CHAPTER SIX

THE TRANSLATION OF HORTATORY DISCOURSES

6.1. The Hortatory Discourse Revisited

It was stated in Chapter Three that the purpose of a hortatory discourse is to exhort, or propose or suggest (see Chapter Three, p. 43). Hortatory discourse has as its constituents a set of proposed or obligatory injunctions, which are logically related to each other. The injunctions can be expressed as proposed actions, behaviour, etc. plus supporting reasons, or purposes supporting the proposed actions.

The proposed actions form the backbone of hortatory discourse. Some elements in the backbone may be more prominent than others. While in some languages such prominence may not be marked syntactically, it is usually syntactically marked in Indonesian discourse by means of particles (See Chapter Four, pp. 67-9).

As has been stated in Chapter Three, the agent orientation characteristic of this text type is the second person 'you'. Hence proposed actions can be realized in the clauses as direct commands such as 'Listen to my advice', 'Don't (you) ever listen to...', etc. When the exhortation is indirect, it can take the form of an appeal or urging. In urging, we can use different modal verbs of obligation, which, in English, can be expressed as 'should', 'need to be', 'must', 'ought to'.

These different modal verbs in fact represent a scale (the modal 'ought to', which is absent in Figure 6.1. below, is considered to be similar to 'should' at the same point on the scale (Quirk et al, 1972:102)).

Since hortatory discourse is orientated to the second person, the modal verbs used normally take the imperative mood. As can be seen in the Figure, the degrees of obligation imply different meanings.

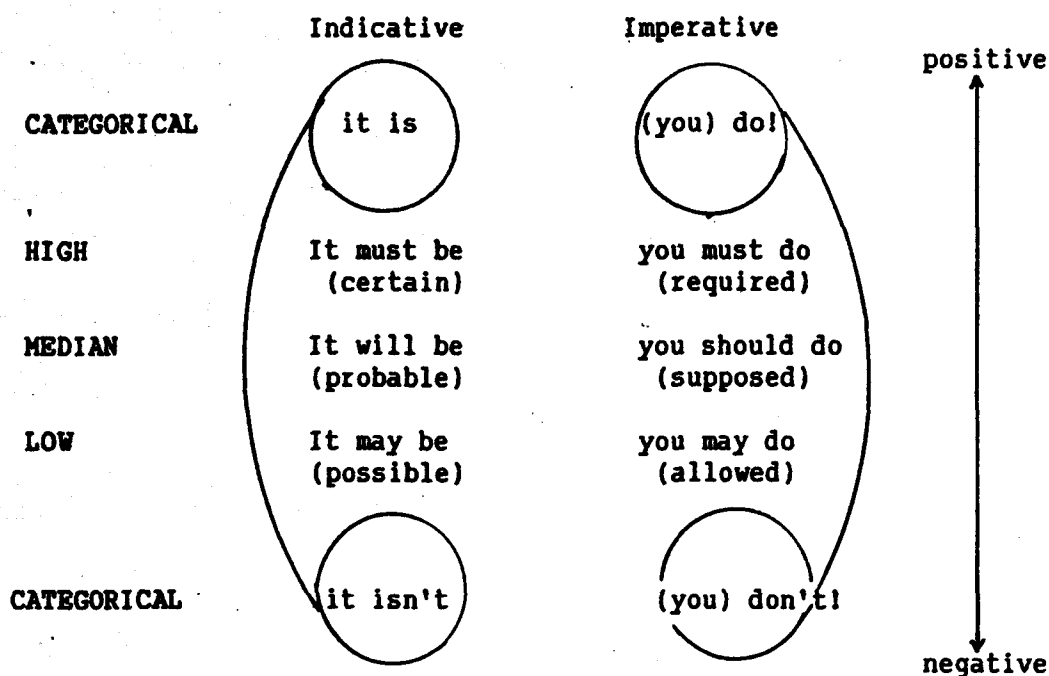|	Indicative	Imperative	
CATEGORICAL	it is	(you) do!	positive
HIGH	It must be (certain)	you must do (required)	
MEDIAN	It will be (probable)	you should do (supposed)	
LOW	It may be (possible)	you may do (allowed)	
CATEGORICAL	it isn't	(you) don't!	negative

Figure 6.1. The Degrees of English
Modals

(From Halliday, 1982:148)

While the modals of obligation in English are overdifferentiated, they are not so in BI. All of the above modals of obligation can be expressed as harus in BI. But the strength of obligation implied in the Indonesian word above can be softened through the use of /-LAH/[1], and thus, at the same time, disguises the command. The disguising of commands in Indonesian hortatory discourse can usually be accompanied by the use of the pronouns 'we', 'us', to engender a feeling of group solidarity (see SLT C in this Chapter).

The same sense of solidarity (i.e. with the pronouns 'we', etc.) can be achieved in English with first person pronouns. In this case, the

pronouns 'we', 'us', and 'our' imply that 'you' (the reader) and 'I' (the writer/speaker) are of one mind (Peters, 1987:53).

Apart from the use of modals for urging (and engenderment of group solidarity) in hortatory discourse, we have also seen that they (i.e. the modals) were used in procedural discourse to disguise commands. As well, some of these commands were given the marker /-LAH/ to make them less abrupt. However, although the same marker (i.e. /-LAH/) is also used in hortatory discourse, its placement and meaning are different: (i) It is predominantly with the verbs in the procedural discourse, but with words of urging in hortatory discourse. (ii) It is to soften the commands when attached to imperative verbs, and as a marker in the words of urging.

So the proposed action behaviour in a hortatory text can be foregrounded by the addition of /-LAH/ to the verbs or any part(s) of the verbal group. AS well, when this marker is attached to a proposed action, it introduces a note of suggestion rather than a command, and modifies the command so that it becomes a request (McDonald and Dardjowidjojo, 1967; Slametmuljana, 1969).

A translator has to be sensitive to how hortatory text is realized in the lexicogrammar of BI and English to ensure a successful translation equivalent. However, as was indicated in Chapter Five, translators do react differently towards an SLT. Although the subjects of this research were given the same explanation about the sources and circumstances of the SLT, they diverge in their ways of tackling the task of reexpressing the meaning of the SLT (see Appendix VI for the general instructions given to the translators for each of the translation exercises). In the following, we will examine two hortatory discourses and their TL versions, and see whether the translators see SLTs differently as they did in Chapter Five.

6.2. An Indirect Hortatory Discourse

SL Text C

1). Tidak satupun kelompok kekuatan Pancasilais
    not   one-PUN group   force Pancasilaist

   yang dapat menganggap dirinyalah   yang
   that can NG-consider self-def-LAH that

   mengantar   tampilnya   Orde Baru
   NG-introduce appearance-def Order New

2). Orde Baru pertama-tama diantar   oleh
   Order New   firstly DI-introduce by

   segenap pahlawan revolusi   yang gugur karena
    all   hero   revolution who fall because

   mempertahankan Pancasila
   NG-defend-KAN Pancasila

3). dan kemudian dilanjutkan   oleh kekuatan-kekuatan
    and then   DI-continue-KAN by   force   force

   Pancasilais yang ditinggalkan
   Pancasialist who DI-leave behind-KAN

4). Untuk itu, seharusnyalah didalam peringatan
    for this ought to be-LAH in   commemoration

   Tritura ini, kita   pertama-tama harus
   Tritura this we(inclusive) firstly   must

   menundukkan kepala kepada para   pahlawan
   NG-bow-KAN head   to   (plural) hero

   revolusi   itu
   revolution that

5). Dengan demikian kita akan sadar   bahwa kita semua
    by   so   we   will (be)aware that we   all

   yang masih hidup ini tidak akan menepuk dada
   who still live this not   will NG-beat breast

6). Sebaliknya   kita akan menjadi sadar bahwa apa
    on the contrary we   will become aware that what

   yang kita lakukan bukanlah apa-apa dibandingkan
   which we   do-KAN not -LAH   thing DI-compare-KAN

   dengan pengorbanan mereka
    with   sacrifice   their

7). Untuk itulah, peringatan   Tritura semacam ini
    for this-LAH commemoration Tritura   sort this
                          '
    memang perlu dilakukan
    indeed need DI-do-KAN

8). karena justru sangat penting bagi kita semua
    because exactly very important for us   all

    untuk merenungkan   apa yang masih harus
    for   NG-reflect-KAN what which still must

    kita abdikan pada negara dan bangsa selanjutnya
    we serve-KAN to country and nation   next

9). Oleh karenanya memperingati   Tritura dengan
    because of it NG-commemorate-I Tritura by

    mencoba memberikan penilaian   yang terlalu
    NG-try NG-give-KAN appreciation which too

    tinggi pada apa yang telah   kita lakukan
    high   on what which already we   do-KAN

    masing-masing haruslah kita hindari
    each   each   must-LAH we   avoid

10). Tritura perlu kita peringati,   justru untuk
     Tritura need we   commemorate-I exactly for

     menyegarkan   terus   semangat Orde Baru
     NG-refresh-KAN continuous spirit Order New

                    (Address by the Indonesian Army Commander-
                     in-chief, Benny Moerdani, 10-1-'87)

Notes:

1. The above English words are only meant as glosses.
2. /-PUN/ indicates a contrastive stress. /-LAH/ is
   explained below.
3. /NG-/ clauses indicate backgrounding and is imper-
   fective in aspect; /DI-/ clauses indicate fore-
   grounding and is perfective in aspect.
4. /-KAN/ and /-i/ indicate a tie with an object
   position, but not necessarily benefactive.
5. def. means "definite marker".

    The text constitutes a part of a formal address by the Indonesian army

commander-in-chief   to   the   nation   concerning who or which   of   the

'Pancasilaist' forces actually brought the New Order into existence.[2] It

is an appeal to the nation and to any of the Pancasilaist forces not to

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consider himself or themselves as the sole introducer of the New Order. This constitutes the first injunction (of five) in the text (sentence (1)).

Although there is no explicit indication as to how many groups of Pancasilaists there are, we can assume that there are, at least, two 'camps': those who claim to be the sole introducers of the New Order and those who do not. It seems that it is the latter group who make an appeal to the former. That such an appeal is addressed to both (or all) groups is indicated by the pronoun kita '(inclusive) we' in (4) to (6), and in (9) to (10). The appeal is explicitly inclusive (had it been exclusive, kami '(exclusive) we' would have been used instead).

The speaker uses historical facts to back up his first injunction, expressed in sentences (2) and (3). As author of the appeal, he not only attempts to provide support for the statement in (1), but to give authentic evidence as well. This also shows that the (political) matter concerned is relatively delicate, so that authentic back-up is needed. Since the corroborating events have actually occurred before the making of the appeal, the sentences realizing the historical evidential assertions are given in the perfective /DI-/ clauses. (See Rafferty, 1983; Purwo, 1985).

The second injunction follows the historical evidence, realized in a sentence with the modal of obligation harus 'must' in (4). The sentence begins with a modal adjunct seharusnya 'as it ought to be' which expresses the persuader's judgement regarding the relevance of the message in (4) to that of the facts expressed in (2) and (3) (see Samsuri, 1978:245). This adjunct is focally marked with /-LAH/ to indicate its focal prominence in the text besides its function as the persuader's expression of judgement.

But apart from the focus with the particle /-LAH/, certain words also carry interpersonal meaning, such as the use of certain emotionally-loaded

words menepuk dada 'beat one's breast', menundukkan kepala 'bow one's head', and bukan apa-apa 'nothing'.

The sentence following (5) expresses a disguised obligation, where the pronoun kita '(inclusive) we' is used. In fact the pronoun is used in most of the text to indicate the feeling of solidarity between the persuader (speaker and/or writer) and the addressee. Such establishment of solidarity seems to be used quite extensively, rather than commands which we might expect from an army general.

The second injunction is followed by reasons or supports expressed in (5) and (6). These supports also become the background for a third injunction in (7). The focal marker attached to the topic unit of this injunction is to add the suggestion of an implicit emphasis that the injunction is motivated by the reasons given in the previous clauses (i.e. (5) and (6)). The injunction is further supported by the reason in (8).

The fourth injunction, which urges the audience not to give individual credit to themselves, is presented in (9). This is followed by a conclusion in (10), which echoes to the injunction in (1) through the lexical repetition of Orde Baru 'New Order'.

All through the text there are certain patterns of cohesion relating the injunctions with one another. If we can think of each of the above injunctions and its supporting reasons as forming one so-called semantic unit, we can see that each semantic unit comprises its own information package. Each package is related to each other in exactly the same way, through emphatic causal relations[3] marked by untuk itu(lah) 'for this', or by oleh karenanya 'because of this'.

The first information package[4] starts with (1), where tidak satupun..... Pancasilais is the topic of the clause and the rest is the comment. The lexical item Orde Baru, which is in the comment of (1), is taken as the explicit topic in (2) and the (elided) topic (3). When the

topic presents old information, it can be deleted, as in (3). Hence (2) and (3) are related not only through conjunctive relations (e.g. with dan 'and' in (2)), but also through the ellipsis.

The second information package is related to the first through the causal device untuk itu 'for this (reason)'. Following that device and bounded by the comma in (4), is the topic of the clause, which is new (in the text) but shared (in the exophoric context). However, the lexical item para pahlawan 'the heroes' in the comment unit refers back to that in the comment unit of (2), and thus provides lexical cohesion. The information in (4) is related to that in (5) through causal relation with dengan demikian 'so/therefore', and that in (5) is related to (6) through adversative relationship with sebaliknya 'on the contrary'.

The third information package is related to the second in the same way as the second to the first. However, since the anaphoric itu 'that' in this sentence (i.e. (7)) is used the second time (the first use is in (4)), it is given the emphatic marker with /-LAH/. Sentence (8) is related to (7) through a simple causal relation with karena 'because'.

The fourth information package constitutes the summing up and closing of the text which is related to the third package through the causal relator oleh karenanya 'because of it'.[5] The topic of the sentence is the whole rank-shifted clause of memperingati..... masing-masing, which sums up the whole of the previous discussion. Since the topic is long, the comment, which contains the focus of information, can be lost. Therefore, 'in this sentence, the focus is marked with the particle /-LAH/, which marks the focus of the proposed action.

Since the burden of the summing up has been expressed in (9), the job of closing the text in (10) is relatively easy. The foregrounded clause with zero passive (a variant of /DI-/ clause)[6] is the topic of (10), which

is also shown in the local prominence of the second and third information packages.

In the following we will examine certain TL versions and observe how the above discourse strands are realized (in English).

6.2.1. The TL Versions

TL Text 1

> (1) Not one of the Pancasilaist forces can consider itself as the sole agent who has brought the New order into existence. (2) The New Order was firstly introduced by the heroes of revolution who fell for defending Pancasila. (3) And then it was followed up by the living Pancasilaist forces. (4) For this, and as it ought to be in this commemoration of Tritura, we firstly have to bow our head to the heroes of the revolution. (5) Thus we will be aware that, we who still live, will not beat our breast. (6) On the contrary, we will be aware that what we have done is really nothing compared to their sacrifice. (7) It is because of this that such commemoration needs to be done. (8) so that we can reflect on what to do for the country and nation. (9) Therefore commemorating Tritura by trying to appreciate too highly of what each of us has done should really be avoided. (10) Tritura needs to be commemorated precisely for renewing the spirit of the New Order.

Since the SLT is loaded with Indonesian (political) concepts pertinent to the country, some words are untranslatable and are simply 'transferred' to the TL version. An example of this is Pancasila 'the Five Principles', which is a term pertinent to the political system of the country and cannot be replaced with any other lexical item carrying a concept from an entirely different political system such as English. So such transference is unavoidable in the TL version. What we term 'normal translation' should allow local (SL) flavour such as this.

Apart from this direct lexical meaning transfer of concepts, the translated version generally succeeds in perceiving the purpose underlying

the SL text; it remains an inducement. However, certain shifts have occurred: (a) Shifts of explicitness related to co-reference; (b) Shifts of focal expression; (c) Shifts of usage; (d) Shifts of lexical density and grammatical intricacy.

The shift of explicitness affects pronominal anaphoricity. It lexicalizes an elided element -- one which is deleted (as Given) in the SL version and makes it explicit. This change in explicitness does not seriously affect the cohesion and coherence of TLT 1.

In this case, the shift is obligatory, since in a sentence such as (3) a subject must be expressed in English. Another obligatory shift in TLT 1 is a shift in expressing focus. The absence of focal and emphatic particles in English obliges the translator to compensate for such markers with other expressions. The focal item with /-LAH/ in (1) is expressed using the reflexive with 'self' and an emphatic lexical combination 'sole agent'. When the focal marker is attached to a topic, as in (4) and (7), the focalised item is expressed in the TLT as a clause: as a subordinate clause in (4) and as a main clause with the dummy subject 'it' in (7). When the focal marker is attached to (parts of) the verbs, the emphatic adverb 'really' has been used.

Another obligatory shift in the TL version is one related to usage, concerned with sentence (5). The neutral rank-shifted clause of kita yang masih hidup ini 'we who still live' in a cataphoric way becomes archaic when the same expression is used in English [6]. Hence a shift of usage (in the English intrasystem) has occurred.

Apart from the above shifts, there are shifts related to grammatical complexity. Sentences (1), (3), and (8) of TLT 1 are grammatically less complex compared to those in the SL version, e.g. one of the rank-shifted clauses in (1) is deleted and a grammatical regrouping is carried out. In (7), the redundancy created by the repetition of the word Tritura and the

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intensifier _memang_ 'indeed' in the SL version are deleted in the translation. The TL version expresses such intensification in the topic of 'It is because of this' in (7). Changes in the grammatical complexity also affect cohesion. An example of this is sentence (3), in which the complex nominal of **Kekuatan-kekuatan Pancasilais yang ditinggalkan** 'the Pancasilaist forces left behind (by the dead)' is simply expressed as 'the living Pancasilaist forces'. Here structure shifts: from a subordinate clause in the SL into an adjective in the TL. Interestingly enough, this adjective is a lexicalization of implied meaning (bracketed above), which provides an overt lexical cohesion with 'the living' in the previous clause.

Although translation shifts have occurred in the TLT, they do not affect the injunctions enough to cause generic mismatch. Therefore, TLT 1 can be considered as satisfactorily equivalent to its SL version, with a minimum of optional shifts. However, there are TL versions in which rather more optional shifts occur. The following provides examples.

TL Text 2

(1) Not even one of the Pancasilaist groups can think that they are the ones who have brought about the New Order. (2)Firstly, the New Order was introduced by the heroes who fell for defending the Pancasila, the national ideology(3) Then it was continued on by the existing Pancasilaist groups. (4) Therefore, as it ought to be in this commemoration of Tritura, the people's demands for the New Order, we should bow our head to honour these heroes. (5) So we, the living, will not beat our breast (6) and we will be aware that what we have done is actually nothing when we compare it with the sacrifice. (7) It is for this reason that we need to hold the commemoration (8) so we can reflect on what we can do for the country. (9) Thus commemorating Tritura by appreciating too highly on what each of us has done should be avoided. (10) It needs to be done for the reason of refreshing the spirit of the New Order.

Comparing TL texts 1 and 2 we can see that, in addition to obligatory shifts, a number of optional shifts have occurred in the second TL version. The first noticeable shifts are those concerned with organizational meaning (or textual meaning in Halliday's terms (1976)): (a) sentences (2) and (3) have been made into a more overt temporal succession than in the original; (b) sentence (4) is causally related to the previous sentence(s) through the conjunction 'therefore'.(rather than through co-reference as in the SL text); (c) sentence (6) is related to the previous ones through an additive relation (which is adversative in the SL version); (d) the use of the conclusive conjunction with 'thus', rather than a causal relation as in the original version (although 'cause' .and 'consequence' are actually complementary).

Apart from these, certain optional shifts related to focal prominence have also occurred: the marked focus in (9) is not compensated for (unlike the attempt to compensate for a similar phenomenon in (6) where the adverb 'actually' is used for /-LAH/). The unmarked clausal topicality in (2) of the original has become marked in the TL.

Shifts of grammatical structures have also occurred: (a) the embedded clause of ...yang ditinggalkan 'who are left (behind)' is expressed as a noun group of 'the existing' (which is also the case sentence (5)); (b) the verbal expression dibandingkan 'compared' in (6) is expressed as a subordinate clause in the translation; (c) Like TLT 1, the focalized emphatic conjunctive is expressed as a clause with the dummy 'it' in TLT 2; (d) the complex sentence (8) with two embedded clauses is expressed with a simple sentence in the translation; (e) the long topic of (9) is expressed in a less complex way in the TL version.

On examining the shifts that occur in TLT 2, we can see that they do not affect the injunctions as the backbone of the discourse, the generic

identity of the text. But when such shifts affect proposed action(s), i.e. the backbone of the discourse, the status of translation equivalence is affected, as in TLT 3, in the following.

TL Text 3

(1) There is no one group of Pancasilaist forces who can assume that they themselves have brought the New Order into existence. (2) Firstly the New Order was brought about by all of the heroes of the revolution who fell for the defence of Pancasila. (3) Then Pancasila was continued by the Pancasilaist groups that have been left behind. (4) Therefore, in the commemoration of Tritura we must bow our head to these heroes. (5) Furthermore, we will be aware that all of us who still live must not beat our breast. (6) Instead, we will become aware that we have done nothing compared to their sacrifice. (7) So the commemoration of Tritura is important for us. (8) because all of us will then rethink of what else to do in service for the country and the nation. (9) Therefore a commemoration which tries to give very high appreciation to what each of us has done must be avoided. (10) We need to commemorate Tritura to keep the spirit of the New Order.

A general reading of TLT 3 shows that the translator has not made attempts to compensate for the focalised elements in (4), (6), (7), and (9). These sentences are expressed in TLT 3 through unmarked modulated statements. As a result, a shift of interpersonal meaning has occurred in relation to such marking. The shift is one concerned with the fourth injunction. It has been indicated at the beginning of this chapter that when the particle /-LAH/ is used in the context of hortatory discourse it indicates an urging or appeal. As an appeal, the modal harus in the SL should be translated as an advisable 'ought to' rather than the obligatory 'must' as in the translated version. If we look at Figure 6.1. (pp. 102), we can see that 'must' is both imperative and is high in intensity in English. As such, it implies a 'requirement' rather than a suggestion or an urging. If we relate the fact that the address is from an Indonesian Army

general and the use of 'must' to mean 'requirement', the content of the urging can be mistakenly understood as something that must be fulfilled (which is not the case in the SLT).

In fact both the obligation with 'must' and the advisable with 'ought to' can be expressed as harus in BI (Woyowasito, 1976). The translation of the modal harus into either of these expressions should be done by reference to the text type and the purpose of the text. By using the modal 'must', the translator of TLT 3 has failed to make such reference.

Apart from the shifts of interpersonal meaning such as those above, there is another (optional) shift related to grammatical relations and cohesion. The use of the conjunction 'furthermore' as an emphatic additive in (5) constitutes a shift from the causal relation of the SLT to one of additive relation.

Another cohesive shift in TLT 3 affects both coherence and referential meaning. In sentence (3), the translator lexicalizes the deleted subject 'the New Order' using a wrong reference: Pancasila. As such, the message in (3) does not cohere with that in (2), and a shift of referential meaning has also occurred. Such an error in lexicalizing is probably explainable in terms of the viewing of (2) and (3) as contingent temporal succession rather than as historical exposition of facts. Hence it is a failure to comprehend the underlying purpose of (2) and (3) which has caused the translator to express the elided subject wrongly.

Despite these circumstances, the global prominence of the original text is preserved in the translation: it remains a hortatory discourse. It can, therefore, still be considered a translation equivalent, but with localized shift of interpersonal meaning.

It is a different issue altogether when the translator deliberately modifies the identity of the text. Here we do not talk of translation

equivalence, in the sense of how equivalent a TLT is to its SLT. Rather, we deal with, the question of whether or not the TLT can be accepted as a translation equivalence. This is examined below.

TL Text 4

(1) None of the Pancasilaist groups can make an assumption that they are the only ones who have brought the 'New Order' into existence. (2) The New Order was firstly introduced by the the heroes of the revolution who fell for defence of the Pancasila, the country's ideology. (3) Then it is followed up by the living Pancasilaist forces. (4) Therefore it is only proper to bow one's head to honor these heroes in the commemoration of Tritura. (5) By doing so, the living will not beat his breast (6) since what he has done is nothing compared to what has been done by the dead. (7) It is because of this that the commemoration of Tritura (public demands which cause the New Order to materialize) is important (8) so one can think of what to do for the nation (rather than for himself) (9) And one should avoid a commemoration which tries to give an over-appreciation to oneself (10) It needs to be commemorated for the reason of keeping the spirit of the New Order.

The translator of TLT 4 has deliberately cast the material as if it is an exposition of facts (sentences (2) and (3)) and exposition of values (sentences (1), and (4) to (6)). It could very well be that the translator wanted to express the appeal in a neutral way to avoid involving the speaker (writer). The resultant TLT has shifted generically, and become what is called a 'moral-persuasive exposition' (Martin and Peters, in Hasan (ed.), 1983:86).

At this point it is important to ask: Is it justifiable to shift the text type when no ambiguity is involved, and therefore, no pragmatic adaptation and decision making necessary? (cf. SLT B of Chapter Five, in which generic ambivalence occurs). In normal translation activity we assume that a translator should not change a text type (see Chapter One, p. 12). Thus, in terms of the normal practice of translation, TLT 4 is not

equivalent to SLT 4 because it does not render the purpose of the writer underlying SLT 4 appropriately.

This does not mean that TLT 4 is NOT a translation of SLT C. To the extent of 'rendering the referential meaning of the lexical items', it IS a translation. However, it is only a partial translation in that not all meaning embodied in the SLT is represented in TLT. Therefore, TLT 4 cannot be considered a translation equivalent (with (total) normal translation), due to its generic shift. If at all, it is more a referential rendering than a translation equivalent.

In this thesis, referential rendering should not be seen as a case of normal translation, since not all meaning embodied in the SLT is expressed in the TLT. Rather, it is considered a case of 'adaptive translation', which can be done for a very specific reason.

Yet, with its generic shift, TLT 4 is an interesting case. The translator added explanatory material to make the textual information more explicit than it is in the SLT (as shown by the underlined phrases in sentences (2) and (7)). The translator has built into the text the information which is not shared by the members of the TL culture, i.e. the possible readers of the TLT (referred to as a case of 'explicitation' by Blum-Kulka (1986)). Concepts such as 'Pancasila' (the country's ideology) and 'Tritura' (the public demands for the New Order) are pertinent to the Indonesian political system.

However not all translators respond to the need to make information explicit for the TL readers; only three of the ten do (in addition to TLT 4, other texts, in which such information explicitness occurs are TLTs IV and VII in Appendix II-A). In fact, not only do these three translators vary in their translation, but all ten do, as shown in the following.

6.2.2. Translation Variation Across the Ten TL Versions

On looking back at the four TL texts above, we can say in general terms that: (a) TLT 1 is more an attempt at formal correspondence to the SLT, where the particle /-LAH/ is compensated for (e.g. with advice such as 'as it ought to be'); (b) TLT 2 realizes the urging with modals such as 'should', leaving the particle uncompensated for. As well, some sentences have reduced numbers of clauses; (c) TLT 3, due to the non-compensation of the particle, has taken a literal translation of the word _harus_ 'must', and imposes a stronger obligation than the SLT through 'must'; (4) TLT 4 shifts generically, from an indirect hortatory text to an expository text of morality and values, as well as adding more explicit information than in the original version.

The other six translators can be generally identified and described in terms of the description of the above four TLTs, as can be seen in Table 6.2. below. In this Table we concentrate on the translation of sentences containing the injunctions.

/-Translated-as	Effect	TLT
A.'should', 'need to to be..', 'ought to be ...'	advising (with we orientation)	1,2,IV,V,VII
B.Value imposing (as in 'it is proper to...')	expounding	4,X,VIII(but localized)
C.'must'	obligation (with we orientation)	3,VI

Total TL texts : 10
(Texts from Appendix II-A are in Roman numerals)

Table 6.2. Variation in the Translation of the
Sentences Containing Injunctions

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It can be seen from the Table that the versions using modals such as 'should' can still be perceived as exhortations when 'we' pronouns are used. This is also the case when the urging is translated into sentences with 'must', which makes the urging an obligation. The presence of the pronoun 'we' with the obligation still makes the sentence sound like less direct urging. However, when the indirect urging is translated as an imposition of values orientated towards the third person, there is a shift of text type and of purpose.

It is interesting to note (Table 6.2.) that those who have shifted the text type (i.e. type B) are two Australian residents (plus one of the Indonesian translators). As indicated before, these Australian residents are those who have more control of the English language than the Indonesian student translators, and seem to be more ready to make (optional) shifts.

On talking with the two Australian residents about the optional shift (of text type) which they made, they said that the main reason for doing so was because the original text was indirect. As shown before, the indirectness in hortatory discourse was through the obligation with harus 'must' and the particle /-LAH/, together forming an expression of urging. According to them, the absence of such a particle in English could result in being translated as a simple obligation. In order not to create such obligation in the TLT, the translators had considered it better to refashion the indirectness as impersonalization (which ended up in the text's being an expository text in TLT 4).

The shift of text type shown by the two translators just mentioned resulted from the SLT being indirect. It was therefore interesting to see whether such a shift could occur in the translation of direct hortatory text, such as the following.

6.3. The Direct Hortatory Discourse

SL Text D

1). Bagaimanakah sikap   kita, pemuda, yang
       how-KAH attitude our   youth   which

    paling baik?
     most   good

2). Yang paling baik itu saya kira   yang sederhana
    which most   good that I   think which simple

3). tapi yang jelas . mencerminkan   pribadi
    but which clearly NG-reflect-KAN personality

    yang   sehat
    which healthy

4). Saya tak mau bicara secara lembaga,   secara
    I   not want talk   manner institution manner

    formal
    formal

5). Saya hanya mau berkata
    I   only want BER-say

6). Setiap diri   pemuda, mari kita mawas   diri
    every person youth   let's   criticism self

7). Mari kita koreksi diri
    let's   correct self

8). dan ambil alternatif   diri   yang   baik
    and take   alternative person which good

9). Mari kita mulai dari rumah
    let's   start from home

10). Hendaklah   di rumah, seorang pemuda tahu
    will/want-LAH at home   classif. youth recognize

    disiplin keluarga
    discipline family

11). harus tahu   tanggung jawab dirinya pada
    must/ought to responsibility self-nya to

    keluarga
    family

12). Kalau maksimal dia   tidak bisa berbuat
    if   maximal he/she not   can   BER-do

ikut   membangun sebuah keluarga yang
participate NG-build classif. family which

baik di rumahnya
good in house-his

13). minimal jadilah   dia   seorang anggota
minimal become-LAH he/she classif. member

keluarga yang baik
family   who   good

14). Tanpa harus jadi   bencana atau bibit
without must become disaster or   future/seed

penyakit bagi keluarganya   di rumah
distress   for family-his/her at home   .

(continued with other exhortations outside of the
home)

(From Himpunan Pikiran Pelajar,
Jakarta: Gedung Joang '45,1976)

<u>Notes</u>:
The meaning of the affixes can be inferred from the
previous SLT (p. 102).

As explained in Chapter Two, this text is taken from a national
collection of exhortations by young people to their contemporaries,
published in connection with the commemoration of Independence Day. The
collection contains hortatory discourses by selected teenagers from all
over Indonesia, with themes such as heroism, patriotism, justice, etc.

From the beginning, the exhortations in SLT D are explicitly meant as
appeals from the young writer to his contemporaries. The appeal is for <u>kita</u>
'(inclusive) we'. Another explicit intention is indicated in (4), where the
writer says that he does not want to be formal in his appeal.

That it is an appeal for group solidarity is clear from the use of the
hortative sentences with <u>mari kita</u> 'let's' as distinct from <u>biar kita</u> 'let
us', which, in English, can both be expressed using the same
lexicogrammatical expression with 'let' (see Purwo, 1984:187). Unlike

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SLT C, the exhortations in SLT D are more direct. Probably the indirectness in SLT C is caused by the fact that the topic of its appeal is a delicate, controversial political matter. In contrast, SLT D is a non-institutionalized appeal, as indicated in sentence (4). Apart from this, the writer also makes a personal assumption in (2) that the best appeal for youth is one which is simple. It is very likely that by working with this assumption he places himself comfortably among his fellows, and exhorts them directly rather than with a more subtle inducement.

However, although there are many direct exhortations in the text, the text is not entirely direct. Sentences (10) to (14) are expressed using 'he' orientation, which is a characteristic of an expository text (see Chapter Three, p. 36). The writer seems to use expounding as a way of expressing a model of good behaviour (Longacre, 1983:9).

As such, SLT D is a hybrid, but the exposition embodied in sentences (10) to (14) is subsidiary in the overall hortatory text. While in the (direct) exhortations the writer includes himself as the participant in the text through the use of the pronoun <u>kita</u> 'inclusive we' to refer to both himself and his audience, in the exposition the writer places himself in the position of an observer, through the use of <u>dia</u> 'he'. But even with 'he' orientation, sentences (10) to (14) remain an expression of exhortation: the presence of /-LAH/ with the verb or its part(s) indicate an urging (as discussed in Chapters Four and Five).

Apart from the special interpersonal expression involving <u>kita</u> and <u>dia</u>, the text has another feature: it is structured around the rhetorical question set out in (1). It seems that the rhetorical question is an attempt to establish 'shared concern' and 'one-ness of mind'. But in (2) and (3) the writer actually provides his own answer to the question. These three sentences all constitute introductory exhortations, in the sense of inspiring the readers about what his appeal is going to be about.

This introduction is followed by some kind of orienting material (sentences (4) and (5)) which take the reader to the direct exhortations in (6) to (9). The one in (9) specifies the setting (i.e. at home) for the exhortations following it, to which further details are added. The exhortations following the specified setting are less direct, with change of agent orientation mentioned above (sentences (10) to (14)).

With the special agent orientation, (10) to (13) can be grouped into one injunction, with (14) as a goal. The first exhortation in this group starts with the focalized modal <u>hendaklah</u> 'it is hoped', as an urging to do whatever is expressed after such focalized item (See pp. 69, Chapter Four). Such an urging is followed by a sentence with the modal of obligation <u>harus</u> in (11). The urging here is elaborated further through condition and consequence sentences in (12) and (13). Sentence (14) is related to (13) through an implicit causal relation. And the lexical item <u>di rumah</u> 'at home' in (14) connects with the setting specified in (10).

Having examined the discourse features above, we will examine certain TL versions, in the following.

6.3.1. <u>The TL Versions</u>

TL Text 5

(1) What kind of attitude is best for us, the youth? (2). The best is, I think, one which is simple (3) but clearly reflects a healthy personality. (4) I don't want to discuss it in an institutionalized, formal way. (5) I only would like to say (6) to any individual youth, let's have a self criticism. (7) Let's have a self-correction. (8) and let's take a good alternative of ourselves. (9) Let's start from the home. (10) It is hoped that at home, a youth recognizes the rules of the family; (11) he ought to know his responsibility to his family and his parents. (12) If, maximally, he cannot do much for establishing a good family in his home, (13) minimally, he ought to become a good family member, (14) without having to become a disaster or future trouble for his family at home.

On examining TLT 5 we can see that the translator has attempted to achieve formal correspondence in his translation. Although certain obligatory shifts have been made, the TLT still sounds awkward, due to the formal correspondence and the change of agent orientation.

As was the case with the translation of SLT C, there are shifts involving the style of urging (sentence (13)). The use of the particle /-LAH/ in SLT D here results in a weakened command.[7] As such, it can only properly be translated as advice with 'ought to'. As shown in Figure 6.1., unlike BI, English obligation can be expressed in various degrees and kinds with different modal verbs.

To recall from the discussion of TLT 3 in this chapter, the Indonesian modal _harus_ is neutral in terms of strength, which is not so with English. It was also shown that when _haruslah,_ which is an urging, was translated into 'must', it implied a 'requirement' more than an exhortation or urging.

The same also applies here. A failure to make reference to the higher level will produce a heavy-handed TL text such as the following:

TL Text 6

(Only sentences containing modals are presented)

(10) It is hoped that .....
(11) He must recognize his responsibility in the family
(12) If, maximally, he cannot help with the building up of a good family at home
(13) minimally, he must be a good family member
(14) and he must not be a disaster or trouble for the family

(The complete text can be found in Appendix II-B, Text IX)

Here we can see that the modal _harus_ has been translated into strong obligation with 'must' in English, implying a requirement rather than an urging (see Figure 6.1.). The strong obligation here is not in accordance

with the urging tone, and with it TLT 6 presents a localized shift of tenor.

While the shift of tenor runs counter to the SLT, in the sense of imposing an obligation more than exhorting, the same shift (of tenor) can show an opposite result. In the following TLT we can see that a shift of tenor in the opposite direction in sentences (10) to (14) can result in a more effective hortatory text.

6.3.2. TL Text 7: A Question of Effectiveness

TL Text 7

(1) How should we, the youth, behave in the best way? (2) I think, the best for the youth is to behave simply (3) but which clearly reflects a sound personality. (4) I am not speaking here in institutionalized or formal terms. (5) I only want to appeal (6) (7) to every single youth: let's make an introspection (8) and choose a good personality alternative. (9) We can begin from the home. (10) At home, we ought to be aware of the family discipline. (11) We ought to be aware of our responsibility at home. (12) If we cannot do the maximum of the building up of a good home (13) we have to do the minimum by becoming a good family member. (14) We should not be of any disaster or trouble for our family.

Here we can see that while the TL version remains a hortatory discourse, the translation expresses its exhortations more effectively than the original. The most important factor in this is that there is no displacement of agent orientation (to the third person) in the exhortations of (10) to (14).

Not only does the absence of identity displacement in the text create a more overt and continuous identity chaining, but it also creates smoother topical progression, so that practically all exhortations are expressed in a direct way. And since they are direct, the reader's attention can be focused continuously on the content of the exhortations.

Apart from this important difference, there is another effective feature which distinguishes TLT 7 from the original version and the other TLTs examined. While the original text shows some shifting of clausal topics in the detailed exhortations of (10) to (14), this is not the case with the TL version. The topics of the SL version are more on the 'doing' or elements related to it than on the 'people': hendaklah in (10), harus tahu in (11), kalau and maksimal in (12), minimal and jadilah in (13), and tanpa and harus in (14). Instead, the TL version has 'people' (i.e. 'we') as the topics, except in (12).

Hence in terms of the effectiveness of communication, TL Text 7 rates well because it concentrates on 'people' more than on anything else (Keraf, 1985:120). However, we have now entered the debate among translators concerning whether or not a translation work is also in some sense a corrective work, improving on the style of writing or discourse of the original; and whether it should simply correspond in every formal aspect.

One response to this dilemma is to say: As long as the TLT is generically equivalent to the SLT and is pragmatically appropriate in terms of the TL usage, then the TL version is an acceptable translation (whether or not it shifts here and there).

6.3.3. Translation Variation Across the Ten TL Texts

So far, we have discussed three kinds of translated versions: (i) TLT 5 which attempts formal correspondence; (ii) TLT 6 which shifts the exhortations by turning them into obligations; and (iii) TLT 7 shifts them into continuously direct exhortations (but which we judged as an effective translation).

Five of the ten translators produced a version similar to TLT 5 in

this chapter (see TLTs II,VI, VIII and IX in Appendix II-B), while two of the ten use the strong obligation with 'must' in their translations (see TLT 6 in this chapter and TLT VII in Appendix II-B). The other three translators have used the version of TL Text 7. Two of these three translators are again the Australian residents who are more proficient in their English usage than the other subjects (as well as TLT 7, in this category we have TLTs III and IV from Appendix II-B).

At this point we need to consider whether sheer English proficiency plays an important part in promoting (optional) translation shifts, and effective and more appropriate translation. In our present cases (SL texts C and D), these proficient English users have been those who translate without seemingly putting too much attention on formal 'equivalence'. Yet their translations seem to be more effective. However, the matter needs to be observed further, in the translations of other text types in Chapters Seven and Eight.

6.4. Recapitulation of Salient Findings

In this chapter, we find that: (a) obligatory shifts do not result in mismatch of text type (as was also shown in the previous chapter); (b) TLTs show more overt co-referentiality (than its SLT), due to the lexicalization of the elided subject in the SLT (which also occurred in Chapter Five); (c) optional shifts seem to be mainly related to interpersonal meaning, and caused by 'indirectness' (they also occurred in Chapter Five in connection with modality).; (d) where comparable grammatical elements are absent in English, and the translators are left to decide whether to compensate for them or not, their choices vary (compare TLTs 1 and 2). To recall from Chapter Five, such variability also occurred when generic ambivalence was involved in translation, and the translators had to make a decision. (e)

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Where concepts are untranslatable (as found in SLT C above), making explicit the pragmatic context in the TLT, thus optional shift could provide an effective translation (for outsiders). (f) Lexical referential rendering (thus only part of the meaning is rendered) is not the same as translation equivalence (which is a representation of all meaning embodied in an SLT, thus a total (and ordinary, normal) translation). (g) Although there is a question as to whether or not a translation activity includes a corrective activity (as in the case of TLT 7 above), as long as the TLT remains generically the same as the SLT, it seems to be a justifiable activity.

FOOTNOTES ON CHAPTER SIX

1) When attached to verbs in commands, /-LAH/ has the function of softening the commands. When it is attached to the words of obligation (i.e. harus), it is to indicate an urging or suggestion rather than a command. Simultaneously, it functions as focus when the word indicating the urging (i.e. proposed action) is in the middle of a sentence, so as to give it prominence. However, when it is attached to sentence topics, it usually indicates emphasis.

2) Historically, the New Order was born in January, 1966, which was brought about through Tritura (short for Tri Tuntutan Rakyat which means Three Public Demands). Unlike the Old Order, the New Order did not want Communism and had wanted Pancasila (the Five Principles) as the principles of the republic. Hence those supporting the New order are generally referred to as Pancasilaist groups/forces. Nowadays there is controversy as to whether or not any of these Pancasilaist groups can claim to be the only agent which brought the New Order into existence.

3) See Halliday and Hasan (1976: 242 and 260) for simple and emphatic causal relations.

4) An information package is a unit in the schematic structure of a particular text type (a constituent unit in the backbone of the discourse) (Larson, 1984:367 ff).

5) I gather /-NYA/ in this connector is one which K. Purwo (1984: 217) considers as anaphoric but not having a 'formative antecedent'. Therefore it can be interpreted as anaphorically referring back to the entire previous discussion of the same subject, which, in our case, is Peringatan Tritura 'Tritura commemoration'.

6) See Purwo (1984) for cases of zero passive as a variant of /DI-/ sentences, which is a form of foregrounding.

7) When verbs are given focal (and prominent) markers with /-LAH/, it is actually not the verb alone which has been given prominence. Rather it is the situation which is given prominence. Thus if it is attached to a verb of urging, for example, it is to make the urging prominent (Slametmuljana, 1969:380).

THE TRANSLATION OF EXPOSITORY DISCOURSES

7.1. The Expository Discourse Revisited

It has been indicated in Chapter Three that the purpose of an expository discourse is to explain or to give information. It aims at presenting information in "as neutral and objective a manner as possible" (Peters, et al, 1987). It is neutral in the sense that it does not involve the writer's interpretation or judgements regarding the information being expounded.

Expository discourse is realized as logically related information about a theme. There are two basic schemes of structuring information in an expository discourse: natural and artificial (Peters, 1985 and 1987). The natural scheme is one where the facts are organized in terms of a (historical) time-line, process, or cause and effect. An artificial scheme is one where the information is organized in terms of generality (from general to particular or vice versa), of importance, of comparison, or of problem-and-solution.

An expository discourse (with theme-line) can be structured in terms of theme and the supportive materials. The main supportive materials form the backbone of the discourse with other supportive materials as background. The central (global) theme usually is the most prominent element in the text. However, in a time-based expository discourse, time references are prominent. The backbone of such discourse is the time dimension of the exposition.

In an English expository discourse, especially one with time-line, there are elements of language which contribute to the continuity of the facts presented. Some of these are 'cohesive pronouns', 'time connectives',

and 'consistency of tense' (Peters et al., 1987). The first two language elements also occur in BI, but the last one (consistency of tense) does not. This is because of the absence of tense in BI. Thus in an English historical exposition, for example, tense, aspect, and deictic temporal element can combine to indicate time-line. In BI, the deictic temporal element is the main language resource for indicating a time-line in a discourse. How translators overcome the problem of getting the right tense will constitute a part of the analysis of this chapter.

There are two (sub) types of expository discourse examined here: One with an element of time-line (SLT E) and one with a theme-line of identification (SLT F). In the former, the expositor is generally an observer, without involvement in the text, or very minimal if any. In the latter, the expositor is not only the mouthpiece of the exposition, but also participates in the text. As a consequence, the latter contains interpersonal realizations more than does the former.

Recalling from Chapter Three (p. 39), the former sub-type (SLT F), is referred to as direct expository text , and the latter as indirect. However, as indicated in Chapter Three, the directness (or indirectness) is not based on simple interpersonal sense. Rather, it is based on the fact that while the former is unmediated, the latter is mediated through a personal viewpoint.

7.2. The Direct Expository Discourse

SL Text E

1). Bahasa Indonesia yang kini dipakai oleh bangsa
    language Ind. which now DI-use by nation

    Indonesia sebagai bahasa resmi   di negaranya
    Indonesia   as   language official in country-its

dan bahasa   perhubungan/pergaulan   setiap hari
and language communication/intercourse every day

berasal   dari bahasa   Melayu
BER-originate from language Malay

2). Pada hari Sumpah Pemuda tanggal 28 Oktober tahun
    on   day   oath   youth   date   28 October year

1928, diresmikan   suatu bahasa nasional Bahasa
1928, DI-official-KAN a language national Language

Indonesia   yang sebenarnya adalah Bahasa Melayu
Indonesia   which actually   is   language Malay

3). Nama baru ini yaitu Bahasa Indonesia
    name new this namely language Indonesia

bersifat   politis
BER-characteristic political

4). sejalan   dengan nama negara   merdeka   yang
    in accordance with name country independent which

diidam-idamkan: Negara Indonesia dan suatu bangsa
DI- desire-KAN: Country Indonesia and a   nation

bersatu yaitu bangsa Indonesia
BER-one namely nation Indonesia

5). Semua politis sifatnya
    all political characteristic-its

6). karena dengan rasa   bersatu yang ditimbulkannya
    because with feeling BER-one which DI-appear-KAN-it

semangat untuk berjuang   bersama-sama dalam
spirit   for BER-struggle together   in

mengejar kemerdekaan lepas dari penjajahan
NG-pursue independence free from colonization

akan lebih berkobar-kobar
will more BER-rage

7). Bangsa Indonesia lebih merasa terikat dalam satu
    nation Indonesia more NG-feel TER-bound in one

satu ikatan
one tie

8). karena merasa: satu tanah-air, satu bangsa, dan
    because NG-feel one country   one nation and

satu bahasa
one language

9). Sebenarnya perkembangan bahasa Melayu menjadi
    actually   development language Malay NG-become

    bahasa Indonesia berlangsung secara
    language Indonesia BER-happen manner

    perlahan-lahan tetapi secara terus-menerus
        slow   but   manner   continuous

10). Kalau kita perhatikan bahasa   yang   kita
    if   we   observe-KAN language which we

    pergunakan dewasa ini   memamng tidak lagi
    use   -KAN recently this really not   anymore

    sama dengan bahasa Melayu yang dipakai pada
    same with language Malay which DI-use   at

    zaman Tun Muhammad Sri Lanang
    period Tun Muhammad Sri Lanang

11). Dan pada waktu akhir-akhir ini perkembangannya
    and on   time   recent this development-its

    itu menjadi   demikian pesatnya
    that NG-become   so   fast-def

12). sehingga bahasa ini   telah   menjelma menjadi
    that language this already NG-turn NG-become

    satu bahasa baru
    one language new

(Continues with other Phases or Sections on the development
 of the language).
                 (J.S. Badudu, <u>Pelik-pelik</u> <u>Bahasa,</u> 1982:11)
<u>Notes</u>:
1). /DI-/ clauses indicate foregrounding and perfective
    in aspect; /NG-/ clauses indicate backgrounding and
    imperfective in aspect.
2). /BER-/ is a prefix meaning 'has...of'
3). /-KAN/ indicates a tie with an object position, but
    not necessarily benefactive.
4). /TER-/ indicates involuntary action and is intrans-
    itive in nature.
5). Numbering indicates sentences
6). Words in italics are just glosses; the translation
    is presented as the TL versions below.

     That it is a direct, unmediated exposition is shown by the writer's

being an observer, except in sentence (10), where he participates in the

text. So, except for (10), the exposition is orientated to the third

person, e.g. the third person /-nya/ in the text (sentence (1)). The third person may be elided, as in sentence (8). As well, the /DI-/ clauses characterize the text's being orientated to the third person, e.g. sentences (1), (2), (4), etc. The relationship between the interactants in the text is generally neutral. The expositor places himself as an observer rather than as a participant.

However, there is a change of tenor in sentences (10) and (11), where the pronoun kita 'we' is used. The change occurs when the expositor changes his style of exposition: from a historical exposition of the 20 October 1928, when BI was born, to the more general exposition of development of BI.

Apart from the general description that shows the interpersonal relationship between the participants above, another feature of the text needing to be explained here is the structure. It is organized around two 'temporal deictic centres' (See Comrie, 1985). These 'centres' are: Hari Sumpah Pemuda 'the youth oath day' in (2), and dewasa ini 'recently' in (10). There is another temporal deictic kini 'now' in (1), but, unlike the other two deictics above, it is embedded in the temporal deictic of the main clause. Thus while the embedding is concerned with the present fact, that of the main clause is concerned with the fact(s) of the past. In English this change can be indicated by a change of verbal form, which is not the case with BI, due to the the lack of tense marking on the verbs in BI.

The above two deictic centres organize the facts in the text from two different points of time, and the whole text is concerned with the exposition of how BI has developed from Malay. This becomes the global organizing theme of the text, which is expressed in sentence (1), and becomes an introductory sentence for the whole text.

The introduction is followed by the historical exposition in (2) to

(8), which is an account of how and why BI was, born. This account forms a semantic group and structural unit in the text. The second semantic group is concerned with the present fact(s) of BI, expressed in (9) to (12). The second group constitutes the further development of the condition or fact realized in the first group.

The two semantic groups are mainly related through the lexical items bahasa Melayu and bahasa Indonesia. Apart from this relationship, these semantic groups are related through the conjunction of contrastive avowal with sebenarnya 'actually' (see Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Apart from relations through conjunction , another more noticeable element of cohesion in the text is in fact the lexical one, strung through the two key lexical items in the text: bahasa Melayu and bahasa Indonesia. The lexical item bahasa Indonesia is first mentioned as the topic in (1). It is then realized in (2) as the focus of information with end-weight (notice that it forms a part of the comment unit). It is taken up again as a part of the topic unit in (3), which is in the form of nominal group complex, forming a hyponymic relation with nama negara in (4). While the above is an example of how lexical chaining in the text intertwines with topical progression, the grammatical elements in the text are also related through conjunction above, e.g. karena 'because' in (6).

In the following section, we will examine certain TL versions of the above SL text, and observe the refashioning of the discourse features mentioned above in the translated version.

7.2.1. The TL Versions

TL Text 1

(1) The Indonesian language which has been used by
the Indonesians as the official language of the country

and as the language of communication originated from the Malay language. (2) On the day of 'Sumpah Pemuda', October 28, 1928, it was officially declared that Bahasa Indonesia was the national language, which was actually the Malay language. (3) The new name, i.e. Bahasa Indonesia, was political. (4) It was analogous with the name of the desired independent country: A united country and nation, Indonesia. (5) All these were political in nature. (6) because through the aroused feeling of unity the spirit of struggle to pursue independence, free from colonization, would be stronger. (7). The Indonesians felt bound by one commitment (8) because they feel that they have one nation, one country, one language. (9) Actually the development of the Malay language to be Bahasa Indonesia has occurred gradually but continuously. (10) We are aware (11) that the language we use today is different from the Malay used at the time of Tun Sri Lanang. (12) Recently the development has been so fast that bahasa Indonesia has become a new language.

The translator of the above TL version seems to have attempted a formal correspondence. However, certain shifts have occurred in spite of the attempts. These shifts mainly affect the embedded clauses. Some of the embeddings are preserved by the translator in TL version: (embedding in (1), one embedding in (2), and one embedding in (6)). Other embedded clauses, which are actually backgrounded information functioning as postmodifiers, have been shifted into premodifiers, for examples 'desired' in (4), 'aroused' in (6), embedded deletion in (11). It is interesting to note that, due to the shifts of embedded structure, the TL version becomes grammatically less complex compared to its source counterparts. This phenomenon was also found in the translation of hortatory discourse (Chapter Six).

In addition to the change of grammatical grouping such as above, the shifts also carry another rhetorical effect: the rhetorical emphasis gained through lexical repetition in the SLT is lost. An obvious example for such loss is sentence (4), where the lexical item 'bahasa Indonesia' is only used once in the TLT, but is used twice in the original version, since such repetition could sound redundant in the TL version. This is also the case

with other repeated lexical items of 'berkobar-kobar' in (5) and 'dildam-idamkan' in (4). The emphasized effect of these items is lost as they become unmarked in the TLT.

In addition, there is a case of shift of markedness in (2), wherein the verb becomes unmarked (positionally as well as meaningfully) in the TLT. In fact, as a historical landmark, the SLT has the verb _diresmikan_ 'inaugurated' preceding the subject 'bahasa Indonesia', to give an end-weight to the subject and to give a marked focus to the verb. Despite these shifts, the pattern of cohesion and topical progression in the TLT is not much affected. Except for the shifts of structures of modification, markedness, and emphasis explained earlier, no other shifts related to discourse prominence have occurred.

The (schematic) structure of the source version is also retained in the translation: both sections are organized around the same time points. However these two points are clearer in the translation, since they are marked not only by temporal markers but also by the tenses of the verbs. This constitutes an obligatory modification in the TLT.

The relevance of the time points can, however, be confused when the translator chooses a wrong tense in the translation, as in TLT 2 below.

TL Text 2

(1) Bahasa Indonesia, which is now used as the official language and as the language of daily communication in the country, originated from the Malay language. (2) It was inaugurated as the national language on the day of 'Sumpah Pemuda', which was the 28th of October, 1928. (3) The new name, Bahasa Indonesia, had a political purpose (4) and was in accordance with the name of the desired independent country: a united and country and nation called Indonesia. (5) all this was political (6) because, through the feeling of unity, the spirit to pursue freedom from colonization would be more raging (7) and (8) The Indonesians then felt that they were bound by one commitment: one country, one nation, and one language (9) Actually the development of the Malay into

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Bahasa Indonesia __happened__ gradually but continuously (10) We can observe (11) that the language we use now is not the same as the Malay used at the time of Tun Sri Lanang (12) And recently the development is so fast that the language becomes a new language.

As in TLT 1, there are cases of shifts related to embeddings. In (2) the final embedding is deleted, probably because it is already mentioned in the (global) theme of (1). In (6), the embedding __yang__ __ditimbulkannya__ is also deleted. The deletion can be interpreted as being caused by the redundancy of expression in the SLT (the verb 'bersatu' is repeated in (4)), which can be avoided by the use of the definite article 'the' in the translation, absent in BI.

A similar shift such as above also occurs, which affects grammatical grouping. The translator of TLT 2 has combined (7) with (8). Again, the reason for this seems to avoid repetition of the verb __merasa__ in (7) and in (8) when expressed in English.

So far TLT 2 has been consistent in its tense: All facts, unless otherwise specified, are expressed in past tense, since they are concerned with the events of the past. The translator has also expressed (9) in the past tense (see the verb underlined). However, the relevance of the information expressed in (9) should be understood as extending to the present, and, therefore, it would be better expressed as using the present perfect tense. The fact that the original version is unmarked in terms of tense has caused the translator to group (9) as forming a part of the historical facts expressed in the sentence(s) preceding it. Similarly, the tense in (12) is not expressed appropriately. The lexical item 'development', which should entail an extension of past to present, is translated as present in the TLT. In this way, TLT 2 is (intrasystemically) shifted in the referential meaning expressed in the tense of sentence (9) and (12).

In both TLTs 1 and 2 we can see that the sentences containing embedding in the SL version are expressed in a simpler way in the translation (many of the embeddings are expressed as the premodifier). But the different degree of complexity does not affect the prominence and the purpose of the text. Except for a misexpression of tense in (9) of TLT 2, both texts organize the facts around the two time points and develop them from the same (global) theme as in the original version.

A change of topic concerned with time points can cause a different texture (and tenor), as in TLT 3 below.

TL Text 3

(1) The Indonesian language, now officially used as the language of daily communication in the country, had originated from the Malay language (2) It was officially declared the national language of Indonesia on the day of Sumpah Pemuda, the youth oath, on October 28, 1928. (3) and (4) The new name, Bahasa Indonesia, was political, in accordance with the name of the future independent country: The united nation of Indonesia. (5) and (6) It was all political because the feeling of unity could enrage the spirit of struggle against the colonials. (7) and (8) The unity was a commitment of: one nation, one country, and one language. (9) Actually the development of Bahasa Indonesia from the Malay language has occurred gradually but continously. (10) The Indonesian language used nowadays is not the same as the Malay used at the time of Tun Muhammad Sri Lanang. (11) Recently it has developed so fast (12) that it has become a new language.

Apart from the shifts concerned with embeddings and grammatical groupings (sentences (3) and (4)), and sentences (7) and (8), there is a shift of topic in (2). The topic of time point in the SLT is shifted into a topic with 'it', referring to that in (1). This is different from the SLT, in which the time point is the (marked) topic of the clause, which simultaneously becomes a temporal deictic centre for other sentences following (2). By shifting the topic in the TLT (from a marked topic in the SLT to an unmarked one), the temporal centre is less clear.

However, in other details, the translator tries to make things clearer. This is often referred as the notion of 'explicitation' by certain translation theorists, an attempt to make information from the pragmatic context explicit (see, for example, Blum-Kulka (1986). An example of such explicitness is one in sentence (2), the lexical item 'Sumpah Pemuda', a historical concept, while transferred to the TLT in its original form, is also made explicit through the translation accompanying its original item in the TLT (cf. TLTs 1 and 2 in which such explicitness did not occur).

In addition, there is a change of 'tenor' in TLT 3. While the writer of the SLT changes in tenor and involves himself as participant in (10), the translator deletes such a change in his version, thus causing the writer to be consistently an observer.

It is important to note that from the three TL versions examined so far, no shift of text type has resulted from the shifts that occur. The probable explanation for this would be that the SLT constitutes a neutral, and predominantly impersonal, direct exposition (cf. SLT F, in which the collaborates and involves himself in the text).

Another important thing to note is that there is a similarity of tendency in the expression of grammatical embeddings in the TL texts, i.e. the tendency to delete certain repetitious elements.

7.2.2. Variation Across the Ten TL Texts

We have observed three TL variations for SLT E: (a) TLT 1 attempts a formal correspondence with obligatory shifts occurring. (b) TLT 2 is an attempt at grammatical refashioning of embeddings, causing the optional shifts to occur. There is also a misexpression of tense in sentences (9) and (12). (c) Apart from grammatical refashioning, TLT 3 (optionally) shifts in tenor (sentence (10)), but this makes it no less effective as

translation. In addition, TLT 3 is more explicit in terms of referential meaning compared to TLT 1 or 2.

TLTs other than these three are explainable in terms of the phenomena occurring in the three TLTs above. In this section of Chapter Seven, we will see: (i) how the translators handle the grammatical refashioning concerned with embeddings; (ii) how misexpression of tense occurs in other TLTs; (iii) how many translators actually attempt formal correspondence; whether they also attempt referential explicitness, and whether they also express themselves consistently as observer (as in TLT 3 above). In the following, we will first start with variation of TLTs in relation to the refashioning of embeddings (TLTs in Roman numerals are from Appendix III-A).

Variation in relation to embeddings are mostly concerned with structures peculiar to the SL system: (a) the clausal embeddings in (1), (2), (4), (6), (7), and (9); (b) the thematic verb and end-weight in sentence (2); (c) certain grammatical groupings which are interrelated with repetition. In the following we will examine how these are expressed across the ten TL texts.

As far as the embeddings are concerned, the translators have two ways of dealing with them: 'deletion' when the information seems redundant in the translation (which is also the case with repetition); and 'shifting into premodifier' when it is handy to do so (as the one concerned with embedding in sentence (4). An example of embedding deletion is sentence (2), which is deleted by three translators (TLTs 1,2, and IV). In fact, the information in the embedding is a background information (Halliday, 1985). The translator might have considered that it would seem too soon to repeat such information in the translated version.

An example of shift into pre-modification is one in (4), which has

been translated as a perfective pre-modifier with the verb 'desired' (TLTs 1,2,III,and V to VI). Another variation is to translate it using the verb 'wanted' (TLT IX), and another through the simple adjective 'future' (TLTs III and X). However, the shifts of embedding mentioned above do not affect the topical progression of the text. If at all, shifts of embedding only affect the pattern of texture, as examined below.

The writer of the SL text seems to utilize repetition as a form of rhetorical emphasis. When the repetition is in successive sentences or in the same sentence, the tendency for the translator is to delete one of the repetitious elements. When it involves repetitious, successive clauses (as in (7) and (8)), five translators have deleted the second clause (TLTs 2,3,II,IV,and VII). Two of the ten have even deleted sentences (7) and (8) and incorporate them in sentence (6) (see TLT VIII) or incorporate it in sentence 2 (see TLT V).

Although the above variations do not affect text type, they do affect texture and topical progression. For example is TLT 3, which has been pruned of embeddings and repetition, has a more straightforward progression than do TLTs 1 and 2.

Apart from shifts of grammatical regrouping (involving embedding), the TLTs also show variation in terms of tense in the sentences containing the development of BI (sentence (9)). The translators of TLTs 2 (and TLTs IV and VIII in Appendix III-A) use past tense instead of the more appropriate present perfect tense, thus failing to make effective use of tense.

Apart from the variation at the lower level of lexicogrammar as explained above, the TL texts can also be analyzed in terms of effectiveness in the TLT. Confronted with TLTs 1,2, and 3, three English native speakers consider TLT 3 as the most effective and the simplest exposition of all the three versions. There is no doubt about the simplicity, but the point about the effectiveness can be questioned. These

three English native speakers all say that TLT 3 is 'effective' because, due to the pruning, the readers' attention is not diverted to the information in the embeddings (and in some repetitious information). Instead, it can be focused on the main information and facts. Hence, the readers' judgement concerning TLT 3 seems to be sound, although the resulting TLT actually loses the rhetorical style of the SLT.

It is interesting to note that more translators actually do some grammatical refashioning (thus optional shifts) in their TLTs (cf. other TLTs in Chapters Five and Six). There are two possible explanations for this phenomenon: (i) SLT E in this chapter is relatively free and neutral in terms of particles realizing the interpersonal relationship between participants (cf. the previous SLTs). (ii) The translators generally seem to be able to handle grammatical problems better when such problems are not intertwined with problems of translating particles of indirectness (recall that they were able to handle grammatical refashioning in the direct hortatory text more than they were in the indirect one). However, it remains to be seen whether the phenomenon occurring in the translation of indirect hortatory text also applies to the indirect expository text, as examined in the following.

7.3. The Indirect Expository Discourse

SL Text F

1). Jika kita telah merasa mengerti   dan
    if we already NG-feel NG-understand and

   memahami setiap kata dalam kalimat
   NG-know-I every word in   sentence

2). tetapi toh masih mengalami   kesulitan dalam
    but   yet still NG-experience difficulty in

   mengartikan   arti   kalimat secara keseluruhan
   NG-translate-KAN meaning sentence manner whole

3). maka sudah   bisa dipastikan
    then already can   DI-certain-KAN

4). bahwa kita mengalami   kesukaran dengan idiom
    that we NG-experience problem   with idiom

5). Idiom? Apa itu?
    Idiom what that

6). Waktu saya mencoba mencari   arti   yang
    when   I NG-try NG-look for meaning which

    pas   di dalam lima kamus   terkenal
    exact   in   five dictionary popular

7). tak satupun memberikan pengertian yang tepat
    not one-PUN NG-give-KAN concept   which suitable

    untuk kata idiom
    for   word idiom

8). Setiap kamus   berbeda   penjelasannya
    every dictionary BER-differ explanation-its

9). Ada   yang mengatakan
    exist/there is (are) which NG-say-KAN

10). bahwa idiom itu semacam 'langgam bahasa',
     that idiom that a kind   style language

     'corak bahasa   khas',   'ungkapan dengan
     feature language typical   expression with

     ciri   khas'   serta puluhan arti   lainnya
     charact- typical   and   tens   meaning other-def
     eristic

11). Setiap bangsa memang memiliki   bahasa
     every nation indeed NG-possess language

     sendiri-sendiri
     self/own

12). Dan setiap bahasa memiliki   ciri   khas
     and every language NG-possess charact- typical
                                    eristic
     tersendiri
     special

13). Masing-masing punya bahasa   ungkapan sehari-hari
     every   has language expression daily

14). Itulah   idiom
     that-LAH idiom

15). misalnya   idiom 'Tom is a lucky dog' dalam
for example idiom 'Tom is a lucky dog' in

bahasa   Inggris
language English

16). Tidak lucu
not funny

17). kalau diterjemahkan   menjadi   'Tom adalah seekor
if   DI-translate-KAN NG-become 'Tom is   one

anjing yang beruntung'
dog   which lucky

18). Ya ada   kemungkinan
yes exist possibility

19). bahwa Tom adalah nama seekor anjing
that Tom is   name one   dog

20). Tapi kita harus kaitkan   hubungan kalimat
but we   must relate-KAN relation sentence

ini dengan kalimat lainnya dalam teks
this with sentence other in   text

(Continued with other examples of English idioms and
their translations)

(From Gadis, Nov., 1983: 102)

Notes:
1). Words in italics are glosses (the TL versions for
   the whole text are presented below).
2). Clausal enhancement (as in (1)) is not numbered
   separately, since it is an embedding.
3). Except for /-PUN/, the meaning of the affixes can be
   found on page 129. /-PUN/ indicates emphatic
   prominence (see p. 45).

The text is an indirect exposition, because the writer participates in

the text rather than remaining an observer. The participation is realized

through the pronoun 'we' right at the beginning of the text, and,

occasionally, through the first person pronoun 'I' (clauses (6) and (7).

In addition to this, the expositor acts as if he has the addressee in front

of him when he produces the rhetorical questions in (5).

However, there is a change of tenor when the writer tries to expound

and define 'idiom' in (10) to (14), and when he gives an example in (15) to

(19). Here he shifts from being a participant to being the neutral expositor. But even here he uses particles or elements indicating 'involvement', as 'ya' in (19). Then he participates in the text again in clause (20), where the change of 'tenor' is accompanied by the obligation with harus.

Although the text is written down (in a magazine for young readers), it has a spoken mode: It is written as if to be spoken to the addressee. The first indication of its being in the spoken mode is that the sentences do not contain as many nominal embeddings as in SLT E. The second indication is the occurrence of opinion particles in (2) and in (18) (Rafferty, 1982:36). The third indication is that it contains more clauses, a common characteristic of the spoken language (as indicated to occur in English by Halliday, 1985:12, which also occurs in BI as shown here).

Apart from the above interpersonal relationship embodied in the text, the way the text is structured also shows its being an indirect exposition, e.g. the rhetorical question in (5) to start the local theme. In fact, the text is structured and developed on the basis of two so-called 'local' themes: 'idiom' and 'translating idiom'. It starts with a long topic sentence containing an introduction (clauses (1) to (4). At the end of the topic sentence (i.e. clause (4)), the nominal phrase kesukaran dengan idiom 'difficulty/problem with idiom' seems to be given an end-weight (Quirk et al, 1972:943).

The lexical item 'idiom' in the above end-weighted phrase is taken up to be the topic of the rhetorical questions in (5). The series of short questions in (5) constitute the 'local theme', developed as far as clause (14). Thus clauses (5) to (14) form one semantic and structural grouping. The end of the exposition, marked with /-LAH/ is summative in (14). The particle /-LAH/ combined with the referential itu anaphorically refer back

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to the previous discussion (of idiom) in an emphatic way.

Clause (15) provides an example of an English idiom, and how the idiom can be translated into BI. Thus 'translating an idiom' is explained through an extended example from (15) to (19). These clauses/sentences form yet another semantic unit. Clause (20) is a kind of terminating point, but not an ending, since there are other examples to come (which are not included in the SLT).

As in the previous SL texts, subject-ellipsis in BI becomes one of the important means of providing texture in the text. This is also the case with the subject-less adjectival clauses such as (16), which can be expressed using the dummy subject 'it' in English. As has been shown in Chapter Six (p.111), the lexicalization of an elided subject can cause a mistranslation. We will examine the translations of the present SL text, where more subject ellipses are found. In addition, the fact that the text is interpersonally marked might pose problems in translation.

7.3.1. The TL Versions

TL Text 4

(1) Although we feel that we have understood every word in a sentence (2) but still experience difficulty in translating the meaning of the whole sentence (3) it can be ascertained (4) that we have difficulty with idiom. (5) Idiom? What is that? (6) When I try to look for the exact meaning of idiom in five famous dictionaries (7) none gives a suitable interpretation for the word (9) One says (10) that idiom is a kind of language custom, typical language feature, typical language expression, and tens of other meanings. (11) Every nation, of course, has its own language (12) and every language has its own typical characteristics. (13) each has typical everyday culture and language expression (14) that is idiom (15) Let's take an example of an English idiom 'Tom is a lucky dog' (16) It is not funny (17) when we translate it into 'Tom is a dog which is lucky' (18) Of course it is possible (19) that Tom is a dog's name (20) but we should see the connection between this idiom with other sentences in the text. (...)

First of all, we will examine the conjunctive relation in the above TLT. Differing from its SL version, clauses (1) and (2) are related using the conjunctions 'although' and 'but'. The combination of these two conjunctions in one sentence in English is considered a mistake by Halliday & Hasan, since "a structure cannot be both hypotactic and paratactic at the same time" (1976:237). In fact, the whole clause-complex (clauses (1) to (4)) seems to indicate double contrasts, so it would have been better to use 'although' and 'and' instead of 'although' and 'but'.

There is a faulty translation of tense in (6) and (7). Although the verbs in the two SL clauses are unmarked in terms of tense, the time of 'looking up the dictionary' should be seen as happening earlier than the time of 'writing or expounding'. Thus a translation into past tense would be more suitable.

The next translation problem is the question of subject ellipsis in (2), (3), (9), (16), and (17). While the ellipsis in (2) is also common in English, since it is hypotactically related to (1), it is not the case with the ellipses in other clauses.

Rafferty (1982 and 1983) refers to the ellipsis in (3) as a verbal foregrounding. In this way, the subject ellipsis of (3) can be anyone inferrable in the context, but it can also be interpreted as an impersonalized clause. So the translation may vary along these lines. Here the translator has chosen the second interpretation and lexicalizes it explicitly using the dummy subject 'it'. However the voicing of the clause as passive (such as sentence (3) here) is not very common in English for this informal kind of context.

The question of possible antecedents also applies to clause (17). The translator has used the pronoun 'we' as a realization for the /DI/ prefix, thus forming a coreference with other 'we' pronouns preceding it. Clause

(16), which is the dominant clause of (17), is a subject-less adjectival clause. The occurrence of clauses such as (16) is due to the fact that the dummy subject 'it' and the 'copula' are absent from the Indonesian language system. Therefore (16) can only be translated through the dummy subject plus the copula. So an obligatory shift has occurred.

In contrast with the ellipsis above, the one in (9) has a clear antecedent: the elided subject after the existential verb _ada_ is _kamus_. However, it is not so much the ellipsis itself which is problematic, but the verb. Apart from its tense, it is ambiguous as to whether to translate (9) as '(there are) some' or as '(there is) one'. Here the translator of TLT 4 has chosen to translate it simply as 'one' (leaving behind the existential 'there'). This makes (9) even more ambiguous in English, since there is a third interpretation: that 'one' refers to a general, unidentified, personal entity (i.e. 'someone' or 'anyone' outside the text).

Still another aspect of texture is the topical markedness in (14) and the end-weighted comment in (8). As in the translation of SLT D, there have been two ways of reverbalizing the focalized topic of the kind occurring in (14): (a) using natural topic as is the case with the present TLT; (b) using the pseudo-cleft sentence, with the nominalization as the comment, as in 'that is what is called idiom'. While the former realization does not seem to strongly carry summative effect, the latter does carry such effect. As to the end-weighted comment, the translator utilizes the verb 'give' to maintain the status of the noun _penjelasan_ as an object in the comment unit (originally a subject occupying the position in the comment unit).

Apart from the above features of text, there is a further aspect of cohesion which can be interrelated with the rhetorical effect. There are certain rhetorical emphases through the repetition of certain lexical items in the SLT, for example through synonymy as in the verbs _mengerti_ and

memahami in (1) or as in the nouns kesulitan in (2) and kesukaran in (4).

When the repetition occurs in another clause (as is the case with (2) and

(4)), the translator renders it as it is. On the other hand, when the

repetition is in the same sentence (as in (1)), it may sound tautological

in English. However, the use of ellipsis rather than repetition in the TLT

shifts the emphasis.

So far, we have observed that the translation of an indirect

expository text in BI has mainly caused a shift in the pattern of ' texture,

with a certain break in the chain of co-referentiality, due to the

option(s) the translator uses for lexicalizing the elided subject and the

verbal foregrounding in certain clauses. The break does not necessarily

occur when the translator interprets and lexicalizes the elided subject

correctly as in the following TLT.

TL Text 5

(1) When we have understood every word in a
sentence, (2) but still have difficulties in translating
a sentence as a whole (3) we can be sure (4) that we
have problems with idiom. (5) What is idiom? (6) When I
tried to find an exact meaning of idiom in five famous
dictionaries, (7) none of them gave it. (8) Each
provides a different explanation (9) some say (10) that
idiom is a kind of language style, a special
characteristic of language, special term, and tens of
other meanings. (11) Every nation has its own language
(12) and (13) and every language has special
characteristics and special daily expressions. (14) That
is idiom. (15) An example of idiom in English is: 'Tom
is a lucky dog'. (16) and (17) we cannot translate it
into 'Tom is a dog which is lucky' (18) There is a
possibility (19) that 'Tom' is the name of a dog, (20)
but we have to relate the sentence to other sentences in
the text. (....)

The above TLT differs from TLT 4 in terms of the lexicalization of

certain ellipses and in terms of certain grammatical groupings. The subject

ellipsis in (3) has been reverbalized as 'we'. The translator also combines

(3) and (4) through an embedding relation. So there is a shift of clause status in (4).

The use of the pronoun 'it' makes a direct reference to the word 'idiom' in the previous clause, and, consequently, avoids the repetition of the word 'exact' which also appears in (7). The problematic subject ellipsis with the verb ada 'exist' in (9) is reverbalized in English using the word 'some'. This does not create ambiguity as in the use of 'one' which can refer to a general entity in the context outside the text (as in TLT 4 above).

There is another difference in grammatical grouping in clauses (12) and (13). The subjects setiap in (12) and masing-masing in (13), and the verbs memiliki in (12) and punya in (13) are synonyms or near-synonyms respectively. It is probably for this reason that the translator combines (12) and (13), through a paratactic relation, taking only the object in (13).

Another revised grammatical grouping is the combination of (16) and (17) into one simple sentence. Both contain no subject (note that in the SLT they are hypotactically related to each other). The subject ellipsis accompanying /DI-/ clause in (17) allows the translator to interpret it as 'we', thus referring back to the beginning of the text. However, the above combination causes a shift of style in (16): from an informal admonition with tidak lucu 'not funny' to a more formal exposition of (translation) possibility with 'can'.

Apart from the above shifts, there is also a localized shift of tenor in the TL version. The interpersonal meaning realized in the words of judgement with memang in (11) and with ya in (18) are deleted by the translator. As well, the opinion particle with toh in (2) is not translated. The deletion has changed the tenor in TLT 5 to be more neutral than in the original version, although it remains an indirect collaborative

exposition.

While the above TLTs (i.e. 4 and 5) remain indirect expository texts, certain other translation of SLT E have resulted in a shift of purpose and text type and sub-type (TLTs 6,7,and 8 below).

TL Text 6

(1) If you feel that you have understood every word in a sentence, but still have difficulty translating the meaning of the whole sentence, you certainly have problems with idiom. (2) What is idiom? (3) When you look for the exact meaning of idiom in popular dictionaries, you will see that none of them would give an accurate understanding of the word. (4) Every dictionary has different explanation (5) You will find an explanation that idiom is a kind of language style, a kind of specific language, or tens of other meanings. (6) Every nation has its own language (7) and each language has its own characteristics and typical daily expressions (8) That is idiom. (9)Take an example of an English idiom 'Tom is a lucky dog'. (10) Although it is possible that Tom is the name of a dog, you cannot directly translate it into 'Tom is a dog which is lucky' (11) To translate it, you should also relate the sentence to other sentences in the text.

Notes: in the above TL version, the numbering is only for ease of reference; it is not parallel to its SL sentence counterparts.

Here we can see that the translator of TLT 6 has seen SLT F as a 'you-oriented' text, despite the fact that the circumstances of the SLT were given to the translators (see Appendix VI). In this way, TLT 6 is closer to the hortatory angle of discourse structure, due to the you-orientation (see Chapter Three, pp. 36 for agent orientation in discourse).

In fact, the you-orientation occurs throughout, significantly enough to cause a shift of purpose and text type. As such, the TL version cannot be considered a translation equivalent, due to these two shifts. However, as has been indicated before (Chapter Six, pp. 120), a TLT such as TLT 6 can still be accepted as a translation, but only a partial one.

The style of TLT 6 here supports the finding in Chapter Six that

translators do react differently towards an SLT. In fact, the following TLT supports it even further.

TL Text 7

(1) If I have understood every word in a sentence (2) and yet have problems translating the sentence as a whole (3) I can be sure (4) that I have problems with idioms. (5) Idiom? What is that? (6) When I tried to look for the meaning of the word idiom in five popular dictionaries (7) none of them gave an exact meaning for the word. (8) (9) (10) Every dictionary provides a different explanation, e.g. 'idiom is a special expression', 'it is a typical style',and tens other meanings and definitions (11) In fact, every nation has its own language (12) (13) and every language has its own characteristics and typical expressions (14) That is an idiom. (15) An example of idiom in English is "Tom is a lucky dog" (16) I cannot (17) just translate it into "Tom is a dog which is lucky" (18) Of course, there is a possibility (19) that "Tom" is the name of a dog (20) but to translate the whole idiom correctly I have to relate it to other sentences in the text.

Here we can see that the translator of TLT 7 has used first person in many parts of the text (sentences (1) to (4), (16), and (20)). In this way, it is more a narrative-like text than an exposition. It has an effect similar to TLT 6: it not only shifts in tenor, but in purpose and text type as well. Therefore, it has to be judged in the same way as we have judged TLT 6: it is not a translation equivalent, although it still constitutes a partial translation.

While both TLTs 6 and 7 show shifts counter to the generic type of the SLT, the following TLT shows an opposite.

7.3.2. TLT 8: A Question of Effectiveness

TL Text 8

(1) When every word in a sentence has been understood, but problems still exist in translating the sentence as a whole, there must have been difficulties

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with idiom. (2) If one tries to find the meaning of the word 'idiom' in the famous dictionaries, he or she would see that none would give a suitable explanation. (3) Some dictionaries say that idiom is a kind of 'language style', 'typical language feature', 'typical expressions', and some other meanings. (4) In fact, every nation has its own language (5) and each language has typical characteristics and daily expressions. (6) This is what is called idiom. An example of idiom in English is 'Tom is a lucky dog'. (7) Although there is a possibility that 'Tom' is the name of a dog, it cannot just be translated into 'Tom is a dog which is lucky'. (8) It should be related to other sentences in the text.

Here the translator of TLT 8 has seen the SLT as a completely impersonal exposition, thus a direct expository discourse. In this way, the interpersonal meaning expressed through certain words and particles are left untranslated. However, although the TLT shifts in interpersonal meaning, it remains an expository text. So we can still consider it a translation equivalence, but with a (global) shift of tenor.

When four English native speakers were asked to judge TLTs 4, 7, and 8, they all agreed that TLT 8 is the most effective translation of all. They all gave the same reason, that is that TLT 8 is consistent (in the person-orientation). According to them, due to the consistency, they can concentrate more on the contents in TLT 8 than in the other TLTs (recall that the issue of TL effectiveness also occurred in Chapter Six, p. 123).

As to reasons for shifting the text (sub) type, we refer to the translators of TLTs 6 and 8 (the Australian residents). They both consider that the SLT is inconsistent: (i) using the first person pronoun kita 'we' in (1), (2), (4), and (20), with /DI-/ clause in (3). (ii) Using the first person pronoun saya 'I' in (6). (iii) Orientating to the third person in sentences (8) to (19). Because of this, the two translators above consider it proper to choose one of the above person orientations to be dominant in the TLT.

This brings us to certain interesting points: (a) that the nature of the text affects the translator's decision to preserve or to shift the text type and the purpose of the text (recall that this phenomenon also occurred in Chapter Six, pp. 124 ff); (b) It seems that interpersonal meaning embodied in the (SL) text is shift-sensitive. As we have seen so far, shifts of text type seem to occur more readily in indirect text sub-types, which embody interpersonal meaning more than the direct sub-type(s).

7.3.3. Variations Across the Ten TL Versions

So far, we have discussed five different TL versions: (i) TLT 1, which attempts formal correspondence, with obligatory shifts occurring; (ii) TLT 2, which attempts certain grammatical regroupings, thus optional shifts; (iii) TLTs 6 and 7, which contain relatively global shift of tenor, accompanied by a shift of purpose and text type; (iv) TLT 8, which provides an effective translation, but shifts in tenor.

The other five TL versions (TLTs III to VI and VIII in Appendix III-B) are explainable in terms of TLTs 1 and 2. Two of these five translators (TLTs IV and V) attempt TL versions like that in TLT 1, while the other three attempt grammatical regrouping like that in TLT 2.

As was the case with the TL versions in the previous chapters, it is always those with more control of the English who can produce an effective translation (see Chapter Six, p. 123) or produce an adequate and appropriate translation (Chapter Five, p. 95). However, this needs to be proved further in the translation of yet another type of text (Chapter Eight).

7.4. Recapitulation of Salient Findings

Although indirectness in this chapter is not a matter of simple

interpersonal terms, it is related to interpersonal meaning in some way (see p. 128 of this chapter). It has been shown in this chapter that interpersonal meaning seems to be susceptible to shifts (as was the case in Chapter Six, p. 127).

While the above phenomenon (of shift-susceptibility) is an important finding so far, there are other facts found in this chapter: (i) the shifts of purpose (TLTs 6 and 7) cause a TLT to be judged as a mere partial translation, which was also the case of a referential rendering in Chapter Six (p. 126); (ii) Referential rendering which is not accompanied by a generic shift (TLT 8) still constitutes a valid translation equivalence; (iii) TLT effectiveness seems to be an important issue in translation, which goes hand in hand with the translator's control of the language into which the translation is carried out.

1). Halliday (1985) indicates that embeddings should be distinguished from a 'tactic' relation such as 'paratactic' or 'hypotactic'. While embedding is a form of expansion which can 'move up' the rank scale, and is thus not counted as a separate clause, a clause in a tactic relation is counted as a separate clause.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE TRANSLATION OF NARRATIVE DISCOURSES

8.1. Narrative Discourse Revisited

The purpose of a narrative discourse is to recount events, usually in the past. By this definition many other forms of text apart from stories themselves can be included in the discussion. So it does not have to be fiction (in the narrow sense). It can cover texts such as (newspaper) reports, prophecy, etc. (see Chapter Three, p. 36).

The major events constitute the (global) prominence in this discourse. The series of events in narrative are usually realized as actions. The recounting of events is characteristically in either first or third person. When the agent of the events is first person, he identifies himself with one of the participants and "speaks out" in this capacity (Longacre, 1976). When the agent is third person, he narrates things which happen to others and as such he reports as an observer rather than as a participant.

To recall from Chapter Three, there are two basic parameters for classifying discourses: contingent temporal succession and agent orientation. Both of these parametres apply to narrative discourse. A third parameter, projection, classifies narratives in terms of varieties such as prophecy (projected narrative) and ordinary story-telling (unprojected narrative). The fourth parameter, tension (local or global), distinguishes between the varieties of climactic narrative (plus tension) and episodic narrative (minus tension) structures.

The backbone of the schematic structure in narrative is usually a series of incidents/events occurring one after another in sequential order. The series could form an episode in a narrative, in which a constant time, location and participants are as important as the device for unity. Time

here should be understood as a forward movement, which, indicates a movement from the beginning of an event to its end. A simple way of recounting events can be done through a natural order of happening, i.e. according to its chronology. A more complex way of recounting is through a flash-back, in which case the order of narration is not the same as the (natural) order of happening (see SLT G in this chapter).

Another important factor in narrative, apart from the type of temporal movement, is the recognition of backbone (mainline events, etc.) and supportive materials. The backbone in narrative discourse is a series of events in the past tense, although it can also be in historical present, or future tense, when it is a projected narrative. As has been stated in Chapter Four, in BI, where the verbs are unmarked in terms of tense, main line in narratives can be marked through the verbal nuances of aspect (perfective or imperfective) and through the notion of foregrounding and backgrounding to distinguish more important events from lesser and somewhat predictable ones. Apart from this, temporal lexical deixis, which is an important language element in BI for informing us about the actual time of occurrence of the happening, can also be used.

In the following, we will examine two sub-types of narrative, in which both are of the report sub-types (see Chapter Two, p. 25 and also below each SL text for the sources of the (SL) texts). The first one, SLT G, is a report orientated to persons and events. In this sub-type, the narrator directly represents the facts (persons, events, etc.) from the context. It is the first order representation of the narrator's own projection of the real world. We have referred to this as direct narrative (see Chapter Three).

The second sub-type, SLT H, is a report orientated to speech-events. Here the narrator is a reporter, representing other people's projection. We

have referred to this sub-type of narrative as indirect narrative in Chapter Three. We have also stated in Chapter Three that while the direct narrative is unmediated, the indirect one is mediated through the speaker's mouthpiece (rather than the narrator's).

8.2. The Direct Narrative

SL Text G

1) Sementara pertarungan di nomor tunggal putra-putri
   while   fight   in number single male female

   memasuki saat-saat menegangkan
   NG-enter moments   tense (qualifier)

2) tiga pasangan ganda Indonesia memastikan   diri
   three pair   double Indonesia NG-determine-KAN self

   ke final turnamen   antarmaster   bulutangkis
   to final tournament inter-mastership badminton

3) yang berlangsung di Albert Hall, London
   which take place in Albert Hall London

4) Mereka adalah Christian/Imelda Wiguna di nomor   ganda
   they are   names   in number double

   campuran dan Verawaty Wiharjo/Imelda Wiguna di nomor
   mixed   and   names   in number

   ganda putri   (...)
   double female

5) Ketika berita ini diturunkan
   when   news   this DI-put down-KAN

6) pertandingan menentukan di nomor tunggal putra-putri
   match   crucial   in number single male-female

   baru akan dimulai
   just will DI-start

7) di mana 4 pemain terbaik Indonesia   akan tampil ke arena,
   where 4 player   best Indonesia   will appear in arena

   Rudy Hartono, King, Verawaty dan Ivana
               names

8) Pertandingan berlangsung mulai jam 18.30 waktu London
   match   take place start hour   time

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```
atau 00.30 WIB Sabtu. dini hari karena perbedaan waktu
or          WIB Saturday dawn      because difference time

enam jam
six  hour·
```

9) Rudy yang berada di group A akan bertarung melawan
   name who exist in group A will fight   NG-go against

```
bintang muda Denmark , Morten F. Hansen
star    young Danish          name
```

10) untuk mendapat tempat di final
    to   NG-get   place   in final

(continued with clauses concerning Group B).

Notes: 1) The /NG-/ prefix indicates backgrounding and is
          imperfective in aspect; the /DI-/ prefix indicates
          foregrounding and is perfective in aspect.
       2) /-KAN/ indicates a tie with an object position but
          not necessarily benefactive.
       3) When the prefix is not indicated in the gloss,
          it functions as a qualifier
       4) WIB = Waktu Indonesia Barat 'Western Indonesian
          Time'
       5) Dependent clauses and embeddings are numbered
          separately.

The text recounts badminton events, especially the singles. The lexis used such as pertarungan 'match', final, turnamen 'tournament', are those characteristic of sport matches, which are strung throughout the text. As such they constitute a semantic field of sport events.

Apart from realizing the semantic field, the words used also reflect the reaction of the writer. Words such as menegangkan 'exciting', memastikan diri 'determined' show that the reaction of the writer is involved. The clauses containing these words ((1) to (3)) not only express the writer's reaction but also create some lexical tension, so as to create some kind of peak[1] right at the beginning. In this way, the writer captures the reader's interest in finding out more facts about the events being interpreted.

Then in (5), the writer goes back to the chronological beginning of the events, which is where the actual reports starts. The beginning of the report is grammatically marked by the /DI-/ clauses in (5) and (6). They also mark prominent information in the report. In other words, the /DI-/ clauses foreground the events realized in them despite their placement (see Chapter Four, p. 71). On comparing them with the /NG-/ clauses preceding them, we can see that /NG-/ clauses provide background information for (5) and (6).

The background information here happens to be in the form of a flashback (sentences (1) to (4). What is developed and reported in (5) to (10) is taken from the sentence topic of (1) (i.e. the beginning of the flashback).

Apart from the above interrelationship between the flashback and the actual report, the SLT is also characterized by various kinds of cohesion. The cohesion is formed through the lexical chain, and grammatical relations. An example of the lexical chain is the antonymy relation between nomor tunggal 'single event' and pasangan ganda 'double team' in (2). The participant chain, whilst formed through the names of the players, intertwines with grammatical relations, such as conjunctions.

While the cohesion and cohesive chains mentioned above can be expressed in a relatively the same way in English, it is not so with the relationship between the the flashback and the foregrounding. This is observed below.

8.2.1. The TL Versions

TL Text 1

1) When the match for men's and women's singles came to the crucial moments 2) three Indonesian pairs for doubles were determined to reach the final in the badminton inter-

mastership tournament 3) which took place in Albert Hall, London. 4) They were Christian/Imelda Wiguna in the mixed doubles and Verawaty Wiharjo/Imelda Wiguna in the women's doubles. 5) When the news was issued 6) the crucial match for the men's and women's singles was just going to begin 7) where four of the Indonesian best players would appear in the arena: Rudy Hartono, King, Verawaty and Ivana. 8) The match began at 18.30 London time or 00.30 Western Indonesian time, at dawn on Saturday, due to the six-hour difference. 9) Rudy, who was in the A group would play against the young Danish star player, Morten F. Hansen 10) to reach the final.

Except for (9), which uses projected time, all clauses are in past tense. However, all events and participants are practically of the same importance in the translated version. On comparing it with the SL text we can see that the difference between the backgrounded and foregrounded events is less clear.

Apart from the shift at the level of lexicogrammar, there is a shift in the use of conjunction in clause (1). While the temporal conjunction sementara 'while' is one of time extent, the one used in the TLT is of point of time (Halliday, 1985). Thus in the SL version the event in clause (2) occurs somewhere during the event in (1). On the other hand, the TL text seems to imply that the event in (2) occurs only when the event in (1) is at a certain point of time, as if it has not occurred before (which is not the case).

More conspicuous kinds of shifts than the ones mentioned so far are those concerning the lexical expression in the text. Shifts of this kind can be categorized into two: (1) those concerned with connotation and (2) those concerned with redundancy of expression. An example of the first kind of shift is the word menegangkan 'tense/exciting' in (1). While the word has an emotive connotation, its translation into 'crucial' makes it sound more judgemental than emotional. The same case occurs in (9): bertarung 'fight' carries a heavy adversarial connotation compared to the TL expression 'play against'.

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The other kind of lexical shift is one associated with redundancy (clause (8)). The SL expression <u>berlangsung mulai</u> is not only redundant but also confusing: while <u>berlangsung</u> '(to) last' implies an extent of time, <u>mulai</u> 'begin' is a point of time. A combination of the two to form a lexical item is confusing when translated into English. Thus the TL version 'began' is clearer in terms of time. The case of redundancy also occurs in (10): <u>mendapat tempat</u> 'gain place' has been translated into 'enter' in the TL text.

TLT 1 shows that the translator is proficient enough in the two languages involved in the translation. For one thing he/she seems to be capable of choosing the right tense for the narration. For another thing he/she is able to freely reverbalize certain lexical words in accordance with more customary expressions in the TL culture. For example, certain words which are normally expressed in the SLT with heavy emotional loading (such as <u>pertarungan</u> 'fight') in sports such as badminton are not as common in English for that sport (cf. boxing).[2]

In fact TLT 1 has been translated by one of the two Australian residents. Another translator, with slightly different choice of lexical words and grammatical structures, has translated the text in a similar way to TLT 1:

TL Text 2

(Only the first three sentences are given as comparison)

1) While the men's and women's singles events were coming to the climactic moments 2) three Indonesian teams for doubles were certain to enter the final in the badminton inter-masters tournament 3) which took place in Albert Hall, London. (The complete text can be found in TLT II of Appendix IV-A).

Here we can see that the translator of TLT 2 has chosen to reverbalize the

conjunction in (1) as extent, which is equivalent to its original version.

Different as it may be from TLT 1 in the reverbalization of certain lexical words (underlined), it remains a recounting of past events. Such past events do not bear any relevance to the present.

However, a less competent translator has translated the text into an account which implies a continued existence, as in TLT 3:

TL Text 3

1) While the match in the men's and women's singles events enters the exciting moment, 2) and 3) three teams of Indonesian doubles are certain to reach final in the badminton inter-masters tournament in Albert Hall, London. 4) They are Christian/Imelda Wiguna in the mixed doubles, and Verawaty Wiguna/Imelda in the women's doubles. 5) When the news is issued 6) the match for the men's and women's singles event will be started 7) where four best Indonesian players will appear in the arena: Rudy, King. Verawaty, and Ivana 8) The match starts at 18.30 London time, or 00.30 Western Indonesian Time, which is at dawn on Saturday, because of the six-hour difference. 9)/10) To be a finalist, Rudy, who is in group A, will fight against the young Danish star, Morten F. Hansen.

The recounting in present tense of past events seems to indicate that it is a historical exposition more than a narrative. This is not how such a recounting would be expressed in English. A recounting of past events in English would normally be in past tense. In this way, TLT 3 shifts referentially, and it cannot be considered an appropriate translation equivalence.

Translation involving tenses seems to be a problem for some of the translators (cf. TL texts (1) and (2) here). Such problem not only affects the translation of narratives but other text types as well (see, for example, TLT 2 of Chapter Seven, in which the expository discourse involves an expounding with time-line (see p. 137).

At word and group levels, the translator of TLT 3 seems to adopt the strategy of the SL version in his/her reverbalization of certain lexical

words. The words such as 'exciting' in (1), 'fight against' in (9) are the normal expression for such account of events, where the players represent the country, but not necessarily so in English.

As to the shifts, there are two kinds: Shift of grammatical grouping and shift of topic, both of which are optional. The dependent clause in (3) has been shifted into a phrase, thus causing it to form one group with clause (2) (notice that the shift of grammatical grouping such · as this also occurred in Chapter Seven).

The shift of topic affects clauses (9) and (10). The clause of enhancement with <u>untuk</u> 'to/for' at the end of·the clause-complex is shifted to the beginning, causing it to be the topic of the clause. In this way it causes <u>Rudy,</u> a topic in the clause-complex, to be less prominent in the translated version due to its placement.

Although the main line events are not affected by the shifts of topics in TLT 3, the shift of tenses has caused a serious problem . It implies a referential shift. It is referentially wrong because the content of the text does not involve a continued existence (the status and achievements of the players have changed considerably over the years). In this way, TLT 3 cannot be considered as a translation equivalence, due to the shift of referential meaning. Some translation theorists and practitioners might call it a case of partial translation, or a translation for a particular purpose. However, in this study, it is considered a case of mistranslation, due to the referential shift.

8.2.2. Variation Across the Ten TL Texts

In the above section, we examine three kinds of TLTs: (i) TLT 1, in which there are optional shifts related to the conjunctive in the first

sentence, to the connotative meaning, and to the grammatical redundancy.
(ii) TLT 2, which is an attempt of formal correspondence in many ways;
(iii) TLT 3, which shifts referentially.

The other seven TL versions are comparable to the above TLTs (TLTs in Roman Numerals are from Appendix IV-A). TLT IV (produced by one of the Australian residents) attempts a considerable grammatical regrouping. TLT IX (together with TLT 3 mentioned before) contains referential shift in tense. The rest (four translators) attempt formal correspondence in many ways, except for two, who also transfer the original connotative meaning of certain words in the SLT.

8.2.3. Concluding Remarks for the Direct Narrative

Apart from the variations in the translation of lexical items, all TL versions express events as practically of the same prominence. The backgrounded and the foregrounded events and information are not as distinct as they are in the SLT (cf. the /DI/ clause to mark the foregrounding in clause (5) of the SLT).

The difference between the flashback and the reported chronological events is not as sharp as it is in the SLT. While in the SLT the beginning of the actual report is marked by both the time point _ketika_ 'when' and /DI-/ foregrounding, in the TLTs it is only marked by the temporal conjunctive 'when'.

While the above translation problem seems to be special to (direct) narrative, the shifts occurring are not exclusively narrative problems. The shifts related to tenses, which occurred when tenses other than present tense are used (for the TLT), also occurred in the translation of expository discourse in Chapter Seven. As well, the shift of grammatical regrouping occurring in this chapter also occurred in the translation of

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both hortatory and expository discourse (see Chapters Six and Seven).

However, it remains to be seen whether the phenomena of shifts mentioned above also occur in the translation of indirect narrative, as examined in the following.

8.3. The Indirect Narrative

SL Text H

0) Dalam pertemuan dengan para   anggota Perhimpunan
   In   meeting   with plural marker member Association

   Mahasiswa Indonesia di Australia (PPIA), pak Parapak,
   student Indonesia in Australia PPIA   Mr. Parapak

   yang   berada   di Australia dalam rangka
   who/which BER-present/exist in Australia for the purpose (of)

   menyertai   Menparpostel, menyampaikan   beberapa hal
   NG-accompany Menparpostel NG-deliver-KAN some   matter

   penting
   important

1) Menurut pak Parapak, kegiatan World Expo 1988 cukup
   according Mr name   activity World Expo 1988 enough

   • berhasil menjembatani berlangsungnya kembali
   succesful NG-bridge-I take place-def again

   kunjungan-kunjungan resmi   antara Indonesia dan
        visits   official between Indonesia and

   Australia (...)
   Australia

2) <u>Dinyatakan</u> pula   bahwa keuangan kita diupayakan
   DI-state-KAN also   that finance our DI-attempt-KAN

   untuk tidak bergantung kepada migas
   to/for not   depend   to   oil & gas

3) Dengan demikian produk   non-migas   harus ditingkatkan
   with   so   product non oil & gas must DI-increase-KAN

4) Untuk itu <u>diharapkan</u> agar masyarakat Indonesia yang
   for that DI-hope-KAN that community Indonesia who

```
sedang          berada     di Australia dapat memberi masukan
now/at present  be present in Australia can   NG-give input

tentang produk-produk apa yang perlu dipromosikan
about      products   what which need DI-promote-KAN
```

5) Disamping itu <u>diharapkan</u> pariwisata dapat menjadi
   besides   that DI-hope-KAN tourism   can NG-become

```
salah satu devisa          utama   dalam pembangunan
 one of   foreign exchange primary in    development

nasional
national
```

6) Dalam hal ini <u>diharapkan</u> agar kita anggota PPIA dapat
   in case this DI-hope-KAN that we member PPIA can

```
menjadi    promotor pariwisata ,
NG-become promotor tourism
                        (Media, PPIA Cabang NSW,
                         Australia, Desember 1988)
```

Notes:
1)The sentences are numbered according to the reported speech
  events.
2)def = definite marker
3)Underlining indicates the reporting verbs.
4)The meaning of the affixes can be found underneath SLT G.
5)Menparpostel = Menteri pariwisata dan Pos Telekomunikasi
  (The Minister of Tourism, Post and Telecommunication).

The   text is a narration of speech events, reporting certain ideas

expressed by Mr. Parapak. The text reports a number of different though

related things expressed by Mr. Parapak: a) official visits between

Indonesia and Australia; b) Finance and non-oil products, and how the

Indonesians in Australia can play a role in the promotion of these

products; c) the role of tourism and the expected role of the Indonesian

students in Australia in relation to tourism as a medium of foreign

exchange.

     For a short report to express such different subject matter, the text

may seem to ramble: from official visits (clause (1)), to finance and non-

oil products (clauses (2) to (4)), to tourism (clauses (5) and (6)).   But

the writer seems to be aware of this and to compensate for it through the

use of various conjunctions: additive conjunctions in (2) and (5); causal conjunctions in (3) and (4); and conditional emphatic conjunction in (6) (refer to Halliday and Hasan (1976) Chapter Five for further explanations of conjunctions).

Apart from the above conjunctive relations, the text is also organized in terms of backgrounding and foregrounding. The /NG-/ clauses (including /BER-/ clauses) in sentences (0) and (1) provide a background for the foregrounded reported speech events realized as /DI-/ clauses in the sentences following it. These foregrounded clauses constitute the main line of the report.

The background is personal or person-oriented, in the sense that it not only introduces the speaker at the beginning but also indicates what he says (with the agent made explicit). The rest of the text, however, is meant to be impersonal, not mentioning any agent, or occasionally mentioning it partially in the text. There are two possible interpretations for the elided or the partly mentioned agent: a) that the agent expressing the idea is Mr. Parapak, in which case the /DI-/ verbal prefix in the reporting verbs can be interpreted as short form of <u>dia</u> 'he/she'[3]; b) that the whole foregrounded clauses are official statements voiced through Mr. Parapak, and therefore are to be realized as impersonal clauses.

However, because his visit to Australia is official, as indicated in sentence (0), the second interpretation is more tenable. Therefore the English translation should be done accordingly. But whether or not the translators have this in mind, can be observed through the following translation.

TL Text 5

0) In a meeting with the members of the Indonesian Students' Association in Australia (PPIA), Mr. Parapak, who accompanied the Minister of 'Parpostel' on his official visits in Australia, talked about certain important matters. 1) According to Mr. Parapak, events of the World Expo 1988 had been successful enough in <u>bridging the happening</u> of official visits between Indonesia and Australia. 2) It was also stated that our finance had been worked out not to depend on oil/gas. 3) So non oil/gas products should be increased. 4) Because of that, the Indonesian community in Australia <u>was hoped to be able to give</u> an input concerning what products <u>needed to be promoted</u>. 5)Besides that, tourism was hoped to be one of the main foreign exchanges in the national development. 6) In this case, we, PPIA members, <u>were hoped to be able to become</u> promotors of tourism.

A general observation of TLT 5 reveals that the translator has attempted to render the impersonality and subject suppression in the SLT through passivity. The obvious evidence for this would be the underlined clauses in the text. These clauses, although preserving the impersonality, constitute very awkward English expression: In (1) 'happening' is not normally 'bridged', in (4) and (5) there are more (to) be's than necessary.

So, while referentially it remains close to the original version, it is in fact a poor translation. The formally corresponding structures are awkward. The resulting translation is an ineffective English text. Confronted with the text, four English native speakers frowned upon it, and they all agree that it is an ineffective translation.

In the light of this it is important to ask the following question: Does referential correspondence make for translation equivalence? Although referential correspondence, like formal correspondence, is a much needed cornerstone in translation activity (Ivir, 1986), it does not necessarily guarantee translation equivalence. As some translation theorists have agreed (e.g. Reiss, 1981), translation equivalence should produce equivalent effect on the readers (note that at least five native

Indonesians consider SLT H as effective enough). But for native Australians the TLT is not perceived as effective, thus failing to reexpress the tenor and mode of the original version.

In the following we will compare TLT 5 with another TL version (TLT 6) to observe two things: (a) what makes the TL version an effective translation; (b) how (clausal) topical shifts play a role in creating such effectiveness.

TL Text 6

0) In a meeting with the members of PPIA (Indonesian Students Association), Mr Parapak, who was in Australia accompanying the official visit by the Minister of Tourism and Post-Telecommunications, discussed certain important matters. 1). According to Mr. Parapak World Expo 1988 has been successful in reeventuating the official visits between Indonesia and Australia . 2). It was also stated that our finance had been attempted not to depend on gas/oil. 3). Therefore non-oil/gas products should be increased. 4). For this reason, it was hoped that the Indonesian community in Australia could give information concerning the products to be promoted. 5). Besides this, it was hoped that tourism could be one of the main foreign exchange for the national development. 6) In this case, it was hoped that PPIA members could be the promoters of tourism.

The first important thing to notice in TLT 6 is that the translator places the reporting clauses as the sentence topics in (4), (5) and (6). The clauses with the structure of "it was ..." in (4) to (6) have created more cohesion (by repetition) apart from the conjunctive relations. More importantly, the cohesion through these topics has produced a text which sounds less rambling, compared to TLT 5.

As a result, TLT 6 constitutes an effective text. The referential meaning of the original is preserved, and the prominent reporting clauses are topical. Confronted with TLTs 5 and 6, the four English native speakers mentioned above agree that TLT 6 is more effective. The main reason they gave was that TL text 6 is consistent in placing the reporting clauses at

the beginning (apart from conjunctions). This, they said, allows the reader to concentrate, on the content of the report: the end of the reporting clause is the beginning of the report itself. As stated by one of the translators, all this helps to make the text more comprehensible than TLT 5. It is in this sense that TLT 6 is effective.

There is a case where a shift in tenor affects the overall purpose of the text.

TL Text 7
(Sentence (0) is left out)

1) According to Mr. Parapak, the activities of the World Expo 1988 were successful enough to recreate the continuity of official visits between Indonesia and Australia. 2) He also stated that there had been attempts for our finance not to depend on oil and gas. 3). So the non-oil and gas products should be increased. 4). He hoped that the Indonesian community living in Australia could provide information about the products needing promotion. 5) Apart from this, he hoped that tourism could be one of the main foreign exchanges in the national development. 6). For this reason, he hoped that as members of PPIA we could be the promoters of tourism.

Here we can see another kind of topical shift. After each conjunctive in (2), (4), (5), and (6), we have 'he' as the topic of the reporting clause, making each one explicitly personal rather than impersonal.

The implication of the personalization is that the speech events are those solely of Mr. Parapak's. This is not what is intended in the SL version: the impersonalization is used as a device to show that the person who voices the (official) statements is not necessarily the originator of the statements.

In this way, TLT 7 referentially shifts from its SLT. The shift is global and significant enough to affect the overall purpose of the text. Therefore, TLT 7 cannot be considered a translation equivalent.

Apart from the kind of referential shift seen above, the text may allow another kind, one related to tenses:

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TL text 8
(Only the first two sentences are presented)

1).. According to Mr. Parapak, World Expo 1988 <u>was</u>
<u>successful</u> enough in continuing the official visits between
Indonesia and Australia. 2). It was also stated that our
finance <u>was</u> <u>attempted</u> not to be dependent on oil/gas.
(The complete text can be found in TLT IV of Appendix IV-B)

The translation of the /DI-/ verbs into the past tense seems to imply

that the reported facts are cases of a point of time, not just at the time

of speaking. This should not be, because 'the success' in (1) has proved to

be not only at the time of the Expo but long after it as well.[4] As well,

the activity of 'attempting' in (2) is not only in terms of a point in

time, but of duration. A continuing fact realized in simple past tense

cannot represent duration (which extends from before or even after the

speaking, possibly including the present).

Apart from the above case of shift in tense, there is a case of tense

shift in the reporting verbs, which is similar to the case of shift in TLT

3 of this Chapter (see also TLT V of Appendix IV-B). However, such a shift

(into present tense) may only affect sentences (4) and (6) (of the

reporting verbs), thus we have ".... is hoped to inform us..." (sentence

(4), ".... are expected to be ...." (sentence (6) (see TLT IX of Appendix

IV-B). In this case, the <u>hope</u> and <u>expectation</u> are ongoing, not only at the

time of speaking and reporting.

The realization of tenses as in the above does not affect the overall

purpose of the text, because it is possible to understand the original

reporting verbs to imply extended time relevance rather than just a point

of time in the past. Therefore the TLT containing the shift can still be

considered a translation equivalent.

Apart from all the texts mentioned above (including those referred to

in the Appendix), there is still another important TL variation to mention,

which was done by one of the Australian residents (the complete text can be found in TLT X of Appendix IV-B):

<div align="center">TLT 9</div>

> (1) According to Mr. Parapak, the activities of World Expo 88 have reactivated the official visits between Indonesia and Australia, <u>which stopped since the Jenkins Affair</u>.

The underlined clause is added by the translator, which seems to be an attempt to make the (pragmatic) context of the SLT explicit in the TLT (Recall that such attempt also occurred in the translation of Expository discourse in Chapter Seven). Such attempts seem to be accepted in translation practice (See Blum-Kulka, 1986). So provided the information added does not cause a referential (as well as) pragmatic shift, such practice can still be a legitimate practice.

So far, we have discussed seven variations of TLT for the indirect narrative discourse. The other three versions (TLTs VI to VIII in Appendix IV-B) are similar to TLT 6, which is a case of a satisfactory translation equivalence.

8.4. Concluding Remarks

The nature of narrative as a discourse type with temporal orientation creates problems of tense in the TL version. The problems are intensified by the fact that Indonesian verbs are unmarked. There are two basic problems concerning tense: (a) understanding whether or not the unmarked verbs in the SL text have durative or non-durative aspect; (b) expressing them accordingly in English, both in terms of tense and in terms of aspect.

Even when we get the tense right (as in many of the TLTs for the direct narrative discourse), the sharp distinction between the backgrounded

and the foregrounded clauses in the SL version can be lost. This is a common consequence of translation, as found in the previous chapter(s) as well.

When the tense is right and the translator is able to reverbalize the lexicogrammatical expressions of the SLT in the TL version in accordance with TL norms, it can be hoped that the TLT is effective (as judged by the native speakers of the TL culture), for example TLT 6 for the direct narrative.

However, in the attempt to find translation equivalence in its broad sense, shifts have proved to be unavoidable. When these shifts create their own cohesive effects (as in TLT 5 of this chapter), with no referential shift of meaning involved, the translation is still justified. But when the text shifts referentially as well (as in TLT 7), the shifts result in an inappropriate translation.

In some cases of shift, especially the optional ones, the basic reason seems to be even more basic than the translation itself, i.e. relative uniformity of interpreting the context of the SLT. We have seen that translators react differently to a (SL) text, even when general hints of interpretation have been given before translating (as can be seen by the optional shifts that translators make across Chapters Five to Eight). Therefore, it is imperative that in training students to translate we do not concentrate only on translating sentences and terms (as is now generally done in Malang, Indonesia). It is important that the student translators are exposed to as many discourse types and sub-types as possible, to enable them to come to terms with textual effectiveness.

However, even in the paradigm of 'discourse translation', standardization of terms remains an important element. Even more so is the creation of norms for certain problematic cases such as /DI-/ foregrounding in certain discourse types, cases of subject ellipsis, etc. This will be

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the focus of attention in the following chapter, pulling together the strands of the examination from the four chapters of analysis (Chapters Five to Eight). This, in turn, will lead us back to the general questions posited as the problems of research in this thesis, relating the whole research to the more general question of equivalence in translating and in training students to translate.

Footnotes on Chapter Eight

1). Peak is a kind of climax in the climactic narrative where the tension
   and complication are presented in the plot structure (see Larson (1983)
   and Longacre (1983) for further details of 'plot structures'.

2). Although it has not been statistically counted, the lexical items
   'match', 'play', or 'players' are used more than the more emotionally
   loaded words such as 'fight' in English (See, for examples, accounts of
   sport events in the 'Official Australian Guide to the Seoul Olympic
   Games', 1988).

3). See Thomas (1977) for the origins of the bound pronouns in Bahasa
   Indonesia, especially for he/she.

4). The success extends to the reported visit of an Indonesian minister in
   March 6, 1989 (see The Sydney Morning Herald, 7 March, 1989).

CHAPTER NINE

SYNTHESIS OF TRANSLATION SHIFTS

9.1. Introductory Remarks

We have seen in the previous chapters (Five to Eight) that translation shifts occur both at the lower level of language: lexicogrammar, and at the higher thematic level of text. At the lower level, we find obligatory shifts of syntactic structures, of clausal topics, of cohesion, etc. A case of shift at the lexicogrammatical level often centres on a particle or detail of word order. The foregrounding of verbs in BI, for example, causes an obligatory shift in clausal order. Yet the finding of translation equivalence (TE) at the sentence level often has to be done by reference to the higher level of text (as in the case of the translation of /DI-/ clauses and /-LAH/ particle).

On the other hand, at the higher thematic level, we note shifts of text type and sub-type, which arise out of lower level shifts affecting the thematic backbone and the notional features of the text (i.e. contingent succession, agent orientation, and projection). So, the two levels of shifts are often interrelated.

In the various types of text, we have now seen the effects of both optional and obligatory shifts for the translation as a whole. When the lower level shifts are of the obligatory kind, further shifts seem to occur at the interpersonal component, and in the cohesion of the text, but they do not affect text type or sub-type.

In examining the question of TE for each translation type, we can recognize areas or components of text which are shift-sensitive. These components seem to be common across text types when we translate from BI

into English (see Column III in Figures 9.1 to 9.4 of this Chapter). The components also play an important role in whether or not a shift of text type or sub type occurs. When the shift does occur, it is important to see the directions of such shift and why (Section 9.4. of this Chapter).

Apart from the number of translators employing the shifts, obligatory or optional, the variability of behaviour and predisposition towards an SL text is qualitatively important. The variability shows that, in translator training, we have to expose the students towards the shift-sensitive components of the text.

However, before examining the shift-sensitive components mentioned above, we will revisit the roles of obligatory and optional shifts in relation to text type in translation (Section 9.2).

9.2. Obligatory and Optional Shifts Revisited

We have indicated in Chapter One (pp. 2) and Chapter Two (p. 16) that translation shifts occur when no formal correspondence occurs in translation, e.g. when subject suppression in /DI-/ clauses in BI has to be lexicalized in full in English. We have referred to this as an obligatory shift, since its occurrence is dictated by the grammar. Similar compensatory devices are used by all translators.

We have also shown in the chapters of analysis that another kind of shift (apart from the obligatory shift) could occur, which is a case of shift caused by the translator's discretion. An example of such shift is when the translator of TLT 4 of Chapter Six chose to express the 'we' oriented clauses (of exhortations) in the SLT using clauses orientated to the third person in the TLT. We have referred to this as optional shift, since the translator could have chosen the more equivalent clauses with 'we' orientation in the TLT (but he did not do so). In shifts like these,

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there are formal correspondents, but something else has been selected by the translator in the light of interpersonal meaning, of pragmatic context, and of the generic construction. So, the compensatory device is an open choice in optional shifts, and not as predictable as that in the obligatory shift (see also Chapter Two, p. 29).

As we have seen in the chapters of analysis, obligatory shifts, formal correspondence and translation equivalence are not always so easily recognized as in the examples given above. A grammatical element in a text does not always represent one meaning. So, what seems to constitute a formal correspondence in the TLT at the sentence level does not necessarily constitute a satisfactory translation at the textual level. An example of this is when the /DI-/ clause in the procedural discourse of Chapter Five is translated into passive constructions in the TLT, causing the translation to be an expository text rather than of a set of procedures. Thus, although the Indonesian /DI-/ clause could correspond with passivity in English at the sentence level, the passive realization could create a shift at the level of the text. This is because /DI-/ clauses have more than one meaning in BI (it means, among others, 'passivity', 'foregrounding', 'indirect imperatives'). So the finding of translation equivalence for such clauses should be made by reference to the text type in which the clauses occur.

With the phenomenon of multivalence such as with /DI-/ clauses above, obligatory shifts are not as clearcut as when they occur in cases with no multivalence. Therefore, formal correspondence is almost always approximate. Another phenomenon of multivalence is one involving the particle /-LAH/, in which case the translation of such a particle is dependent upon the type of text in which it is used. As far as these phenomena are concerned, the distinction between obligatory and optional

shifts is not really very helpful. Instead, it seems more important to examine the cases of multivalence in terms of their susceptibility to shifts, as examined below. We will refer to the shift-susceptible components as shift-sensitive components.

9.3. Examining Shift-Sensitive Components Across Text Types

Apart from the lexicogrammatical features which are shift-sensitive, our analysis has shown that the notional features of a text are susceptible to shift and can indeed generate shifts of text type.

As noted in Chapter Three, one of the vital notional features of procedural discourse is projection, depending on whether the procedures are realized or anticipated. However, in one of the procedural texts examined, the projection is obscure. Its status of being a realized or an anticipated/contemplated set of procedures is only decided by being translated into English: (1) When realized in passive declaratives, the TLT is minus projection, since its realization is an unknown time in the future; (2) When translated into imperatives, the text is plus projection, since the realization of the action is immediate. Since the SLT is a case of practical (procedural) writing, the TLT does not tolerate the generic ambiguity, and it is important to resolve it (cf. the need to retain ambiguity when it is in the context of literary writing (See Hatim and Mason, 1990). Due to its ambiguity, this notional feature of the SLT projection is shift-sensitive. Different interpretations of it are bound to occur according to the discretion of the translators and their awareness of the text's function. More importantly, when the notional features are shift-sensitive, shifts of text (sub) type will result more often than when the shift-sensitive components are confined to the level of lexicogrammar.

Let us look at Figure 9.1., which synthesises the shifts occurring,

evidenced in the translation of procedural discourse in Chapter Five. When we look at the upper half of the Figure (i.e. the direct sub-type), we can see that in the case where the notional features are clear, no shift of text-type occurs. Only the lower level components are affected, as dictated by the system in the TL: (1) the direct, friendly 'you' in the SL version becomes neutral; (2) the object ellipsis becomes object explicit. These shifts are obligatory, and all the ten translators employ them. However, two of them have a mixture in their lexicogrammatical realizations, some sentences of which are shifted optionally: from modulation with 'can' to the obligation with 'must', causing the TL version to be locally shifted interpersonally, but remain equivalent generically.

In the lower level of the Figure (i.e. the indirect sub-type), we can see that there are other shifts affecting the notional features. The shifts cannot be represented as just minus, but also plus, since the original version is not clear in terms of this signification. As indicated before, those who resolve the ambiguity (four out of ten translators) still fail to realize the interpersonal component (i.e. indirectness) in their TL versions. Only those who have more control of English could express both the generic purpose and the indirectness in their TLT (Figure 9.1.). Those who maintain grammatical correspondence have retained the ambiguity of the text type. However, when the shifts are obligatory (from subject ellipsis to explicit subject), all the ten translators are aware of the necessity to lexicalize the ellipsis accordingly (Figure 9.1., Column VII).

Interestingly enough, when this ambiguous SLT was given to another group of translators (ten of them) and a detailed explanation of the text's being procedural was given, the TL versions are uniformly of that type. The only shifts occurring are at the lower level components: (1) obligatory

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Text Version specif- ication	SLT	TLT Shifted--->Into	Equivalence	Reader- centred	Shift of text type	TLTs
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII

D I R E C T

Notional features	+ CS − AO + Proj.					
Interpersonal component	+ direct + friendly	--->(neutral)				10
Specific cohesion	+ object ellipsis	--->(object explicit)				10
Grammatical	+ imperatives mixed with advisable modulation	---> obligat- ion	Less eq. inter- personally			4
		shift in gramm- atical grouping		effective		2

I N D I R E C T

Notional Features	+ CS − AO ± Proj.	−proj. +proj.			exposition	
Interpersonal component	+ indirect (/DI−/ clauses)	--->direct				4
Specific cohesion	+ subject ellipsis	--->(subject explicit)				10
grammatical	+ indirect imperatives	--->passive decl.	gramm. corr.	less effective		4
		--->imper.	less eq. inter- personally	effective		4
		--->disguised commands	equiv. in- terpersonally	effective		2

Figure 9.1. Major Shifts in the Procedural Discourse

Notes: CS   Contingent Succession
       AO   Agent Orientation
       Proj. Projection
       ( )   obligatory shift
       <---->interrelated effect

shifts related to subject ellipsis (all translators); (2) optional shifts, which are (a) direct imperatives (7 translators) and (b) declaratives with advisable modulation using "should be..." (3 translators).

Let us turn now to Figure 9.2., which summarizes the findings for hortatory discourse. In hortatory discourse, the shifts affecting the interpersonal component also occur when the SLT is characterized by ellipsis (see pp. 101). Due to the indirectness, two translators have opted for shifts in the notional features (from 'you-orientation' to the third person orientation-- see pp. 114). According to them, indirect urging with no hortative sentences in the text is better expressed in a neutral way, as in an exposition in English. Other shifts are obligatory in nature, and are employed by more translators, such as subject explicitness in Column III of the Figure.

Another point which emerges from the upper part of Column III of Figure 9.2, is how the marked urging and indirectness realized as <u>harus</u> 'must' with /-LAH/ in BI has fostered shifts, due to the absence of the particle in English: (1) Using advisable declaratives with 'should' (six out of ten translators); (ii) literal rendering of <u>harus</u> 'must', thus obliging than urging (two out of ten translators). However, when direct hortative sentences are used in the SL version, only one translator (out of ten) has employed a shift. Even then, the shift is optional, and has been employed for reasons of effectiveness, as represented in the lower part of Column III in Figure 9.2. (See also Chapter Six, TLT 7, p. 121).

In both procedural and hortatory discourses, it has emerged that where interpersonal component is marked (either with a particle or through detail of word order such as foregrounding), this component is the one most affected by shifts (obligatory or otherwise) and a significant number of translators do the shifting (see Columns III and VII of Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). But in expository and narrative discourses, where the

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Text specification \ Version	SLT	TLT				TLTs
		Shifted Into --->	Equivalence status	Reader-centred	Shift of text type	
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII

INDIRECT

Notional features	- CS + AO (2nd) + Proj.	-AO (3rd) -proj.			expository	2
Interpersonal	+ indirect + inducement	--->exposition ←→ shifted				
Specific cohesion	+ subject ellipsis	--->(subject explicit)		effective		10
grammatical	+ advising with 'harus' and /-LAH/	--->obliging with 'must'	less eq. inter-personally			2

DIRECT

Notional features	- CS + AO + Proj.					
Interpersonal component	+ direct + change of 1st to 3rd person	--->remains 1st person		effective		1
specific cohesion	+ changing of co-referentiality	--->unchanged (consistent)	less eq. in texture			
grammatical	+ mixture of hortatives and decl.	--->straight hortative				

Figure 9.2. Major Shifts in the Hortatory Discourse

Notes: See Figure 9.1.

interpersonal component is not as marked (syntactically), and where the distinction between directness and indirectness is a matter of mediation than straight interpersonal representation), only the lower part of Column II in both Figures 9.3 and 9.4 shows effects of (obligatory) shifts (i.e. in cohesion and lexicogrammar). This confirms hypothesis 2a: that obligatory shifts generally only affect cohesion, except when the text is ambiguous as in SLT B (a complete discussion of hypotheses is presented in the final Chapter). When shifts do occur in the interpersonal component (Column III), they are optional and employed by only one translator.

Turning to expository discourse and the summary of major shifts in Figure 9.3., we see that while the shifts occurring (obligatory and/or optional) mainly affect grammatical structures and grouping in the direct, unmediated exposition, they also affect cohesion in indirect, mediated exposition.

Translation shifts in narrative discourse have been summarised in Figure 9.4. Just like those in the expository discourse above, they concentrate on the lower level lexicogrammatical features of the text rather than with the textual notional ones (cf. Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). But, unlike expository discourse, the (optional) interpersonal shifts in the indirect, mediated narrative discourse have caused a shift of sub-type: from the speech-oriented to the person-oriented narrative, i.e. making it more direct (Column III and VI of Figure 9.4).

Apart from the shift of sub-type mentioned above, there is at least one case of referential shift involving tense, which results in mistranslation. This occurs in the translation of the direct, unmediated narrative. It can be seen in Figure 9.4., that two out of ten translators translate the text using present tense, implying a continued existence of the text (p. 166). Due to the referential shift, the TL version becomes an

	Version		TLT				TLTs
Text specification	SLT	Shifted Into --->	Equivalence status	Reader-centred	Shift of text type	
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII

D I R E C T   U N M E D I A T E D

Notional Features	- CS - AO - Proj.					
Interpersonal	+ Direct (with a sentence change to 1st person)	--->consistent observer	less eq. interpersonally	effective		1
specific cohesion	+ temporal conj. and time points					
grammatical	+ post-modifier embeddings	--->(pre-mod. adjectives)				10
	+ large number of embeddings	--->pruned off	less eq. in grammatical grouping	effective		3

I N D I R E C T   M E D I A T E D

Notional features	- CS - AO (3rd) - Proj.	--->2nd --->1st	less less	less less	negative shifts of text type	1 1
Interpersonal component	+ indirect mediated	--->direct	less eq. interpersonally	effective	shift of sub-type	1
	+ friendly, occasionally neutral	--->neutral				
Specific cohesion	+ subject ellipsis	--->(subject explicit)				10
grammatical	+ emphasis with /-LAH/	--->(unmarked)	less eq. interpersonally			8
		--->shift in grammatical grouping		effective		2

Figure 9.3. Major Shifts in the Expository Discourse

Notes: See Figure 9.1.

Text Specification \ Version	SLT	TLT Shifted into--->	Equivalence status	Reader- centred	Shift of text type	TLTs
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
D Notional features	+ CS + AO - Proj.					
I Interpersonal component	+ person- oriented account + neutral					
R **E** specific **C** cohesion	+ temporal deictics + /DI-/ fore- grounding	---)(neutral)				10
T grammatical	+ unmarked verbs	---)present		mistranslt.	wrong shift	2
		---)past		effective		4
	+ grouping	---)regrouping		effective		3
Notional features	+ CS + AO - Proj.					
I Interpersonal **N** component	+ speech- account + subject **D** suppression	---)subject explicit	less eq. interpers.		shift of sub-type	1
I Specific	+ verbal cohesion	---)(cohesion through impersonal clauses				9
R **E**	+ Initial position of reporting verbs	---)medial		less effective		2
C **T** grammatical	+ perfective foregrounding	---)simple pres. (local)	localized shift of tenor	ineffective		1

Figure 9.4. Major Shifts in the Narrative Discourse

Notes: See Figure 9.1.

expository-like account, but inappropriately, since the text's function is different.

.To conclude this section, we can say that in discourses where indirectness and (partial) avoidance of subject-mention are involved in the interpersonal component, this component becomes shift-sensitive. As a result, shifts (obligatory and/or optional) are bound to occur. As a further result, shifts of cohesive pattern also occur. Unless ambiguity is involved, only optional shifts would affect notional features, causing shift of text type and sub-type, and thus the purpose or intention of the text. As far as shifts of text type and sub-type are concerned, a general direction/tendency as to where the shifts is going has emerged, as explained in section 9.4. below.

9.4. Directions of Textual Shifts

We have seen in section 9.2 above that whenever there is a shift of text type, the direction is always towards the neutral type, i.e. the direct expository text. And when texts shift in sub-type, the direction of the shift is always towards the direct (never from the direct sub-type to the indirect one). For seemingly different causes and reasons below, some of the translators of indirect procedural, hortatory, and narrative discourses shift to the direct, unmediated expository type when they opt to do textual shift (Figure 9.5). However, their options are not a mere wish or option, since the basis of the option lies in the nature of the SLT.[1] In other words, shifts of notional features are possible because of the indirectness of interpersonal component (i.e. the shift-sensitive component) realized in the text.
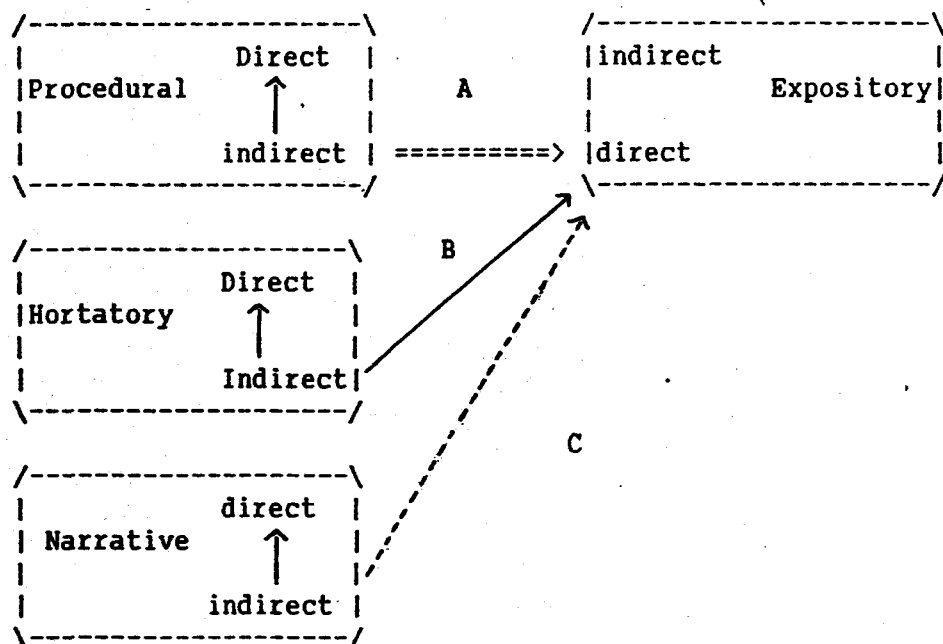
```
/------------------\                 /--------------------\
|        Direct    |                 |indirect            |
|Procedural   ↑    |      A          |          Expository|
|             |    |   =========> |direct              |
|        indirect  |                 |                    |
\------------------/                 \--------------------/

/------------------\     B
|        Direct    |
|Hortatory    ↑    |
|             |    |
|        Indirect  |
\------------------/                 C

/------------------\
|        direct    |
| Narrative   ↑    |
|             |    |
|        indirect  |
\------------------/
```

Figure 9.5. Directions of Textual Shifts

Notes: ===> obligatory pragmatic adaptation
              (resolution of ambiguity)
        ──→ optional shift
        ---→ referential shift

In spite of the sameness of the direction of the shift, the causes of the
shifts are different (represented by different lines in Figure 9.5).

The A-type shift is one in which (part of) the notional features are
obscure, thus these features are shift-sensitive (note that when retried
with the obscurity resolved, no shifts of text type occurred). The B-type
shift is one in which the interpersonal component involves indirectness
and/or involves subject-ellipsis or impersonalization in their
lexicogrammatical realizations. The C-type shift, however, makes
referential changes and results in mistranslation, especially when it is
global enough to cause a generic shift (cf. TLT 2 of Chapter Seven, p. 136,
when the referential shift only concerns one sentence, and is thus
localized).

Although different in nature, the B- and the C-types have something to

do with language proficiency. In the B-type, the translators are proficient English users (Indonesian residents in Australia) who are comfortable with the lower level (i.e. lexicogrammar), and can thus 'monitor' the upper level of the text (i.e. the notional features) relatively easily and translate (and/or adapt) them accordingly in the TL version. On the other hand, in the C-type, the translators are those whose mastery of English is not as good, and mainly passive, since they do not really use English in daily communication. As such, they are not very comfortable handling the lexicogrammar, and, in the cases discussed here, they especially have problems with tenses in English (see Chapters Seven and Eight). And since tenses (especially those other than the simple present) are crucial in certain text types (expository and narrative), the inability to handle tense adequately has caused referential shifts.

It can possibly be argued that since optional shifts are only employed by some translators, they do not need to be considered in translating. While quantity can be considered important in some things, quality is definitely as important. The explanation of shifting by even a few different translators provides a qualitative answer to the widely-discussed question in translation theory, as to how and why translators react differently to a text, and how to allow for or deal with this in training students to translate.

The general tendency towards neutrality (as well as directness) when the translators opt to shift in text type (or sub-type) indicates an avoidance of certain interpersonal indirectness in the texts. The fact that this indirectness could be a reason for the variability of translators' interpretation and translation should be noted in the translation activities involving transactional texts in Indonesia. Attention should be drawn to the fact that indirectness may be intentional, and that it is realized in text through certain markers in the lexicogrammar (and should

not just be changed into neutrality). In this way, hopefully, shifts to
neutrality would not be as readily indulged in the practice of normal
translation.

9.5. Categorizing Bases of Translation Shifts

It has been shown before that optional translation shifts are
interrelated with the translators' discretion. While optional shifts may
foster effective translation, they can also be seen in terms of translation
problems, especially when a mistranslation results from the shifts.

There are two basic sources of translation shifts: (i) SLT-centred
shifts; (ii) TLT-centred shifts. The SLT-centred shifts which cause main
problems in translation are of three kinds: (a) grammatical shifts, which
mainly concern particle markedness, foregrounding, and tenses; (b) shifts
related to cohesion, which mainly concern ellipsis; (c) textual shifts,
which mainly concern generic ambivalence, and embodiment of interpersonal
meaning. The TLT-centred shifts cause the main problems concerned with: (1)
achieving effectiveness; (2) pragmatic appropriateness; (3) information
(referential) explicitness.

Among the SLT-centred problems, grammatical problems and problems of
cohesion are ones which occur in all text types. Among the grammatical
problems, tenses constitute problems in expository and narrative discourse
when tenses other than simple present are involved. Sometimes, problems in
recognizing and expressing the right tenses could cause a mistranslation
(see TLT 3 of Chapter Eight). However, grammatical problems related to
foregrounding and (lexico-) grammatical markedness occur in almost any text
type.

As for the problems of cohesion, ellipsis and partial ellipsis (as in
subject suppression) are the main problems. The problems lie in the fact

that a translator could choose a wrong antecedent in lexicalizing the elided elements (subject or object).

SLT-centred textual problems are mainly related to interpersonal embodiment of meaning and to generic ambivalence. As was shown in Section 9.2. of this chapter, the problems of interpersonal meaning occur across all text types. However, problems of generic ambivalence, which require the ability to solve generic ambiguity , only affected the translation of the indirect procedural discourse (no doubt it could happen in other text types, but not in our source data).

The TLT-centred problems are mainly related to effectiveness, pragmatic appropriateness, and problems of information explicitness. This last set of problems is not as frequent as problems of pragmatic appropriateness and effectiveness, since information explicitness (often referred to as 'explicitation'-- see Blum-Kulka, 1986) is necessary mainly when certain lexical concepts are absent from the TL (e.g. the term 'Pancasila' in SLT C, which is a term pertinent to Indonesian political system).

Problems of effectiveness and pragmatic appropriateness, themselves important, are not simple problems to handle. For one thing, the problems are matters of relative readers' judgement, and for another thing they are interrelated with the translators' control of the language into which the translation is carried out, and the amount of discretion allowed. In fact, an even more basic question underlying effectiveness is the question of whether or not equivalence and adaptation (which is sometimes needed for the TLT to be effective) can be accommodated within the same concept, and the question of whether or not total translation (i.e. what we normally carry out) and adaptive translation can be placed within the same definition of translation posited in Chapter One (p. 1).

While the above problems have to be considered in translating and in

training people/students to translate, they also have significance for the teaching of 'English as a foreign language' to Indonesian students (see Chapter Eleven). However, the questions related to equivalence and the kinds of translation have wider significance for both translator training and translation theory in general, and are therefore discussed in the following chapter.

Footnote on Chapter Nine

1).This is ' similar to what Larson (1983:17) calls an "unduly free
translation", which we understand as a translation with shifts of a pure
discretion, without linguistic grounds. As such, Larson, too, says that
it is not acceptable as normal translation.

TRANSLATION TYPES AND TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE AT THE TEXTUAL LEVEL

10.1. Introductory Remarks

One of the important findings of the preceding chapters of analysis is that translations which embody the closest correspondences to the elements of the source language text are not necessarily the most effective ones. Some of those which are judged as best by native speakers (of English) embody significant changes to the SL text, either in local features or global interpersonal and/or notional features. These translations have been considered effective TL texts.

In this way, correspondences, especially formal ones, often have to be abandoned when reference to the higher level of the text requires it. Linguistic shifts and pragmatic adaptation become obligatory. A simple example of such shift from the chapters of analysis can be seen when we translate Indonesian passive (indirect) imperatives into modulated active declaratives or imperatives in English procedural discourse.

In the above example, pragmatic adaptation is obligatory. But we have also seen in the chapters of analysis that very often, adaptations are made at the translator's discretion, and optional shifts occur. And as we have seen in the preceding chapters, the optional shifts may or may not result in shift of text type or sub-type. When it does result in such a shift (i.e. text type), it also results in a shift of purpose, although it is only local in some cases. In this way, the equivalence and the translation status of the TLT embodying such shift has to be decided on grounds different from the identification of text-type.

Since optional adaptation and optional shifts result in different TLTs, we will revisit the kinds of adaptation in the discussion below. Then

we will categorize several types of translation, based on the occurrence and results of both obligatory and optional shifts. After this, we will relate the different types of Translation Equivalence (TE) to the translation types, as well as determining the conditions of such Translation Equivalence (TE).

10.2. The Kinds of Adaptation in Translation Revisited

We have seen in the previous chapters of analysis that most shifts of text type result from optional shifts. However, optional shifts do not always result in a shift of text type. These shifts can contribute to a greater effectiveness, in which identity displacement (from 'we' to 'he') is abandoned in the translation, as in TLT 7 of Chapter Six. In this case, the TLT effectiveness is a case of what we have called 'adaptive translation', in which an adaptation facilitates its reading for the TL readers. As we have seen (in the TLT mentioned above), the shifts created only affect local organizational meaning, and none of the notional features of the text.

This case of local optional shifts in adaptive translation is different from optional shifts which affect the notional features, and which result in shift of text type (See Figure 9.2. of Chapter Nine, p. 182). An example of shifts affecting text type is TLT 4 of Chapter Six, in which indirect hortatory text shifts into an (direct) expository text, when the you-orientation in the exhortation shifts into third-person orientation (as in an expository text). In this way, only the referential meaning of the SLT is rendered, with the textual/generic and interpersonal meaning shifted (see Chapter One, p. 15 for explanations of organizational and interpersonal meaning). Thus only part of the meaning embodied in the SLT is rendered in the TLT.

While the text's notional features are affected in the above case of adaptation, and shift the generic identity of the text, there are cases where optional shifts and adaptation do not affect the generic identity. Such cases occur when the optional shifts result in shifts of text sub-type (see Figure 9.5. of Chapter Nine, as shown by the one-way arrows within the boxes). An example of this would be when the speech-oriented narrative (indirect narrative) shifts into the person-oriented one, making it a direct narrative text.

Although generic identity is maintained in these cases, the adaptation is of a different order from that in which there is local adaptation of interpersonal tenor but no global shift of type or sub-type. It is therefore necessary to distinguish three kinds of adaptation: (1) an adaptation which is local, and does not affect either text type or sub-type; (2) an adaptation which is global, but affects mainly the interpersonal meaning, rather than the notional features of the text; (3) an adaptation which is both global and results in a shift of text type, because it involves the notional features of the text. This results in a shift of text type. In this chapter, we will refer to these three types of adaptation as adaptation types (A), (B), and (C), following the above order.

This also requires us to distinguish different translation types, which are based not only on the types of adaptation such as above, but also on the types of shifts that occur (i.e. obligatory or optional). This is discussed below.

10.3. Translation Types

We can see from the previous chapters of analysis that there are essentially two types of shifts: obligatory and optional. These two types

of, shifts trigger two types of translation: (1) Total translation, in which all aspects of meaning are translated, with predominantly obligatory shifts occurring. We have referred to this as _normal translation_, since this is what most people believe should be practised in translation, so that it is the work of recreating, not creating. (2) _Adaptive translation_, in which there is an adaptation in the text character locally or globally, with or without shifting in generic type. Often, the local shift is accompanied by grammatical regrouping. We can diagram the translation types in Figure 10.1. below.

```
                       Translation
                           |
          /-------------------------------\
          |                               |
  normal translation            adaptive translation
          |                               |
       Total         /------------------------------------\
          |              |             |              |
      adaptive A      adaptive B     adaptive C
      (-shift of text  (+shift of text (+shift of text
       (sub) type)      sub-type)       type)
```
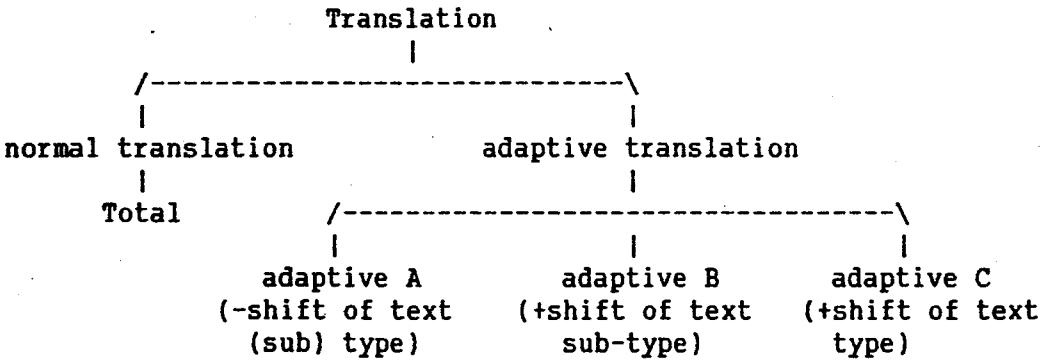
Figure 10.1. The Taxonomy of
Translation Types

The question now is: where to place a TLT which requires the translator himself or herself to determine the genre in the Figure above? If we consider the _obligatory_ nature of the generic assignment, we can place it under normal translation, in which only obligatory shifts are involved. But if we consider the fact that the general assignment involves pragmatic adaptation (i.e. pragmatic decision concerning whether to translate it as a set of procedures or as an ethnographic exposition), it is a case of adaptive translation. It seems reasonable to employ the second interpretation (i.e. to consider it as a adaptive translation), because the

SLT's generic ambivalence requires a special pragmatic adaptation. In altering the taxonomy, we now have:

```
                 ·Translation
                      |
     /--------------------------\
     |                  ·       |
   normal                   adaptive
                               |
            /---------------------\
            |                     |
        +obligatory          -obligatory
           task                 task
            |                     |
     generic assignment    /-------------------\
                           |         |         |
                       adaptive A  adaptive B  adaptive C
                            (See Figure 10.1. above)
```
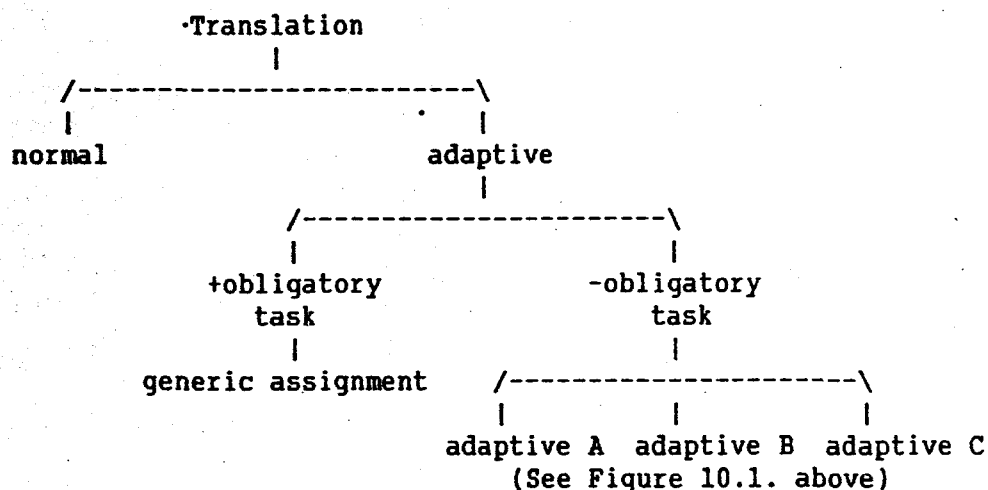
Figure 10.2. Obligatory Generic Assignment
in Translation Typology

We have indicated in Chapter One (p. 1) that the central problem in translation practice is that of finding translation equivalence (TE). It is essential, therefore, that we relate the translation types posited above to the notion of TE.

10.4. TE in Normal Translation

It has been stated previously that in normal translation, the total aspects of meaning in the SLT are expressed to the greatest possible degree in the TLT. The translation equivalence for this type of translation is established on the basis of the various aspects of the text: namely the purpose, the interpersonal relationship, and notional features (i.e. agent orientation, contingent succession, and projection). The component of purpose (together with the generic type) is the ultimate criterion for

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determining equivalence, but within this there may be a range of 'direct-indirect', and 'mediated-unmediated' in the interpersonal aspect. In addition, purpose, together with the absence or presence of shifts of notional features determines the facets and degrees of equivalence. In other words, we can have a TL text which is generally equivalent to its original version in terms of purpose, although being less equivalent in terms of interpersonal component, or it may contain a localized shift of tenor (see, for example, the upper part of Figure 9.3. of Chapter Nine, p. 195).

As has been stated above, equivalence at the level of text is based on the pragmatic contextual components. When all or most of these components are recreated in the TL text with no optional shifts, the TL version is an optimal translation, which is the closest equivalent to its SL version. But as can be seen in Figures 9.1. to 9.4., optimal translation, in the sense of no shifts whatsoever (obligatory and optional), just does not exist in the translation from BI into English.[1]

Certain texts contain shift-sensitive components (e.g. an interpersonal component), causing the "optimal translation" to be impossible to achieve. However, certain other texts, such as expository texts, are neutral and are relatively low in shift-sensitive components such as the interpersonal component. Only obligatory shifts affect the text, and even then they only occur at the level of lexicogrammar. The (normal) TL version of this type of text is defined as where near-optimal translation is most nearly achieved, and equivalence can be at its best. Degrees of equivalence for other TL versions (for the same text type) can then be determined and measured in terms of the above near-optimal translation, depending on what textual components other than shift-bound items of lexicogrammar are affected by (optional) shifts.

The above phenomena apply to other text types as well. However, it is not just any text type or sub-type which shifts. Facets and degrees of equivalence can be established on the basis of components which characterize the text (other than the purpose and the notional features). Once the optional shift affects the purpose, and thus goes beyond the boundary of text type, the TLT is not equivalent to its SL version, although many of the aspects of the field of discourse still overlap with the original version, especially the referential meaning aspect-- as shown by the lexical items rendered. The evidence of the overlap can be seen on the lexical field which is held constant in the text, as can be seen, for example, in the case of a generic shift in the indirect hortatory discourse. Due to the indirectness, a translator has attempted neutrality and thus shifts into an exposition, although the lexical items still show the same semantic field and global theme/subject matter. Therefore, as we have stated before, this last case is in the domain of adaptive translation. It raises the fundamental questions of "Is it an equivalent?" and "If it is not an equivalent, is it a justifiable translation?". These questions are examined below.

10.5. The Question of Equivalence in Adaptive Translation

Before discussing the question of equivalence in adaptive translation, it is worth reconsidering how optional shifts are interrelated with adaptive translation. In general terms, adaptive translation is the kind of translation in which the translators employ optional shifts in their attempts to recreate the meaning of the original text. As indicated before, certain optional shifts merely affect certain parts of the text, which may or may not constitute the backbone of the discourse. An example that we mentioned before is one in Chapter Six, in which the source text (a piece

of direct hortatory discourse) provides a case of local identity displacement: from 'we orientation' to 'he/she orientation, when the sentences express responsibility. The translator, to provide a more effective translation abandons the displacement and uses the first person reference continually, causing the TLT to have a more explicit marking of responsibility. We refer to this as adaptive translation type A. It is not the same as type B, which embodies an overall shift of sub-type.

In contrast, there are optional shifts which not only affect the notional features of the text, but also usually result in altering the generic type, and thus, ultimately, the purpose. In the example mentioned above the indirectness aspect of the hortatory discourse (in Chapter Six) has been shifted to neutrality, resulting in a shift from (indirect) exhortation to exposition. We have referred to this as adaptive translation type C. In any of these cases, the motivating factor has been (TL) effectiveness, which is the translator's attempt to make the (TL) text effective for the (TL) readers (cf. Vermeer, 1978).[2]

If we relate the above cases of adaptive translation to our parameters of equivalence in normal translation, we can see that adaptive translation types A and B pose no problem, since the resulting TL version is still generically equivalent. This is not the case with adaptive translation type C, where, due to the shift of text type, the TL version is not equivalent generically. Except for the referential component in the text, almost all other features are shifted: the interpersonal relationship between interactants (and the lexicogrammatical realizations of the relationship), the cohesion, and the purpose of the text.

However, in all types of adaptive translation, we can see that, at least, the SLT and the TLT still correspond in referential meaning, see Figure 10.3.

Although there is a shift of text (sub)type and/or global tenor in the adaptive translation, at least the referential aspect of the original text is still rendered in the TL text(s). In this way, it is still justifiable as a kind of translation.

```
           SL                                              TL
  /-------------------------------------------\
  |                               /-----------|---------------\
  | Textual      Interpersonal    |Referential |               |
  | Component    component        | component  |               |
  | (cohesion)                    |           |    other       |
  \-------------------------------------------/    aspects      |
                                 |                (shifted)     |
                                 \----------------------------/
```
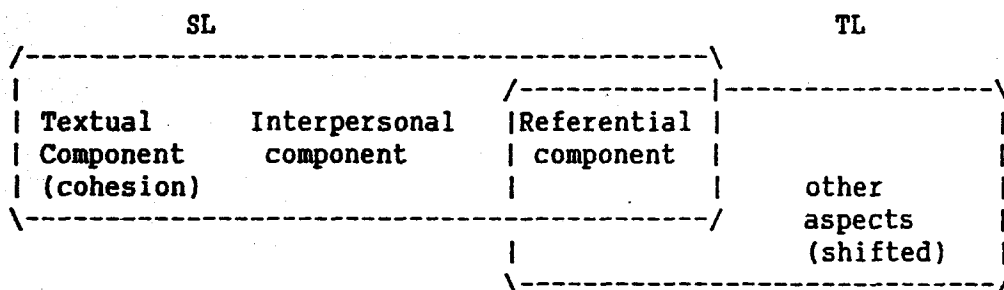
Figure 10.3. Referential Rendering
in Adaptive Translation Type C

In any case of adaptive translation, referential rendering should be the best maintained aspect of the text. If this aspect is changed, the resulting TLT cannot be considered as a justifiable translation or a justifiable Translation Equivalence (TE) (or it might even be considered a mistranslation). It is closer to the work of 'creation' (as in original writing) than to 'recreation' (as in translation).

It still remains to place adaptive translation within our framework of translation equivalence. This is essential, since translation has been defined in this thesis as (see Chapter One) "the replacement of textual material in the SL by equivalent textual material in the TL" (Catford, 1965, underlining added). To accept adaptive translation as 'translation', we must argue that equivalence should not be a search for sameness (as Holmes (1970) has also argued for purposes of poetry translation). The term "equivalence" should be interpreted more broadly to accommodate our case of referential overlap only, which may occur in cases such as adaptive

translation above (especially type C). If we accept this view of translation equivalence as covering adaptive translation, we should make concrete that which has been given as an abstract 'general condition' of translation equivalence by Catford (1965) (this is discussed further in section 10.6).

With the above broad view of equivalence, the pertinent question is not whether a TL text is equivalent or not equivalent to its original version, but, rather, 'in what way it is equivalent or not equivalent'. Consequently, our view of translation must be modified so that it is not so much a question of whether or not a TL text is a 'translation' of an SL text, but, rather, 'how far is it a translation?' (Halliday, et. al., 1964, p. 124). This view of translation is also in accordance with the types of translation we posited earlier on.

The wider view of equivalence is an important one to hold, especially since in one of our important findings we encountered a case of obligatory generic adaptation (see Chapter Five). We have shown that in cases of generic ambivalence, the translator's intervention is justified and becomes a much needed task. In tackling the problem of generic ambivalence, the translators who are more competent use pragmatic adaptation to create a pragmatic TE, by considering the author's intention and thus sacrificing the grammatical correspondence of the original. They use imperatives in their English versions, yielding a direct personal relationship with the readers (see Figure 9.1. of Chapter Nine). Although the TLT does not render the tenor of the original, it does settle the ambiguity of purpose.

Since we have accepted adaptive translation as a justifiable translation on the basis of pragmatic considerations (such as considering the TL readers), it is important that our wider view of equivalence takes this into account. This enables us to have more than one type of TE, as

discussed below.

10.6. Types and Conditions of TE

We have indicated in Section 10.4. of this chapter that it is not enough to merely state that a TLT is 'equivalent' to its SLT. Instead, we need to consider other factors which may be present, such as: (i) 'equivalent TLT with a localized shift of tenor'; (ii) 'equivalent TLT with a global shift of tenor'; (iii) equivalent TLT with a shift in cohesion and text character' (as in cases involving local or global subject ellipsis).

With these various types of translation, we need to look at the notion of TE in a different way. This is important for two reasons: (a) the less equivalent TLT can represent a most effective TLT (as judged by the native speakers of the TL); (b) translators show a variable behaviour towards an SLT.

If we look at the translation types in Figure 10.2. (and 10.1), we can see that each translation type has certain features (e.g. whether or not it entails a shift of text type, etc.). So, our concept of TE can be categorized in terms of the criteria posited for the translation types above. We can have:
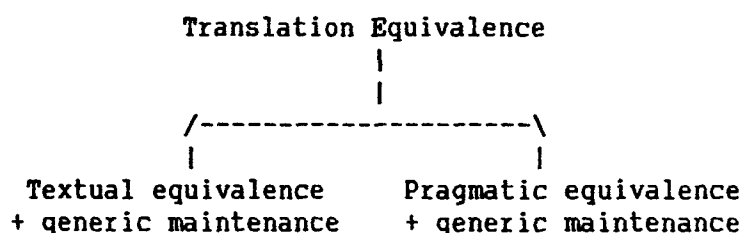
```
                    Translation Equivalence
                              |
                              |
              /-----------------------\
              |                       |
         Textual equivalence     Pragmatic equivalence
         + generic maintenance   ± generic maintenance
```

Figure 10.4. Types of TE

While 'textual equivalence' is SLT-centred, the 'pragmatic equivalence' is TLT-centred (cf. van den Broeck, 1978).[3] When the TL version is a result of textual interpretation and discoursal

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considerations, with only obligatory shifts occurring, then the resulting TLT is considered a textual equivalence. However, when the TLT is a result of an embodiment of certain pragmatic considerations (such as expected readers' reaction, purpose of translation, etc.), then the TLT is placed within the domain of pragmatic equivalence.

In any of the above cases, the TLT should be seen in terms of whether or not the resulting TE maintains generic equivalence. When the pragmatic TE shows a shift of generic type, then the resulting TLT should at least correspond to the SLT in terms of the referential meaning. This brings us to the formulation of the conditions of TE.

It has been indicated in Chapter One (p.4) that, according to Catford (1975), the general condition of TE is : "A translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance". And as has been argued in Chapter One, the above condition is too abstract and not specific enough for distinguishing a satisfactory TE from a mistranslation. Thus, for pedagogic purposes at least, the general condition should be specifically restated in terms of the minimal condition: "An SL and a TL text or item constitutes a TE when they at least overlap in the referential aspect". So, in cases where referential matching is not achieved in the TLT, there is a serious distortion of information, and the resulting TLT is not a TE.

On the basis of the two sub-types diagrammed on the previous page, the above condition can be further developed as follows: (a) A textual TE should maintain corresponding referential material, as well as the generic type, even if it is shifted locally or globally in terms of cohesion or interpersonal meaning. (b) A pragmatic TE should show a correspondence of referential meaning. It may contain a shift of text type or sub-type, in which case: (i) the shift should be in the direction of the most neutral type of non fiction/transactional text, i.e. expository text (see Figure

9.5. of Chapter Nine). Thus expository type is the default type for all shifts of text type. (ii) When shifts of sub-type occur, they occur towards the direction of direct sub-types (i.e. from indirect to direct sub-types, rather than the opposite). (c) A pragmatic TE is an effective translation when it is pragmatically comparable to the SL grammar and the TL discoursal/generic use.

Another condition relates to local shifts, where no shifts of text type or sub-type occur, and is therefore the detail of "textual TE" rather than the "pragmatic TE". When a textual TE contains a local/global shift of interpersonal/organizational meaning, it is a 'textual TE with a local/global shift of interpersonal/organizational meaning'. This constitutes what we tentatively call a facet of (textual) equivalence in Chapter One, which, in this chapter, is categorized as adaptive translation type A.

10.7. Concluding Remarks

We have posited two kinds of translation: normal and adaptive (with the three sub-types, see Figure 10.2). The TE resulting from normal translation is called a textual TE, and that which resulted from adaptive translation is referred to as a pragmatic TE. We have also posited different facets of TE and conditions of TE in accordance with the translation types above.

However, although we have posited different kinds of translation to allow for the translators' discretion in translation, it is important that in translator training we limit such discretion, and allow it only at a special (late) stage in the training. The limiting of such discretion in translator training is discussed in the implications of the study for translator training (see Chapter Eleven, section 11.4.).

Footnotes for Chapter Ten

1). However desirable, such optimal translation is very rare (as revealed in the analytical chapters of this thesis). Some translation theorists even consider it as utopian (see, for example, Casagrande (1954).

2). Vermeer (in Wills (1982:139) is of the opinion that a translator should be 'immune' with regard to the text to be translated (no individual discretion allowed). This is contrary to the opinions held by Wilss (1982) and that of this thesis, since translators are human beings with their own predispositions, language competence, and problem-solving capacities, except for machine translation.

3). Although not precisely the same, this is comparable to van den Broeck's notions of translation as a process and translation as a product. In the former, translation is in the domain of the theory of communication, and in the the latter, translation is a product or a topic of the theory of the texts (van den Broeck, in Holmes et. al. (1978); as well, Hatim and Mason, 1990).

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

11.1. Introductory Remarks

In Chapters Five to Ten, we have examined eight SL texts and ten TL texts for each of these SL texts. Our examination is bounded and guided by the hypotheses set up in Chapter Two (p. 23). In this final chapter, we will be concerned firstly with relating the whole analysis and findings to the hypotheses set up in Chapter Two. As well, we will indicate other important findings which were not predicted in the hypotheses. Secondly, we will indicate the implications of the study (a) for translation theory and translation practice; (b) for translator training.

11.2. Discussion of the Hypotheses

It was anticipated in hypothesis-1 that obligatory shifts at clause level will result from the attempts to reexpress foregrounding and other Indonesian forms of markedness. If we look back at Chapter Nine, we can see that this hypothesis was confirmed by the findings. With foregrounding, we have seen that in BI this is done through the use of /DI-/ clauses. We have also seen that /DI-/ clauses can be translated differently depending on the type of the text in which the clause occurs (see Chapter Nine, pp. 183). It was also shown in Chapter Nine that /DI-/ can express interpersonal meaning, and thus indicates indirectness, for example, in indirect procedural discourse. It is therefore a component which is highly shift-sensitive. A susceptibility to shifts was also found with forms of markedness for interpersonal expression of meaning, such as /-LAH/ (see Figures 9.2. and 9.3.).

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When the occurrence of such forms of foregrounding and markedness are minimal in the TLT (as in SLT A of Chapter Five), they do not usually cause further shifts (only a shift of cohesion or of text sub-type). However, when the foregrounding and /-LAH/ markedness co-occur with the backbone, i.e. the prominent elements of the text (as in SLTs D and H), the shifts at clause level also cause further shifts of cohesion (see especially the shift in the speech-oriented narrative of Chapter Eight). This confirms hypothesis-2 (a): that obligatory shifts will cause shifts of cohesion. However, it is important to note that other obligatory shifts not related to foregrounding and markedness also caused shifts in cohesion. They centred on subject and object ellipsis across all text types. We have seen in Chapters Five to Nine that ellipses in BI caused shifts from covert to overt coreferentiality (see especially the TLTs for SLTs A and B in Chapter Five).

While obligatory shifts have proved to foster shifts of cohesion, optional shifts (i.e. shifts other than those dictated by the grammar) caused further changes affecting the character of the text. If we look at TLT 7 of Chapter Six, for example, the optional shifts temporarily affect the interpersonal tenor of the text. This was also the case with other TLTs containing modals which shifted from advising to obliging the reader in certain TLTs (see the translation of SLTs A and C in Chapters Five and Six). This confirms hypothesis-2 (b): that optional shifts will cause shifts (at least temporarily) in the intention of the text.

Optional shifts can also become global and significant enough to cause a shift of text type or sub-type. A shift of text type can be seen in Chapter Six (p. 114), and a shift of sub-type can be seen in Chapters Five, Seven, and Eight. It is important to note that the shift of sub-type is always from the indirect to the direct sub-types (see Figure 9.5. of Chapter Nine, p. 192). These shifts of text type and sub-type further

confirm hypothesis-2 (b): that optional shifts will ultimately cause a global shift of text type or sub-type.

When the optional shifts are local and only foster a temporary shift of intention, they do not affect text type. In this way, we have accepted the TLT as 'equivalent to its original version but with a local shift in tenor'. This confirms hypothesis-3 which states that provided the shift is local, the overall TL text may still be considered a translation equivalent. This is also the case with shifts of sub-type, when they still maintain the generic type of the text.

However, when the optional shifts are global and affect text type, we have indicated that the TLT belongs to the domain of adaptive translation (See Chapter Ten). Translation equivalence (TE) is then based on a different parameter and type from that in normal translation. We have referred to the TE in the domain of adaptive translation as pragmatic equivalence. All this confirms hypothesis-4: that optional shifts are key factors for determining not only the status of equivalence of the TLT but also the status (i.e. type) of the translation.

The types of shifts in a translation can provide a basis for determining its status as equivalent or otherwise. When only obligatory shifts occur, the TLT is the most equivalent to its SLT, although it is not necessarily the most effective (see Figures 9.1. to 9.4. in Chapter Nine). However, when optional shifts also occur in the TLT, the basis on which equivalence is assessed changes, and must be stated more precisely: equivalent or not equivalent in what aspect? A certain TLT is thus found to be 'equivalent to the SLT, but locally shifted in tenor' (see TLT 7 of Chapter Six). This confirms hypothesis-5 that translation equivalence is multi-faceted.

It was also added in hypothesis-5 that '... equivalence in terms of

genre, and the rendering of referential meaning are essential to it (i.e. to the notion of multi-faceted TE)'. The findings in Chapters Six and Eight have only partially confirmed this last part of hypothesis-5. The rendering of referential meaning is indeed essential in translation equivalence to avoid the resulting TLT being a mistranslation. However, this it is not the case with the equivalence in terms of genre. It was found in the analytical chapters that while maintenance of genre was essential in normal translation, it was not as essential in adaptive translation.

It was found in the chapters of analysis (as well as Chapters Nine and Ten) that it is important to accommodate within the framework of translation and translation equivalence the TLTs that are shifted in text type. This is because such TLT (i.e. the one shifted in text type) may be voted as an effective translations by native speakers. This supports hypothesis-6 that an adaptation in translation (or adaptive translation) may be an effective translation, although it corresponds no further than rendering the referential details of the original text. Such adaptation was also found to be obligatory in cases of generic ambivalence (see Chapters Five and Ten).

Apart from the above findings which support the hypotheses, there was yet another important finding, which was not directly covered in the hypotheses. This finding concerns the directions of the shifts (of text type and sub-type). It was found in Chapter Nine that when shifts of sub-types occur, they are always in the direction of the direct (as opposed to indirect) sub-types. When shifts of text types occur, the tendency is always towards the direct expository type, i.e. the most neutral text type of all (see Figure 9.5. of Chapter Nine).

All of the above findings have implications both for translation theory as well as for pedagogic purposes such as training training.

11.3. Implications of the Findings for Translation Theory and Translator Training

The implications of the study for translation theory are that they help to clarify aspects of translation and the notion of equivalence, which have been taken for granted in the translation of transactional texts.

Certain translation theorists (among others, van den Broeck, 1986:45; Reiss, 1981 (as translated from German by Kitron)) consider what we call 'normal translation' and 'adaptive translation' as being one and the same. As the findings of the study have shown, those two kinds of translation need to be distinguished, especially for pedagogic purposes. The distinction is important, since the status of translation equivalence (TE) in the two kinds of translation above differs (i.e. textual and pragmatic equivalences respectively). The distinction of TE such as above should simultaneously allow a more flexible understanding of equivalence, i.e. without viewing it as a search for sameness (as Holmes, 1970, has said as occurring in the translation of literary genres). Such flexibility will allow translation theory to accommodate TL texts with shifts (local or global) within the concept of TE.

The TE flexibility will allow us to relate translation shifts (either those triggered by the TL grammar or by the translator's discretion) to the concept of TE. As has emerged in our findings, certain translators have made shifts of text type, which have also been observed by other translation theorists (see, among others, van den Broeck (1986); Blum-Kulka (1986); Larson's mismatches of discourse structures (1984); and Reiss (1981)). However, their observation does not go far enough to distinguish TE from non-TE when shifts do occur. This is understandable, since (a) they were not dealing with the work of student translators in translator training; (b) they were mainly concerned with the argument of allowing the

need for translation typology, which should allow considerations other than text typology (i.e. SLT-oriented) in translation.

The need for distinguishing translation from adaptation and mistranslation in the context of TE and non-TE was lost in the new argument. Consequently, the notions of translation and TE were lost in the realm of accepting any adaptation in translation as 'translation'. In this way, the conditions of equivalence are not sharp enough to set limits of translation shifts within adaptive translation.

Within the domain of translator training, however, the recognition of 'translation shifts' and the recognition of 'limits of shifts' are equally important, especially in the early stage of the training. As the findings of the study have shown, generic shifts are tolerable, provided: (i) the TL version does not shift referentially, and provided (ii) the generic shift is towards neutrality.

This means that any adaptation which moves away from referential meaning as well as from neutrality is a mistranslation, and cannot be considered as a justified translation. As was stated before, this is the case because translation is a work of recreation, which represents a secondary communication rather than first-hand communication. If we allow translations which contain significant referential shifts, we would be accepting the fact that translation can be a creative activity. It does not imply that the translator's primary responsibility is to the source text. The author, naturally, would object to any serious distortion of his/her meaning. This should be discouraged in translation, and emphasized throughout the years of translator training.

11.4. A Program for Translator Training

We have seen in Chapters Five to Eight that translators with less

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proficient English ability tend to seek formal correspondence as their translation strategy, rather more than finding translation equivalence at all levels (up and down the pragmatic and the lexicogrammatical levels). In contrast, those translators whose English ability is proficient work flexibly between the levels of lexicogrammar and the text as they translate. This is natural enough given their level of ability.

The different strategies we have seen employed by these different groups of translators can be turned into a systematic program for controlling the shift-susceptible components in texts as well as a program for exposure to texts for beginner translators. In the early stage of training they would be exposed to only one aspect of inter-lingual transfer, i.e. the lexicogrammar. All other aspects are controlled, explained and made explicit at that stage. The task for them is to work toward finding formal correspondence. As they make progress in this aspect, they can then be exposed to another controlled aspect of text translation for a selected text type. Thus:

```
LEVELS                    ASPECTS

                   /-------------------------\
  4         ^      |Textual notional features|
            |      \-------------------------/
            |
            |
            |      /------------------------\
  3         |      |Interpersonal Component |
            |      \------------------------/
            |
            |
            |      /---------\
  2         |      | Cohesion|
            |      \---------/
            |
            |
  1         |      (lexico-) grammatical component
            |
```
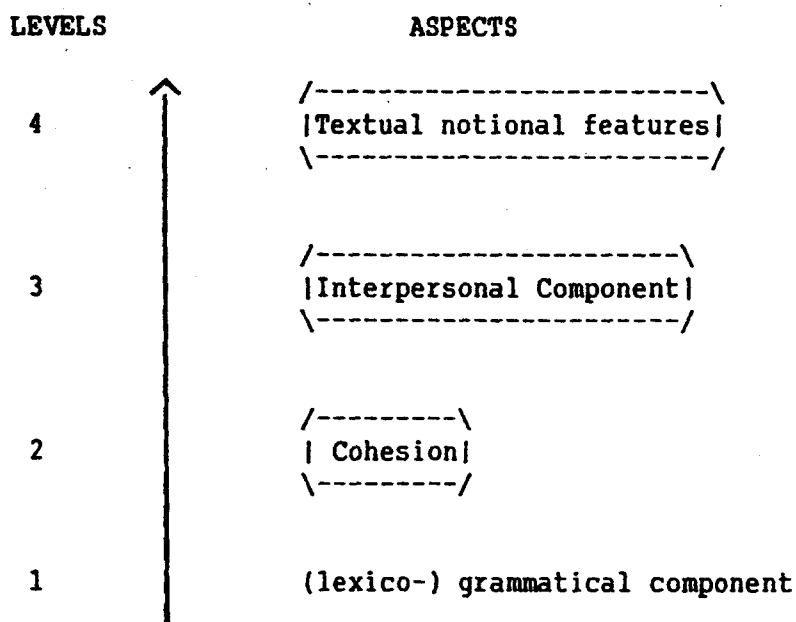
Figure 11.1. A Model of Controlling Textual Aspects
in Translation

Note: Boxed aspects are the controlled aspects.

The order of the control is important. After adequate ability is achieved at the level of lexicogrammar, the next aspect to be tackled is that of cohesion. The translators would be relatively confident in the aspect of handling cohesion since (apart from cohesion specific to BI such as subject ellipsis), cohesion is more or less predictable from the linguistic context. The ease in handling cohesion is due to the facts that (i) many of the components used are common in both languages (such as co-referentiality, conjunctions, etc.); (ii) cohesive markers (especially overt ones) are generally easier to detect. The interpersonal component is more difficult to handle due to the absence in English (of some) of the BI markers (such as /-LAH/, as used especially in indirect hortatory discourse, and for suppression of reference to the speakers in the speech-oriented narrative).

Once they are capable of handling the obligatory shifts, they can then be encouraged to try their hand with optional shifts. This would be at a much later stage of training, especially in cases where the options affect the textual notional features of the text. The determination of this stage is based on the finding that only proficient English users are able to handle the optional shifts. They are thus more aware of the consequence of their options than are the less proficient users and translators.

All the above (controlled) activities would expose them to using the full range of linguistic and textual conventions of Indonesian and English discourse. Active exposure is important in the training. As has been indicated in Chapter Four (pp. 59), due to the large classes, Indonesian students are not sufficiently exposed to the active use of the different varieties of text types. In this way, their awareness concerning the different text types, the characteristics, and the different purposes in text types needs to be improved. This is even more important in

translation, due to its nature as a work of recreation.

As the findings have shown, certain translators seem to assume that it is acceptable to shift in text type, whether the direction of the shift is towards neutrality or otherwise. This (i.e. the readiness to shift) seems to show the need to improve the students' awareness of the writer's intention as well as the text type chosen. This therefore suggests that the training should be reoriented towards: (i) more exposure to the different varieties of text types; (ii) more recognition of shift-susceptible components of meaning in the SL texts.