

## **CHAPTER II**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

In real life, most people use certain tool in doing something. At least, there must be one tool to reach the purpose of an action. A fisherman needs some tools to get many fishes. In this study, the writer also needs a tool. The tool is the theory that she uses. The theory is going to be used in collecting and analysing the data. Since the thesis discusses cohesiveness in translation, the writer uses the translation theory proposed by Catford and the theory of cohesion by Hasan and Halliday.

#### **II.1. THE DEFINITION OF TRANSLATION**

Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (Source Language) by equivalent textual material in another language (Target Language). The replacement here, provides the translation equivalent in TL which refers to the same information in SL, so the message can be clearly understood by the readers in TL. Since message is the most important point in translation, one must be sure that it doesn't change in meaning after being translated.

Savory (1969:53) said that translation basically is the original thinking of the author plus some considerations made by the translator. In this case, the

translator plays the role of an interpreter who acts as a bridge / medium between the author's mind and the reader's.

A good translator must be able to convey the message from SL into TL. So, the readers in the TL will have exactly the same impression as the readers in the SL after reading the the text. The way of conveying the message is not important since SL and TL must have different systems. A good translator should be natural and doesn't sound like translation, thus it must orient to a dynamic equivalence rather than formal correspondence (B. Hoed 1977:12). In a translation procedure, a translator, first of all should understand the essence of the text in SL, then he will be able to translate it appropriately into the TL.

## II.2. TRANSLATION AND COHESION

So far, there are two theorists who discuss about translation and cohesion. They are Mildred L. Larson in his book Meaning-Based translation (1984) as A Guide to Cross Language Equivalence, and Basil Hatim and Ian Mason in their book Discourse and the Translator (1990).

Larson said that not all languages have the cohesion devices and even those which do may use them in the same way. She took the version of Greek usage and English usage of the same text are given for an example.





## GREEK USAGE

"And when he returned to Capernaum after some days, it was reported that he was at home. And many were gathered, together, so that there was no longer room for them, not even about the door, and he was preaching the word to them. And they came, bringing to him a paralytic carried by four men. And when they could not get near him because of the crowd, they removed the roof above him, and when they had made an opening, they let down the pallet on which the paralytic lay..."

## ENGLISH USAGE

"A few days later Jesus went back to Capernaum, and the news spread that he was at home. So many people came together that there was no room left, not even out in front of the door. Jesus was preaching the message to them when four men arrived, carrying a paralysed man to Jesus. Because of the crowd, however, they could not get the man to him. So they made a hole in the roof right above the place where Jesus was. When they had made an opening, they let the man down, lying on his mat."

There are some languages in which it would be inappropriate to use pronouns in the translation of the paragraph above. When one of the participants has been mentioned, the cohesion of participant reference would simply be handled by having no overt subject in the clauses which follow. The lack of an overt marker adds the cohesion.

Another example, the Amuesha(Peru) language refers to participants other than the one who is the topic under discussion by relationship to that main participant. For example, if there are two participants John and Peter, and John is Peter's father, then if John were the topic of the paragraph, Peter would be referred to as his son, not as Peter. But if Peter were the topic, he would be referred

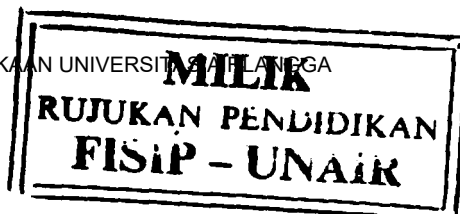
to as Peter. But if Peter were the topic, he would be referred to as Peter and John would be referred to as his father. The relationship might be kinship, as above, or perhaps a role relationship like his servant, his king, or whatever.

However, since these devices are different for each language, they can not automatically be translated into another language. In some languages, lack of overt back reference linkage produces cohesion, since it is understood that there is a unity until a new time, a new location or a new participant is introduced.

Hatim and Mason(1992) talked about discourse texture. That under normal circumstances, we expect of a text that it should be coherent (i.e. have continuity of sense) and cohesive (i.e. display connectivity between its surface elements) and that it should display distinct patterns of thematisation. To achieve that we need to analyze the thematic progression in different languages over a range of text types. There are patterns and equivalent which could be achieved between them. One thing of which we can be confident, nevertheless, is that the patterns are always employed in the service of an overriding rhetorical purpose.

### II.3. RELATED STUDY

Apart from the above two theories, there was a researcher who analyzed the phenomenon, i.e. Blum-Kulka



(1986). She analyzed shift of cohesion and coherence in translation, in this case from English into French. She said that there were possible shifts of cohesion and coherence in the translation of written text. The main argument postulated is that the process of translation necessarily entails shift both in textual and discoursal relationship. Her argument is developed by adopting a discoursal and communicative approach to the study of translation. It is assumed that translation should be viewed as an act of communication, as in the study of all acts of communication, considerations of both process and product of communicative act necessarily relate to at least the linguistic, discoursal and social system holding for the two languages and cultures involved.

For example, herewith the alternative replies to a "how are you" query:

A. How are you ?

a. I'm fine

b. I've failed the test

c. Johnny is leaving for the States tomorrow

d. Those are pearls that were his eyes

It is not difficult to accept (b) as an alternative response instead of (a) though there is no overt response to the how question; shared knowledge of the world will suffice to interpret (b) as meaning not so well. In both (a) and (b) responses are overtly linked to the question, at least by the I - you relationship. In (c)

there is no such linking, yet the answer may be perfectly acceptable. Its interpretation would presumably need some specific shared knowledge between interactants, the nature of which would tell whether the speaker is announcing good news or bad news. With a stretch of the imagination, we can even possibly imagine a context in which (d) would be heard as coherent.

To discuss the shift of cohesion and coherence, Blum-Kulka took two basic assumptions, first that translation is a process that operates on texts (rather than words or sentences) and hence its products need to be studied within the framework of discourse analysis, and second, that translation is an act of communication, and hence both its processes, products and effects can and need to be studied empirically within the methodological framework of studies in communication.

The conclusion she got is that by re-examining the distinction offered from an empirical standpoint, i.e. to consider the ways in which empirical validation might be sought for all or some of the translation shift postulated. Meanwhile, Blum-Kulka has argued for a need to examine the effect of the use of cohesive features in translation on the TL text's level explicitness and on the TL text's overt meaning(s) as compared to the SL text. Possible changes in levels of explicitness through translation were postulated to occur either as a result of differences in stylistic preferences between two languages

(i.e., one languages showing a tendency for higher levels of redundancy through cohesion) or as a result of an explicitation process suggested to be inherent to translation. To establish the relative validity of these hypotheses it would be necessary to first carry out a large scale contrastive stylistic study (in a given register) to establish cohesive patterns in SL and TL, and then to examine translations to and from both languages to investigate shifts in cohesive levels that occur through translation.

Considering of the Blum-Kulka's statement above, the writer would like to extend it in this thesis, that is to find out cohesive patterns that occur through the translation from the SL to the TL.

#### II.4. VARIABILITY OF TRANSLATION REALIZATION

On observing the translation of cohesive markers in the Source Language to the Target Language, the writer uses a method which is similar as what have been done by Catford in counting the occurrence probability of the translation of (for example) the word dans in French into English.

As a Source Language item can have more than one Target Language equivalent which each of them occurs in specific number of times in Target Language. Catford assumed that a translation equivalence which is usually qualitative can also be quantified by counting the



equivalent probability (1965:30).

So, Catford made the percentage of the equivalent probability of the translation of Source Language item by dividing the number of each occurrences of each particular equivalent by the total number of occurrence of Source Language item.

For example, in a French short story there are about 12.000 words, the preposition dans occurs 134 times. It is translated into in in 98 occurrences, into into in 26 from in 2 and about and inside in 1 occurrence each, and 6 have zero translations. In counting the probability, he divided:

$$\frac{98}{134} \times 100\% = 73\%$$

meaning that the probability of dans to be translated into in is 0,73 (73%).

What the writer intends to do in this thesis is similar to Catford's (see further in Chapter III).

## II.5. COHESION

After discussing the theories of translation and cohesion, herewith the translator would like to come to cohesiveness. In his "Kamus Linguistik", Kridalaksana says that cohesion means the degree of being bound between the various elements in syntactic structure or discourse structure (1993). Moreover, the Encyclopedia and Dictionary says that a text which contains cohesiveness shows that the text is having the power of sticking





together (1970).

According to Halliday and Hasan, cohesion is a necessary condition to create a text (1978:289). The organization of language in a text can be realized through the cohesive markers. The existence of those markers makes the sentences in a text stick to each other. That kind of relationship of the sentences in a text is called cohesiveness.

Cohesive relations are relations which function as a glue. They stick one sentence to another sentence in a text. These relations make the text easily understood.

In this chapter the writer discusses two kind of cohesive relations. The first thing is grammatical cohesion which can be conveyed through reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction; while the other thing is lexical cohesion' wich can be reached through reiteration and collocation.

However, in accordance with the limitation in chapter I, only grammatical cohesion is presented here. Moreover only the first three of the grammatical cohesion are discussed (see chapter I).

#### II.5.1. Grammatical Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1978:6) said that grammatical cohesion means that some forms are realized through the grammar. There are four aspects of grammatical cohesion proposed by Halluday and Hasan; reference, substitution,

<b>MILIK</b> <b>RUJUKAN PENDIDIKAN</b> <b>FISIP - UNAIR</b>
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ellipsis and conjunction. Of these, only the first three will be explained in details (see chapter I for the limitation).

#### A. Reference

Reference is a specific nature of the information that is signalled for retrieval. In the case of reference, the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular things or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference. This statement is given by Halliday and Hasan (1976:31). In their book 'Discourse Analysis' (1983:192), Brown and Yule state that there are two kinds of reference, endophoric reference and exophoric reference. However, the writer does not use exophoric reference since it deals with the reference outside a text.

#### A.1. Endophoric Reference

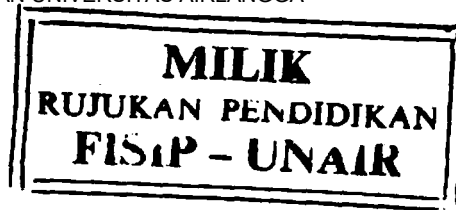
This type of reference is a reference where their interpretation lies within a text. This reference has the form of cohesive ties within a text.

##### A.1.1. Anaphoric Reference

This reference is a relation which look backward in the text for their intpretation.

For example:

- Look at the sun. It's going down quickly.



It refers back to the sun.

- Wahab membeli sepeda baru, dan dengan sepedanya itu Pak Amat menelusuri kota Surabaya.

Nya refers to Wahab, it does not refer to Pak Amat

### A.1.2. Cataphoric Reference

This reference is a relation which looks forward for their interpretation.

For example:

- It's going down quickly, the sun.

It refers forward to the sun.

- Dengan sepedanya itu Pak Amat menelusuri kota Surabaya

Nya refers forward to Pak Amat

### A.1.3. Personal Reference

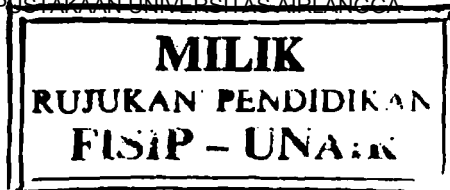
This type of reference includes four classes of personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, possessive pronoun and object pronoun. It is stated by Halliday & Hasan (1976:43). Those parts of personal reference are exemplified below.

For example:

- John has moved to a new house. He had it built last year. His wife must be delighted with it. I didn't know it was his.

The personal reference he, his, his refers to the same person mentioned before, John

- Pak Hamid adalah seorang konglomerat. Ia baru



saja membeli sebuah mobil Mercy. Warnanya merah dan harganya jangan ditanya.

The personal reference *ia* refers to *Pak Hamid*.

## B! Substitution

According to Hockett (1958:225), substitution is a form which under certain conventional circumstances, replaces any member of given form class. However, Halliday and Hasan says that substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases within a text. In terms of linguistic system, substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary. It is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. The substitute item has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes (1976:88-89).

Discussing substitution, the writer splits it into three parts.

### B.1. Nominal Substitution

In this substitution, the writer talks about the substitution one/ones.

#### B.1.1. Nominal Substitution

What is meant by nominal substitution here is the substitution one/ones. This substitute always functions as Head of a nominal group and can be substitute only for item

which is itself Head of nominal group, as said by Halliday and Hasan in their book (1976:91), for example;

For examples:

- Do you remember that thunderstorm we had the last time we were here ? That was a terrifying one!

Here, one substitutes thunderstorm in the previous sentence.

- Tentang kami mempunyai kuda Aarab. Dokter Husodo mempunyai seekor juga.

From the above examples, the word seekor substitutes kuda Arab in the sentence before.

Moeliono (1982:345) says that although seekor substitutes for kuda Arab but it refers to different thing. Halliday also agrees to Moeliono. We can see it from his statement (1976:95)

A substitute is never exactly identical with that of the nominal group that is presupposed.

A substitute is a carrier of some information which differentiates the instance in which it occurs from other instance to which it relates by cohesion. In the case of a nominal substitute, this means that it is the carrier of some modifying element which has this differential function.

## B.2. Verbal Substitution

Halliday points out that the verbal substitution in English is do. This operates as Head of a verbal group,

in the place which occupied by lexical verb and its position is always final in the group.

For example:

- He never really succeeded in his ambitions. He might have done, one felt, had it not been for the restless of his nature.

Here done substitutes for succeeded in his ambitions and so serves to link the two sentences by anaphora, exactly in the same way as the nominal substitute *one*. The verbal substitute do is typically associated with contrast. It occurs in the context of some other item which contrasts with an element in the presupposed clause

For example:

- John is smoking more now than.....

a. Mary is doing

b. He should do

In (a), Mary contrasts with John; in (b) should contrasts with is. The substitute do is almost always anaphoric. It may presuppose an element within the same sentence as itself, so that there is already a structural relation linking the presupposed to the presupposing clauses. However, it frequently substitutes for an element in a preceding sentence.

### B.3. Clause Substitution

In this type of substitution, what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause.

The words used as substitutes are so.

### Substitution of Reported Clauses

The reported clause that is substituted by so or not is always declarative, whatever the mood of presupposed clause. There is no substitution for interrogative or imperative.

For example:

- "...if you've seen them so often, of course you know what they're like".

"I believe so," Alice replied thoughtfully.

In this example, so substitutes for I know what they're really like.

### C. Ellipsis

Basically, substitution and ellipsis are very similar to each other. Ellipsis is an action of deleting a certain word in such a way so we need not to repeat the word. Halliday says that ellipsis is simply substitution by zero. The starting point of the discussion of ellipsis can be the familiar notion that it is "something left unsaid". Brown and Yule in *Discourse Analysis* (1983:202) point that Halliday and Hasan used ellipsis to instruct the reader to search for a previous expression to substitute in the text. An elliptical item is one which leaves specific structural slots to be filled from elsewhere. In ellipsis, nothing is inserted into the slot.

For example:



- John brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas.

The structure of the second clause is subject and complement. The predicator is the same as the first clause.

- Anak Pak Hasan dua hari ini ujian Sipenmaru dan anak saya juga.

From that sentence, we know that the first clause has the elements of a sentence, subject, predicate and the adverbial. However, in the second clause, we find that the adverbial and the predicate are omitted.

### C.1. Nominal Ellipsis

Based on the definition of ellipsis above, nominal ellipsis means that the noun is omitted in the second clause or sentence. Therefore, we must look at the previous clause or sentence. Nominal ellipsis involves the upgrading of a word functioning as Deictic, Numerative, Epithet or classifier from the elliptical nominal group clearly requires that there should be available from some source or other the information necessary for filling it out. On the logical dimension, the structure of nominal ellipsis is that of a Head with optional modification. The modifying elements include Premodifier which precedes the Head and Postmodifier which follows the Head. The modifier consists of the elements Deictic (d), Numerative (n), Epithet (e), Classifier (c) and Qualifier (q).



The deictic is normally a determiner, the numerative a numeral or other quantifier, the epithet an adjective and the classifier a noun. The qualifier is normally a relative clause or prepositional phrase.

For example:

- Those two fast electric trains with pantographs.

The head of the sentence is trains. the premodifier is formed by those two fast electric and the post modifier by with pantographs. Those modifier consists of those as deictic, two as numerative, fast epithet, electric classifier and with pantographs qualifier.

The function of head is normally shown by the common noun, proper noun or pronoun expressing the thing. A nominal group that is elliptical presupposes a previous one that is not and therefore it is cohesive. In a non-elliptical nominal group, the head is the Thing. In contrast, an elliptical nominal group, it is not expressed and one of the other elements (Deictic, Numerative, Epithet, or Classifier) function as Head.

For example:

- Which hat will you wear ?

- This is
- a. the best
  - b. the best hat
  - c. the best of the hats
  - d. the best of the three
  - e. the best you have



In all cases, the is Deictic, three is Numerative, best is Epithet, and that is the common noun representing the Thing. Then,

- (a) is elliptical; the is modifier, best is head
- (b) is non elliptical; the best is modifier, hat is head
- (c) is non-elliptical,; the is modifier, best is head, of the hats is partitive qualifier, non-elliptical
- (d) is elliptical; structure as (c), except that the partitive qualifier of the three is itself elliptical
- (e) is elliptical; structure as (c), except that the qualifier you have is not partitive

An elliptical nominal group is cohesive. It points anaphorically to another nominal group which is presupposed by it.

## C.2. Verbal Ellipsis

The term above means ellipsis within the verbal group. An elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more words from a previous verbal group. An elliptical verbal group is defined as a verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systemic features.

For example:

- Cathy ate some oranges and Bony bananas

The researcher finds that there is a verb missing.