CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW, CONCEPTS, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, AND RESEARCH MODEL

2.1 Literature Review

Some theses and journal related with the topic being discussed in this study are reviewed in this paper. By reviewing some previous research, it is hoped that there are some information helping to conduct the present study.

The first research entitled An Equivalence Analysis of English Locative Prepositional Phrase in Indonesian by Laba (2007). The data for this research were quoted and classified into English prepositional phrases with prepositions at, in, and on with their Indonesian equivalents. The writer used theories of translation procedure proposed by Vinay and Dalbernet in Venuti (2000), the translation shift proposed by Catford (1965) and the principles of translation proposed by Nida (1975).

The data were taken from a novel entitled Danny the Champion of the World and its Indonesian translation Danny Si Juara Dunia. The study focuses to find out the types of procedures and shifts occurring in translating the English locative prepositional phrases with prepositions at, in and on. The methodology used in this research was qualitative method in which the data were analyzed descriptively to find the equivalence of the locative prepositional phrases in English and their syntactical forms by comparing the source language text with the target language text.

The result of the analysis mentioned that a translator has to consider different procedures to find the closest natural equivalence of the English locative
prepositional phrases into Indonesian. Translation shifts such as unit shift, structure shift, and level shift occurred in the translation process to have the closest natural equivalence in the target language. The translation principal of loss, gain, and skewing of information was also found in translation process. The analysis remarked that the locative prepositions at, in, and on have the equivalent of preposition di in target language. However, there is a varied way of how to translate these three locative prepositions. Locative prepositional phrases with preposition at have an equivalence of prepositional and verb phrases in target language. These variations are strongly influenced by the verb that came up before the prepositions. Laba found that preposition at also has equivalent of preposition ke in target language, preposition in also has equivalents of preposition ke, dengan, and dalam in target language, and preposition on also has equivalent of preposition dengan in target language.

In this research, Laba (2007) applied tree diagram to describe the visual representation of the categorical constituent structure of the phrase structure. However, the use of tree diagram in his analysis was not supported by the basic concept of tree diagram which should be placed in theoretical framework.

The second research is entitled Simple Prepositions ‘Di’, ‘Ke’, and ‘Dari’ and Their Translation in English by Santika (2012). The data for this research were quoted and classified into Indonesian prepositional phrases with prepositions di, ke, and dari with their English equivalents. The theories of translation equivalence proposed by Catford (1965), the translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Dalbernet in Venuti (2000), the Indonesian preposition theory
proposed by Alwi (1998) and the English preposition theory proposed by Quirk (1972) are applied in this research.

The data were taken from an Indonesian book entitled *Raja Kera* and its English translation *The Monkey King*. The study was focused on the equivalents of simple prepositions *di*, *ke*, and *dari* in English and the translation procedures applied in translating the simple prepositions with prepositions *di*, *ke* and *dari* into English. The methodology used in this research was the qualitative descriptive method where the data were recorded, classified and analyzed descriptively.

The result of the analysis mentioned that the formal equivalent of preposition *di* is *in*, preposition *ke* is *to*, and preposition *dari* is *from* in English. These prepositions and their equivalents have the same meaning: place, even though in the target language there are more specific parts to support the basic meaning. Generally, the preposition *di* has the meaning of place but with the additional elements of the meaning of preposition in English, such as the sense of dimension of the object and destination, it can be translated into: *in, on, at, and to*. The preposition *ke* has the meaning of targeted location and direction into a location or position. Observed from some meaning of prepositions in English, such as destination, actual target, passage, and also sense of dimension place, it can be translated into: *into to, into, on, onto, in, through, and for*. The last preposition *dari* which has the meaning of source, origin, direction from a location and possession, its equivalents based on the same meaning in source language: source, origin, and possession are *from* and *of*. Based on the meanings
such as destination, position, and passage, its equivalents are *off, out, in, after,* and *through.*

The procedures of translation found in translating the prepositional phrases from the data were literal translation, modulation, transposition, equivalence, adaptation, and calque. Based on the analysis, there are sometimes two or more procedures applied in translating one prepositional phrase.

In this research, Santika (2012) used a table or chart which was used to show the occurrences of the equivalents of prepositions *di, ke,* and *dari* in English. Then the data were analyzed using the theory of preposition to find out the meanings of prepositions in SL and TL that might affect the choice of certain prepositions for the equivalents of the simple prepositions, *di, ke* and *dari.* The diagrams were also presented to show the meaning.

The third research entitled *Shifts in Translation of Locative Prepositional Phrases with Reference to Steve Jobs Biography* by Susana (2013). The data for the study were quoted and classified into English prepositional phrases with prepositions *at, in* and *from.* The writer applied the theories of translation proposed by Larson (1998), the translation shift proposed by Catford (1965), the theory of translation equivalence proposed by Nida in Venuti (2000), the theory of preposition proposed by Quirk (1973), the theory of sentence syntactic structure in the form of tree diagram proposed by Radford (1988) and componential analysis proposed by Bell (1991).

The data of this study were taken from the biography of Steve Jobs in English as the source language and its Indonesian translation as the target
language. The research was conducted through note taking technique in order to find and collect some data. The data were analyzed by applying the translational identity method that people use for comparing between one language with other language to find and analyze the equivalence. It was only the shift of locative prepositional phrase using preposition at, in, and from which were analyzed here.

The equivalences and shifts in the data of this study can be depicted with tree diagram to find components involved inside. A phrase using the preposition at in English may be equivalent with the prepositions di, pada; in and may be equivalent with the prepositions di, dalam, or even dari; and from, and may be equivalent with the preposition dari in Indonesian. The result of the analysis mentioned that the shifts in translation of locative prepositional phrases with reference to Steve Jobs biography occurred in both level and category shifts.

The fourth research entitled _Shifts in Translation of Complex Noun Phrase from English into Indonesian in Oprah_ by Prawita (2014). The data for the study focused on the shifts in translation of complex noun phrases from English into Indonesian. The writer applied the theories of translation proposed by Catford (1965) loss, gain and skewing of information proposed by Nida (1975), and sentence syntactic structure in the form of tree diagram proposed by Radford (1988).

The data were taken from a book entitled _Oprah_ which was used as the source language and its translation in Indonesian entitled _Oprah_. The data were collected using the observation method and it was supported by implementing note taking in order to find, identify and classify the data. The data were analyzed
using the qualitative descriptive method. The categorization of the complex noun phrase was explained using tree diagrams.

The results of the study indicated that the complex noun phrase in English can be translated into Indonesian in two forms: they are complex noun phrase and non-complex noun phrase. Level shift, structure shift and intra system shift consist of complex noun phrase in translation. Meanwhile, class shifts and unit shifts consist of non-complex noun phrases in translation. The factors using shifts occurring in the data were linguistic factors and cultural factors. Moreover, the occurrence of loss, gain and skewing of information cannot be avoided.

The fifth research is entitled *The Equivalent of Indonesian Prepositional Phrase into English* by Puspani and Pratiwi (2013). The data for the study focused on prepositional phrase consist of a preposition and a noun phrase; Indonesian prepositional phrase specially indicating location. The theory of Indonesian prepositional phrase proposed by Alwi, et.al (1988) and the theory of English prepositional phrase proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980) were applied in this study. The theories concerning the translation procedure proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000) and translation shift proposed by Catford (1965) were also applied in this study.

The research described the equivalent of Indonesian prepositional phrase into English found in the novel *Belenggu* and its translation *Shackle*. The analysis was conducted using the descriptive qualitative method. The result of the study mentioned that the Indonesian prepositional phrases indicating locative and direction of location have the equivalents of prepositional phrases indicating
locative and direction of location in English. The procedures of translation applied by the translator were equivalent and modulation with types of shift occurred in the forms of level shift, unit shift, and intra-system shift.

The sixth review is the review of an article of a journal entitled *Realization of Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases in Professional Medical Text in English Language* by Krulj, et al (2011). The analysis of the article was focused on prepositions with their single and multiple meaning, focused on internal relationship between preposition and its complement, especially on prepositions and prepositional phrase meanings in professional medical text.

The data for the research were taken from medical texts in English which served as a corpus on which the analysis of prepositions and prepositional phrases performed. The data for the analysis were also taken from several independent abstracts which are aimed at checking the primary analysis which was published in the British American Journal in September 2009.

The results of the research mentioned that (1) the same preposition can appear in multiple categories and express different meaning; (2) all prepositions within one category of meaning cannot be mutually interchanged without affecting meaning or appropriateness of the sentence. Also, this is neither recorded in the dictionaries of contemporary English nor in medical Dorland’s dictionary; (3) some prepositions in some cases can be literally translated into our language and some prepositions; this is not possible due to the fact that they can be translated differently depending on the context or they are not translated at all. For these reasons, literal translations can lead to improper use; (4) a number of
prepositions in selected medical texts were used for single or multiple relations and meanings but that does not mean that these were the only meanings that a certain preposition can cover; (5) it is necessary to point out that a certain number of prepositions that can be considered frequent or commonly found prepositions in contemporary English were not present in the texts that served as a corpus for analysis in this paper. The article gives knowledge that preposition cannot appear independently and, therefore, we treated it together with its prepositional complement in which it forms prepositional phrases.

The studies above give much academic contribution, information, and motivation for the writer to do the analysis of locative prepositional phrases in English and their equivalents in Indonesian. The present study analyzes comprehensively the English locative prepositional phrases with preposition around, over, through, and towards with reference to a novel in English with its translation in Indonesian, mainly concerning types of shifts applied in the translation of the phrases and the impact of shifts occur in translating the phrases.

The main theories of the present study are translation theory proposed by Larson (1998) and the theory of translation shift proposed by Catford (1965). The supporting theories of the present study are the theory of English prepositional phrase proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980), Indonesian prepositional phrase by Alwi, et.al (1998), sentence syntactic structure proposed by Radford (1988) and the theory of loss and gain of information proposed by Nida (1975).
2.2 Concepts

Some concepts related with the topic of discussion are presented in this study to support the analysis, like the concepts of translation, translation equivalence, preposition and locative prepositional phrase.

2.2.1 Translation

Translation is basically a change of form. Translation consists of transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language. This is done by going the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure (Larson, 1998:3). Translating consists of producing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent to the message of the source language, first in meaning and secondly in style (Nida, 1975:33). Translation is the process of changing speech or writing from one language (the source language) into another (the target language) (Richards, et.al, 1985:299).

Bell (1991:13) proposed that translation is considered the replacement of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in second language. The term translation may refer to three distinguishable meanings including (1) translating refer to the process; to translate; the activity rather than tangible object; (2) a translation refer to the product of the process of translating, i.e. the translated text; (3) translation which refers to the abstract concept encompassing both the process and the product of the process.

Catford (1965:20) stated that translation as the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language
Dostert as quoted by Catford (1965:35) proposed translation as ‘that branch of the applied science of language which is specifically concerned with the problem – or the fact – of the transference of meaning from one set of patterned symbols … into another set of patterned symbols …’. Nida and Taber (1974:12) stated that translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.

2.2.2 Translation Equivalence

If a specific unit in one language carries the same intended meaning/message encoded in a specific linguistic medium in another, these two units are considered equivalent (Karimi, 2006). Equivalence is defined as a relationship existing between two (or more) entities, and the relationship is described as one of likeness/sameness/similarity/equality in terms of any of a number of potential qualities (Halverson, 2006).

Translation equivalence as an empirical phenomenon, discovered by comparing SL and TL texts; and, on the other hand, the underlying condition, or justification, of translation equivalence (Catford, 1965:27). Translation equivalence can be generalized as follows: translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or items are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance (Catford, 1965:50).

The importance of translation equivalence in translating locative prepositional phrases is in order to find translation which is equivalent in message
and form. Brata (2014:9) proposed that translation always involves two languages; the source language and the target language. Syntactically and culturally, the two languages are different. As a result it is difficult to create form equivalence in the micro level (sentence, clause, phrase). However, in particular cases, form equivalence in the micro level can be created. Ideally, metaphor in source text, for example, should be translated into a metaphor in the target text. If not possible, it can be translated literary provided the message contains is the same.

Brata (2014:9) stated that although the source text and the target text are syntactically and culturally different and it is difficult to create equivalence in the micro level, it is necessary for the translator to be anxious as, ideally, what is expected in translation context is equivalence in the macro level. The fact shows that the translator, when doing what he is supposed to do, is not faced with loose sentences which are cohesively and coherently joined to form a text.

### 2.2.3 Preposition

Prepositions are words normally placed before nouns or pronouns (Thomson and Martinet, 1986:91). Preposition is a word used with nouns, pronouns, to link them grammatically to other words. Prepositions may express such meanings as possession (e.g. *the leg of the table*), direction (e.g. *to the bank*), place (e.g. *at the corner*), time (e.g. *before now*) (Richards, et . al., 1985:227).

According to Quirk, et.al (1985:657), a preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement,
the other by another part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal *wh*-clause, or a nominal *–ing* clause. Krulj, et.al (2011) mentioned that the preposition is an unchangeable word that shows the relationship between nouns or pronouns and other words or groups of words in a sentence.

### 2.2.4 Locative Prepositional Phrase

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:143) stated that a prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or *wh*-clause or *v*-ing clause. The examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>the bus-stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>what he said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>signing the peace treaty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As quoted by Wardani (2011:12), Torrey proposed that a locative prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. This noun or pronoun is called the object of the preposition. As quoted by Wardani (2011:12), Sneddon stated that locative prepositional phrase indicates position and direction. He further remarked that there are three basic locative prepositions; they are *at, in,* and *on.*

Jackson as quoted by Wardani (2011:12) proposed that the circumstantial roles concerned with space are given the semantic label ‘locative’. This label, however, subsumes a number of subtypes of circumstances relating to space:
position, direction, and distance. He further stated that the prepositions expressing locative position include: *at, near, on, above, against, below, beside, among, behind, in front of, inside, outside, over, under*. The prepositions expressing locative direction include: *source (from, off, out of), path (down, past, around, across, along, between, through), goal (into, to, towards, onto, over, under)*. The prepositions expressing locative distance include: *as far as, for*.

### 2.3 Theoretical Framework

There are some references and theories applied to analyze the data in this study. The theories used are the theory of translation proposed by Larson (1998), the translation shift proposed by Catford (1965), the theory of sentence syntactic structure proposed by Radford (1988), the English prepositional phrase proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980), the theory of Indonesian prepositional phrase proposed by Alwi, et.al (1998) and the theory of loss and gain of information proposed by Nida (1975).

Such theories were chosen as theoretical framework because the theories are the basis used as a guide to solve the problems mentioned in the study of this research proposal. The theories have a rule as a frame and references to directing the present study. The theories will also be applied as a perspective to understand the research object, interpret every phenomenon found during the study.

Based on two problems of the study mentioned in the first chapter of this proposal, some theories are applied as a guidance to answer the problems. The first problem, concerning type of shifts applied in translating English locative
prepositional phrases into Indonesian, is analyzed by the combination between the theory of translation proposed by Larson (1998), translation shift proposed by Catford (1965), the English prepositional phrase theory proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980), and the Indonesian prepositional phrase theory proposed by Alwi, et.al (1998). The shift theory proposed by Catford (1965) is applied because this theory is considered to be able to give guidance to identify shifts in the translation of locative prepositional phrases. In addition, the analysis of shifts can be conducted effectively by looking at the categorical constituent structure of the phrases being analyzed by describing the phrases in tree diagram using the sentence syntactic structure in the form of tree diagram proposed by Radford (1988). Out of the theories mentioned above, the theory of English prepositional phrase and Indonesian prepositional phrase also play important roles in analyzing the prepositional phrases translation equivalents of SL into TL.

The second problem, concerning the impact of translation shifts occur in translating English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian, is responded by using the theory of shift proposed by Catford (1965). It is said that shift is avoidable in translation since the source language and target language have different language structures, grammars, and cultural contexts. Based on the translation shift proposed by Catford (19165), the analysis is conducted according to the data taken from data sources. In addition, the theory of loss and gain of information proposed by Nida (1975) is considered suitable to give guidance to find out the answer of the second problem since in the theory it is proposed that
loss, gain and/or skewing of information can be found in every translation to find out the closest natural equivalent of source language into target language.

Overall, since the research discusses about translation, the theory of translation is absolutely needed to be placed in this study. The translation theory proposed by Larson (1998) is used as the main translation framework. The theory was selected because Larson’s theory stresses that translation consists of transferring without distorting the meaning of the source language into the target language; meaning which must be kept constant, even when the form of the source language changes as it is turned into the form of the target language. The translation theory with meaning based is considered suitable to be used in the analysis of this research concerning the translation of locative prepositional phrases of SL into TL.

2.3.1 Theory of Translation

The main translation theory used in this study is the theory of translation proposed by Larson. Larson (1998:3) stated that translation is basically a change of form. When we speak of the form of a language, we are referring to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraph, etc., which are spoken or written. These forms are referred to as the surface structure of a language. It is the structural part of language which is actually seen in print or heard in speech. In translation, the form of the source language is replaced by the form of the receptor (target) language.
Larson (1998:3) also claimed that translation, then, consists of studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language text, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context.

Larson (1998:3) presents the diagram of the translation process as follows:

**Figure 1**

The Diagram of Translation Process

Source language

- Text to be translated
  - Discover the meaning

Meaning

Translation

Receptor language

- Re-express the meaning

Larson (1998:17) stated that there are two main kinds of translation. 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 translation**. 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 translation**. Larson (1998:18) also claimed that most translators who tend to translate literary work actually make a partially **modified literal translation**. Next, Larson (1998:19) stated that translations are often a mixture of a literal transfer of the grammatical units along with some
idiomatic translation of the meaning of the text. It is not easy to consistently translate idiomatically. A translator may express some parts of his translation in very natural forms and then in other parts fall back into a literal form. Translations fall on a continuum from very literal, to literal, to modify literal, to near idiomatic, to idiomatic, and then may even move on **unduly free**.

(1) Literal Translation

According to Larson (1998:17), an internal translation is 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 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*

English : *your-name call!*

The literal translation makes little sense in English. The appropriate translation would be ‘*What is your name?’* Larson further stated that if the two languages are related, the literal translation can often be understood, since the general grammatical form may be similar. However, choice of lexical items makes the translation sound foreign (Larson, 1998:17)

(2) Idiomatic Translation

Larson (1998:18) stated that idiomatic translation use the natural forms of the receptor language, both in the grammatical constructions and in the choice of
lexical items. A truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation. It sounds it was originally in the receptor language. Therefore, a good translator will try to translate idiomatically. For example:

French :  *Madam Odette, passanger a destination de Douala est demandee au telephone.*

English :  Ms. Odette, passenger for Douala, you are wanted on the phone.

(3) Modified Literal Translation

Larson (1998:18) proposed that most translators who tend to translate literally actually make a partially modified literal translation. They modify the order and grammar enough to use acceptable sentence structure in the receptor language. However, the lexical items are translated literally. Occasionally, these are also changed to avoid complete nonsense or to improve communication. However, the result still does not sound natural. Notice the following example from a language in Papua New Guinea as source language into English as receptor language:

*Ro ahombo ngusifu pamariboyandi*

I Her heart fastened-her (literal)

I fastened her in my heart (modified literal)

(4) Unduly Free Translation

Larson (1998:19) stated that unduly free translations are not considered acceptable translation for most purposes. Translations are unduly free if they add extraneous information not in the source text, if they change the meaning of the source language, or if they distort the facts of the historical and cultural setting of
the source language text. Sometimes unduly free translations are made for purposes of humor or to bring about a special response from the receptor language speakers. However, they are not acceptable as normal translations. The emphasis is on the reaction of those reading or hearing it and the meaning is not necessarily the same as that of the source language.

In one translation, the source text said, “I was glad when Stephanas, Fortunatus and Achaicus arrived, because they have supplied what was lacking from you. For they refreshed my spirit and yours also. Such men deserve recognition.” It was translated, “It sure is good to see Steve. Lucky and ‘Big Bam’. They sorta make up for your not being here. They’re a big boost to both me and you all. Let’s give them a big hand.” The purpose of the translation was to make an ancient text seem contemporary, but the result is an unduly free translation (Larson, 1998:19).

2.3.2 Prepositional Phrase

There are two theories about prepositional phrase applied in this study. The first theory is proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980) concerning English prepositional phrase and the second is theory proposed by Alwi, et.al (1998) about Indonesian prepositional phrase.

2.3.2.1 English Prepositional Phrase

Quirk, et.al (1980:300-301) stated that English preposition is classified into simple and complex prepositions. Most of the common English prepositions, such as at, in and for are simple. They consist of one word. The following is a
comprehensive list of simple prepositions: aboard, above, across, after, against, along, alongside, amid, among, apropos (of), around, as, at, atop, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, but, by, despite, don, during, for, from, in, inside, minus, notwithstanding, of, off, on, upon, opposite, out, outside, outwith, over, past, per, plus, re, round, since, than, through, throughout, to toward, towards, under, underneath, until, up, via, with, within, without.

According to Quirk, et.al (1980:301), complex preposition is a preposition consisting of more than one word. Most complex prepositions are placeable, according to their form, into one of three categories:

a. Adverb + Prep: along with, apart from, aside from, as for, as to, away from, off of, on to, out of, together with, up to, etc.

b. Verb/Adjective/Conjunction/etc + Prep: except for, owing to, due to, but for, because of, etc.

c. Prep₁ + Noun + Prep₂: by means of, in comparison with, instead of, etc.

According to Quirk, et.al (1980:304) in terms of its syntactic function, prepositional phrases may function as:

a. Adjunct

   The people were singing on the bus.

b. Post modifier in a noun phrase

   The people on the bus were singing.

c. Complementation of a verb

   We were looking at his awful paintings.
In this and the following function, the preposition is more closely related to the preceding word, which determines its choice, than to the prepositional complement.

d. Complementation of an adjective

I am sorry for his parents.

e. Disjunct

He did, in all fairness, try to phone the police

f. Conjunct

On the other hand, he made no attempt to help the victim or apprehend her attacker.

2.3.2.2 Indonesian Prepositional Phrase

Alwi et.al (1998:291) proposed Prepositional phrase is a phrase containing a preposition and locative noun, for example:

\[
\text{Prep. Phrase} \\
\text{Prep} \quad \text{NP} \\
\quad \text{N1} \quad \text{N2} \\
(1) \quad di \quad atas \quad meja \\
(2) \quad dari \quad sekitar \quad kampus \quad (Alwi, 1998:292)
\]

In example (1) *di atas meja* the prepositional phrase (PP) comprises of preposition *di* followed by a noun phrase (NP) *atas meja* (noun/N1+noun/N2 *atas + meja*), while example (2) *dari sekitar kampus* the prepositional phrase
comprises of a preposition *dari* indicating direction to a location and a noun phrase *sekitar kampus* (N1+N2). If they are translated; the two prepositional phrases into English in isolation they are equivalent to: (1) *on the table* and (2) *from around the campus*. The prepositional phrase *di atas meja* is equivalent to ‘on the table’, *di atas* is translated into ‘on’. If it is translated literally it can have the equivalent as ‘on top of the table’. However, the second translation does not sound idiomatic in the TL; so the translator has to consider the differences in the system of the SL and the TL (Alwi, 1998:292)

On the other point of view, when we look example (1) *di atas meja*, it can be concluded that prepositional phrase (PP) comprises of preposition *di* followed by noun phrase (NP) *atas meja* (P+/N), while example (2) *dari sekitar kampus* the prepositional phrase comprises of a preposition *dari* indicating direction to a location and a noun phrase *sekitar kampus* (P+N). Here, *atas* and *sekitar* are not nouns, they are preposition which are placed after prepositions *di* and *dari*.

Alwi, et.al (1998:292) proposed that preposition indicates various meaning relationship of a constituent in front of the preposition and the following one. An Indonesian prepositional phrase comprises of a preposition and a noun phrase. A prepositional may be followed by a NP (N1+N2) in case the first noun indicates locative or sometimes only followed by N (1) as shown in the example below:


In the second example the PP *dari atas kapal* indicates the direction of the movement of the goods was unloaded from the ship (*dagangannya itu diturunkan*). In third example, the PP *ke dalam laci* indicates direction into a place, the subject of the sentence he/she places the key into the box (*Dia memasukkan kunci itu*).

Alwi, et.al (1998:292) stated that some Indonesian PPs can appear without N2 if the context of the sentence situation is clear, such:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{di depan} & \quad \text{ke depan} & \quad \text{dari depan} \\
\text{di muka} & \quad \text{ke muka} & \quad \text{dari muka} \\
\text{di pinggir} & \quad \text{ke pinggir} & \quad \text{dari pinggir} \\
\text{di samping} & \quad \text{ke samping} & \quad \text{dari samping} \\
\text{di sebelah} & \quad \text{ke sebelah} & \quad \text{dari sebelah} \\
\text{di tengah} & \quad \text{ke tengah} & \quad \text{dari tengah}
\end{align*}
\]

There are some PPs which prerequisite the occurrence of N2 after N1 as in the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{di antara ...} & \quad \text{ke antara ...} & \quad \text{dari antara ...} \\
\text{di balik ...} & \quad \text{ke balik ...} & \quad \text{dari balik ...} \\
\text{di dekat ...} & \quad \text{ke dekat ...} & \quad \text{(Alwi, et.al, 1998:293)}
\end{align*}
\]

Compare sentence 1 and 2 below:

1) *Polisi terlihat di antara pengunjuk rasa*

2) *Polisi terlihat di antara*

It is an exception for the PP *dari dekat* does not prerequisite the occurrence of N2 as shown in the following:
1) Kami menyaksikan peristiwa itu dari dekat rumah.


2.3.3 Translation Shifts

Catford (1965:73) proposed that “shifts” mean that departure from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL (source language) to the TL (target language). There are two major types of “shifts” occurring in translation process; level shift and category shift.

2.3.3.1 Level Shift

Level shift occurs when a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level. The translation between the level of phonology or morphology and either of these two levels is quite impossible. Examples of level shift are sometimes encountered in the translation of verbal aspects of Russian and English. Both these languages have an aspectual opposition – of very roughly the same - seen most clearly in the “past “or preterite sense: the opposition between Russian imperfective and perfective (e.g. pisal and napisal), and between English simple and continuous (wrote and writing) (Catford, 1965:73).

2.3.3.2 Category Shift

Catford (1965:75) stated that category shift is a generic term referring to the shifts involving any the four categories of classes. The classes of category shift are class, structure, intra-system, and unit shifts.
(1) Class Shift

Class shift occurs when the translation equivalent of a SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. The example of class shift can be observed in the translation of Ngps from English to French and vice versa. A medical student in English is translated into un étudiant en medicine. Here the translation equivalent of the adjective medical in English is noun medicine in French (Catford, 1965:78).

(2) Structure Shift

Structure shift occurs when there is a change in grammatical structure from SL into TL. The following English-Gaelic instance is an example of structure shift.

SL text = John Loves Mary = SPC
TL text = The gradh aig lain air Mairi = SPCA (Catford, 1965:77)

(3) Intra-system Shift

The intra-system shift occurs when translation involves selection of non-corresponding term in the corresponding TL system. So, there will be different contexts in accordance to both the target and the source languages. The example of intra-system shift is in the translation equivalent of English singular is French plural and vice versa, e.g.

SL (English) TL (French)
Advice des conseils
News des nouvelles
Lightning Des esclairs
Trousers  \textit{Le pantaloon}  (Catford, 1965:79)

(4) Unit Shift

Unit shifts occur when equivalent is established at a unit different form the unit to which source language items belongs. By unit shifts, we mean changes of rank departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit rank at one unit rank in source language is a unit at a different rank in target language. For example, the translation of English \textit{is the man in the boat} is translated into \textit{Am bheil an duine anns a ’bhata} in Gaelic. In this translation, there is the alteration from word \textit{is} in English into phrase \textit{am bheil} in Gaelic (Catford, 1965:79).

\textbf{2.3.4 Loss and Gain of Information}

Larson (1998:195) proposed that in translation there will be the problem of loss of some meaning components and gain of others – the problems of keeping balance between which components become implicit and which are made explicit.

Nida (1975:27) stated that the basic principles of translation mean that no translation in receptor language can be the exact equivalent of the model in source language. That is to say, all types of translation involve (1) loss of information, (2) gain of information, and/or (3) skewing of information. Nida (1975:24) proposed that there is a tendency for translators to overwork “good terms”. They find certain expressions which may be used in a wide range of situations an hence employ them as frequently as possible. The result is often marked rise of frequency, in contrast with normal usage, and the resultant loss in information.
because of their predictability within the context. In an analogous manner, translators often feel compelled to translate everything in the source language, to the point of employing corresponding expressions in the receptor language with unnatural frequency.

Margono (2000:3) proposed that translation is principally composed of three things: (1) science (part of comparative linguistics), (2) knowledge (about language and outside words) and (3) art (in using efficient and effective words). So translation involves knowledge, skill, background and personality of the translator, hence no two version of translation of the same text ever be the same.

Bell (1991:6) stated that to shift from one language to another is, by definition, to alter the forms. Further, the contrasting forms convey meaning which cannot but fail to coincide totally; there is no absolute synonym between words in the same language and lack of synonyms between languages. Something is always ‘lost’ (or might one suggest, ‘gained’) in the process and the translators can find themselves being accused of reproducing only parts of the original.

Margono (2000:8) mentioned some examples of loss and addition (gain) of information from English (source language) into Indonesian (target language) and vice versa. The examples as follows:

(a) Loss of Information

*She was ill* is translated into *Dia Sakit* (feminine gender and past tense are not translated).

*I’m broke* is translated into *Uang saya habis* (the colloquial style is not reflected).
Your watch is very sophisticated is translated into Jam tangan anda sangat canggih (ironical tone is not reflected).

Margono (2000:8) explained that loss of information can occur even in morpheme translation as is exemplified by translating she into dia. The meaning of she partly lies in its opposition to be he and it. In Indonesian dia is the third person singular system has no opposition on that level (because dia covers he and she, but it excludes it. In other words, English she has more meaning than the Indonesian dia because she contains the idea of female which is absent in the Indonesian dia, hence loss of information in translation.

(b) Addition (Gain) of Information

Dia sakit is translated into She was ill (feminine gender and past tense are added).

Uang saya habis is translated into I’m broke (the colloquial style is added)

Jam tangan saya sangat canggih is translated into Your watch is very sophisticated (ironical tone is added).

They live as an unmarried couple is translated into Mereka kumpul kebo (the colloquial style and unfavorable connotation are added).

Margono (2000:8) proposed that translation may not possible unless linguistically relevant information is added. If the necessary information is not inferable from the sentence or the larger unit, the information should be sought from outside language. If it is not possible, the translator has to make its own decision, with the hope that it does not contradict the message of the sentence.
2.3.5 Sentence Syntactic Structure

Radford (1988:50) mentioned that part of evidence for claiming that sentences have a syntactic structure in language comes from the native speaker’s institutions about the structure of sentences in his language. The structural institutions which native speakers have about the syntax of their language are of two types, namely (i) institutions about how sound-sequences in sentences are constructed into successively larger structural units which we call constituents; and (ii) institutions about whether particular sets of constituents (i.e. structural units) belong to the same category or not.

Radford (1997:86) stated that phrases and sentences are formed by successive merger operation, and that the resulting structures can be represented in the form of tree diagram. Because they mark the way that words are combined together to form phrase of various types, tree diagrams are referred to in the relevant jargon as phrase maker. Tree diagrams show us how the overall sentences are built up out of constituents of various types: hence, we might say that a tree diagram provides a visual representation of the constituent structure of the corresponding sentence.

Radford (1988:55) stated that sentences have a categorical constituent structure. There are a variety of different word-level categories and that words are grouped together to form phrase-level categories. Radford (1988:63) proposed that a word-level category is a set of words which share a common set of linguistic especially morphological and syntactical properties. Word-level categories can be identified as Noun (N), Verb (V), Adjective (A), Adverb (Adv),
Preposition (P), Modal (M), Determiner (D), etc. Radford (1988:64) stated that the major word-level categories can be expanded into the corresponding phrasal categories by the addition of other constituents. Phrase-level categories can be identified as Noun Phrases (NP), Verb Phrases (VP), Adjectival Phrases (AP), Adverbial Phrases (AdvP), and Prepositional Phrases (PP).

Sentences are not just unstructured sentences of sounds; they have a hierarchical constituent structure in which sounds are grouped together into words, words into phrases, and phrases into sentences. Each constituent (word or phrase) in a sentence belong to syntactic category (Radford, 1988:55). The categorical constituent structure of sentences can be represented in the form of a phrase-maker, in which the different nodes are labelled according to the category of the constituent they represent (Radford, 1988:109). Radford (1988:110) proposed that a phrase-marker is a graph comprising a set of points (or nodes, to use the appropriate technical terminology), connected by branches (represented by solid lines). The nodes at the (bottom) end of each complete tree-structure are called terminal-nodes; others nodes are nonterminal. Each node carries a label. Nonterminal nodes carry category labels (e.g. N, NP, V, VP, ADV, AdvP, etc.); terminal nodes are labelled with an appropriate lexical item (=word). Radford (1988:52) claimed that we can represent the categorical constituent structure of sentence (1) *This boy must seem incredibly stupid to that girls* of the labelled tree diagram below:
Radford (1988:53) proposed that a diagram such as in above provides a visual representation of the *categorical structure* of sentence (1). Equivalently, we might say that since diagram (1) shows us how sentence (1) is structured out of its constituent phrases, and how each of the phrases is structured out of its compound words, diagram (1) provides a visual representation of the *Phrase Structure* of sentence (1). Hence, the type of labelled tree diagram used in diagram (3) is referred to as a *Phrase-marker* (P-marker), because it marks the hierarchical grouping of words into phrases, and phrases into sentences.

### 2.4 Research Model

In order to make the analysis of translation shifts in the translation of English prepositional phrases with prepositions *around, over, through,* and
towards into Indonesian is easier to be conducted, a research model as reference for the study is required. The research model of the study is formulated as follows:

### Problems of the Study

1. What types of translation shifts are applied in the translation of English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian?

2. What impacts of translation shifts occurred in translating English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian?

### Theoretical Frameworks

2. Translation shift proposed by Catford (1965).
5. Loss and Gain of Information proposed by Nida (1975).

### Research Approach (Qualitative Approach)

### Analysis

### Findings
The data for the analysis were taken from bilingual novels; one in English as source language text and the other is in Indonesian as target language text. The title of the English novel is *Harry Potter and Half Blood Prince*, and the title of the Indonesian version is *Harry Potter dan Pangeran berdarah Campuran*. The problems of the study were formulated into two problems occupying types of shifts applied in the translation of English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian and the impacts of shifts occurred in translating English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian.

The research was performed qualitatively in order to find out type of shifts applied within the translation of English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian and the impacts of shifts occurred within translating English locative prepositional phrases into Indonesian.

The analysis was conducted based on theories concerning translation proposed by Larson (1998), translation shifts proposed by Catford (1965), sentence syntactic structure proposed by Radford (1988), English prepositional phrase proposed by Quirk, et.al (1980), Indonesian prepositional phrase by Alwi, et.al (1998) and loss and gain of information proposed by Nida (1975). Within the frame of the theories, the analysis was carried out to find out the answers to the problems of the study.