CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter entails the review of prior studies that includes a theoretical analysis of the study's objective.

2.1 Language Transfer

2.1.1. The Definition of Language Transfer

Learners frequently use the grammatical structures of their original languages to help them create utterances in the new language they are learning. Language transmission, which occurs at all linguistic levels, is this phenomenon (Selinker, 1969). Language transfer is one of the methods learners utilize, both consciously and unconsciously, to communicate in their second language during the second language acquisition process. This problem typically happens when learners are unclear of how to express themselves correctly, and it might cause them to make grammatical mistakes because the two languages' rules do not match.

Based on their first language (L1) and level of competency in the second language, learners' utterances exhibit different types and frequencies of language transfer (L2). According to Wanderley & Demmans (2020), a learner's awareness of L2 rules and how to apply them increases with proficiency. A transfer will be used more frequently by a learner who is less adept. Depending on how much L1 and L2 rules overlap, the type of transfer observed—whether it is negative or positive—will change. The transferred language structure may result in an unintelligible utterance if the L2's rules apply when the L1's and L2's grammatical rules do not match. When the L2 lacks metalinguistic awareness, it forces learners to rely on their L1s, which is known as the negative language transfer effect.

2.1.2 Error Analysis

As explained by Ellis (1994): when describing learner errors, idiosyncratic utterances of the learner are compared to reconstructions of those utterances in the target language. As a result, it necessitates paying attention to the utterances of the learners' surface characteristics (rather than attempting to pinpoint the causes of the errors at this point). Some researchers have felt that there should be a definite line between describing and explaining errors. For instance, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) make the case for the necessity of descriptive taxonomies of errors that use only observable, surface elements of errors as a foundation for further explication.

A descriptive taxonomy based on linguistic categories may be the most basic form. As the linguistic categories can be chosen to closely resemble those present in structural syllabuses and language text books, this type is closely related to a classic error analysis (EA) done for pedagogic purposes. Using a surface strategy taxonomy as an alternative to classifying linguistic errors is also possible. This "highlights the way surface structures are altered" (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982). A section of the full taxonomy along with examples of the categories are presented in Figure 2.1.

Category	Description	Example
Omissions	The absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance.	She sleeping.
Additions	The presence of an item that must not appear in well-formed utterances.	We didn't went there.
Misformations	The use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.	The dog ated the chicken.
Misorderings	The incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.	What daddy is doing?

Figure 2.1. A surface taxonomy of errors (categories and examples taken from Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982)

According to Taylor (1986), the discourse structure, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, or epistemology may all be contributing factors to the inaccuracy. The nature of the L2 knowledge system and the challenges learners face when employing it in production are the focus of psycholinguistic sources. Sociolinguistic sources cover topics like how well language learners may modify their usage to fit a given social situation. While discourse sources are concerned with issues with the structuring of information into a coherent "text," epistemic sources focus on the learners' lack of general knowledge. However, the first of these has typically received the most of attention in second language acquisition research. The several psycholinguistic sources that will be explored are displayed in Figure 2.2.

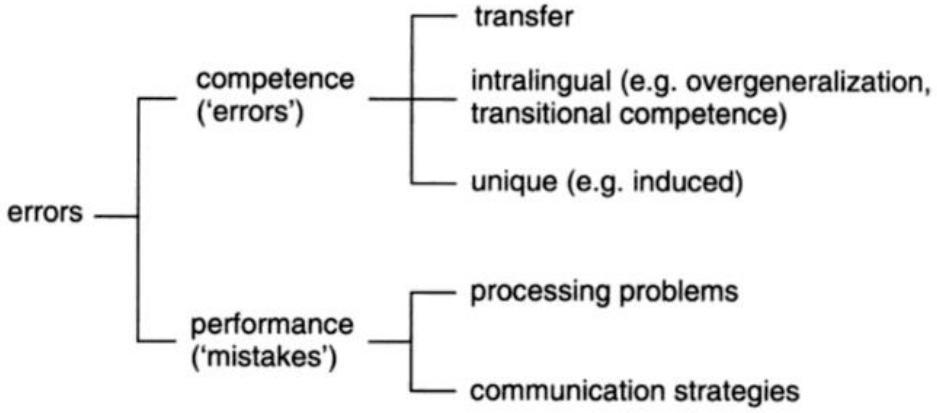

Figure 2.2. Psycholinguistic sources of errors

2.1.3 Contrastive Analysis

A contrastive analysis (CA) essentially compares two languages and processes them to anticipate how challenging it will be for a speaker of one language to learn the other. Contrastive analysis aim to identify the areas where a language learner could be expected to struggle. They may also be concerned with identifying the areas where the argument is likely to be facilitated. While two languages are spoken together, such as while learning a new language in a classroom setting, difficulty and the creation of errors are treated as expected side effects. This point of view contends that interference is a language issue that can

be addressed using the same techniques as a competence model (Whitman, 1970).

Contrastive analysis, in accordance with Dulay (1982), adopted the stance that a learner's first language "interferes" with his or her acquisition of a second language and, as a result, constitutes the main barrier to successfully mastering the new language. According to the CA hypothesis, mistakes would be generated in cases where the L1 structure was different from the L2 structure. According to others, these mistakes were caused by the learners' L1 habits having an impact on their L2 productivity.

When speaking English, Spanish-speaking learners would typically say ***the girl smart*** rather than ***the smart girl*** since, for instance, the adjective is typically placed after the noun in that language. This is in accordance with the CA hypothesis. In the literature on psychology, this process has been referred to as "negative transfer." In the same direction, "positive transfer" refers to the automatic application of the L1 structure in L2 performance when the structures in both languages are the same, resulting in proper utterances. For instance, if the positive transfer were occurring in L2 production, the application of the Spanish plural markers -*s* and -*es* on English nouns should result in a valid English plural noun (e.g., *nias* and *mujer es* in Spanish, girl-*s* and dress-*es* in English).

2.1.4 Language Transfer Context

We can safely assume that both comprehension and production operate over the same system of symbols - linguistic representations - in the speaker's mind: the grammar. However, there is possibly more than one method for comprehending the connection between linguistic representation and language processing (see, for example, Cunnings, 2017 [11]; Lewis & Phillips, 2015 [12], for discussion). The proportion of overlap between L1 and L2 regulations will determine the type of transfer observed—negative or positive. The transferred language structure could lead to an unintelligible utterance if the L2's rules apply while the L1's rules do not. The absence of metalinguistic awareness in the L2 that causes learners to rely on their L1s is what is known as the negative language transfer effect (Wanderley & Demmans, 2020).

2.2 Translation

Written and spoken translations have been essential to interhuman contact throughout history, not least in opening up access to significant materials for scholarly and religious endeavors. The significance of translation has increased along with global trade. However, the academic study of translation did not really start until the second part of the 20th century (Munday, 2016). Although translation has been a long-standing profession, it was not until the latter half of the 20th century that the study of the subject became a recognized academic specialty. Translation had previously frequently been considered a component of language learning before that. In truth, grammar-translation instruction had actually grown to dominate language instruction in secondary schools around the world from the late eighteenth century until the 1960s and beyond (Cook, 2010).

2.2.1. The Definition of Translation

The Latin *translatio* ('transporting'), which itself originates from the participle of the verb *transferre* ('to carry over,') is the source of the English term translation, which first appears in writing around the year 1340. Translation in the study of languages nowadays can signify numerous things:

1. the all-encompassing topic area or phenomenon (*I studied translation in college*).
2. the finished output, or the translated text (e.g., "*they published the Arabic translation of the report*").
3. the act of translating itself, also referred to as a "translation service."

The process of translation between two different written languages involves the changing of an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL):

Source text (ST) in source language (SL)	⟶	Target text (TT) in target language (TL)

The traditional ST-TT configuration is the most prototypical of 'interlingual translation, one of the three categories of translation described by the Russo-American structuralist Roman Jakobson (1896-1982) in his seminal paper 'On linguistic aspects of translation'. Jakobson's categories are as follows:

1. Intralingual translation, or 'rewording' 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language
2. Interlingual translation, or 'translation proper 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language
3. Intersemiotic translation, or 'transmutation' an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems.

(Jakobson 1959/2012)

These concepts are based on semiotics, a generic science that studies how people communicate via signs and sign systems, of which language is but one (Cobley 2001, Malmkjaer 2011). Because translation is not always restricted to vocal languages, the use of the term semiotics in this context is significant. For instance, intersemiotic translation happens when a written word is translated into another medium, such as music, film, or art. Examples include Gurinder Chadha's 2004 Bollywood Bride and Prejudice adaptation of Jane Austen's Pride and Prejudice, or Jeff Wayne's well-known 1978 musical rendition of Jane Austen's Pride and Prejudice, which was later adapted for the stage in 2006. When we create a summary or otherwise rework a text in the same language, such as a kid-friendly encyclopedia, this is known as intralingual translation. Additionally, it happens when we rephrase a statement in the same language. The initial portion of the statement in the example follows, "Revenue nearly tripled," is a form of intralingual translation; the trigger expression, in other words, draws attention to this fact (Jakobson, 2013).

2.2.2. Translation Theory

Based on Newmark's (2003) Textbook of Translations, it is stated that "a translation is something that has to be discussed". This translation theory was developed to assist translators. A method of translation must be "natural" when

the text's primary goal is to inform and persuade the reader; on the other hand, if the text is an expression of the author's peculiar, innovative (or cliched), and authoritative style (whether it be a lyric, a prime minister's speech, or a legal document), the method of translation must be "artificial". In his explanation of the idea of translating below, he goes into great depth about the nature of "naturalness," which is a breakpoint throughout every level of texts, from paragraphs to words, from titles to punctuations.

According to Sandra Halverson (1999), translation is better thought of as a prototype classification, meaning that there are some fundamental characteristics that define a prototypical translation and other translational forms that are more ad hoc.

Up until recently, a large portion of translation theory was likewise produced from a western perspective and it was first inspired by the study of classical Greek and Latin as well as by biblical practice. Contrarily, Maria Tymoczko (2005, 2006, 2007) discusses the very different terms and metaphors used to describe "translation" in other cultures, revealing a conceptual orientation in which the aim of close lexical fidelity to an original may not be shared, at least in the practice of translating sacred and literary texts. For instance, in India there is the Bengali *rupantar* (= 'change of form') and the Hindi *anuvad* (= 'speaking after', 'following'), in the Arab world *tarjama* (= 'biography') and in China *fan yi* (= 'turning over'). Each interprets translation differently and expects the target text to exhibit a significant change in form from the source.

2.2.3. Translation Methods

According to Newmark (2021) in his book “A Textbook of Translation”, he provides 8 methods in translation. They are: Word-for-word Translation; Literal Translation; Faithful translation; Semantic translation; Adaptation; Free Translation; Idiomatic Translation; and, Communicative Translation.

1. Word-for-word Translation

   This is frequently shown as interlinear translation, with the TL words appearing directly beneath the SL words. The SL word order is maintained, and each word is translated individually by its most

prevalent meaning, without regard to context. Literal translations are used for cultural terms. Word-for-word translation is mostly used to comprehend the mechanics of the original language or to create a challenging text prior to translation.

2. Literal Translation

   The closest TL equivalents of the SL grammatical constructs are converted, while the lexical words are once again translated individually and outside of the context. This identifies the issues that must be resolved prior to translation.

3. Faithful translation

   Within the boundaries of the TL grammatical structures, a faithful translation tries to capture the exact context of the original. It "transfers" cultural words while maintaining the translation's degree of grammatical and lexical "abnormality" (deviation from SL norms). It makes an effort to be entirely true to the writer's goals and text-realization in SL.

4. Semantic translation

   The only way semantic translation distinguishes from "faithful translation" is in the degree to which it must give more consideration to the aesthetic value (that is, the lovely and natural sounds of the SL text, compromising on "meaning" where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play, or repetition jars in the final product). In addition, it may substitute functional words for less significant cultural concepts rather than their cultural equivalents, and it may also make other minor accommodations for the reading.

5. Adaptation

   This type of translation is the most flexible. The language is primarily utilized for plays (comedies and poems); themes, characters, and plots are typically maintained, and the SL culture is translated to the TL culture while the text is rewritten. However, some adaptations have 'rescued' historical plays from the abhorrent practice of obtaining a

play or poetry directly translated and then reworked by a renowned dramatist or poet.

6. Free Translation

   The topic or the content of a free translation is reproduced without the manner or the form of the source. Typically, it is a lengthy paraphrase that is labeled a "intralingual translation" but is actually just a prolix and pretentious paraphrase—it is not a translation at all.

7. Idiomatic Translation

   The "message" of the original is mirrored through idiomatic translation, but it has a tendency to misinterpret subtleties of meaning by favoring colloquialisms and idioms where they are absent from the original (authorities as disparate as Seteskovitch and Stuart Gilbert often seem towards this form of lively, "natural" translation).

8. Communicative Translation

   A communicative translation aims to accurately capture the context of the source material in a way that the target audience will find both the language and the topic acceptable and understandable.

2.2.4. Translation and Literacy-Based Reading Approach

Before one had the linguistic proficiency to read the original, translation exercises were thought of as a way to acquire a new language or read a work in a foreign language (Cook, 2010). In unison with the previous statement, Bassnett (2013) pointed out that if the reading does not fully consider the work's entire structure and its relationship to the time and place of its production, all the components in the (original source) translation could be lost. Reading, along with writing, is closely related. Numerous studies have demonstrated the considerable contribution reading ability makes to writing proficiency.

The process of reading helps us extract meaning from the material. It is indisputably a meaning-making action. The context is presented to the reader in addition to the written content. Reading also has the property that it involves goals and plans. There are several goals for a text. A reader, on the other hand, has a purpose. One will read a text that fits with their intended purpose. As a

result, while reading, a reader should make some ideas that they will carry out (Fatkurochman, 2019).

2.3 Source Language Interference

There are many studies on source language interference or transfer (Newmark, 1988; Newmark, 1991; Hopkinson, 2007; Venuti, 1997), but no complete or unique definition for this phenomenon exists. U. Weinreich (1953) suggested that interference might take various forms. Language interference is most frequently linked to learning a foreign language. Well-researched interference of this kind exists. The current study, however, views language interference in a broader sense, identifying it as a phenomenon that affects both legal translation and communication in other languages. This investigational angle has not yet received adequate publicity, which supports the uniqueness of the study.

Although language interference is regarded as a potential cause of errors (negative transfer), it produces positive transfer when a relevant feature between both languages is identical (Krashen, 1981). Numerous examples of semantic, grammatical, lexical, phraseological, syntactic, and pragmatic language transfer are revealed through an investigation of the original study substance.

1. The overlapping of interpretations between the target and source lexical units—which are just approximate equivalents—causes semantic interference (Thorovsky, 2009). A “sema”, or unity of meaning, is transferred when something is semantically borrowed. The translator frequently relies solely on the dictionary's first definition or his or her own present understanding and disregards context that would reveal a different interpretation of the term in light of another context (Cruse, 2004).
2. Grammatical interference happens when a translator fails to take into account the variances in grammar structure between two languages or the potential consequences of the norms of the source language. Compared to other types of transfer, grammatical interference is more frequently linked to a destination text's poor quality. Even while it

rarely prevents comprehension, grammatical errors make it clear that the text is a translation. This kind of interference is simple to avoid because it is simple to identify the faults. Due diligence must therefore be given to the translation's final reading.

3. Lexical interference happens at the word level. It primarily consists of instances where a notion was translated directly but inadvertently or inappropriately. This particular form of interference is one of the most obvious, according to researchers and academics (Debyser, 1982; Thorovsky, 2009). Lexical interference can be brought on by a variety of things.
4. It is common to view phraseological interference as a borrowed translation. Similar to lexical loan translations, phraseological loan translations also involve a group of words or a phrase. A shift in content is implied by loan translations. Phraseological borrowing is difficult to categorize however, with the lines separating it from other groups (such as lexical loan translation, syntactic borrowing, and pragmatic interference) being especially hazy (Deroy, 1956; Humbley, 1974).
5. Syntactic interference is the literal translation of an entire or specific portion of a syntactic structure. Translations frequently involve syntactic interference, which is also the most challenging to avoid. The explicit wording of the source must be abandoned by translators in order to learn how to reformulate phrases in accordance with the conventions of the target language, which lowers the quality of TT. It necessitates extensive training and expertise. Since each of the term's components has been employed with distinct meanings or with similar meanings but under different labels, pragmatic interference is difficult to define (Paradis, 1998).
6. The pragmatic transfer is an extrapolation of the speakers' current understanding of the native language use and interaction patterns to comparable communicative contexts in the target language culture. Pragmatic interference in legal translation is the most harmful since it

throws the reader off the goal and content of the given legal topic and interferes with legal communication (Odlin, 1989; Llórente, 1980; Kasper, 1992; Riley, 1989). When developing the methodology and conducting the research, the aforementioned aspects of the interference idea were taken into consideration.

Language interference is quite common in the translation of the official multilingual discourse on child rights into the mother tongue; moreover, in many cases, interference or language transfer produces inaccuracies at different levels of the language system and leads to cognitive errors that hinder understanding of initial concepts as they do not fit the legal situation in the final text (Stepanova, 2019).

2.4 Previous Studies

Several earlier studies have been carried out by some scholars that examine the general language transfer issue in translation works. The first one is the study about the Interference challenge to translation quality in multilingual legislation conducted by Stepanova, V. V. (2019), subjecting the linguistic analysis of the Lanzarote Convention in terms of language interference of the source text (ST) to the target text (TT). This study scoped a variety of incorrect translations due to target text misunderstanding in terms of semantics and pragmatics, direct rendering, borrowing, and retention of English grammar and syntactic constructs. Focus is also placed on instances of sense mistranslations and polysemous errors that make it difficult to grasp the final text. The next 2 following studies are focusing on Indonesians. As a starter, the writer found a study conducted by Budiharto, R. A. (2019), entitled ‘Native Language Interference on Target Language Writings of Indonesian EFL Students: An Exploratory Case Study’. The current study sought to examine the effect of native language on second-year University of Madura (UNIRA) English major students' written English in Writing Course 1, while also attempting to explore the frequent grammar mistakes in their writings, in order to determine the extent to which Indonesian as UNIRA students' L1 may have an impact on their writing in English. It results stated that

the most problematic errors are those involving tense, which make up 32% of all errors. Other problematic errors include those involving subject-verb-agreement (15%), singular/plural markers (12%), articles (12%), and prepositions. The least problematic errors involve prepositions, which make up 4% of all errors. Connected within a similar idea, Irmalia (2016) in her study about 'Indonesian Interference in Students' Writing' also stated that incorrect verb tenses, including subject-verb agreements, were the most typical Indonesian grammatical interference faults committed by the students in their English works, accounting for almost 54% of all interference mistakes discovered, according to the results of the document analysis. According to the questionnaire and interview data, it was discovered that the majority of the interference mistakes made by the students were due to their insufficient English practice.

2.5 Framework of Analysis

Language transfer is one of the most crucial challenges, especially when it comes to accurately translating some textual sources into the target language, as was evident from the explanation that came before it. The negative transfer may be a sign that translations still need to be properly performed, especially given that university EFL students who translate frequently generate a lot of scholarly writing. In this instance, the students' translation works are where the unfavorable transfer issues manifest.

The writer would investigate the causes of the mechanisms determining the positive and negative language transfer that primarily occurs during translation. The author would then categorize or compute the words or phrases that EFL students usually translate incorrectly. The author will then consider how many students were successful in improving their translation. The process and outcomes of language transfer are the main topics of the study. The analysis of language transfer error started with a focus on the quantification and identification of transfer effects, which later developed into a more thorough investigation of the causes of and restrictions on transfer (Yu & Odlin, 2016)