.g. Eng. *a medical student* = Fr. *un étudiant en médecine.* Here the translation equivalent of the adjective *medical*, operating at M, is the adverbial phrase *en médecine*, operating at Q; and the lexical equivalent of the adjective *medical* is the noun *médecine*.

12.23   *Unit-shift.* By unit-shift we mean changes of rank—that is, 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.

We have already seen several examples of unit shift in what precedes: e.g. in sections 3.222, 3.223, 8.41, 12.211, 12.213. A more appropriate term might be 'rank-shift', but since this has been assigned a different, technical, meaning within Halliday's theory of grammar we cannot use it here.

12.24   *Intra-system shift.* In a listing of types of translation-shift, such as we gave in 12.2 above, one might expect 'system-shift' to occur along with the names of the types of shift affecting the other fundamental categories of grammar—unit, structure and class. There is a good reason for not naming one of our types of shift 'system-shift', since this could only mean a departure from formal correspondence in which (a term operating in) one system in the SL has as its translation equivalent (a term operating in) a different—non-corresponding—system in the TL. Clearly, however, such shifts from one *system* to another are always entailed by unit-shift or class-shift. For instance, in example B in 12.212

Nida, E. A & Charles, T. A. (1874). *Helps For Translators The Theoryand Practice*. E.J. Brill.
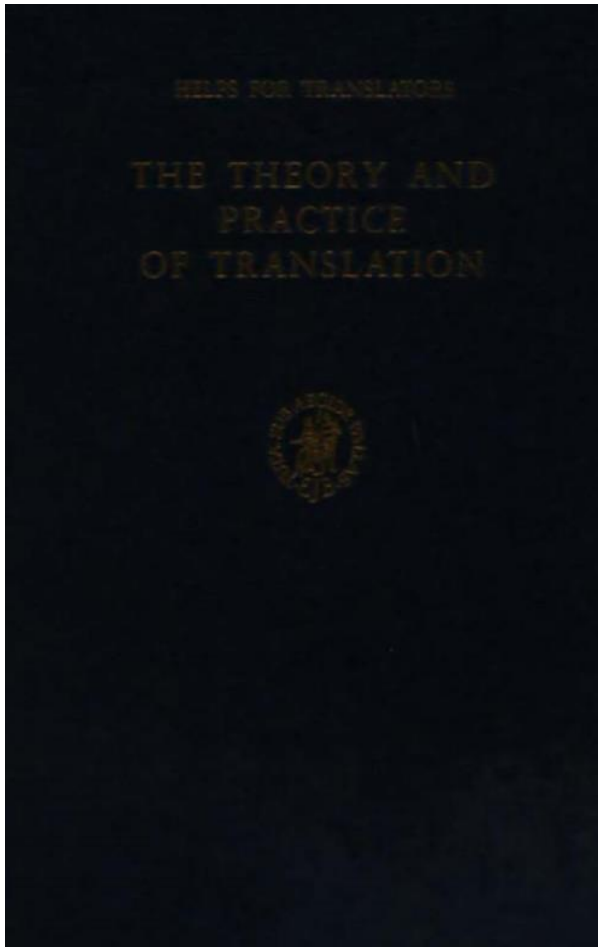
Helps for Translators prepared under the auspices of the United Bible Societies

———

Volume I
OLD TESTAMENT TRANSLATION PROBLEMS

Volume II
A TRANSLATOR'S HANDBOOK ON MARK

Volume III
OLD TESTAMENT QUOTATIONS IN THE NEW TESTAMENT

Volume IV
SECTION HEADING AND REFERENCE SYSTEM

Volume V
NEW TESTAMENT INDEX

Volume VI
ORTHOGRAPHY STUDIES

Volume VII
BIBLE TRANSLATIONS FOR POPULAR USE

Volume VIII
THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TRANSLATION

This volume was first published in 1969

First reprint 1974

ISBN   90 04 06550 4

CHAPTER ONE

A NEW CONCEPT OF TRANSLATING

Never before in the history of the world have there been so many persons engaged in the translating of both secular and religious materials. It is estimated that at least 100,000 persons dedicate most or all of their time to such work, and of these at least 3,000 are engaged primarily in the translation of the Bible into some 800 languages, representing about 80 percent of the world's population.

Unfortunately, the underlying theory of translating has not caught up with the development of skills; and in religious translating, despite consecrated talent and painstaking efforts, a comprehension of the basic principles of translation and communication has lagged behind translating in the secular fields. One specialist in translating and interpreting for the aviation industry commented that in his work he did not dare to employ the principles often followed by translators of the Bible: "With us," he said, "complete intelligibility is a matter of life and death." Unfortunately, translators of religious materials have sometimes not been prompted by the same feeling of urgency to make sense.

THE OLD FOCUS AND THE NEW FOCUS

The older focus in translating was the form of the message, and translators took particular delight in being able to reproduce stylistic specialties, e.g., rhythms, rhymes, plays on words, chiasmus, parallelism, and unusual grammatical structures. The new focus, however, has shifted from the form of the message to the response of the receptor. Therefore, what one must determine is the response of the receptor to the translated message. This response must then be compared with the way in which the original receptors presumably reacted to the message when it was given in its original setting.

Even the old question: Is this a correct translation? must be answered in terms of another question, namely: For whom? Correctness must be determined by the extent to which the average reader for which a translation is intended will be likely to understand it correctly. Moreover, we are not concerned merely with the possibility of his understanding correctly, but with the overwhelming likelihood of it. In other words, we are not content merely to translate so that the average receptor is likely to understand the message; rather we aim to make certain that such a person is very unlikely to misunderstand it.

Posing the question of correctness in this manner naturally implies that there will be different translations which can be called "correct." In fact, for the scholar who is himself well acquainted with the original, even the most labored, literal translation will be "correct," for he will not misunderstand it. On the other hand, in most large linguistic com-

John W, C. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design.* United states:

America
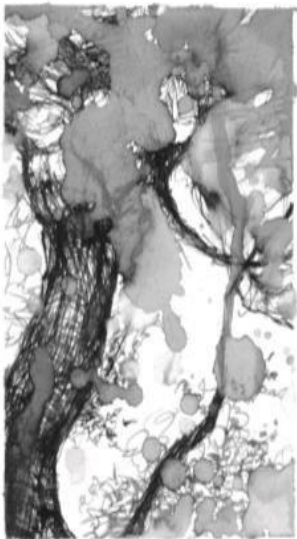
7

Data Collection

A typical reaction to thinking about qualitative data collection is to focus in on the actual types of data and the procedures for gathering them. Data collection, however, involves much more. It means gaining permissions, conducting a good qualitative sampling strategy, developing means for recording information both digitally and on paper, storing the data, and anticipating ethical issues that may arise. Also, in the actual forms of data collection, researchers often opt for only conducting interviews and observations. As will be seen in this chapter, the array of qualitative sources of data are ever expanding, and I encourage researchers to use newer, innovative methods in addition to the standard interviews and observations. In addition, these new forms of data and the steps in the process of collecting qualitative data need to be sensitive to the outcomes expected for each of the five different approaches to qualitative research.

I find it useful to visualize the phases of data collection common to all approaches. A "circle" of interrelated activities best displays this process, a process of engaging in activities that include but go beyond collecting data. I begin this chapter by presenting this circle of activities, briefly introducing each activity. These activities are locating a site or an individual, gaining access and making rapport, sampling purposefully, collecting data, recording information, exploring field issues, and storing data. Then I explore how these activities differ in the five approaches to inquiry, and I end with a few summary comments about comparing the data collection activities across the five approaches.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- What are the steps in the overall data collection process of qualitative research?
- What are typical access and rapport issues?

145

Documents and audiovisual materials. In document research, the issues involve locating materials, often at sites far away, and obtaining permission to use the materials. For biographers, the primary form of data collection might be archival research from documents. When researchers ask participants in a study to keep journals, additional field issues emerge. Journaling is a popular data collection process in case studies and narrative research. What instructions should be given to individuals prior to writing in their journals? Are all participants equally comfortable with journaling? Is it appropriate, for example, with small children who express themselves well verbally but have limited writing skills? The researcher also may have difficulty reading the handwriting of participants who journal. Recording on videotape raises issues for the qualitative researcher such as keeping disturbing room sounds to a minimum, deciding on the best location for the camera, and determining whether to provide close-up shots or distant shots.

Ethical issues. Regardless of the approach to qualitative inquiry, a qualitative researcher faces many ethical issues that surface during data collection in the field and in analysis and dissemination of qualitative reports. In Chapter 3, we visited some of these issues, but ethical issues loom large in the data collection phase of qualitative research. Lipson (1994) groups ethical issues into informed consent procedures; deception or covert activities; confidentiality toward participants, sponsors, and colleagues; benefits of research to participants over risks; and participant requests that go beyond social norms. The criteria of the American Anthropological Association (1967) (see also Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) reflect appropriate standards. A researcher protects the anonymity of the informants, for example, by assigning numbers or aliases to individuals. A researcher develops case studies of individuals that represent a composite picture rather than an individual picture. Furthermore, to gain support from participants, a qualitative researcher conveys to participants that they are participating in a study, explains the purpose of the study, and does not engage in deception about the nature of the study. What if the study is on a sensitive topic and the participants decline to be involved if they are aware of the topic? In terms of this issue of disclosure of the researcher, widely discussed in cultural anthropology (e.g., Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995), the researcher presents general information, not specific information about the study. Another issue likely to develop is when participants

Larson, M. L. (1984). Meaning-Based Translation: *A Guide to Cross Language Equivalence*. University of America.

MEANING-BASED TRANSLATION

A Guide to Cross- Language Equivalence

Second Edition

Mildred L. Larson

University Press of America,® Inc.
Lanham • New York • Oxford

Chapter 2
Kinds of Translations

Literal versus idiomatic

Because a given text has both form and meaning, as discussed in the previous chapter, there are two main kinds of translations. One is form-based and the other is meaning-based. Form-based translations attempt to follow the form of the source language and are known as **literal translations**. Meaning-based translations make every effort to communicate the meaning of the source language text in the natural forms of the receptor language. Such translations are called **idiomatic translations**.

An interlinear translation is a completely **literal translation**. For some purposes, it is desirable to reproduce the linguistic features of the source text, as for example, in a linguistic study of that language. Although these **literal translations** may be very useful for purposes related to the study of the source language, they are of little help to speakers of the receptor language who are interested in the meaning of the source language text. A **literal translation** sounds like nonsense and has little communication value. For example:

Chuave (Papua New Guinea): *kan daro*

Literal translation: your-name call!

This **literal translation** makes little sense in English. The appropriate translation would be *What is your name?*

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 (Barnwell 1980:18).

Literal English: *Madame Odette, passenger with destination Douala, is demanded on the telephone.*

Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. Prentice-Hall International
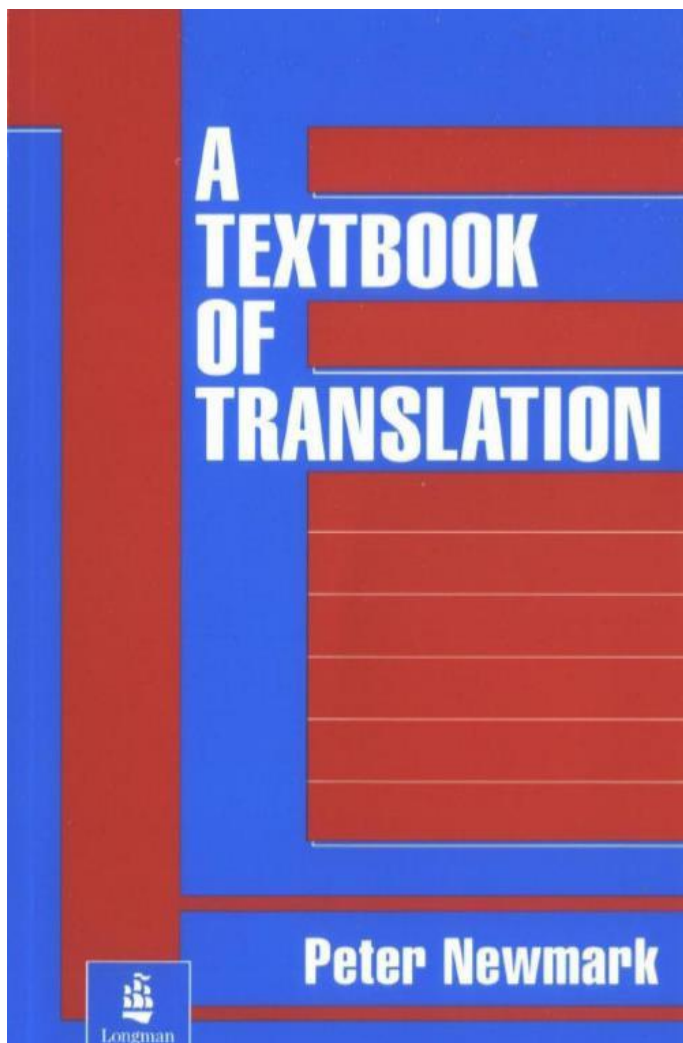
What is translation? Often, though not by any means always, it is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text. Common sense tells us that this ought to be simple, as one ought to be able to say something as well in one language as in another. On the other hand, you may see it as complicated, artificial and fraudulent, since by using another language you are pretending to be someone you are not. Hence 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. The pity is, as Mounin wrote, that the translation cannot simply reproduce, or be, the original. And since this is so, the first business of the translator is to translate.

A text may therefore be pulled in ten different directions, as follows:

(1) The individual style or idiolect of the SL author. When should it be (a) preserved, (b) normalised?
(2) The conventional grammatical and lexical usage for this type of text, depending on the topic and the situation.
(3) Content items referring specifically to the SL, or third language (i.e. not SL or TL) cultures.
(4) The typical format of a text in a book, periodical, newspaper, etc., as influenced by tradition at the time.
(5) The expectations of the putative readership, bearing in mind their estimated knowledge of the topic and the style of language they use, expressed in terms of the largest common factor, since one should not translate down (,or up) to the readership.
(6), (7), (8) As for 2, 3 and 4 respectively, but related to the TL.
(9) What is being described or reported, ascertained or verified (the referential truth), where possible independently of the SL text and the expectations of the readership.
(10) The views and prejudices of the translator, which may be personal and subjective, or may be social and cultural, involving the translator's 'group loyalty factor', which may reflect the national, political, ethnic, religious, social class, sex, etc. assumptions of the translator.

Needless to say, there are many other tensions in translations, for example between sound and sense, emphasis (word order) and naturalness (grammar), the figurative and the literal, neatness and comprehensiveness, concision and accuracy.

Figure 1 shows how many opposing forces pull the translation activity (*l'activite traduisante*) in opposite directions. The diagram is not complete. There is often a tension between intrinsic and communicative, or, if you like, between semantic and pragmatic meaning. When do you translate *Ilfaitfroid* as 'It's cold' and when as 'I'm cold', 'I'm freezing', 'I'm so cold', etc., when that is what it means in the context? All of which suggests that translation is impossible. Which is not so.

Why a book of this sort? Because I think there is a body of knowledge about translation which, if applied to solving translation problems, can contribute to a translator's training. Translation as a profession practised in international organi-

Nelson, G., & Greenbaum, S. (2013). *An Introduction to English Grammar*.

Routledge.

An Introduction to
English
Grammar

Third Edition

Sidney Greenbaum
and **Gerald Nelson**

Notices
Knowledge and best practice in this field are constantly changing. As new research and experience
broaden our understanding, changes in research methods, professional practices, or medical
treatment may become necessary.

Practitioners and researchers must always rely on their own experience and knowledge in
evaluating and using any information, methods, compounds, or experiments described herein. In
using such information or methods they should be mindful of their own safety and the safety of
others, including parties for whom they have a professional responsibility.

To the fullest extent of the law, neither the Publisher nor the authors, contributors, or editors,
assume any liability for any injury and/or damage to persons or property as a matter of products
liability, negligence or otherwise, or from any use or operation of any methods, products,
instructions, or ideas contained in the material herein.

PRONOUNS

2.24 Pronoun classes

Pronouns are essentially special types of nouns and are the main word in a noun phrase or (more usually) the only word in a noun phrase. They fall into a number of classes, here listed with examples:

1. personal pronouns	*I, you, we, they*
2. possessive pronouns	*my, mine, your, yours*
3. reflexive pronouns	*myself, yourself*
4. demonstrative pronouns	*this, these, that, those*
5. reciprocal pronouns	*each other, one another*
6. interrogative pronouns	*who, what, which*
7. relative pronouns	*which, who, that*
8. indefinite pronouns	*some, none*
9. pronoun *one*	*one, ones*

The first three classes are related in that they make distinctions in **person** (first, second, third), **gender** (masculine, feminine and non-personal), and **number** (singular and plural). Most of them also share at least some resemblance in their sound and in their appearance (*you, yours, yourself*).

Pronouns generally substitute for a noun phrase:

I went around the hospital with Dr Thomas. *He* was highly intelligent, austere and warm all at the same time. *He* saw *himself* as a kind of father-figure to the patients, and *he* could decide almost instantaneously whether a problem was serious or not.

In each instance, the pronouns *he* and *himself* refer back to an **antecedent** (something that came before), in this instance *Dr Thomas*. The pronouns are used to avoid repeating the noun phrase *Dr Thomas*. Here is another example of pronoun substitution:

A property development company has been found guilty of racial discrimination because *it* attempted to prevent blacks from buying its homes.

In this case the pronoun *it* replaces a noun phrase that is not identical with the antecedent noun phrase *A property development company*. If we did not substitute *it*, we would have to write *the property development company* (with the definite article *the*) or (more economically) *the company*.

The pronoun occasionally comes before its antecedent:

When *she* moved into *her* own flat, *Helen* seemed much more relaxed.

If we assume that the pronoun *she* and *Helen* refer to the same person, *she* and the possessive pronoun *her* (2.26) both refer forward to *Helen*.

45

In the sections that follow we will be looking at the structures of the five types of phrases, but we will make several general points now. First, a phrase may contain another phrase within it. Or, to put it another way, one phrase may be embedded within another phrase.

[1] We had *some very pleasant times* in Florida.
[2] They were standing *in the shade of a large oak tree*.

In [1] the noun phrase *some very pleasant times* has the adjective phrase *very pleasant* embedded between *some* and *times*. In [2] the prepositional phrase consists of the preposition *in* and the noun phrase *the shade of a large oak tree*; in the noun phrase another prepositional phrase (*of a large oak tree*) is embedded as a modifier of *shade* and that phrase contains the noun phrase *a large oak tree*. A clause (4.3) may also be embedded in a phrase:

[3] *The school that I attend* is quite small.

In [3] the clause *that I attend* is embedded in the noun phrase *the school that I attend*.

A second point is that phrases are defined by their structure, but they are also characterised by their potential functions. For example, a noun phrase may function (among other possibilities) as a subject, direct object or indirect object.

Third, there is an inevitable circularity in talking about phrases and words: a noun is a word that can be the main word in a noun phrase, and a noun phrase is a phrase whose main word is a noun.

THE NOUN PHRASE

3.2 The structure of the noun phrase

The main word in a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun (2.3–4). The structure of the typical noun phrase may be represented schematically in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

(determiners)	(pre-modifiers)	noun	(post-modifiers)
a	*new*	*edition*	*of the book*
some	*large*	*sheets*	*of paper*
the	*old*	*man*	*who lives near us*

Determiners (words like *the, a, those, some*) introduce noun phrases. Modifiers are units that are dependent on the main word and can be omitted. Modifiers that come before the noun are pre-modifiers, and those that come after the noun are post-modifiers. Here are examples of possible structures of noun phrases:

66

noun	*books*
determiner + noun	*those books*
pre-modifier + noun	*popular books*
determiner + pre-modifier + noun	*some popular books*
noun + post-modifier	*books on astronomy*
determiner + noun + post-modifier	*some books on astronomy*
pre-modifier + noun + post-modifier	*popular books on astronomy*
determiner + pre-modifier + noun + post-modifier	*some popular books on astronomy*

All these examples can fit into the blank in this sentence:

I occasionally read ....

3.3 Determiners

There are three classes of determiners (2.34):

1. **pre-determiners**, e.g. *all, both, half*
2. **central determiners**, e.g. *a(n), the, those*
3. **post-determiners**, e.g. *other, two, first*

Here are two examples of noun phrases with determiners from each class:

all these other books
both our two daughters

3.4 Modifiers

The noun phrase may have more than one pre-modifier or post-modifier:

a *long hot* summer
acute, life-threatening diseases
a *nasty* gash *on his chin which needed medical attention*

There are two post-modifiers in the last example because each separately modifies *gash*: *a nasty gash on his chin; a nasty gash which needed medical attention*. The modifier may itself be modified (3.21):

a <u>comfortably</u> *cool* room
the investigation *of crimes* <u>against children</u>

A modifier may also be discontinuous, one part coming before the noun and the other part after it:

the <u>easiest</u> *children* <u>to teach</u>

Compare:

the *children* (who are) <u>easiest to teach</u>

The Grammar

Ning, P. K., K.A.R.W, Rahmaditya., Imron. T. (2020). Subordinative Normal

Pharse In Cerkak Found in The February 2020 Edition of Panjebar Semangat

Magazine

FRASA NOMINAL SUBORDINATIF DALAM *CERKAK* PADA MAJALAH *PANJEBAR SEMANGAT* EDISI FEBRUARI 2020

SUBORDINATIVE NOMINAL PHRASES IN CERKAK FOUND IN THE FEBRUARY 2020 EDITION OF PANJEBAR SEMANGAT MAGAZINE

Puti Kharisma Ning[1], Rahmaditya K.A.R.W[2], Tuan Imron[3]

[1,2,3] Program Studi S2 Ilmu Linguistik, Pascasarjana Universitas Sebelas Maret,
Jl. Ir. Sutami no 36 Kentingan Surakarta

putikharismaning07@gmail.com[1]; rahmadityawijaya@gmail.com[2]; tuanimron017@gmail.com[3]

Abstract: *This research was aimed to describe the forms and the grammatical meaning of subordinative nominal phrase that found on the Javanese short story or "Cerita Cekak" from Panjebar Semangat magazine published on February 2020. The researcher took two short story in Panjebar Semangat magazine entitled Kendhi Wasiyat and Irisan Semangka. This study used descriptive-qualitative research, the data of this research were in the forms of phrase gained from the sentences in the short story from the magazine. The data were collected by reading and note-taking. Then, the data analyzed by using descriptive method. The results of this research are the structure of Subordinatuve Nominal Phrase found in the both of short story. The dominant FNS and found mostly in both locations is the structure of N + N.*

Keywords: subordinative nominal phrase, cerkak, phrase

Abstrak: Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mendeskripsikan bentuk dan makna gramatikal frase nominal subordinatif yang terdapat pada cerpen Jawa "Cerita Cekak" dari majalah Panjebar Semangat terbitan Februari 2020. Penulis mengambil dua buah cerpen pada majalah Panjebar Semangat yang berjudul Kendhi Wasiyat dan Irisan Semangka. Penelitian ini menggunakan jenis penelitian deskriptif-kualitatif, data penelitian ini berupa frase yang diperoleh dari kalimat-kalimat dalam cerita pendek di majalah. Pengumpulan data dilakukan dengan membaca dan mencatat. Kemudian data dianalisis dengan metode deskriptif. Hasil dari penelitian ini adalah struktur Frase Nominal Subordinat yang terdapat pada kedua cerpen tersebut. FNS yang dominan dan paling banyak dijumpai di kedua lokasi adalah struktur N + N.

Kata kunci: frasa nominal subordinatif, cerkak, frasa

1. PENDAHULUAN

lazim disebut sebagai satuan gramatik nonpredikatif, artinya ubungan antara kedua unsur yang membentuk frasa itu idak berstruktur subjek-predikat atau berstruktur predikat-objek.

Para ahli mengklasifikasikan frasa dengan cara yang berbeda-beda. Letak perbedaannya adala pada penggunaan istilah atau sebutan terhadap macam frasa dan pada penjelasan atau pembahasannya. Misalnya Ramlan (2005) menyebut frasa endosentris, sedangkan Chaer (2015) memiliki istilah yang berbeda yaitu frasa subordinatif. Namun pada dasarnya, keduanya istilah atau sebutan itu sama. Pada penjelasan atau pembahasannya, Ramlan (2005) mengklasifikasikan frasa menggunakan dua cara, yaitu berdasarkan distribusi unsurnya dan berdasarkan kategori frasanya, sedangkan Chaer mengklasifikasikan frasa menggunakan dua cara, yaitu berdasarkan kedudukan dan hubungan kedua unsurnya. Dalam penelitian ini, teori yang digunakan adalah teori frasa milik Chaer (2015) yang megklasifikasikan frasa berdasarkan kedudukan dan hubungan kedua unsurnya. Berdasarkan kedudukan unsur, yaitu frasa koordinatif (kedudukan kedua unsur sederajat) dan frasa subordinatif (kedudukan kedua unsur tidak sederajat).

Satuan sintaksis frasa adalah yang dikaji di dalam penelitian ini, adalah frasa dilihat dari kedudukan kedua unsurnya yang tidak sederajat, yakni frasa subordinatif dengan kategori nominal, sehingga menjadi Frasa Nominal Subordinatif. Frasa Nominal (FN) adalah frasa yang dapat mengisi fungsi subjek atau objek di dalam klausa (Chaer, 2011:121). Kemudian, menurut strukturnya, frasa ini dapat dibedakan menjadi Frasa Nominal Koordinatif (FNK) dan Frasa Nominal Subordinatif (FNS). Menurut Chaer (2009:122), Frasa Nominal Subordinatif dapat disusun dari nomina + nomina (N + N), nomina + verba (N + V), nomina + ajektifa (N + A), adverbia + nomina (Adv + N), nomina + adverbia (N - Adv), nomina + numeralia (N + Num), numeralia + nomina (Num + N), dan nomina + demonstratifa (N + Dem).

Sejauh ini yang berstruktur N + N memiliki makna gramatika: milik, bagian, asal bahan, asal tempat, campuran, hasil, jenis, jender, seperti, model, menggunakan, memakai, peruntukan, ada di, wadah, letak, dilengkapi, sasaran, pelaku, dan alat. Kemudian, FNS yang berstruktur N + V sejauh ini memiliki makna gramatikal: tempat, kegunaan, yang di, dan yang biasa melakukan. FNS yang berstruktur Adv + N memiliki makna gramatikal yang tergantung pada jenis adverbianya. Sejauh ini makna gramatikal yang ada adalah makna: ingkar, kuantitas, dan batas. Sejauh ini FNS yang berstruktur N + Adv hanya bermakna gramatikal 'pembatasan'. Dalam hal ini hanya ada sebuah adverbia pembatasan yaitu kata "saja".

FNS yang berstruktur Numeral + N memiliki makna gramatikal: banyaknya dan himpunan. FNS yang berstruktur N + Num memiliki makna gramatikal 'tingkat', dapat disusun apabila N-nya memiliki komponen makna (+ terhitung) dan numeralianya memiliki komponen makna (+ tingkat). FNS yang berstruktur N + Demonstratifa memiliki makna gramatikal 'penentu', dapat disusun apabila N-nya memiliki komponen makna (+ benda umum) dan unsur kedua berkategori pronomina demonstratifa (ini, itu). FN metaforis dan FN idiomatis tidak bermakna

Prativi, N. K. S. R., Yadnya, I. B. P., & Puspani, I. A. M. (2022). Translation Shift Of English Noun Phrases Into Indonesian In The Movie Of Enola Holmes. *ULIL ALBAB: Jurnal Ilmiah Multidisiplin*, *1*(7), 1903-1910.

Translation Shift Of English Noun Phrases Into Indonesian In The Movie Of *Enola Holmes*

Ni Kadek Sindiasti Rahanita Prativi[1], Ida Bagus Putra Yadnya[2], Ida Ayu Made Puspani[3]
[1]English Department, Udayana University
[2] English Department, Udayana University
[3]English Department, Udayana University
E-mail: rahanitasindy@gmail.com[1], putra_yadnya@unud.ac.id[2], made_puspani@unud.ac.id[3]

Abstract: *This study is entitled "Translation Shift of English Noun Phrases into Indonesian in the Movie of Enola Holmes". It was formulated to studying regarding shift of English noun phrases into Indonesian. The data were taken from a movie entitled "Enola Holmes". As the data involving two languages, the data were taken from two sources in which involving the movie English spoken text and the Indonesian subtitles. It was collected through observation by using note-taking technique concerning shift and translation equivalence undergone by the English noun phrases into Indonesian. The data were then analysed using comparison technique through descriptive qualitative method. The theory used in this study was proposed by Catford regarding translation of shifts. In the process of translation, it was discovered that the result concerning shift have appeared several times within the study in the process of translation of English noun phrases into Indonesian. From the result found in the data analysis, it was discovered that there is changes in terms of structural form between the SL and TL.*

INTRODUCTION

[00:08:26]
SLT: She clearly had decided not to replace them, and you rarely find that **kidnap victims** have planned for their own disappearance.
TLT: Dia jelas sengaja menggantinya, dan **korban penculikan** tak akan merencakan hilangnya dirinya.

The difference structure between English source language and Indonesian target language can be defined by the word order shown in tables. The English NP has the structure of Modifier + Head. In the process of translation, the Indonesian NP the structure is shifting in different word order in which consists of Head + Modifier. In English grammatical rule, pronoun appears before the head noun making it as the modifier. However, in forming Indonesian noun phrase, pronoun comes after the head noun meaning the modifier is preceding the noun. In other words, the pattern of word order is changed. The SL "our family" is translated into "keluarga kita" causing there is shifting structure between these languages. It can be concluded the SL appears of Noun (Modifier) + Noun (Head), in contrast, coming in reverse, the TL has the formation Noun (Head) + Noun (Modifier). Thus, due to difference language system, shift structure is proven in both noun phrases.

[00:08:26]
SLT: Though madness, in **our family**? I would doubt it.
TLT: Tapi kegilaan di **keluarga kita**? Aku ragu.

In the process from source language to the target language, the English noun phrases (SL) has distinction of pattern in terms of word order compared to the Indonesian noun phrase (TL). The SL pattern has the structure of pre-modifier + Head Noun. The TL structure, on the other hand, the pattern is different in which appears of Head Noun + post-modifier. The English NP "kidnap victims" is translated into "korban penculikan" showing the reverse structure between these languages. The modifier "kidnap" is preceding the head noun "victims" changing in terms of position of the TL, "penculikan" as modifier following the head noun. Therefore, there is structure shift occurs between the SL and TL.

Class shift

Class shift is defined as the departure from SL to the TL in terms of class of grammatical change. It occurs when the original item of SL is a different class in the TL after the translation

Subagia, I. K., & Mahayana, I. M. A. (2018). Structure Shift In Indonesian–English Translation. *KULTURISTIK: Jurnal Bahasa dan Budaya*, 2(1), 46-58.

STRUCTURE SHIFT IN INDONESIAN – ENGLISH TRANSLATION

I Ketut Subagia
Warmadewa University
subagia35@yahoo.com

I Made Astu Mahayana
Warmadewa University
astumahayana@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Structure shift is one of the problems in translations. This problem is important to be dealt with because it is the most frequent category occurring at all rank in translation. Besides, in grammar structure shift can occur at all ranks. The discussion about structure shift only covers structure shift in phrase, clause, and sentence level. This research used the translation theory proposed by J.C. Catford (1965). He states that shift is departure from formal correspondence in the process of going form the SL to the TL. He also states that there are two kinds of shift in translating, namely level-shift and category-shift. Category shift means the change of formal structure of the SL, in process of translating into the TL. The data source is taken from four bilingual folklores. Data collecting used observation method and descriptive method was employed in analyzing the data. The findings show that in phrase level structure shift found only in noun and adjective phrase. The shifts in noun phrase are: H PostM PostM into PreM PreM H, H PostM into PreM H, and PreM H PostM Post M, into PreM PreM PreM H. In adjective phrase structure shift is found only one i.e. PreM H into H PostM. The structure shift in clause level is: SC into SVC, SV into SVA, and SV into SVO. In sentence level structure shift occur from simple sentence in SL into simple sentence in TL, simple sentence in SL into complex sentence in TL, complex sentence in SL into simple sentence in TL, and complec sentence in SL into complex sentence in TL.

Keywords: structure shifts, sentence, head, modifier

INTRODUCTION

Besides, in academic activities translation is also important in many fields of life such as trade, tourism, court, and electronic. Therefore, translation is not only a subject of linguists, professional and amateur translators and language-teachers, but also of electronic engineers, mathematicians, and other professions.

By translation we mean a kind of transferring of meaning from a source language into receptor language. Translation is basically a change of form. In translation, the form of the source language is replaced by that of the receptor (target) language (Larson, 1984: 3). However, the process of translating is not as easy as how the words read, it has many factors involved. As Larson states translation, then, consists of studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source of language text.

Nababan differentiates kinds of translation. He states that there are several kinds of translation, such as word for word translation, free translation, literal translation, dynamic translation, pragmatic translation, aesthetic-poetic translation, ethnographic translation, linguistic translation communicative translation and semantic translation (Nababan, 2008: 30).

Nida states there are some aspects to be mastered in the process of translating. A good translator should master the field of the text, the source language, the receptor language and the theory of translation. But more than this, a translator should also know the culture of both languages because translation also involves culture. Although we have got these principles, we cannot transfer the total meaning of the source language into receptor language since no languages in the world are identical. There must be what we call loss and gain in our translation and there must be problems as well (in Sakri, 1985: 1).

If we pay attention to the idea given above, considering that no languages in the world are identical, in the process of translating we rarely have parallel structures of the two languages involved. And what is mainly focused in the process of translating is transferring the message of the source language into receptor language. This research tries to find the closest equivalent between the source language and the receptor language. Perhaps by this concept we often find unparalleled structure, even we often find structural shift.

Assuming that English and Indonesian are not identical, although in some cases they have the same structure, since every type of structure carries different meaning, in the process of translating English text into Indonesian there must be unparalleled correspondences of clause structures in it. For example, an English

Venuti, L. (2000). *The Translation Studies Reader.* Routledge
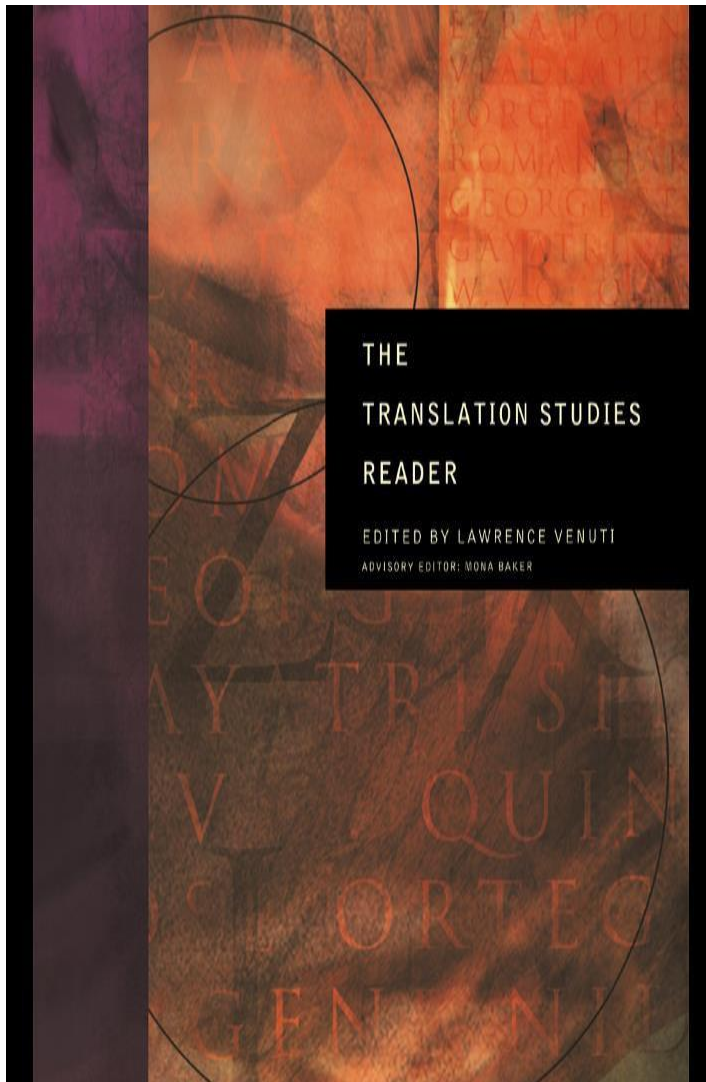
Lawrence Venuti

TRANSLATION, COMMUNITY, UTOPIA

Language is a repository of ancient errors and a treasury of potential truths.

Jean-Jacques Lecercle

An antinomy in theory

EVEN THOUGH NO ONE seems likely to deny that communication is the primary aim and function of a translated text, today we are far from thinking that translating is a simple communicative act. In contemporary translation theory informed by Continental philosophical traditions such as existential phenomenology and poststructuralism, language is constitutive of thought, and meaning a site of multiple determinations, so that translation is readily seen as investing the foreign-language text with a domestic significance (see, for example, Heidegger 1975, Lewis this volume, Benjamin 1989). Translation never communicates in an untroubled fashion because the translator negotiates the linguistic and cultural differences of the foreign text by reducing them and supplying another set of differences, basically domestic, drawn from the receiving language and culture to enable the foreign to be received there. The foreign text, then, is not so much communicated as inscribed with domestic intelligibilities and interests. The inscription begins with the very choice of a text for translation, always a very selective, densely motivated choice, and continues in the development of discursive strategies to translate it, always a choice of certain domestic discourses over others. Hence, the domesticating process is totalizing, even if never total, never seamless or final. It can be said to operate in every word of the translation long

2000