CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses theories related to the problems of this study. The theories which are applied in this study are parts of speech, translation and skill.

A. Part of Speech

This section will explain about parts of speech and many things related to them that include the definition, kinds and function.

1. Definition of Parts of Speech

The words that form the central core of the sentence – around which all the other words "cluster" – are the parts of speech known as nouns (or pronouns) and verb; the words that modify the central core words are the parts of speech called adjectives and adverbs; the words that show a particular kind of connecting relationship between these four parts of speech are called prepositions and conjunctions. The sentence may be further divided according to the function each word has in the subject-predicate relationship. Each of these functions is classified as different parts of speech.[1]

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[1] Marcella Frank. *Modern English a Practical Reference Guide* (USA: Prentice-hall, Inc, 1972), 1.

2. Kinds and the Function of Parts of Speech.

Parts of speech have had many kinds and each of kinds has the function itself. The kinds of parts of speech are:[2]

a. Noun

Noun rarely stand alone; they are usually accompanied by modifiers. But since the noun stands at the head of the noun phrase, it dictates which modifiers may be used and it carries a semantic load. Noun allows us to talk about the people, things, and events in our world. Some things are especially familiar to us, notably the people and place we see every day, and it is not surprising that humans have always assigned special labels to these.

While the ability to pluralize is one of the distinguishing characteristics of nouns as a class, not all nouns have contrasting singular and plural forms. Phrases like *two rices, six sands,* and *three measles* are ungrammatical. Nouns that cannot be directly preceded by cardinal numbers are called non-count nouns.

Many non-count nouns are concrete. In order to count a concrete, non-count noun, a speaker or writer must choose partitive, which will usually be a container or a measurement of some kind – *four pounds of rice; six buckets of sand.* Because concrete, non-count nouns cannot count without partitives, they do not co-occur with numerals or the article *a*, which entails the meaning *one- a gold, two dynamites.*

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[2] Berk, Lynn M. *English syntax from word to discourse* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999), 57.

Although abstract non-count noun do not refer to concrete entities, they sometimes occur with partitives, too. These partitives are usually rather specialized – *a score of music, two works of art.*

Besides that, something that relates to non-count noun is collective noun. Collective nouns are often confused with non-count nouns, but they have different characteristics. Collective nouns are countable. They are unique among count nouns, however, because they refer to a collective entity with individual members – *army, team, faculty, band, clergy, class gang and jury.* Because collective nouns refer to a collection of individual entities, they sometimes occur with a singular verb and sometimes with a plural verb, depending on the intention of the speaker.

b. Pronoun

Pronouns represent the simplest NPs. Unlike nouns, pronouns are almost never preceded by determiners or adjectives. The kinds of pronouns will be discussed below:[3]

1) Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are the most common pronouns in English. The pronouns that we use refer to ourselves are called first person – *I, we.* We use second person pronouns to refer to those with whom we are speaking – *you.* Third person pronouns refer to others and, unlike other pronouns in English; they reflect gender (or lack

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[3] Ibid., 83-91.

thereof) in the singular – *he/she/it, they*. A noun or pronoun functioning as an object would carry different ending or have different form than the functioning as a subject

Table 2.1
Forms of the Personal Pronouns

	1st person		2nd person		3rd person	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Subject	I	We	You	You	She/he/it	They
Object	Me	Us	You	You	Her/him/it	Them
Genitive	My/mine	Our(s)	Your(s)	Your(s)	Her(s)/his/its	Their (s)

2) Reflexive Pronouns

In English if two NPs refer to the same entity (i.e. are co-referential) and are used in the same simple sentence, in the second instance the NP must be a reflexive pronoun and it must reflect that same gender and number as the first NP. The first co-referential NP is usually the subject.

Henry hates himself
The kids scared themselves
Barb talks too herself
I cut myself
We fooled ourselves

The reflexive allows us to distinguish among possible referents with the same number and gender.

3) Reciprocal Pronouns

Like most reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronoun phrases typically have the same referent as the subject; the difference is that the subject to which a reciprocal pronoun refers must include more

than one entity. Thus, the subject NP must be plural or there must be two or more coordinate NPs. The action in such constructions is reciprocal; each individual subject has the same relationship to the other subjects in the construction.

My children fight with each other.
Jack and Jill hate one another.
We babysit for each other's children.
They gave one another gifts.

4) Demonstrative Pronouns

When the demonstratives (this, that, these, those) are used alone without a noun head, they are considered demonstrative pronoun. They behave very much like demonstrative determiners, except that the noun to which they refer is not part of the NP- *this is moldy; I don't want that.* Demonstrative pronouns are often accompanied by gestures, e.g. a child might point while saying "This is my room". The context will usually make the referent of the demonstrative clear.

5) Indefinite Pronouns

We often need to speak about persons, things, or events whose identity or character is unknown to us. The indefinite pronouns allow us to do just that. But once again, the term indefinite is misleading. It means that the referent is not specified, but it does not mean that the referent is nonspecific. Indefinite *someone* and

something can have either specific or nonspecific reference, depending on the context.

Someone will call the police.	[Nonspecific]
You'll find somebody to take to the prom.	[Nonspecific]
Something exploded in the garage	[Specific]
Someone is walking in the deck	[specific]

Anyone and *anything* never have specific reference – *the baby will eat anything; he'll talk to anyone.* Because they don't have referents, these indefinites are most often used in negatives and questions.

Did anyone hear you?
My children won't read anything

Nobody and *nothing* are negatives indefinite; no referents exist for these pronouns.

Nobody come
Nothing bothers her
I know nothing about the stolen files

Since *nobody* and *nothing* already contain a negative form as part of the pronoun, neither form occurs with negative particle in formal edited English.

6) Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns always begin with the letters *wh* in written texts. Thus they are often called *wh* words. The interrogative pronoun, regardless of its grammatical function, is almost always the first word in sentence. The one exception is in those cases where the

interrogative is object of a preposition, in which case some speakers place the preposition before the interrogative pronoun.

Who left the door open?   [*Who* is the subject]

What is Matilda eating?   [*What* is a direct object]

Who did you loan your car to?   [*who* is indirect object]

c. Verb

Verbs carry a great deal of information; they describe actions, events, and states and place these in a time frame; they tell us whether actions or events have been completed or are ongoing; they tell us whether a state is current or resultative; they allow us to command, to request, to speculate, to wish, and to predict. And, as you will see, this is only a fraction of things that verbs can do.

Just as nouns refer to the actors and things in our world, verbs allow us to express states, events, and actions involving these actors and things. This encompasses a very broad range of meanings, but all verbs share one characteristic- they encode information about time. Some verbs describe actions that are by their very nature constrained in terms of time. On the other hand, many verbs are relatively unconstrained in terms of time. Some verbs also indicate that an action has begun or has ended.

The verb follows the subject in a declarative sentences; it generally shows the action of the sentence. The verb may be a verb

phrase. A phrase consists of one or more auxiliaries and one main verb. The auxiliaries always precede the main verb.[4]

d. Adjective

Adjectives are typically described as words or phrases that modify nouns. The adjective usually appears between the determiner and the noun. Unlike the categories determiner, pre determiner, and post determiner, the category adjective is an open class.

Adjective can sometimes be identified by their derivational suffixes, i,e. the endings that derive adjectives from other parts of speech.

Noun to adjective

Hunger → hungry
Metal → metallic
Beauty → beautiful
Fool → foolish

Verb to adjective

To select → selective
To inflate → inflatable
To harm → harmless

Most derived adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms – *hungriest, more scholarly, and most dangerous.*

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[4] Michael A Pyle, and Mary Ellen Munoz Page, M.A. 2002. *Cliffs TOEFL Preparation Guide* (New Delhi : Nice printing press, 2002), 41.

All the modifiers discussed so far can be considered adjectives because they express some attribute or quality held by the following noun, but the underlying semantic relationships vary a great deal.

English is very rich in adjectives. For any general attribute you might name, there are likely to be a great number of adjectives that can express some aspect of that attribute. Usually the real world context will dictate the choice of adjective.

e. Adverb

Unlike adjective, adverbs have no characteristic morphology. While {-ly} is sometimes hailed as an adverb suffix, only a limited number of adverbs actually carry that ending. There are many kinds of adverbs.

1) Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place indicate where someone/ thing is located or where an event takes place. Adverbs of place usually answer the question *where*. These adverbs are typically prepositional phrases but can also be single lexical items. Adverbs of place often but not always occur with verbs that reflect states rather than actions.

*They played croquet **on the lawn***
*Your book is **on the table***

2) Adverbs of direction

Adverbs of direction indicate just that – the direction in which an entity is going or the path that it takes. Unlike adverbs of place, adverbs of direction must co-occur with dynamic verbs.

Adverbs of direction typically include in preposition that inscribes an actual direction in space: *up, down, over, under, around, through, across, into.*

*They waded **into** the water.*
*The baby crawled **up** the stairs.*

3) Adverbs of point or boundary in time

Adverb of point or boundary in time indicate when an event occurs or state endures and, as a rule, they answer the question *when?* Such adverbs are often prepositional phrases but they can also be single lexical items or phrases. Adverbs of time vary in how they constrain the time frame. Some express a very specific time-*you must turn in your research paper at 5:00 p.m on January 7.* Some bound the time frame at one end but not the other; in *you must turn in your research project before noon on January 7,* the time frame is bounded at the far end (noon of January 7)but not at the near end (anytime before that.)

4) Adverbs of duration

Adverbs of duration specify how long an event or state lasts. They typically answer the question *how long?* And usually take the form of prepositional phrases, noun phrases, or clauses.

Mary and John have lived in Canada for twenty years
I worked there a few weeks

5) Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency specify the frequency with which an event occurs. They typically answer the question *how often?* Nouns referring to time units can often be transformed into adverbs of frequency by adding an –ly suffix *hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly,*(but not minutely). Adverbs of frequency can range from common occurrences – *usually, continually* to few or zero occurrences- *seldom, rarely, never.*

I had flu five times last year
Lyle travels frequently

Adverbs of frequency can be modified by both intensifiers and limiters –

Betsy very seldom cleans her room.

6) Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner indicate the manner or style in which the subject of the sentence acts or is acted upon. Adverbs of manner are often formed by simply adding the {-ly} suffix to an adjective form –*boldly, loudly, obnoxiously, coldly, gracefully, recklessly, quickly, carelessly,* etc. Adverbs of manner answer the question *how?* But it is important to distinguish them from adverbs of means, which also answer this question.

The little boy sobbed noisily
He replied angrily

7) Adverbs of means

Adverbs of means indicate by what means or method an action is carried out. When an agent, causer, or instrument appears in a position other than subject, it is usually an adverb of means.

Ben was fired by his boss
Paulette always travels by train

8) Adverbs of reason/purpose

Adverbs of reason/purpose indicate why or to what purpose something occurs. They usually answer the question *why?* These two semantic categories are often grouped together because there is a great deal of semantic overlap.

He did it for love [reason]
I searched the room for evidence [reason, purpose]

9) Adverbs of result

Occasionally, a prepositional phrase will indicate a result.

The jailers starved their prisoner to death
Their taunting drove the child to tears

f. Preposition

Prepositions function as the head of prepositional phrases. Prepositional may consist of only one word (e.g: on at, in, inside), or more than one word (e.g: in relation to, with respect to, because of, in

favour of, in aid of). These multi-word prepositions are 'frozen' units, which have become single lexical item.[5]

g. Conjunction

Conjunction is a small category of function words (*and, or,* and *but*) that conjoin like elements within the sentence or conjoin two or more sentences.[6]

Conjunctions serve to link sentences / clauses, or phrases. They may *consist* of only one word (and, but, or, that, if, etc) or more than one word (so that, in order that, as soon as etc).

Conjunction may also be subdivided into **coordinators** (and, but, or, for, etc) and **subordinators** (that, if, although, so that, as soon as, etc)[7]

h. Exclamation/ interjection

Interjections are exclamations such as *oh, alas, ugh,* or *well* (often printed with an exclamation point). Used for emphasis or to express an emotional reaction, they do not truly function as grammatical elements of a sentence.[8]

Not all sentences in which the subject and operator are invented are question.

Am I furious!

Is Zack ever hungry!

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[5] Herman Wekker and liliane Haegeman. *A Modern Course in English Syntax* (London: Routledge,1989), 61.

[6] Berk, Lynn M. *English Syntax from Word to Discourse,* 293.

[7] Herman Wekker and liliane Haegeman. *A Modern Course in English Syntax,* 61.

[8] Microsoft ® Encarta ® 2009. © 1993-2008 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

In each of these sentences the marked word order signals an exclamation.

Wh words can also be used to mark exclamatory utterance.

What a marvelous person he is.
What an idiot that director is![9]

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[9] Berk, Lynn M. *English Syntax from Word to Discourse,* 158.

B. Translation

This part will discuss some points which related to translation. It is include the definition of translation, the types and categories of translation, the translation procedure and grammatical adjustment of translation.

1. The Definition of Translation

Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement another language.[10] According to Mc Guire, translation is rendering of a source language (SL), text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and the structures of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structure will be seriously distorted.[11] And based on Roger bell translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving and stylistic equivalences.[12] From other sources, Translation, as a process, is always uni-directional, namely, it is always performed in a given direction 'from' a source language (henceforth abbreviated as SL) 'into' a Target Language (TL).[13]

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[10] Peter, Newmark, *Approaches to Translation* (Singapore: Prentice Hell, 1988), 7.
[11] Roger bell, *Translation and translating: Theory and Practice*, (Singapore: Longman Singapore Publiser, 1991), 4.
[12] Peter newmark, *Approaches to Translation*, 4.
[13] Sabrony Rachmadie, dkk, *Materi Pokok Translation* (Jakarta : Karunika, 1988), 1.2 .

2. The Types and Categories of Translation

Catford (1916: 21) divides translation into three distinctive types namely:[14]

a. Full translation v.s Partial translation

The distinction between full and partial translation relates to the extent of SL text which is submitted to the translation proses. In a full translation the entire text is submitted to the translation process, that is, every part of the SL text is replaced by TL text material, e.g.

Indonesia	English
- Aku cinta Indonesia	= I love Indonesia
- Dia akan pergi kesan	= He will go there

In partial translation, however, some part of parts of the SL text is left un-translated. They are simply transferred to and incorporated in the TL text, either because they are regarded as 'untranslatable' or for the deliberate purpose of introducing 'local color' into the TL text or even because they are so common and frequently used that translation is not needed, e.g.

- I like Hamburger   = Saya senang Hambuger
- I cook Rujak cingur   = Saya masak rujak cingur

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[14] Ibid, 1.12.

b. Total v.s Restricted translation[15]

The distinction between total and restricted translation relates to the levels of language involved in translation. In total translation SL grammar lexis are replaced by equivalent TL grammar and lexis. This replacement entails the replacement of SL phonology / graphology by TL phonology / graphology, e.g

| *The child* | *has slept* | *for* | *three* | *hours* |
| *Anak itu* | *telah tidur* | *selama* *tiga* | *jam* | |

Restricted translation at the grammatical and lexical levels means, respectively, replacement of SL grammar by equivalent TL grammar, but with no replacement of lexis, and replacement of SL lexis by equivalent TL lexis but with no replacement of grammar, e.g

Replacement of grammar:

1) Anak itu / telah tidur / selama / tiga jam
    = Noun Det / aux verb / prep   / Det Noun (Indonesian)
    = Det Noun / aux verb$_3$ / prep   / Det Noun (English)

2) Pemburu tua itu / membunuh / seekor burung muda
    = Noun Det Adj   / verb   / Det Noun Adj (Indonesian)
    = Det Adj Noun   / Verb$_2$ / Det Noun Adj (English)

Replacement of Lexis:

1) Anak itu / telah tidur   / selama / tiga jam
    = Child that / already sleep / for   / three hours

2) Pemburu tua itu / membunuh / seekor burung muda
    = hunter   old that/ kill   / a   bear   young

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[15] Ibid, 1.13.

c. Rank of translation[16]

This rank of translation can be in form the form of:

- Word to word translation

- Group to group translation

- Sentence to sentence translation

- Paragraph to paragraph translation

- Discourse to discourse translation

In this type of translation lexical and grammatical adjustments should be applied to achieve equivalent in terms of meaning.

3. The Translation Procedure

Translation procedures are the technical used to transfer the meaning of a text in one language into a text in another language. They involve essentially adding structural or lexical elements to those present in the SL or subtracting from them; eliminating elements that are obligatory in the SL but unnecessary in the TL or with no counterpart there, and where disparity between the two media goes beyond language patterns, adapting the content of the message so that the TL text will come as close as possible to the intent of the SL text and create a similar impact. Example of these procedures are given [17]

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[16] Ibid., 1.14.
[17] Ibid., 1.34.

a. Adding

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Saya -      -      guru
I     am    a      teacher
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b. Subtracting

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Saya      kembali      ke      rumah
I         returned      -      home
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c. Subtracting + adapting

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Paul is      a      bookworm
Paul -       -      kutubuku
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4. Grammatical Adjustment of Translation

Translation is not merely the transfer of words L_1 into those in L_2 or vice versa. It cannot escape from other linguistic components such as the structure or phrases, position of attributives or modifiers, morphological structure and categories, clause orders, elliptical constructions and restructuring of complex prepositions or statements into kernel and all other related or similar elements. These have to be observed if the message to be translated is intended to be acceptable, reasonable and readable.

This is understood to mean that there are cases in the sources language that may not be directly translated to the target or receptor language because of the grammatical differences in the two languages themselves that may impede understanding. It is for this reason that adjustments must be made or the translation would be dull and uninteresting.

Here are some grammatical points to think over when you intend to translate from English into Indonesia: [18]

a. Attributive

Art	ATTRIBT	NOUN
A	Smart	Boy
An	Old	Camel

Art	NOUN	ATTRIBUTIVE
Seorang	anak	yang pintar
Seekor	unta	yang tua

NOUN	ATTRIB
Something	Beautiful

NOUN	ATTRIB
Sesuatu	yang indah

b. Participle

Art	Present part or past part as Attribute	NOUN
A	Sewing	machine
A	swimming	pool

Art	NOUN	ATTRIBUTIVE
Sebuah	mesin	jahit
Sebuah	kolam	renang

c. Gerund

Gerund	VP/ Complement
	Makes you
Swimming	healthy

Noun	VP/ NP
Berenang	Membuat anda
itu	sehat

d. Tense Markers

English has both adverbs and TENSES. On the other hand Indonesian has only the time adverb but not the tenses. This causes a lot of troubles when you translate Indonesian sentences into English.

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[18] Ibid, 2.12.

The production of ungrammatical sentences could be the result of misconception of tenses and time adverbs or possibly also due to the native language interference.

e. Auxiliaries and Modals

An auxiliary has to agree to the subject, that it helps the main verb to make a passive construction, that it depends heavily on tenses, that it helps form a close question or it helps form compound tenses.

Modals are used to convey shades of meaning and are rarely from tense aspects.

f. Conditional

There are principally three types of conditional sentences in English. They are different in terms of forms as well as meaning.

Table 2.2
Types of Conditional Sentences

Type	English	Indonesian
I	If... V_1.... will V_1	Jika... V... akan ...
II	If...V_2....Would V_1	Jika saja...V... akan...
III	If... had V_3...would have V_3	Seandainya...V... akan...

g. Verbs of Wishing

Table 2.3
Verbs of wishing

Main clause					Dependent Clause	
Subject	V	Time			subject	VP in past tense
		Present past				
1. I	Wish			(that)	I	Were a millionaire
2. Bob					You	Had not made such a mistake
3. Mary					She	Were a beautiful princes

The Indonesian equivalent for the sentences above would probably be like this:

1. *Kalau saja (andaikata) saya seorang milioner.*
   (saya bukan seorang milioner lho)
2. *Bob ingin saudara tidak membuat kesalahan semacam itu.*
   (tetapi saudara terlanjur membuat kesalahan seperti itu)
3. *Mary menginginkan dirinya sebagai putri raja yang cantik*
   (dia bukan putri raja, tidak pula cantik)

The sentences that you have just learned belong to a mandatory subjunctive. It is a construction where lack of agreement between the subject and the verb of a dependent clause is mandatory regardless of the tense on the main clause. The subject of the main clause suggestively prescribes or dictates what action to take in the dependent clause and it always uses verbs such as: ask, demand, require, request, insist, propose, move, urge, suggest, recommend and an impersonal construction: it is + Adjective + (that) + ... This exist or occur at the moment of speaking.

h. Order Within Clause

Every language has its own system of grammatical patterns. Some English sentence patterns have the same order as their Indonesian counterparts. Some others, however, have not. When they have same order, translation will be less difficult. When they have different order, however, translation will be much more difficult since L_1 interference might take place.

i.   Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a structural relation, where one linguistic item is omitted. An obvious structural gap occurs, which can only be filled by reference to a previous sentence. Ellipsis may be nominal, verbal, or causal. Ellipsis occurs in all languages, but the particular structures which permit such 'omitted' words are no means identical from language to language. Where the parallelism in determining the exact word to be added in translation, the difficulties of adjustment are smaller. When there is not, the difficulties of adjustment are greater.

j.   Transformation into Kernel Sentence

A simple sentence usually consists of a subject, a predicate (verb) and an object. Sometimes a sentence does not have an object. The simple sentences can be easily translated from or into Indonesia. In translating a long simple sentence or a long complex sentence must try to find out the subject, the verb, and the object (if any) which contain the most important idea. This is called the kernel sentence.

C. Skill

Skill is the ability to do something well, usually gained through training or experience.[19]

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