

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Previous of the Study

The writer wants to present the previous studies research that deals especially with shift translation in the novel.

Dinasari in her thesis (2008) “ Translating Variation of English Noun phrase in Sir Arthur Conan Doyle’s Novel The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes and its translation petualangan Sherlock Holmes, classifies the translation variation of English noun phrase, finding the most frequently translation variation meaning of English noun phrase, describing the appropriateness of translation English noun phrase, and the pattern of English noun phrase. The result shows that there are 8 types of translation variation meaning of English noun phrase, namely: English noun phrase is translate into noun, noun phrase, noun clause, adjective, adjective phrase, verb, verb phrase, and adverb phrase.¹

Andini (2007) in her research entitled Translation Shift Found in the Novel No Greater Love by DanilleSteel, discusses about the types of shift and equivalent occurs from the data collected from the source. She concludes that there are structural and class shift occurs in the translation. However, the shifts do not change the meaning.

¹Dianasari, D, 2008, *Translation Variation of English Noun Phrase in Sir Arthur Conan Doyle’s Novel The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes and its translation Petualangan Sherlock Holmes*, Thesis. Surakarta : Universitas Muhammadiyah(<https://www.google.com/search?q=skripsi+about+syntactical+analysis+noun++phhrase&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8>)

They can be understood by the readers. However, the differences are the study is only focused on the verbal sentences of English version in the translation.²

Sukarini (2005) in her thesis entitled “ The Structural Shift of Noun Phrase in the Process of English-Indonesian Translation in the Novel A Perfect Stranger “ concerns about translation field, which especially discusses about the structural shift of noun phrase and also the principle of loss and gain of information which is common in transferring meaning from one language to another. This study concludes that structure shift occurs mostly in the process of transferring the meaning of noun phrase (NP) from s Source Language (SL) text into Target Language (TL) text. It also concludes that the occurrence of the additional information and loss of information in translation caused by the differences of the structure as well as the culture of both of source language and target language. Loss and again of information are done in order to make the translation natural. ³

Al-Zoubi and Al-Hassanawi (2001) in the translation journal entitled “ Constructing a Model for Shift Analysis in Translation “ explain about the various types of shifts in translation at various levels of linguistics and pralinguistics description. They conclude that the phenomenon of shift should be redefined

²Andini, T.M, 2007, *Translation Shift Found in the Novel No Greater Love by Danielle Steel*, Thesis. Malang : Universitas Muhammadiyah Malang(<https://www.google.com/search?q=skripsi+about+syntactical+analysis+noun++phhrase&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8>)

³Sukarini, N. M, 2005, *The Structural Shift of Noun Phrase in the Process of English-Indonesian Translation in the Novel “ A Perfect Stranger “*, Thesis. Denpasar : Universitas Undayana(<https://www.google.com/search?q=skripsi+about+syntactical+analysis+noun++phhrase&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8>)

positively as the consequence of the translator's effort to establish translation equivalence (TE). Psychologically, the occurrence of these shifts reflects the translator awareness of the linguistic and non-linguistic discrepancies between the Source Language and Target Language. In this sense, shift can be defined as problem-solving strategies adopted consciously to minimize the inevitable loss of meaning when rendering a text from one language into another. Translation proper is concerned with the transfer of meaning, the analysis of shift in translation should take into account the non-linguistic factor in addition to the linguistic one so as to achieve a comprehensive analysis of these shift. They also states that distinction between various types of shift at various levels necessitates the distinction between various types of equivalence in the translation and the distinction between micro-level and macro-level shift is compatible with the distinction between various types translation. The same distinction is also compatible with the distinction between various units of translation.⁴

The difference with this study is only analysis the noun phrase in English version, there is difference and equivalent between English version and Indonesian version.

⁴Al-Zoubi, & Al-Hassanawi, 2001, *Constructing a Model for Shift Analysis in Translation*, Translation journal. Jordan : Irbid National University (<https://www.google.com/search?q=skripsi+about+syntactical+analysis+noun++phhrase&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8>)

B. Syntactical Analysis

Syntax is a central component of human language. Language has often been characterized as systematic correlation between certain types of gesture and meaning. For spoken language, the gestures are oral, and for signed language, they are manual. It is not the case that every possible meaning that can be expressed is correlated with unique, unanalyzable gesture, be it oral or manual. Rather, each language has a stock of meaning-bearing elements and different ways of combining them to express different meaning, and these ways of combining themselves meaningful.

Syntax comes from Greece *sun* “with” and *tattein* “puts”. This term in etymology is put the word being a group of word or sentences and the group of words as be a sentence.⁵ Syntax of language is supposed to lay down rules according the linguistic structure (e.g the sentence) or to be built up from elements (such as words or parts of words). From this statement, we know that sentences can be separated to make words and they can be separated into smaller unit again.⁶

The term “syntax” from the Ancient Greek *syntaxis*, a verbal noun which literally means “arrangement” or “setting out together”. Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, is arranged to shows connections of meaning within the sentence.⁷

⁵Jwm, Vehar, 1985. *PengantarLinguistik*. Yogyakarta, Gajah Mada University Press. P 70

⁶Al-Zoubi, & Al-Hassanawi, 2001, *Constructing a Model for Shift Analysis in Translation*, Translation journal. Jordan : Irbid National

⁷Van Valin, Robert D. *An Introductory Syntax, Department of Linguistic*. University of Bufallo..the state of University of New York. P 8

1. Syntactical Element

There are three elements of syntax. They are sentence, clause, and phrase.

1.1 Sentence

Sentence is a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question, or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.⁸

Sentence is commonly defined as “a complete unit of thought“. Normally, a sentence expresses a relationship, conveys a command, voices a question, or describes someone or something. It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark.

In addition, traditional grammar defines a sentence in two ways. It is by meaning and by function. If by meaning divine that sentence is a complete thought, whereas by function tells that a sentence consist of a subject and a predicate.

Sentence can be used to do many different things, the most common to give information. Sometimes it is used to obtain information, rather than to give it. Another time it can be used to express an opinion, give an order, make a suggestion, or make a promise. And all of the functions expressed by the order words which indicates which way a sentence is being used. And these ways of distinguishing between uses of language are known as examples of mood.

⁸Michael Swan, 1996,*Practical English Usage*,Oxford : oxford University Press. P 500

a. Classification of Sentence

1) Classification of Sentence by Purpose

1.1) Declarative Sentence

Declarative sentence is the subject and predicate have normal word order.

Example: Anita cut her hair

1.2) Interrogative Sentence

In interrogative sentence the subject and auxiliary are often reserved, in a spoken language, most yes or no question end with a rise in a pitch.

Interrogative sentence is a sentence is a sentence with question mark.

Example: do you like travelling?

1.3) Imperative language

In an imperative language sentence only the predicate is expressed, it is and with a period in writing and a drop in pitch at speech.

Example: call me, at 07.00 o'clock before going to school

1.4) Exclamatory sentence

The sentence begins with an exclamatory phrase consisting of what or how plus a part of predicate. The exclamatory sentence is followed by the subject and the balance of predicate. The exclamatory sentence end with exclamatory mark.

Example: What beautiful hair she has!

What is used when a noun phrase terminates the exclamatory phrase and how is used when an adjective or adverb terminates the exclamatory phrase.

2) Classification of sentence by number of full prediction

2.1) Simple Sentence

Simple sentence is sentence have only one full prediction in the form of an independent.

Example: The teacher buys a dictionary

2.2) Compound Sentence

Compound sentence is sentence have two or more full prediction in the form of independent clause.

Example: The woman washes an apple and eat its.

2.3) Complex Sentence

Complex sentence is sentence has two or more full prediction. One of these is an independent clause or subordinate.

2.4) Compound-complex Sentence

Compound-complex sentence contains two or more independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

Example:

The man stole the jewelry and he hid it in his home until he could safely get out town. ⁹

⁹ Frank, Marcella, 1972, *Modern English Grammar a Practical Reference Guide*, New Jersey : Prentice-Hall. 220

b. The Component of Sentence

1. The Subject

A subject is a noun phrase or a clause with nominal function, it occurs before the verb phrase in declarative clauses, and immediately after the operator in question clauses. It has number and person concord, where applicable with the verb phrase. The subject is the part which names the person or thing we are talking about.

Example: *Many people* enjoy mountain climbing

2. The Predicate

Predicate is the part of sentence or clause that expresses what is said of the subject and that usually consist of a verb and an object. The predicate is the part which says something about the subject.

Example: Sarah *wrote* some letter

3. The Object

Object is a complement that indicates the receiver of an action. An object is a noun phrase or clause with nominal function, normally follows the subject and the verb phrase, and by the passive transformation, assumes the status of object.

Example: Ann sent *a letter*

4. Complement

Complement is fourth element of a sentence; it usually completes the meaning of the sentence. A complement is the part of the sentence that gives you more information about the subject or object.

Example: Those building looks beautiful

5. Adverbial

An adverbial is an adverb, adverb phrase, adverbial clause, noun phrase, or prepositional phrase. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Example: I have heard this *before*

1.2 Clause

Clause is a group of words that contains a verb and it used as a part a sentence.

The writer conclude that clause is a group of word whose predicate and subject, it is more complete if the words have object and adverb. There are three kinds of clause:

a. Noun Clause

Noun clause is subordinate used as noun (what, why, how). Noun clause may be used as a subject, a complement, and predicate.

Example: I don't know why John is absent

b. Adverbial clause

Adverbial clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a verb, an adverbial or an adverb. An adverbial clause tells *how, when, where, why, how much, to what extent, or under what condition* the action of main verb takes place.

Example:

There was a great sea wave when the volcano erupted

c. Adjective clause

Adjective clause is subordinate clause as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun. Adjective clause are easy to identify because they are almost always introduced by a special kind of pronoun, *who, whom, whose, which, and that* are called *relative pronoun*.

1.3 Phrase

A phrase is a group of related words that is used as a single part of speech and does not contain a verb and subject. It means that phrase is a compound word that has meaning but does not have a subject and predicate.

a. Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase is a group of words beginning with a preposition and ending with a noun or pronoun.

Example:

In front of our apartment building, the seller got an accident.

b. Adverb phrase

An adverb phrase is a prepositional phrase that modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb.

Example: Tom will see her later *in the day*

c. Participle phrase

A participle phrase consists of a participle and its related words, such as modifiers and complements, all of which act together as an adjective.

Example: He is swimming *quickly*

d. Gerund phrase

Gerund phrase consist of a gerund together with its complement and modifiers, all of which act together as a noun.

Example: I dislike *talking* loudly in the corridor

e. Infinitive phrase

An infinitive phrase consists of an infinitive together with its complement and modifiers.

Example: They were glad *to hear* an answer

f. Noun phrase

Noun phrase is a group of words that consist of a noun and it has determiner (*the, a, this*).¹⁰

Example:

The young girl on the stage is very famous singer

C. Noun Phrase

1. Definition Noun Phrase

A phrase is a group of words which consists of two or more words but does not have subject or predicate and functions to take a complete add the meaning information of the sentences.

Example: The book on the table is mine.

The boys in the street are students.

A noun is one of the most important parts of speech. A noun is attached to a verb to arrange a from that becomes a sentence core which is essential to every

¹⁰*ibid*

complete sentence. In addition, it also functions as the “head“of sentence in many modification structures. A noun phrase is the same; the noun becomes the head of the phrase. The position is noun phrase is typically as subject, object, and complement of sentence and as part of prepositional phrases.

Example: The beautiful girl over there is my sister.

The concept of the noun phrases which was created by American structuralize has come into general linguistic analysis via transformational generative grammar. The term “phrase“refers to an intermediary level or node between ‘ clause ‘ and ‘ word ‘. The phenomenon indicated by the term ‘noun phrase’ has also been studied under the label ‘noun group‘.

Semantically noun phrase can express such as agent, theme, goal, experience/patient, and instrument. “There is a wide range of types of dependents and no definable limit on how many it can have in a single noun phrase, the potential complexity of structure matches that of the clause”. Typical noun phrase modifiers are determiners, qualifiers, quantifier phrases, adjective and adjective phrases, noun and noun phrases, ad position and ad positional phrases and clauses. The noun phrase is the important of those categories that connect language and the outside world; one of central functions is refer to items in the world. All noun phrases have potential of reference, although it is not always employed, as noun phrase functioning as modifiers and subject complements typically classify and characterize. Reference to the real world can also be indirect or textual. Rather than directly referring to the world items, pronoun

often refer to noun-head, noun phrase within the text, which in turn refer to the outer world.

2. Types of Noun Phrases

Baker uses the term noun phrase to refer to a large class of sequences that could serve as subject and object. He further divides noun phrase into the following:

a. Common Noun Phrase

A common noun phrase is a phrase headed by a common noun. A noun phrase is just the conventional name for a phrase that can serve as subject, direct object and so forth. English common noun phrases are divided into two:

1. Count nouns, which are divided into singular and plural nouns.
2. Mass nouns, which are considered singular nouns.

The common noun phrases consist of common noun heads alone.

b. Noun phrases introduced by determiners and genitive

We have already seen many noun phrases in which common noun phrases were preceded by the word "the", a word traditionally referred to as the definite article.

1. Noun phrases can consist of a determiner plus a common noun phrase. Noun phrases introduced by the determiners form part of a special semantic class, it refers to definite phrases: NP = Det + CNP

Example: The book. NP = Det + CN

That side of the table

2. A noun phrases can consist of noun phrases in the genitive case followed by a common noun phrase. Genitive is the traditional name for the case in English indicates possession, among other things. The genitive case is formed by adding 's' to a singular or irregular plural noun and to a regular plural noun.

Example: Fred's dog. NP = NPGen + CNP = PN + CN

The farmer's pig. NPGen + CN = Det + CN + CN

- c. Another important type of elementary noun phrase consists of quantity words plus a common noun phrases. The class of quantity words includes *some, many, any, no, little, few*, and so on. A noun phrase can consist of a quantity word followed by common noun phrases.

NP = Quant + CNP

Example: Several heroes. Quant + CN

- d. Bare Noun Phrase

The common noun phrase combines with some preceding word or phrases to make up a noun phrases. English also allows noun allows noun phrases in which the common noun phrases occurs without any accompanying element. Bare noun phrase can consist of a mass or plural common noun phrase alone.

- e. Noun Phrase Introduced by 'a' or 'an' by a Common Noun Phrase
- f. A Special Possibility for Proper Nouns

Proper noun is described as ‘typically’ appear in noun phrase. Noun phrases here have something inside them in addition to the proper noun.

Example: No John Smiths attended the meeting

This John Smith lives in Brookline

g. Some Special Combined Forms

A noun phrase can consist of a quantifier plus noun combination. The four English quantity words that can serve as the first elements in these combination are ‘some, any, no, and every’. The four noun-like stems to which they can be attached are *one, body, thing, and where*.

NP = Quant + N

Example: Something

3. Function of Noun Phrase

Like word, phrases can be classified partly by their external function and partly by their internal form. By ‘form’, here it is means the way the structure of the phrases is made of words and other constituents. Typically, in a phrases or clauses.

In the clauses, the function of noun phrases is:

a. As subject

Example: the house + was + quite empty. NP = S + P + C

b. As Object

Example: We + have brought + the house. NP = S + P + O

c. As Complement

Example: This + must be + the house. NP = S + P + C

d. As Adverbials

Example: We + walked + five miles + last week. NP = S + P + Adv +
Adv

e. As Modifier

Example: Man + the hunter. NP = Mod + NP

4. Structure of Noun Phrase

The structures of noun phrase divide into three are:

a. The head of a noun phrases are :

1. A noun, example : *the doll, dear Margaret*
2. A pronoun, example : *herself, everyone in the street*
3. An adjective, example : *the absurd*
4. An enumerator, example : *all fifteen*
5. Genitive phrase, example : *John's*

b. The pre-modifier of a noun phrase are :

1. Determiners, example : *this morning, what a girl*
2. Enumerator, example : *two eggs, the third man*
3. Adjective, example : *red shoes, older music*
4. Noun, example : *a garden fence, a gold ring*
5. Genitive phrase, example : *Fred's whisky, someone else's problem*
6. Adverb, example : *quite a noise*

c. The post-modifier of an noun phrase

1. Prepositional phrase, example : *the best day of my life*
2. Relative clause, example : *a quantity which admire*
3. Adverb, example : *the girl upstairs*
4. Adjectives, example : *something nasty in the woodshed*¹¹

D. Translation

Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language. In this definition, there are two lexical items to pay to attention to, namely “ textual material “ and “ equivalent “. Textual material refers to the fact that not all source language texts are translated or replaced by the target language equivalents. The term “ equivalent “ is clearly a key term and the translator should find the “ equivalent “ between the source language and target language.

Translation is the genera term referring to the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to anther language, whether the language are in written or oral form, whether the languages have establish orthographies or do not have such standardization or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign language of the deaf. In this definition it seems thatBrislin gives a board definition to the term “translation“. For him, translation means transferring thoughts and ideas from one language to another language and the languages can be in spoken form which is called interpretation and in the written form which is normally called

¹¹ Baker C.L. 1995. *English Syntax*. The MIT Press. London, England. P. 147

translation.¹²

In translation the translator must master both of languages, in translating the translator is always related with second language acquisition. Second language acquisition refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning language subsequent to learning to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called second language (L2), even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tent be acquired. It is also commonly called a target language (TL), which refers to any language that the aim or goal of learning. Sometimes it necessary for us to make further distinctions according to the function the L2 will serve in our lives, since this may significantly affect what we learn. A second language is typically or societally dominant language needed for education, employment, and other basic purposes. It often acquired by minority group members of immigrant who speak another language natively. There is general agreement that cross-linguistic influence, or transfer of prior knowledge from L1 to L2, is one the process that is involved in interlanguage development. Two major types of transfer which occur are: (1) positive transfer, when an L1 structure or rule used in an L2 utterance and that use is appropriate or “correct” in the L2. (2) Negative transfer, when an L1 structure or rule is used in an L2 utterance and that use is inappropriate and considered an “error”.¹³

¹²Budianto, Langgen,. 2010,*A Practical Guide for Translation Skill*,Malang : UIN-Maliki Press. P. 1

¹³Troike, Muriel Saville. 2006. *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press. New york. P. 2-4

a. Types of translation

Lasron (1998) divided translation into two types, they are :

1. Literal translation is a form-based translation attempting to follow the form of the source language. For example :

Source Language : Look, little guy, you-all shouldn't be ding that.

Target Language : *Lihat, anakkecil, kamusemuaseharusnyatidakberbuatsepertiitu.*

2. Idiomatic translation is a meaning-based translation that makes every effort to communicate the meaning of the source language text in the natural form of the receptor language. For example :

Source Language : Tell me, I am not a cage now.

Target Language : *Ayo. Berilahakusemangatbahwaaku orang bebas.*

b. Equivalence

Equivalence refers to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. Catford wrote text in different languages can be equivalent in different degrees (fully or partially equivalent), in respect of different levels of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of semantics, of grammar, of lexis, etc), and at different rank (word-for-word, phrase-for-phrase, sentences-for-sentence). Baker used the notion of equivalence for the sake of convenience because most translators use it rather than because it has any theoretical statements. Thus equivalence is variously regarded as a necessary condition for translators, an obstacle to progress in translation studies, or useful category for describing translation. She

also added that proponent of equivalence as the relationship between a source text (SL) and a target language (TL). That's allowed the TT to be considered as translation of the ST in the first place.

Types of Equivalence

Catford model of equivalence:

1. Formal correspondence is any TL category (unit, class, element of structure, etc) which can be said to occupy as nearly as possible the “ same “ place in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. For example: translating a noun by noun.

Source Language: Old man

Target Language:*Laki-lakitua*

2. Textual equivalence is any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text. For example : nominal by a verb

Source Language: We had a very long talk.

Target Language:*Kami berbicara lama sekali.*

c. Shift in translation

Catford defines “shift” as departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the source language to the target language. Proposed that shift means to change a grammatical category, which means that the substitution of one grammatical category for another that is used to convey the same semantic weight or equivalent.

There are two kinds of translation shifts:

1. Level shift

This is a shift of level. By level shift, it is meant that source language item at one linguistic level has a target language translation equivalent at a different level. As pointed by Catford, it may occur because the translation between these levels of phonology and graphology – or between these levels and these levels and the levels of phonology and graphology – or between these levels and the levels of grammar and lexis-is impossible. Translation between these levels is absolutely ruled by the theory, which posits “relationship to the same substance “as the necessary condition of translation equivalence. Then, with shifts from grammar to lexis or vice versa as the only possible level shift in translation, and such shifts are, of course, quite common. For example:

Source Language: She is eating

Target Language: *Diasedangmakan*

In this translation, there is a shift from grammar to lexis in which the patterns *to be + v-ing* in the source language text into lexicon *sedang* in the target language text.

2. Category shift

Catford refers is to the unbounded and rank-bound translation. The first being approximately “ normal “ or “ free “ translation in which Source Language-Target Language equivalences are set up at whatever rank is appropriate. Usually, but not always, there is sentence-sentence equivalent, but in the course of a text, equivalences may shift up and down the rank scale, often being establish at rank lower than the

sentence. Rank-bound translation is used only to refer to those special cases where equivalence is deliberately limited to rank below the sentence, thus leading to “ bad translation “ that is translation in which the Target Language text is either not a normal Target Language form at all, or not relatable to the same situational substance as the Source Language text. However, it is clearly meaningless to talk about category shift unless we assume some degree of formal correspondence between Source Language and Target Language. There are four shift of translation:

a. Structure shift

This is amongst the most frequent category shift at all ranks in translation: they occur in phonological and graphological translation as well as in total translation. For example:

Source Language: Old man

Target Language: *Laki-lakitua*

Old man in the source language text is constructed of modifier (*old*) + (*man*), meanwhile in the target language it become *laki-lakitua* which is constructed of head (*laki-laki*) + modifier (*tua*).

b. Class shift

For this term, Catford is following Halliday’s definition on class. Class is defined as that grouping of in the structure of the unit text above. Class shift occurs when the translation equivalent of a source language item is a member of a different class from the original item. Because of the logical dependence of class on structure, it is clear that structure shifts usually entails class shifts,

though this may be demonstrable only at secondary degree of delicacy. For example:

Source Language: Medical students

Target Language: *Mahasiswakedokteran*

In this example, *medical* in the source language text is an adjective, meanwhile *kedokteran* in the target language text is a noun.

c. Unit shift

This kind of shift involves change in rank. It departs from formal correspondence in while translation equivalent of a unit one rank in the source language is the unit at a different rank in the target language. For example : a phrase into a clause.

Source Language: The girl buying ice cream

Target Language: *Gadis yang membelieskrim*

d. Intra system shift

The terms intra-system shift is used for those case where the shift occurs internally, within a system that is for those cases where source language and target language posses system which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the target language system.

For example :

Source Language: Trousers

Target Language: *Celana*

Trousers in the source language text is a plural form. It is translated into *celana* in the target language text in a singular form.¹⁴

E. LaskarPelangi

Novel Andrea Hirata with thick 534 page of book contains a very interesting story. The story in this novel is the true story journey of a writer and pursuit his dream to French State. This story was touted to be a very interesting film by renowned director RiriRiza and Mira Lesmana. This novel is able to make the reader feel like drifting and brought into the story in it.

Andrea Hirata is a person who likes to dream in the run his life. However, believe that the dream become to a reality. In this novel, he is telling about his moment in the past in *Belitong*. So the story in his novel is really true life of the writer.

Style of language used by Andrea Hirata regarded as a good style and very interesting, in addition in this novel is not use Indonesian language only but also *melayu* language that makes the reader looks a little confused and the reader must guess the intent of the novel. However, within in the meaning of every *melayu* language that always used in bottom sentences, so after reading of the *melayu* language used the readers can understand the language.

Plot in this novel is mix plot, but the dominant plot in this novel is continue plot. The author use first-person, because the author of this story is the main player. So the

¹⁴Catford, J. C, 1965, *A Linguistics Theory of Translation*, London : Oxford University Press. P. 73

story is curious to readers when they read the novel and they finish quickly. This novel give the reader some messages and the benefit. Andrea Hirata teaches us don't give up, if you want to get your dream become reality. The way of the author describe the characters in the story is different commonly way used another author.

The story of the *LaskarPelangi* is started from the life of a boy, he is Curl, who started school to wait ten children who want to attend schools in the Curls. With anxious curls, Sahara, Trapani, Leek, Syahdan, Mahar, Latitude, Borek, A Kiong, buMus , MrHarfan, and they are waiting to see if there is more person who wants to go to school in SD Muhamadiyyah, if the students less then ten the school will be collapsed. SD Muhamaddiyah will be doomed, they waited so long then witty man fifteen years old and he has some differences than others. But he helps his friend to build and attend the Muhamaddiyah elementary, and he makes his friends very happy and get them dream in *Balitung*.

The interesting thing about this novel is that it can be easily understand if we want to get our dream. In this story teaches us to help each others, and this novel the author make it to be implicit question for the readers in each paragraph from the beginning until the end of the story. There is a sense of the *melayu* language and how to read it. This novel has some advantage but besides of the advantages it makes some people get difficulties for the reader about *melayu* language. This novel is very interesting and wonderful of the responds.

F. Andrea Hirata

Andrea Hirata Seman Said Aaron was born on the island of Belitung October 24,

1982. Andrea Hirata was the fourth child of the couple SemanHarunayah Said and NA Masturah. Lived in village with all the limitations are quite affecting personal Andrea Hitara. He claimed to get more motivation from his surrounding that many shows sadness.

As he told the novel *LaskarPelangi*, Andrea Hirata went to a small school building condition is very pathetic and almost collapsed. Muhammadiyah elementary school named Andrea is recognized see enough. However, due to lack of funding, he was forced to go to a school that looks more like a cattle pen. Despite the need to gain knowledge in the building that is not comfortable, Andrea Hirata still has significant motivation to learn. At school it also, he met with his champions, dubbed as the Rainbow Troop.

In SD Muhammadiyah anyway, Andrea met a teacher who until now very respected, NA Muslimah. “ I wrote books for buMuslimah Rainbow Troop “, Andrea said firmly to reality. Persistence buMuslimah to teach students wh only numbering no more than 11 people turned out meant a lot for Andrea lives. Changes in the life of Andrea, he admitted not because of motivation and discipline bumuslimah. Actually, on island of Belitung no other school administrate by *PN Timah*. However, Andrea has no right to attend the school because of his father who still holds the status of a petty official.

Luckily for his, Andrea was able to obtain a job as nail sorter in the post office Bogor. On the basis of his hard work, Andrea managed to continue his education at the faculty of economics, University of Indonesia. After graduating and obtaining a

bachelor's degree, Andrea was also able to get a scholarship to continue his education and Seffield Hallam University, UK.