CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0   The Background

The second language learning environment includes a wide variety of conscious and unconscious 'lessons'– everything that language learners hear and see. Such environment does not have to be experienced just in a formal language classroom. Informal situations – ordering food in restaurants or cafes, conversing with friends or reading advertisements on TV and newspapers – could create a language learning environment as long as meaningful interaction takes place.

Individuals who aim to study English as a second language may face some difficulties adapting to a new set of rules; different from their mother tongues. Thus, acquiring a new language must be regarded as a process which does not exist in a vacuum and therefore; it is subjected to the natural processes of change depending on the speaker, hearer and the situation involved. However, when the language is not converted and used comprehensively due to one inability to make a distinction with the first language, many problems could arise for instance in terms of academic writing (Leki, 1992, Wang and Wen, 2002; Jenwitheesuk, 2009) and reading comprehension (Innajih, 2007). When two dissimilar languages come into play, it is essential to look at how both languages differ and how we acquire the meaning of L1 and L2 (Slabakova, 2010).

Undoubtedly, second language learners tend to build up on the language system of the source language (SL) and master the target language (TL) but they appear to fail in producing understandable structures. It seems like there is a gap between the acquired knowledge obtained and the association of knowledge. When learners speak or write in the target language (L2), second language learners have the tendency to rely on their mother tongue (L1) structures to respond. If the structural organization of the two languages are

vividly distinctive, a learner can easily identify errors made in L2, thus signifying an interference in L1 on L2 (Dechert, 1983 and Ellis, 1997).

Hence, the semantic processor of each language must be mastered to ease ESL/EFL learners in understanding and utilizing it as they do in their native languages. One of the mediums where the aim of learning L2 can be achieved and transferring the information from L1 can be done linguistically and semantically is when the learning of L2 is related to translation. When L2 learners are told about how different both languages are when the translation process is carried out, they could distinguish each language effectively, use them successfully in language learning and minimize interference. There are a number of aspects that deal closely with semantic relation and one that has to be drilled upon is cohesion.

Therefore, this research is aimed to study the usage of conjunctions as a type of cohesive ties in a Malay novel and its English translation as a learning implication to Malay learners in learning English as a second language.

1.1   The Rational of the Study

Ellis (1997) defines interference as 'transfer', which he elaborates as 'the influence that the learners of L1 put forth over the acquisition of L2'. Ellis claims that it happens due to learners' perceptions on the words that could be transferred from L1 to L2 based on their development in the L2 learning. Brown (1994, p.26) on the other hand, describes interference as "the native language effect" where he further elaborates that it happens due to false assumption made by L2 beginners that L2 and L1 work similarly. Clearly, interference mainly occurs automatically (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982) and depends mostly on the basis of learners' native language. As first language is acquired 'naturally' where it is used daily over a period of one's life, learning a second language that is attained later in life is seen as more complex due to reasons such as age and motivation level. McLaughlin (1984) concludes that interference is unavoidable in bilingualism. It is

presumed that as a result of varied language systems and structures that cause difficulty in language learning, interference is likely to occur.

In learning a new language, learners tend to create their own rules from the L1 knowledge and such occurrence only happens when the language learners suppose that it would assist them in the language learning and when they grow to be proficient learners in the target language for transfer to be achievable (Seligar, 1988; Ellis, 1997). In general, learners supposed that they would perceive second language learning partly through the meaning of words acquired in the first language (Larson-Freeman & Long, 1991). Some studies pertaining interlingual errors made by mother tongue interference were carried out among foreign language learners. Studies by Kim (1998 cited in Lee, 2001), Horney (1998 cited in Chen 2006) and Zhang (2007) have successfully demonstrated the effects of L1 interference in L2 learning especially in terms of articles, verbs, prepositions and subject verb agreement.

One consequence of assuming one language is similar to another is such occurrence may intrude one's speech and writing ability. Due to this problem, one may break the ties between sentences thereby producing confusion and absurd spoken and written words that have no meanings. As mentioned by Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion upholds intimate intersentential interactions which largely separate a text from a series of isolated words. Noticeably, cohesion cannot be achieved unless learners are aware of how two or more languages are different from one and another. Thus, this study is aimed at shedding some light to Malay second language learners on how cohesive ties bring meanings to the text and the difference between Malay and English languages in the chosen language area. Besides helping Malay learners to comprehend better, most essentially, such study helps Malay learners to be alert of what makes a text by being capable of looking in depth on how semantic relations work. Conjunction which appears to be one of cohesive ties

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976) is seen as an expression of many relations and it deals closely to its semantic meanings and pragmatic features (Caron, 1994).

As conjunctions exists in Malay and English and appear to be somehow similar and vice versa, mixing both at once may complicate how a language operates, specifically on the usage of conjunctions. Therefore, investigation in the area of conjunction which is rarely studied in Malay language would drill further discussion within the framework of the language itself. Because Malay and English are two very dissimilar languages, it would also be interesting to research on. Such study will also determine whether the uses of conjunctions in both languages are similar or different in semantic field. Most importantly, it could be a learning strategy in helping Malay learners in English language learning.

1.2   Problem Statement

Interference of one's first language (L1) into the second language (L2) acquisition causes problems to ESL learners – exposing them to errors concerning its meanings. Due to failure of distinguishing words, learners especially the less proficient ones tend to blend L1 words with L2 because of translation equivalence. Apart from lexical form relatives, it is also proven that translation equivalent in L1 is most noticeable during the first phase of L2 learning (Sunderman and Kroll, 2006). In the process of grasping the language system of L2, learners will filter the knowledge they have in L1; establishing the beliefs that when L2 is acquired, L1 also does 'work' actively (Jared & Kroll, 2001; Marian & Spivey, 2003).

Utilizing everything learners acquire in L1 and distinguishing them with the new information (L2) is likely to occur consciously or unconsciously. Translation is usually employed implicitly as a resource to make it 'function' and retain L2 vocabulary which occurs mainly to beginner and intermediate ones (Pariante-Beltran, 2006). When it occurs, there is a possibility that languages are mixed, errors are made repeatedly, and eventually, incompetent learners are created. Unquestionably, the access of meaning is a focal issue

recently in bilingual studies to almost all language learners regardless of the proficiency level. Two languages that are semantically similar in meanings increase the chance of interference effects (Talamas et al. 1999, Sunderman and Kroll, 2006 cited in Moldovan, et al. 2012). Based on the studies, it shows that the more similar two languages are in meanings, the greater the possibility of interference. Such findings are important, as they suggest that two similar languages could lead to confusion in learning.

As cohesion studies uphold the basic idea of semantic relation, conjunction – a type of cohesive tie – is assumed to be a blunder to most language learners. Lieber (1981: 201-202) claims that conjunctive cohesion is regarded as one of the most complicated features apart from reference which students are prone to make mistakes on. Furthermore, students who are not exposed to different types of conjunctions results in improper usage of conjunctions in sentences (Hughes and Heah, 1993). In addition, conjunctions are also listed as learners' difficulties in reading comprehension (Innajih, 2007). The correct usage of conjunctions has also been a focus in studies where it is researched as an indicator of smooth fluency and a sign of learners' ability of producing complex sentences in speaking (Li, 2008). Most importantly, it is also proven that the richness of learners' native language apart from learners' L2 incompetence could also be a reason of the absence of conjunctive items in students' writing (Li, 2009).

With regard to the conjunctions and from the pilot study that was done earlier, it seems that there are varieties of difficulties when it comes to the semantic analysis of the conjunctions in both languages. For instance, some of the Malay conjunctions may share similar meaning with English conjunctions but they are different in terms of grammatical usage. The word 'untuk' is a Malay conjunction but it shares similar meaning with English prepositions, 'for' and infinitive 'to'. In addition, English conjunctions may have varieties of semantic meanings, unlike Malay conjunctions which are very specific to the context.

For example, the word 'kerana' is a Malay conjunction that could be defined as English conjunctions 'because', 'since' and 'for'.

Since there are numerous studies done involving English and other languages such as Arabic, Persian, Mandarin and Spanish, a beginning of semantic study on conjunctive items involving English and Malay language could be a key to initiate further discussion under the language system. Both languages could be similar or different in the way conjunctions are used in sentences and it could be a learning strategy in helping Malay second language learners to comprehend English better.

1.3 Research Objectives

The research has outlined several objectives that are aimed to be achieved at the end of the study. The objectives of this research are:

1. To identify the types of conjunctions used in sentences in translating the Malay novel *Badai Semalam* into the English novel *Storms of Yesterday*.

2. To find out the similarities and differences of the semantic features of the Malay conjunctions and their English translations.

3. To determine the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and shifts in text meaning that might occur in the English translation.

1.4   Research Questions

The research has drawn several questions that are aimed to be answered at the end of the research study. The questions are:

1. What are the types of conjunctions used in sentences in translating the Malay novel *Badai Semalam* into the English novel *Storms of Yesterday*?

2. What are the similarities and differences of the Malay conjunctions and their English translations?

3. What are the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and text meaning that might occur in the English translation?

1.5   Limitations

This study will mainly focus on one branch of grammatical cohesive elements brought up by Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion in English (1976) which is conjunctions. All four types of conjunctions will be studied: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal in relations with Malay conjunctions. The other three types of grammatical elements which are reference, substitution and ellipsis as well as lexical cohesion which centers on vocabulary will not be analyzed. Since conjunctions are mostly presented in books by listing them into groups of varied semantic functions, ESL students face difficulties in using them accurately (Lai, 2010 cited in Philip et al. 2012). Therefore, choosing conjunctions as the area of study may assist learners in distinguishing conjunctions especially in Malay and English language. Hence, this study will focus on how conjunctions are used in both literary texts; Malay and English, in terms of its meanings and functions in the text. In this study, only one-third (8 chapters) of the novels will be analyzed. Since throughout the novels, most conjunctions from Malay and English occur repeatedly; therefore, only the types of conjunctions from chapter one until chapter eight for both novels will be taken into account. Beikian et al. (2013) who investigated

explicitation devices adopted in the novel, *The Kite Runner* and its Persian translated novel also studied only one-third of the novel because most occurrences of conjunctions appear repetitively in both novels.

1.6   Design of the Study

This thesis contains five chapters. It begins with the introduction, literature review, methodology, discussion and findings as well as conclusion and recommendations. The first chapter is the introduction that explains the background of study, the rational of the study, the problem statement, research objectives and questions, limitations of the study and definition of key terms. Basically, the chapter emphasizes on the importance of analyzing semantic study of conjunctions for ESL learners. The second chapter focuses on the field of study which consists of significant explanations of discourse analysis, cohesive devices, types of conjunctions in Malay and English language and related theories as well as related studies of the similar topic chosen. The third chapter is the methodology which puts emphasis on data collection (the corpus), theoretical framework and procedure and sample of data analysis. The fourth chapter centers on discussion and findings. Finally, chapter five sums up the findings of the data and ends with pedagogical implications, suggestions and recommendations for further studies.

1.7   Summary

This chapter begins with a brief background of the study, the rational of the study, problem statement, research questions and objectives, limitations and design of study. In the next chapter, topics related and theories specifically Halliday and Hasan (1976), Katz and Fodor (1963) and Blum Kulka (1986) are explained thoroughly. Most importantly, the differences between Malay and English conjunctions are discussed. The relationships between cohesion and coherence together with related studies are also clarified in the chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Introduction

The discussions of past studies regarding conjunctions in both languages; English and Malay languages are unfolded in this chapter. Besides, some studies related to the usage of cohesion particularly conjunctions by ESL learners will also be presented in detail. In this chapter, the researcher would first look at the areas of discourse analysis and cohesion mainly conjunctions. Secondly, the descriptions and usages of conjunctions in English and Malay concerning their differences are discussed. Thirdly, major theories related to the study; Halliday and Hasan's research (1976), Katz and Fodor theory (1963) and Blum Kulka's shifts (1986) are reviewed thoroughly. Finally, the researcher will consider the important studies related to cohesion and conjunctions particularly in reference to the present research.

2.1   Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a field of study that analyzes a language in detail and further than the sentence level that is; to study the connection between the language and the context used. It is a branch of linguistic element which includes the idea of making meaningful strings of words, interpreting and making sense of what is being written not said and interpreting whether a text is well-structured or not. It explores and investigates on how sentences are assembled into communicative use for the purpose of social actions (Widdowson, 2007). As also mentioned by Gee (2005) in his book, *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*, "discourse analysis is a method to engage in a very crucial human task. The task is to facilitate learners to think critically about what the words meant when we use them with people that eventually make us better human beings and make the world a better place to live in."

Historically, the word 'discourse' originated from a Latin word 'discursus' which carries the meaning of 'conversation/speech'. The word 'discourse' is defined as "related series of utterances produced during discussion, a lecture, a story, or other speech acts" (O'Grady, 2008:220). The word 'discourse' carries wide meanings. Some linguists refer it as texts and some say it denotes speech. The study of written discourse appears to be less troublesome compared to the analysis of spoken discourse since it deals less with non-verbal utterances, interruptions and writers have more time to review what has been written. Regardless, any type of discourse is presumed to be meaningful, well-structured, and could be communicated effectively (McCarthy, 1991:12). Beaugrande (1981, quoted in Madoui 2004: 21-22) proposes seven criteria that have to be completed in producing a qualified discourse which includes: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informality, situationality and intertextuality.

2.1.1 Written Discourse

Written discourse is an organized, pre-planned, and probably a mean of language that could be reviewed usually by one interlocutor (Djamila, 2010). It gives a continuum of opportunities for the writer to make a decision on what is best by: thinking of what and how to write, looking back at the written text, deciding whether it is acceptable or not, doing the necessary changes or tossing it out. Thus, writers need to be aware of the norms and rules of producing a text – through linguistic devices to tie and chain the sentences all together making it a comprehensible text to be read. Essentially, they have to pay much attention and concern on text cohesion as the meaning of what a text really means is different between one researcher and another.

2.2   Cohesion in English

Cohesion is one of the linguistic elements that preserve the consistency and association of words within sentences throughout a passage. It is a network of lexico-grammatical relations that connects various elements in a text and makes it a meaningful one by using different linguistic markers. Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976) has inspired many researchers to study cohesion in a text and affected students especially in reading and writing. In Halliday and Hasan's words (1976: 04):

> "Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other in the sense that, it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text".

Numbers of studies have been carried out to analyze the grammatical cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions. Holloway (1981) for instance, studies cohesion as a way in developing teaching and testing of writing while Witte and Faigley (1981) employ cohesion by looking at the difference in the usage of compositions of high and low level. Other languages have also been examined with regard to the following research studies; for example the Spanish language by Mederos Martín (1988) and Casado Velarde (1997); English and Japanese language by Oshima (1988); English and Chinese language specifically on the use of reference and conjunctive relations by Chun-chun Yeh (2004); English and Arabic language by Mr Boudjemaà Dendenne (2009) as well as Persian and English language in novels written by Ali Rahimi (2012).

Discourse competence has arisen to be a major feature of language pedagogy since communicative competence has emerged. Aligned with it, language learners are also guided to produce written and/or spoken discourse which shows coherence and cohesion. Since the increase number of studies concerning the process of coherence and cohesion among ESL/EFL learners, methodologist and language teachers have comprehended and

given deeper insights on the importance of grammar knowledge among language learners in order to produce coherent texts in English (Kafes, 2012).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976; cited by Hinkel, 2001), the usage of accurate cohesive devices are crucial in the teaching of second language (L2) composition and writing. Likewise, McCarthy (1991) also claims that cohesion and cohesive devices play an important role in English texts and teachers have to explain them explicitly in L2 reading and writing instruction. Furthermore, Scott (1996) also emphasizes that students should be taught L2 linguistic and lexical means of cohesion in writing compositions or essays as L2 learners usually transfer L1 to L2 rhetorical and syntactic devices to produce a whole collective text though parallel cohesive ties are not found in L2.

2.2.1 Types of Cohesive devices

The word 'cohesive', according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005), is regarded as an adjective that means connected or related in a reasonable way to form a whole. Cohesive devices are basically words or phrases that tie a text. It is opined that cohesive devices aid texts to achieve its status and attain to communicative events.

The devices give sense to the texts. Halliday and Hasan believe that cohesive devices are perceived as "text-forming" that they are called "cohesive ties". Cohesive devices as they are defined refer to the view – "the primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depending on the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create texture". Hatim and Mason (1990:195) affirm that "there are many possible cohesive devices capable of relying, say, a given relationship between propositions. And in a given same language is likely to be a preferred option". In addition, Hatch (1992:223) believes that such devices are used to bind pieces of text together in a specific way while Bex (1996) distinguishes cohesive ties as elements that reside in the semantic and grammatical properties of the language.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) who first initiate the term, cohesive devices are divided into two categories: lexical and grammatical devices. Lexical devices deal with vocabulary, word features, and group relationships among them to reach cohesion. It is categorized under two main categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is defined as the recurrences of a lexical item while collocation is concerned with lexical items that are possible to be found together between a text. Grammatical devices on the other hand, are divided into four cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions. Reference involves using language to point something inside or outside text. It cannot be interpreted semantically but rather makes reference to something. One example of a reference device is by using demonstratives: e.g. *this/these, that/those.* Substitution, in contrast, means to replace one item with another. It relies on linguistic forms but not its meanings. It functions at the nominal, verbal or clausal level. Substitution items that are mostly used are e.g. *'one/s', 'do/did', 'do/not'*. The idea of omitting is called ellipsis. It is a cohesive tie where parts of sentences are omitted, nevertheless; the meanings still sustain. Similar to substitution, ellipsis also operates at nominal, verbal and clausal level. The fourth type of cohesive device is called conjunction. It is a type of cohesive device that is normally used and the most extensively dealt with. The present research will study on conjunctions which will be elaborated further.

2.2.2 Coherence in English

Coherence is defined as primary relations within sentences which create the text and bring their relevance towards the central thought of the text (Beaugrande: 1981, quoted in Madoui 2004: 21- 22). Cohesion and coherence are two dissimilar concepts that function differently but both help bind a text together in serving clear meaning to the readers. The given definition by Halliday and Hasan state that cohesion is the coherence of a text itself, while coherence is the coherence of the text with its context of situation (1976: 23). It

certainly seems slightly unclear as they also introduce the word *texture* which refers to the "property of being a text" (1976: 2). However, they further explain that cohesion is limited to the text, more controlled depending on its function while coherence includes the context. Based on Berman & Slobin (1994: 67), coherence is defined as a plot-motivated overall structure (in narrative) or plan on the macro level. In general, coherence is also seen at a discourse-level property that holds a text as a whole (Fitzgerald & Spiegel, 1990: 23). On the other hand, De Beaugrande and Dressler claim that both cohesion and coherence are two overt concepts in which cohesion considers the surface elements that occur continuously while coherence considers the elements of knowledge concerning the conceptual connectivity (1981: 3-10).

As mentioned earlier, cohesion is heavily relied on mainly by Halliday and Hasan in bringing unity in texts. Some researchers, through their studies, believe that cohesion is insufficient in making a text connected, explaining that cohesion is unnecessary at all to make a text appear a whole text. They added that the unity of coherence is what matters the most and its lacking would not create a text despite varied used of cohesive ties (Hellman, 1995; Sanford & Moxey, 1995). In fact, there are also studies done earlier that prove coherence in a text is possible to be created without the existence of cohesion (Widdowson, 1978: 29). Thus, based on Widdowson, it is conclusive that vivid used of cohesive devices are of minor dependency to reach unity in a text compared to coherence.

Though cohesion and coherence seem different but undeniably, both concepts are intertwined. It seems that the following studies and views have proven that cohesive devices, being the property of the text, can be analyzed, measured, and more objective in contrast to coherence that relies on readers' judgment and consideration of the text that is more varied and subjective to be analyzed (Widdowson, 2004: 72).

2.2.3 Cohesion and Translation

Translation is perceived as an act of communication which is referring to at least the linguistic and discoursal systems that grip two languages together; the source text (ST) and target text (TT) included in the process of translation. As mentioned by Blum Kulka (1986), it is a route that needs a complex text and discoursing processing. As cohesive devices play a vital part in bringing texture and communication factors of ST and TT, they need to be taken into consideration when language is translated from one language to another. Cohesion has questionably become one of the toughest issues in translating languages as each language system has its own rules of using cohesive devices and is unique that it could not simply be mixed with other languages. Generally, every language "has its own patterns to convey the interrelationship of persons and events; in no language may these patterns be ignored" (Callow 1974: 30, quoted in Baker 1992: 180).

Some researchers study the relationship between cohesion and translation. Berman (1978, cited in Blum-Kulka, 1986) studies the usage of cohesive devices in English and Hebrew language. Based on the analysis, it is found that lexical cohesion in English is overly used when translated to Hebrew. Grammatical items in ST are preferred to be replaced with lexical items in TT. Likewise, Callow (1974, as discussed by Baker, 1992) illustrates that English prefers pronominal reference; Brazilian Portuguese mostly favors lexical repetition. Furthermore, it is also discovered that Brazilian Portuguese employ verbs for people and numbers which provide extra meanings in tracing participants. Baker (1992), on the other hand, carries out a research study involving English and Arabic language. She discovers that for small chunks of English words, they are overtly linked up with different types of conjunctions and punctuation. In contrast, Arabic limits the usage of conjunctions which needs to be referred to the addressee's capability to deduce the relationships.

Referring to the above explanation, cohesive devices that are selected by the translator have to be chosen based on the source language system and conventions. Unquestionably, it is the translator's job to be accountable in describing how a language creates cohesion. Producing an ambiguous, unclear or repetitive translation could hinder learners' ability to understand differences between languages and most crucially, become unsuccessful in becoming a proficient L2 learner.

2.3   The Origins and Meanings of Conjunctions

The word 'conjunction' /kən'dʒʌŋkʃən/ is derived from the word *'conjunct'* /kən'dʒʌŋk/ ("com", together and "jungere", join) that means joined or united. It was first used in 15th century and originated from Middle English and Latin Language of the word *conjunctus*. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005), conjunction is defined as a word which links parts of a sentence. This area of study has been studied widely and associated with linkers, coordinators, discourse markers and many others. Undeniably, conjunction is a vital linguistic element in discourse as they are brought into play to conjoin "different grammatical units: clauses, clause elements, words (Leech & Svartvik, 1994:264, see Greenbaum & Quirk, 1993:265; Carston, 1994:692).

Learning conjunctions, despite of any languages, could be confusing to language learners since there are a list of varied conjunctions of varied meanings to be learnt. Indeed, students need to know the meanings of conjunctions in order to master in using them for oral or written text (Steffani & Nippold, 1997 cited in Lai, 2008). Whether it is based from translation materials or textbooks, the actual meanings of conjunctions and how different they are in many languages must be studied.

2.3.1 Conjunctions in Malay language

Malay conjunctions (*kata hubung*) are complex clusters in foreign/second language acquisition in contrast with verbs or nouns that appear to be more basic in terms of denotation (Sew, 2008). In Malay language, the function of conjunctions is to tie clauses, sentences and phrases. Malay words are divided into four categories: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and function words. Conjunction is grouped under function words (*kata tugas*). In Nik Safiah Karim's (1995) book *Malay Grammar for Academics and Professionals*, she has classified conjunctions into two types: Coordinating Conjunctions (*kata hubung gabungan*) and Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan*).

The role of Coordinating Conjunctions (*kata hubung gabungan*) is to combine two clauses or more that are paralleled. Coordinating Conjunctions are used to construct conjoined sentences (*ayat majmuk gabungan*) which two or more sentences are joined together. There are eight types of Coordinating Conjunctions which are listed in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: The types of Coordinating Conjunctions

Category		*Examples*
Coordinating Conjunctions (kata hubung gabungan)	*dan* (and)	*Aminah mengemas rumah **dan** ibunya membasuh kain.*
	atau (or)	*Mereka mungkin pergi ke Johor **atau** ke Perak.*
	tetapi (but)	*Ahmad lulus ujian itu **tetapi** suaminya gagal.*
	serta (along, and)	*Wanita itu memeluk anaknya **serta** membelai rambutnya.*
	lalu (and then)	*Tetamu itu bangun **lalu** turun ke serambi.*
	malahan (in fact)	*Ekonomi Negara itu belum pulih, **malahan** bertambah lemah.*
	sambil (while)	*Ia berkata-kata **sambil** merenung wajah temannya.*
	kemudian (then)	*Sampah itu dipungutnya **kemudian** dimasukkannya ke dalam tong sampah.*

*Note: Adapted from Nik Safiah Karim et al. (2008)

In contrast, Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan*) are the types of conjunctions which combine one or more sentences or clauses to a main clause and create

an embedded sentence (*ayat majmuk pancangan*). It is grouped under three categories: Relative Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan relatif*), Complementary Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan komplemen*) and Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan keterangan*). The first type of conjunctions is embedded into the main clause either in the subject or any part of the predicate. The second type of conjunctions is used to complete the sentence, either in the form of noun phrase, verb phrase or adjective phrase. The complement sentence (*ayat komplemen*) occurs as a subordinate clause (independent clause). The third type of conjunctions is used to modify a main clause by providing more information relating to time, place, reason, condition, manner, and so on similar to adverbial clause in English. A modifying clause (*ayat keterangan*) is the one which modifies a main clause where the conjunctions precede the subordinate clause/clauses. Some examples of the conjunctions are listed in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: The types of Embedded Conjunctions

Category		Examples
Relative Embedded Conjunctions (kata hubung pancangan relatif)	*yang* (which, who)	*Budak* **yang** *sedang membaca itu adik saya.* *Mereka menonton drama* **yang** *disukai ramai.* *Encik Ali guru* **yang** *berdedikasi* **Yang** *indah itu bahasa*
Complementary Embedded Conjunctions (kata hubung pancangan komplemen)	*bahawa* (that)	*Guru itu menyatakan* **bahawa** *muridnya sangat rajin.* *Mereka tidak sedar* **bahawa** *mereka bukan ahli persatuan.* *Kita harus sentiasa ingat* **bahawa** *hidup di dunia ini sementara sahaja.*
	untuk (to)	**Untuk** *memaksa dia hadir adalah tidak wajar.* **Untuk** *banduan itu melepaskan diri sungguh mustahil.*

Table 2.2: Continued

Category		Examples
Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (kata hubung pancangan komplemen)	*kerana* (because)	*Pegawai itu sering dipuji **kerana** rajin bekerja.*
	sekiranya (if)	*Pertunjukan itu akan ditangguhkan **sekiranya** tiada sambutan.*
	kalau (if)	***Kalau** musuh menyerang, kami akan melawan.*
	hingga (until)	*Ia bersorak terlalu kuat **hingga** serak suaranya.*
	sementara (while)	***Sementara** menanti padi masak, petani itu menanam agung.*
	ketika (while)	*Pencuri memasuki rumah itu **ketika** penghuninya sedang nyenyak tidur.*
	walaupun (even if, although)	***Walaupun** kurang sihat, dia tetap menghadiri majlis usrah itu.*
	agar (so that, in order that)	*Pertahanan negara perlu diperkuat **agar** keamanan sentiasa terjamin.*
	semoga (that)	*Orang tua itu berdoa **semoga** keluarganya sentiasa sihat.*
	andai kata (even if)	*Kami akan merayu **andai kata** permohonan itu ditolak.*
	jikalau (if)	*Pekerja-pekerja itu akan mogok **jikalau** perrundingan gagal.*
	setelah (after)	*Penonton bersurai **setelah** permainan selesai.*
	tatkala (when)	***Tatkala** hujan turun, mereka masih di sawah.*
	sungguhpun (although)	***Sungguhpun** letih, pemain handal itu terus bermain juga.*
	meskipun (although)	***Meskipun** hari sudah lewat, Ali belum pulang juga.*
	supaya (so)	*Murid itu belajar bersungguh-sungguh **supaya** berjaya dalam peperiksaan.*
	kendatipun (though)	*Usah kita bersikap kasar terhadapnya, **kendatipun** ia seorang yang sombong.*
	semasa (when)	***Semasa** kami tiba, mereka tiada di rumah.*
	sewaktu (when)	***Sewaktu** polis membuat pemeriksaan, barang itu tiada padanya.*
	untuk (for)	*Nira dikumpulkan **untuk** dibuat manisan dan tuak.*
	apabila (when)	***Apabila** senja tiba, kelawar berterbangan keluar mencari makanan*

*Note: Adapted from Nik Safiah Karim et al. (2008)

2.3.2 Conjunctions in English language

In English, function word consists of pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, determiners and conjunctions. The basic function of conjunction is to conjoin or tie two or more grammatical elements (words, phrases, or clauses). Conjunction is the final category of cohesive ties proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). It is seen as a formal indicator

which vividly draws readers' attention to the connection which present between one sentence or clause and another (Cook, 1989:21). As claims by Baker (1992:190), conjunctions are signs that help writer to relate the ideas they want to express to the preceding ideas mentioned. Conjunction is also defined as a type of cohesive devices that shows how length of text "elaborates, extends or enhances another, earlier span of text" (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 539). Conjunctions have been a focus in many studies and have been used under different names such as linkers, coordinators, discourse markers, discourse connectors and many others. Conjunctive cohesive devices are divided into two functions: grammatical and semantic.

Grammatically, conjunctives can be divided into three: coordinators, subordinators and adverbials. Coordinators are simple and short conjunctions (Ramasawmy, 2004). Coordinating devices (e.g. *and, but, so, yet*) are used to connect between two or more equal and similar ideas. They can also be called single coordinators. Single coordinators also include correlative pairs such as e.g. *both…and, not only…but also, either…or* and *neither…nor*. In contrary, Lieber (1981:133) notes that subordinators are unlike coordinators as they permit the clauses "freedom of movement". Subordinators are linking words that are used to conjoin clauses – dependent and independent – together. Some examples of subordinators are e.g. *although, since, after* and *before*. Adverbials on the other hand, can be in one-word item e.g. *however, next, conversely,* phrasal constructions like *in other words* or sentence modifying-elements. There are many ways to use adverbials as they can function in sequencing of segments in texts using words like e.g. *first*, *finally*; or temporal sequencing of information e.g. *then, after, afterwards* and others. Basically, the terms (e.g. coordinators, subordinators, and adverbials) are defined differently as they are dealt with structure of how conjunctions should be written in sentences. They do not signify any logical relationships to express the meanings of sentences and textual units.

Nevertheless, the word coordinators, subordinators and adverbials are overlapped with the word additive, adversatives, causal and temporal which are used as the framework of this study. For example, coordinator *and* is classified as additive and coordinator *but* is classified as adversative based on its semantic categories by Halliday and Hasan's classification.

In Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) grammar book, conjunctions are classified into three types: coordinating conjunctions, adverbial subordinators, and conjunctive adverbials. Coordinating conjunctions are used to join elements of equal syntax and guide readers and listeners to interpret clauses with meanings. Adverbial coordinators and conjunctive adverbials that are also called logical connectors are devices that function to indicate the relations within sentences in oral or written discourse and thus, lead the listener or reader to the feeling that the sentences "hang together" or make sense (p. 519). Therefore, logical connectors are claimed to be types of cohesive devices as they serve as lexical expressions which might give little or no prepositional content by themselves. Such definitions of English conjunctions are restricted to intra and intersentential level. But for the purpose of this study, conjunctions are studied inter-sententially as it was mentioned by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in their book that intersentential cohesion is a vital element for textual cohesion.

In Grammar for English Language Teachers, Parrott (2000) elaborates on conjunctions; its usage and meanings by adding discoursal function of conjunctions. Three types of conjunctions are identified: coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions and discourse markers. Coordinating conjunctions are identified to be only three words: *and, but,* and *or*. They work as linkage in connecting parts of constituents and create a link between clauses (p.262). On the contrary, subordinating conjunctions are used to unite two clauses of unequal importance that can comprise of one word (e.g. *after, although, as if*)

and two or more words (e.g. *as long as, as soon as (*p. 335). The elements between sentences which create a logical connection and sequence are named discourse markers. To simplify, the conjunctions defined by Parrott are slightly similar to the ones proposed by Halliday and Hasan, however; they are not semantically elaborated.

Though the following terms above show that conjunctions have been named differently by varied people, they are not classified thoroughly from a discourse or semantic perspective. Thus, this study focuses on semantic categorization of conjunctions that was introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976). This study emphasizes on the usage of conjunctions as a cohesive device in texts as explained by Halliday and Hasan, "expressing certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" which are known as conjunctive relations.

2.3.3   Conjunctions of English language at Discourse Level

Categories of conjunctions that were built by Halliday and Hasan (1976) are selected for the present study. Halliday and Hasan are the first to promote four different kinds of conjunctions of semantic characteristics. The four categories according to the relationship they represent are additive, adversative, temporal and causal. A brief summary of the categories and subcategories are presented in Table 2.3 as follow.

Table 2.3: The Categories and Subcategories of English conjunctions based on Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy (1976)

Category	*Subcategories*	Examples	
Additive	Simple Complex	and, nor, or furthermore, alternatively	*From a marketing viewpoint, the popular tabloid encourages the reader to read the whole page instead of choosing stories. **And** isn't that what any publisher wants?*
	Comparative Apposition	likewise, by contrast that is, for instance	

Table 2.3: Continued

Category	Subcategories	Examples	
Adversative	Adversative (proper) Contrastive Corrective Dismissive	yet, but, however in fact, on the other hand instead, rather in any case, anyhow	*The eldest son works on the farm, the second son worked in the blacksmith's shop, **but** the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.*
Causal	Causal, general Causal, specific Reversed causal Conditional Respective	so, consequently for this reason, as a result for, because, it follows in that case, otherwise in this respect, aside from this	*Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants, and even in coffee shops. This is **because of** the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties.*
Temporal	Temporal, simple Complex Internal temporal Correlative forms "Here and now" Summary	then, previously at once, meanwhile, until then next, secondly, then first…then, in the end, finally up to now, from now on to sum up, in short	*The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. **Until then** they had seen nothing of the panorama around them.*

Halliday and Hasan distinguish a significant difference between coordination and an additive conjunction in which the former relation is structural (grammatical) while the later one is cohesive (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 234). Cohesion is achieved when devices such as *(1) and, or, nor* tie one sentence to another and operate cohesively. Basically, the additive conjunctions are employed to bind a series of sentences and add more information to what has been mentioned like an example taken by Halliday and Hasan (1976):

*(1) 'I said you looked like an egg, sir,' Alice gently explained. '**And** some eggs arevery pretty, you know,' she added.*

Besides its simple usage, additive conjunctions can also be grouped into complex, comparative and apposition. Complex additive is divided into two: emphatic (*to give emphasis to additional information that is related to the previous one*) and de-emphatic (*to introduce late information*). Something that has been said can be compared to what is being said using comparative additive. It is expressed through similarity and dissimilarity. The last subcategory of additive conjunction is apposition. It is explained in two ways: expository and exemplificatory. Expository (*that is, I mean*) provides extra information to something that has already been mentioned and exemplificatory (*for instance*) is to link sentences through examples.

The second type of conjunctions is adversatives. Generally, the meaning of adversative conjunction is to show a contradictory point to what has been said earlier. It can be divided to four types which are proper, contrastive, corrective and dismissive. Words like (2) *yet, though, only* and other various emphatic conjunctions such as *however* and *despite this* are proper adversatives which can be expressed in its simple form and can occur initially like the word *yet*, contains the meaning of *and* similar to *but*.

(2) *'All the figures were correct; they'd been checked. **Yet** the total came out wrong.'*

As based on Table 2.3, some of the devices are determined as contrastive adversative conjunctions. They are defined as devices which are perceived by the meaning of "as against what the current state of the communication process would lead us to expect, the fact of the matter is…" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:253) and are expressed by words such as e.g. *in fact* and *actually*. Another two subcategories under adversative are corrective and dismissive. Corrective conjunctions e.g. *instead, on the contrary* are to show a relation by rejecting the previous information to be replaced with another one. Dismissive conjunctions e.g. *in any*, *either case*, on the other hand, are those that are used to introduce

a new point that is based on what has been mentioned. The difference is the prior information has been insignificant.

Causal is the third type of conjunction device. It refers to cause-effect relationship between sentences.

(3) '*She was never really happy here. **So** she's leaving.*'

As indicated in the above example, conjunction *(3) so* shows the result of the reason or cause. It is listed in causal conjunction in its general form; the same goes to other cohesive ties such as *thus, therefore, consequently* and *accordingly*. The relation of cause and its consequences can also be portrayed specifically through devices like *for this result* and *for this purpose* (purpose). Conditional is another subcategory of causal conjunction by using devices as such e.g. *in that case* and *(4) otherwise*.

(4) *I was not informed. **Otherwise** I should have taken some action*.

The example above using polarity in negative which can be interpreted as ***If*** *had been informed,* ***then*** *I should have taken some action. Otherwise* can be comparable to devices such as *in this regard* and *apart from this* which are named respective causal conjunctions.

The fourth type of conjunction is called temporal. The first subcategory is the simplest form. It establishes a sequence in time to indicate one event happens after another e.g. *(5) then, previously.*

*(5) He stayed there for three years. **Then** he went on to New Zealand.*

To identify the relation of chain in time, the meanings of sentences can be altered by using e.g. *next time* (repetitive) or *meanwhile* (durative). There are other conjunctions which can be used to signal the end of a process e.g. *finally, at last, in conclusion* and they appear with sequential ones e.g. *first…then, first…second*. It is called as correlative forms of temporal conjunction. Another two subclasses of temporal conjunctions are here and

now e.g. *up to now, at this point, here* and summary e.g. *to sum up, briefly*. Temporal conjunction of 'here and now' indicates the present time in communicative presentation which finally forms cohesion while summary subclass points out the ending of what has been mentioned.

Conjunction is part of cohesive ties which organizes the text semantically. Besides Halliday and Hasan, Kennedy (2003: 325) sums up the most frequent conjunction relationships. It is divided into ten types: addition/inclusion, contrast, amplification, exemplification, cause-effect, alternative, explanation, exclusion, temporal arrangement, and summary/conclusion. Previously, Quirk et al. (1985: 634-639) lists seven kinds of conjunctions with its sub-divisions: listing (enumerative, additive, reinforcing), summative, appositive, resultive, inferential, contrastive (reformulatory, replacive, antithetice, concessive) and transitional (discoursal, temporal).

2.4   Halliday & Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion (1976)

Halliday and Hasan's theory on cohesion as well as coherence has led to the emergence of various researches on its significance in different fields especially language learning. Some of the studies either supported or rejected their theory. As mentioned before, Halliday and Hasan strongly emphasize the connection of cohesion and coherence in texts and are significant in assisting one's language learning.

Researchers such as Biber (1988) and Myers (1989) have advanced their analysis on cohesive devices. Their investigations mainly focus on English-language corpora of printed texts. They found out that demonstrative pronouns as well as coordination conjunction often appear in written academic discourse due to its aspect in bringing contextual ties between sentences. Since then, the studies of L2 instruction related to explicit types of devices such as coordinating conjunctions and sentence transitions were taken into account in research studies. Reid (1993) claims that it is common to teach the explicit usage of

conjunctions such as sentence transitions and coordinating conjunctions in L2 writing class. ESL writers usually make use of various types of cohesion in contrast to native speakers of English that Reid further affirms how vital it is for students to learn text cohesion and coherence in building an understandable text.

McCarthy (1991) also supports Halliday and Hasan's opinion on the importance of cohesive ties by stating that cohesion and cohesive devices are often crucial in English texts thus making it as an essential lesson to be taught in reading and writing class. He also notes that one of the problems face by non-native speakers (NNSs) is their inability to understand how cohesive and logical ties work and how to make use of them in texts which requires more emphasis in language classrooms. Scott (1996), in addition, also highlights the need for learners to be taught on L2 linguistic and lexical means of cohesion in written texts because they have the tendency of changing from L1 to L2 abstract and syntactic devices in producing a unified text even if the parallel devices do not exist in L2. In spite of several past studies which support the importance of cohesion and other researches which uphold a significance connection between cohesive ties and students' writing performance (Jin, 2001; Liu & Braine, 2005), there are still some evidences which show that the study of cohesion is unimportant.

Pritchard (1981) as stated in Ramadan (2003) did a study on cohesive ties in the good and poor essays of eleventh grade. From the study, she discovered that the usage of lexical and grammatical cohesive ties including conjunctions do not signify good and poor essays. Thus, she summarized that the effectiveness of producing a good essay does not rely on the use of cohesive ties. Brown and Yule (1983) opposed Halliday and Hasan who strongly highlight cohesive ties as significant and vital in English. Brown and Yule believe that cohesion is not enough for the recognition of a text. They argue whether cohesive ties are necessary in identifying a text. One of their arguments is they emphasize that a reader

can assume the "semantic relations" in reading texts and are capable of inferring sentences through preceding ones thus, the "explicit realization of semantic relations" is not required.

Similarly, Carrell's study (1982) was also against such theory by proposing that text cohesion derived from grammatical and lexical connective ties is not really essential. She firmly explained that cohesion is achieved from coherence which readers gain the ideas through their background knowledge and text schemata. Carrell further clarified that in educating non-native speakers specifically on L2 writing, cohesive ties should be regarded as less important compared to the flow of ideas in a text.

2.5   Katz & Fodor's Componential Analysis (1963)

The explicit and direct meaning of words; taken from dictionary (denotative words) can be explained by using the method of Componential Analysis (CA). Pioneered by Katz on Fodor (1963), Componential Analysis is a method to describe words through semantic features by analyzing its structure. By employing this technique, meanings of words or lexemes can be dissected into smaller components which can be distinguished among lexemes or group of lexemes (Jackson, 1988:79). The meanings of words are described through sets of semantic features; which appear to be 'present', 'absent', or 'indifferent with reference to feature'. According to Saeed (2009:260), the symbol '+' indicates that the feature is present, '−' indicates that the feature is absent and '±' shows that it can be present or absent. For example, when the word *cry* is dissolved to its semantic features, it could be derived in three different meanings such as [+SOUND], [+LOUD], and [+VOCAL]. Basically, the word *cry* could be interpreted as *loud, vocal sound.* They could be accepted as synonymous and are accepted as the definitions of *cry.*

According to Nida (1975: 182), there are three fundamental types of semantic features. The features are: (1) the common features which meanings are shared when evaluated; (2) the diagnostic feature which differentiate the meanings of lexical item such

as size and shape; and (3) the supplementary feature – added features that are important to explain all areas of meanings but may not be directly related in comparing a set of linguistic meaning. Jackson (2009:91-92) firmly claims that Componential Analysis has become a significant method in describing meanings of lexemes. As mentioned by Jackson, CA has contributed in many ways. It guides learners to understand synonymy as a word can share the same set of semantic groups as well as creating degrees of synonymy. Furthermore, CA also helps them to grasp what the antonyms are, comprehends the relationship of hyponymy facilitates translator to come out with accurate translation in written texts which becomes an important matter in interpreting and as related to the present study, assist learners to distinguish words of different languages.

Componential analysis, undoubtedly, plays a significant role in the area of translation. Peter Newmark (1988: 96) illustrates the usage of CA as "the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message". Such statement might seem too extreme but his claim was supported by other translation scholars such as Holzhausen (1981) and Vossoughi (1996) who have strongly discuss the application of CA in translation field. Newmark explains that the fundamental process is to distinguish between SL (source language) word with TL (target language) word that share the same meaning, but not necessarily have the one-to-one comparable meaning, by analyzing their common and different components (1988: 114). In other words, to apply CA, it requires an SL sememe and a TL sememe assumed to be equal in order to be examined per word in their respective language. Thus, the degree of similarity can be analyzed by evaluating their constituting semes. However, translators have to formulate an idea in mind by knowing a range of semes in SL and TL. Example below is illustrated with the word *cry* and *shriek* (Garcia, 2008):

Cry: [+SOUND] [+LOUD]
Shriek: [+SOUND] [+LOUD] [+HIGH-PITCHED] [+ANGER]

Based from the above componential analyses, the sentence

(1) John heard a shriek coming from the basement

has the same meaning as

(2) John heard a high-pitched cry of anger coming from the basement.

In this particular example, the semes are not word-particular. The word *cry* and *shriek* share the seme [+SOUND] [+LOUD]. Thus, the semantic of any lexical items can be derived through hyperonym with a sense of metalanguage of its own semes. This theory upholds the assumption that translator's semantic insight of a source word is sufficient to assess accurately in terms of communicative significance. The examples also show that CA can be described by an intralingual mechanism in reaching semantic correspondence between different languages. Yet, there are still number of issues encountered in establishing the semantic unit of lexemes (Nida, 1975: 61-64). Some of the problems are insufficient metalanguage in distinguishing the difference such as the colors and range of views especially in terms of spatial relations, failure in describing abstract terminologies and varied terms only exist in the level of intensity.

Componential analysis is also limited in a sense that it does not help in differentiating vocabulary in all fields. When semantic components are determined, inequitable relations of meanings will exist that it makes us understand the meaning of words through such contrast. Sense relation, collocation and denotation are some of the areas which need to be taken into consideration when meanings are analyzed. Apart from the problem, another limitation of the theory is due to its application on referential meaning. The theory is applied through connection between the lexical unit and the referent, as well

as the meanings of lexemes which focus on objects. Thus, Nida (1975:25) asserts the importance to reflect that not every word contains referents.

2.6   Blum Kulka's Shift of Cohesion and Coherence (1986)

Componential Analysis is a technique of structural semantics which examine the structure of lexemes; thus, disclose culturally essential features by which speakers of the language discriminate varied words in a domain. It means that a word can totally be categorized in terms of varieties distinct elements or components of meaning (Palmer, 1976). For the present study, when CA is applied in the study of cohesion, it is vital to look at how shift in the level of cohesive markers seem to have an effect on translation.

Blum Kulka (1986) adopts an approach that is called communicative and discoursal approach which addresses the issue of cohesion and coherence shifts in translating written texts. As other translation advocates, she clearly distinguishes between coherence and cohesion. She defines them by referring cohesion as an overt relationship which attaches all parts of the text, shown by linguistic markers while coherence as a covert relationship that is interpreted by the reader or listener (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 17). In terms of shift in cohesion, Blum-Kulka (1986:18-23) introduces two major types: (1) shifts in level of explicitness and (2) shifts in text meaning. Shifts in level of explicitness refer to the varied usage of grammar between languages due to changes in the type of devices that are employed to signal cohesion in the ST and TT. The types of shifts are often related to variation of stylistic preferences in the cohesive markers chosen in two or more languages that are selected in the translation. Blum-Kulka (1986) clarifies that cohesive patterns can be divided into three different forms in TL texts: a) cohesive patterns in TL texts is approximately similar to TL texts of the same register; b) cohesive patterns in TL texts reflect the norms of SL texts in the same register, which may be the cause of transfer processes on the translation; and c) cohesive patterns in neither TL nor SL norms oriented,

but form a system of their own, probably presenting a process of implicitation (cited in Beikian et al. 2013). Generally, the level of textual explicitness might be higher or lower in ST compared to TT.

Shifts in text meaning are related to the changes in explicit and implicit meaning of the ST through the translation process. It is explained vividly in what Blum-Kulka mentioned as "explicitation hypothesis". This term is defined as "an observed cohesive explicitness from ST to TT regardless of the increase traceable to differences between two linguistic and textual system involved" (p. 300). Blum-Kulka explains that when the process of translation is undergone, it may lead to a TT that is much more redundant or explicit than the ST. Unfortunately, Blum-Kulka does not really explain how it actually leads to such redundancy. Blum-Kulka further elaborates that contrastive stylistics should be carried out first to analyze the cohesive patterns in SL and TL before the translations to and from both languages should be studied to identify the types of shifts that occur. Blum-Kulka's approach somehow puts forward an agreement that a TT might appear more explicit than in ST. Nevertheless, she still admits that the hypothesis contains obligatory explicitation ("linguistic" systems differences) and optional explicitation ("textual" systems differences).

Explicitation is one of the translation features that was first introduced by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) before Blum-Kulka (1986) expanded the study to a more systematic approach. Explicitation, as defined by Olohan (2002, p. 155), refers to "the spelling out in the target text of information which is only implicit in a source text." Saldanha (2008) on the other hand, describes explicitation as a "strategy which may not be linked to the implicitness in the original text, but with interpreter's assumptions in terms of readership and about their positions as literary and cultural mediators" (p.28). Frankenberg-Garcia (2009) defines explication as obligatory or voluntary. Obligatory explicitation is used

when the grammar of the target language forces additional information to be added though it is absent while voluntary explicitation occurs voluntarily; not because of the grammatical cause but to improve the comprehensibility of the translated version.

Some studies were done by focusing around the issue of explicitation in translation. Shlesinger's (1989; 1995) research study proposes explicitation hypothesis to be employ in oral and written translations. She discovers that translators apply shifts in cohesion in interpreting concurrently, both from Hebrew to English and vice versa which advocates the translator to provide implicit forms more explicitly despite the languages used. Van Leuven-Zwart (1990) on the other hand, states that the "addition, deletion or replacement of function words may cause shift with respect to the degree of explicitness through which cohesion is achieved" (p.81). In 1997, Chesterman regards cohesion amendment as one of syntactic technigues which "influence intra-textual reference, ellipsis, substitution, pronominalisation and repetition, or the use of connectors of various kinds" (p.98). In fact, in his study, he explains the methods used in explicitness among the pragmatic strategies which also include explicitation and implicitation.

There are some problems with Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis. One of them is what Blum-Kulka mentioned in her latter paper by paraphrasing that "explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation" (1986: 21). However, Becher (2010) claims that the term 'strategy' is indistinct. It is unclear as Blum-Kulka does not mention whether it is a conscious or unconscious strategy. In a research done by Olohan and Baker (2000), they seem to deduce that it is referring to the subconscious strategy while Øverås (1998) seems to interpret it as a conscious strategy. In fact, it is not clear whether both researchers, Olohan and Baker as well as Øverås are analyzing the same thing despite the used of Blum-Kulka's theory as their fundamental studies.

2.7   Related Studies

Beikian et al. (2013) studies the conjunctive relations in Ghabraei's Persian translation of *The Kite Runner* and the original version of the novel written by Khaled Hosseini in 2003 in terms of explicitation hypothesis that was introduced by Blum-Kulka (1986). Based on the study, it is found that explicitation occurs the most in the translation version apart from implicitation and therefore, changes the translated novel in meaning. The translation is made clearer or explicit by using two devices which are addition of conjunctions and replacement of conjunctions with punctuation marks. The study illustrates that temporal conjunctions are frequently added in the TT while additive conjunctions are the least ones. The study also suggested that meaning change caused by shifts could be further investigated whether they are resulted from the explicitation process. It is also recommended that using source text and translation text may not be sufficient to carry out such studies unless large amount of data analysis is taken into account. Moreover, studies may also include comparable texts in the target language and does not only rely on parallel corpus (particularly corpus-based ones).

A corpus-based study was carried out by Ketabi and Jamalvand (2012). The study was done to explore the similarities and dissimilarities of conjunctions between English International Law Texts (ELTs) and their Farsi translation texts (FTTs). About 40 ELTs and 40 parallel FTTs are chosen from some selected law textbooks. In order to carry out the study, a coding scheme is introduced to represent each cohesive tie for example additive conjunctions is coded as C1. Next, an index number is given to every sentence before it is read. Every sample text is read for the second time to recognize the conjunction ties that exist by using the coding scheme provided. Each cohesive tie is rechecked to ensure that it is accurate. The analysis of the cohesive devices are done manually, recorded and compared. The findings from the study show that the usage of conjunctions in the English

international law texts are more similar than different when they are compared with conjunctions in the Farsi translation texts. It is discovered that among four types of conjunctions, the first three types of conjunctions proposed by Halliday and Hasan are used as frequent as FTTs. This is due to the fact that law texts are more précised, explicit and logical compared to descriptive compositions. In terms of frequencies, it is revealed that of all types of conjunctive types, additive, adversative and causal appear more frequently in FTTs compared to ETTs as the amount of sentences in Farsi texts and their lengths are not longer in contrast to English sentences. However, for temporal conjunction, there is no mutual similarity between ELTs and FTTs. The research findings assist students as well as employees who are studying and working in the field of international law to comprehend well in terms of the regularity of cohesive devices particularly conjunctions in English and Farsi international law texts and international law translation so that the information from one language to another is transferred precisely.

A study was done by Ojetunde & Okanlawon (2011) on the usage of English conjuncts by Nigerian students who learnt English as their second language. Students' writing assignments from nine chosen tertiary institutions in Nigeria are selected in looking at the usage of nine semantic classes of conjuncts and their effects on the learning process. Based from the study, the usage of enumerative conjuncts is mostly used by the students. This type of conjuncts is employed to enumerate ideas in a text and is commonly used with words such as *first*, *next*, *then*, and *finally*. On the other hand, transitional conjuncts that function as linkers between one idea to another is found to be the least ones. It is discovered that the usage of conjunction is determined by certain semantic classes that the students are familiar with. Therefore, the learners are prone to employ inaccurate conjunctions which have no semantic connection with their root words. One of the issues which create extra attention among English teachers in amending the current Nigerian curriculum is due to

erroneous ways of using conjunctions that have no semantic correlation with their origin words. Because of it, unnecessary and random choices of conjuncts as well as semantic errors occurred when they are not supposed to in tertiary level of education.

In 2010, Baleghizadeh and Sharifi studied explicitation of implicit logical links between sentences and clauses in Persian and English translation. The effects and the reasons of the explicitation towards the cohesion of the target text (TT) are also analyzed. For the purpose of this study, cohesive tie specifically conjunction proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is investigated thoroughly. The corpus chosen for the study is *Introductory* and two other chapters taken from Sadi's *Gulistan* interpreted by Edward Rehatsek (1964). Based from the findings, firstly, in 87 cases it is revealed that additive, adversative, causal and temporal are added explicitly between ST sentences and clauses by using TL explicit naturalistic junctive expressions. It makes the text easier to comprehend in some cases while in others; they are inserted to make the text structurally and textually natural in TL by considering the norms of the TL. For instance, the usage of the conjunction و (and) in the ST in the Persian text is made explicit using *but* and *whilst* which create adversative meaning between two conditions. Therefore, it makes the text natural and intelligible to the readers. Secondly, additive, adversative, temporal and causal are explicitated using cohesive ties in TT that appear 15 cases. Therefore, it makes readers understand better in terms of relationship between sentences and text-building strategies of TL. For example, the word 'also' is added to the TT to signal that there is another point to be mentioned apart from a conjunction that is used previously. Therefore, it strengthens the cohesive link between two sentences in the TT. The analysis of explicitations is divided into two types: intersentential explicitation (addition of junctives between sentences) and intrasentential explicitation (addition and alteration within TT sentences). Furthermore, it is also shown that the translator's intention to make the text natural, readable as well as the

differences in language structure between both languages are the causes of explicitation in this study. In the end of this study, it is concluded that occurrences if explicitation in this study is completely reader-receiver-oriented. In general, the strategies of explicitation that are used to make the source text (Persian) in the communicative and normative matrix of the target language (English).

A research study was done by Djamila (2010) to investigate the occurrences of Arabic lexical cohesion into English; whether the cohesive ties in the source text (ST) are maintained or altered by identifying the shifts in the target language. The study also seeks to explore the semantic and the textual implication of the translation process. For the purpose of the study, four types of grammatical cohesive ties (reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions) are discussed, nevertheless; for the purpose of this study, lexical cohesion is more concerned. A number of 30 advanced learners from first year Master students of English participate in this study. They are required to translate a text from Arabic to English for one and a half hour. Quantitative analysis is done to analyze the first objective while qualitative analysis is done to analyze the second objective. The analysis of this study discloses that the participants maintain few lexical patterns and change most of the source text ties. Since Arabic and English language are different, translation shifts occur more than 80%. Translation shifts are divided into four types: grammatical shifts, semantic shifts, shifts by omission and shifts by addition. The study shows that grammatical shifts are frequently used to translate from Arabic to English while shifts by addition marks are the least frequent. Unit shifts (a clause that can be interpreted to a word, a phrase of a word, etc) is regarded as the most common grammatical shifts used while structure shifts (formal correspondence between the source text and target text) is regarded as the least common ones. Qualitative analysis reveal that most participants for instance; shift the Arabic lexical term ' أل ' that refers to generic reference, into independent words of English such as *the*

that refers to specific referent. Shifts that occur between ST and TT show that the English translation text is affected in terms of meaning and cohesion. The shifts that arise make the TT more explicit and sometimes redundant. Furthermore, textual equivalence between ST and TT is not achieved as participants work at word level which means they do not interpret the words according to their grammatical or textual throughout the text.

Dendenne (2009) did a study on the translation of Arabic conjunctions into English and the contribution of punctuation marks in the target language. The main objective of this study is to investigate the learners' awareness of translation equivalence at textual level. The researcher focusses on the usage of three basic conjunctions of *wa*, *fa* and *thumma* in modern standard Arabic. A test that consists of twenty-two Arabic sentences (a mixture of simple, compound and complex) is taken from translation textbooks and is given to 20 learners who are native speakers of Arabic and have learnt English for nine years. They are asked to identify the most recurrent functions of *wa*, *fa* and *thumma* and translate the connectors into English to observe how good they are in mastering the tools that the target language (TL) offers which are lexical tool (conjunctions) and non-lexical tool (punctuations marks). Based on the study, the findings reveal that learners are lack of awareness in terms of multiple functions of the Arabic connectors. For instance, learners mistranslate resumptive *wa* that signals continuity by translating it to *and* in order to start a sentence whereas in English, starting a sentence with a conjunction will result in incomplete sentence. Because of such errors, the meanings of texts in ST are distorted. It is also discovered that Arabic conjunction *thumma* is the most difficult conjunction to be translated as most learners have problems translating them accurately. *Thumma* expresses the meaning of sequential and non-immediacy, nevertheless; most students mistranslate *thumma* with *and.* Moreover, the learners also misuse the punctuation marks by using them wrongly especially the *comma*, the *full stop* and the *semicolon* which make their translation

become unnatural. Because of the findings, it is recommended that learners should be taught on the nature of conjunctions in English and Arabic since learners involved stend to get confused between both languages.

The used of conjunctions in L2 writing among 20 Japanese students in a Japanese university was done by Li (2009). Fluency, accuracy and complexity as well as errors are taken into consideration in L2 English writing that is also compared with the learning and teaching strategy. It is discovered that there are insufficient used of conjunctive items and adverbs in the writing. Mo Li also proposed that more research should be done related to how L1 richness affects L2 writing particularly in terms of conjunctive items and adverbs.

Leung (2005) did a research to compare the use of English conjunctions among Chinese students from Hong Kong and American university students. Only three broadly used conjunctions are chosen for the study: *and*, *but* and *or*. The ways these three conjunctions are positioned and functioned are also taken into consideration if their usages are used appropriately. The HKBU (Hong Kong Baptist University) Corpus of Learner English and The HKUST (Hong Kong University of Science and Technology) Corpus of Learner English which consist of descriptive and argumentative essays are chosen as the corpora. Based on the findings, it is illustrated that non-native students (Chinese) use fewer conjunctions and more connectors than native students. In this study, conjunctions are defined as words that link related or unrelated sentences together in a sentence (such as *and*, *but* and *or)* while connectors are defined as words that show the cause or result of something (such as *before*, *then*, *after*). It is found that connectors were excessively exposed to them in schools which create unbalance usage of connectors due to its overused. On the other hand, the underuse of conjunctions was because of interference from first language (Chinese) to second language (English). Confusion on the correct usage between

conjunctions in both languages – Chinese and English – lead to errors as such and create difficulties in differentiating each meaning.

A comparative analysis of subordinating conjunctions in translation was studied by Zadeh and Farzaneh (2013). The aim of this study is to analyze the comparison between some subordinating conjunctions (such as *although*, *nevertheless*, *while*, *because*) in English and Persian and its application in the translation process. About 70 students who are freshmen year in English Translation major are chosen as the participants. To carry out the study, all subjects are given a task which consists of 10 English sentences with blanks in which they need to fill in with correct subordinating conjunctions then interpret them into Persian. After the analysis is carried out, it is discovered that the participants are able to translate *since*, *when*, and *because* positively as these conjunctions are similar in terms of meaning and grammatical usage in both English and Persian language. This result is also due to their common used in speaking and writing among Iranian trainers. However, the lowest percentage is marked by the usage of conjunction *nevertheless*. The word *nevertheless* that is used to show connection between two ideas; with the second idea shows surprising connotation cannot be recognized by the students and therefore, learners are likely to misinterpret. The reason why foreign language learners fail to interpret L2 structures accurately is because they avoid L2 structures that are different from their native language (Gass, 2004). Educational system is recommended to foster the usage of subordinating conjunctions among learners in schools as they are known to be a difficult aspect to master especially in terms of writing and translating. Lacking in improving their knowledge and information in grammar and translation about the different kinds of conjunctions can result in students' lack of motivation.

A study was done by Yahya (2005) regarding the implicit and explicit textualization of conjunctive cohesion with reference to translation. The main objective of this research

study is to analyze whether conjunctions are rendered explicitly or implicitly when during the translation process from Arabic into English conjunctions. This study concentrates on the areas where students usually have difficulty in terms of translating: Arabic conjunctions rely greatly on explicit conjunctives, varied functions of several conjunctions and major usage of coordination over subordination by utilizing explicit conjunctives. Conjunctions are studied at intrasentential and intersentential levels. Based on the results obtained, it is revealed that when Arabic conjunctions are translated to English, some of them are retained (due to stylistic or syntactic level), deleted or given other functions such as the usage of conjunction *wa* and *fa* which are given different values based on the relationship within the text. Such findings reveal that Arabic conjunctions are used explicitly while English conjunctions are used implicitly. As indicated earlier, Arabic conjunctions can be stylistic or syntactic rather than cohesive. For instance, Arabic conjunctions *ala-alraghmi min* (although) and *ilia anna* (but) can be accepted while conjunctions *although* and *but* cannot come together as they are syntactically different in functions. This is the reason why *ilia anna* (but) is left implicit when it is translated from Arabic into English. It is concluded that overt conjunctives are not necessary when they are rendered from Arabic into English as English readers would be able to understand the meanings of a sentence by inferring the sentence from the previous one. Explicitness and implicitness cannot be done appropriately unless the translator is aware of the readers' needs and interest by considering their purposes.

Fareh (1998) did a research study on the functions of *and* and *wa* in English and Arabic written discourse. It serves as an attempt to compare and contrast the numerous functions of English connective *and* and the Arabic connective *wa* that are used in Arabic and English written discourse that are chosen. Specifically, it is a study to analyze the roles of *and* and *wa* in building cohesive discourse, discover the similarities and difference

between both functions and find its implications towards the process of translating from the comparison and contrast. In the study, it is illustrated that function of *and* can be divided into nine functions which are consequence, sequence, contrast, simultaneity, concession, condition, addition, explanation and comment. On the other hand, the function of *wa* is categorized into eight functions which are resumption, adverbial, indication of oath, the meaning of *by* or *along*, alternatives, redundancy, admiration and threat, underestimation and contempt. Using symbol '+' that indicates present and symbol '-' that indicates absent, the analysis reveals that there are eight similarities (e.g. sequence and contrast) and nine differences between *and* and *wa* (e.g. consequence and explanation). The study finds out that the usage of *and* and *wa* is not always one-to-one as *wa* may be replaced by different functions of English connective and can sometimes be omitted. However, when Arabic is translated to Arabic, Arabic connectives need to be added so that Arabic sentences will appear natural. This study agrees that the repeated usage of connective is due to fulfilling a stylistic requirement that Arabic is a syndetic language in which conjunctions are needed to link one sentence with another.

A few researches were done involving English and Malay language. Johnson (1992) researches on cohesion and coherence in Malay and English found out that well-written essays by Malays have more intersentence semantic ties while intersentence syntactic ties are more prevalent for native speakers. An interlingual study through translation is studied in terms of cohesive devices in Malay and English by Khoon (1996) while Abdul Jalil Othman, Mahzan Arshad and Rahmad Sukor (2008) write an article about the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion in argumentative and expository writing modes. Based on limited studies between both languages in the field of study, there is insufficient research that had been done specifically on Malay-English conjunctions. Therefore, this present study is a way to start looking in depth on the topic.

2.8   Summary

In this chapter, the main concepts of the study in terms of discourse, cohesion, coherence, translation as well as Malay and English conjunctions are discussed thoroughly. Theories chosen for the study and past studies related to such concepts are also explained in this chapter. In the following chapter, methodology of how the study is carried out will be emphasized in detail.

CHAPTER THREE

THE METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this study is to analyze the semantics of conjunctions from the selected Malay novel and its English translated version. The theories used in the study as well as the framework for the research are illustrated in this chapter. The method used for the study is qualitative in nature. A Malay novel has been chosen for the present study based on its value together with the English version of the novel.

3.1 The Corpus

The novel that has been chosen to be analyzed critically in reference to the research study is *Badai Semalam* written by Khadijah Hashim. *Badai Semalam* is Khadijah's first novel which has made her a household name among Malay writers at her time. It has been one of the well-known novels ever written since it was first published in year 1968 by *Pustaka Nasional Singapura*.

Badai Semalam is rich with its significant content. Therefore, the novel was selected as one of the literary novels in Malaysian schools for form 5 and Singaporean schools for form 4 in early 1970s and 1980s. *Badai Semalam* has been republished for several times and the latest was in 2006 by Alaf 21. In 2011, *Badai Semalam* was chosen to be played in Malaysian theatre, *Istana Budaya*. Due to its reputation, the novel was also translated into English version, *Storms of Yesterday* in year 1991 by Mahani Abdul Hamid and later in 2010; it was translated into Spanish version, *Tormentos del ayer* by Alberto Balanza and Yahia. Because of its popularity, in 2009, the English version was reprinted by *Institut Terjemahan Negara Malaysia* (Malaysian National Institute of Translation). Khadijah's approach in her novel is narrative writing which makes it easy to comprehend and not complicated especially for school students. According to Ismail (1970), though the

technique of language used is rather typical and seems very straightforward, it leads readers to understand the characters in the novel especially the main character, Mazni easily. *Badai Semalam* captures the struggle of a young woman, Mazni in achieving her dream of completing her studies and building relationships. Born in a poverty, though Mazni is filled with positive qualities, she is destined to give up studying in order to take care of her ill mother.

Badai Semalam edition 1987 that was published by 'K' Publishing and *Storms of Yesterday* edition 2009 that was published by Malaysian National Institute of Translation are chosen as the corpus for this study. The novel is selected to be studied and has been justified in terms of its flexibility, universality, linguistic elements and reputation. Because this novel has never been researched before in any fields especially in language learning, it could provide additional value to the field of study. The original literary text consists of 21 chapters (201 pages) while its translated version has 20 chapters. However, this study focuses only one-third of the novel since the same conjunctions occur in the whole novel. Thus, in this research study, only the first 8 chapters will be analyzed from both texts. A paper written by Beikian et al. (2003) who studied about explicitation devices adopted in the novel *The Kite Runner* written by Khaled Hosseini in 2003 and its Persian translation also studied only one-third of the novel as the conjunctions appear repeatedly. For the purpose of this study, the researcher will only concentrate on the semantic aspects of conjunctions in both languages and process of translation will not be taken into consideration.

3.2   Procedures and Sample of Data Analysis

In order to collect various occurrences of conjunctions, such procedures are followed. Firstly, the study will begin by using the source text (ST). Conjunctions are searched manually in the first one-third of the source text, *Badai Semalam* (1987) and its

English version, *Storms of Yesterday* (2009) based on Halliday and Hasan's classification (1976) and they are listed in table form.

As an example, a sample is taken from the analysis of the Malay conjunction *setelah* and the translated conjunction *after* to show how the procedures are carried out. Table 5.6 demonstrates the analysis of *setelah* and *after*

SL	Malam itu *setelah* makan malam dan berihat-rihat sebentar, kedua anak muda yang berdarah panas ini berhati-hati benar berpakaian.
TL	That night, *after* dinner and a short rest, the two young men took great care choosing their clothes.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: setelah [+ CONJ] TL: after [+ CONJ]

Secondly, all the conjunctions that have been extracted are aligned (manually) to examine the semantic features based on Katz and Fodor's Componential Analysis (1963). The differences and similarities of the words between Malay and English language are also presented in the data. *Kamus Dewan* (4th edition) and Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English are used to assist in searching for the similarities and differences of each conjunction.

SL	Malam itu *setelah* makan malam dan berihat-rihat sebentar, kedua anak muda yang berdarah panas ini berhati-hati benar berpakaian.
TL	That night, *after* dinner and a short rest, the two young men took great care choosing their clothes.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: setelah [+ CONJ] TL: after [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature in SL and TL	SL: setelah [+ CONJ, + afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier] TL: after [+ CONJ, + afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in SL and TL extracts. The SL word 'setelah' is translated to TL word 'after' which indicates the meaning of an act or event. Hence, the meaning in both extracts is sustained.

Finally, the types of shifts are assessed by using Blum-Kulka's Shifts of Cohesion (1986). The shifts of conjunctions are analyzed from ST to TT. Blum Kulka's shift in the level of explicitness and text meaning shall be used to determine the types of shift that conjunctions might have undergone when translating from Malay to English. Information from the first step until the final step in the table above is explained clearly in paragraph below.

Based on the Malay excerpt, the SL term 'setelah' is used to indicate the time of an act or event. It signals an event that is done and another event is following subsequently. As in the extract given, the subject (two young men) had dinner and short rest and the word 'setelah' shows another subsequent event – choosing clothes – happened. The Malay conjunction is translated directly to an English conjunction: after. This word falls under temporal conjunction which gives sequential sense: one is subsequent to the other. Based on the semantic features, the words 'setelah' and 'after' share similar semantic features of the word 'afterwards', 'after that' and 'next' but do not carry the meaning of 'before that' and 'earlier' ([+ afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier]).

The cohesive pattern in TT tends to reflect the conjunctions used in ST because the conjunction in ST corresponds the conjunction in TT. Thus, the level of explicitness does not occur. Besides that, there is no explicit shift (change in grammatical usage) or implicit shift (change in meaning) since the conjunctions from SL to TL are alike.

Once the analysis has been done, this study is submitted to two inter raters who are proficient in Malay and are also working as English lecturers in local universities. The first inter rater graduated from UKM in TESL and has been teaching English since 1997. She is currently working as a servicing coordinator in Bukit Besi Campus, UiTM Terengganu. The second inter rater has a Master in Education and has been teaching for almost two years. She works as a lecturer in UiTM Merbuk, Kedah. Though she only has a few years

of experience in the teaching field, she is a native speaker of Malay and is also proficient in the English language. The present study is read, edited and discussed further to ensure that its content is satisfactory and agreeable.
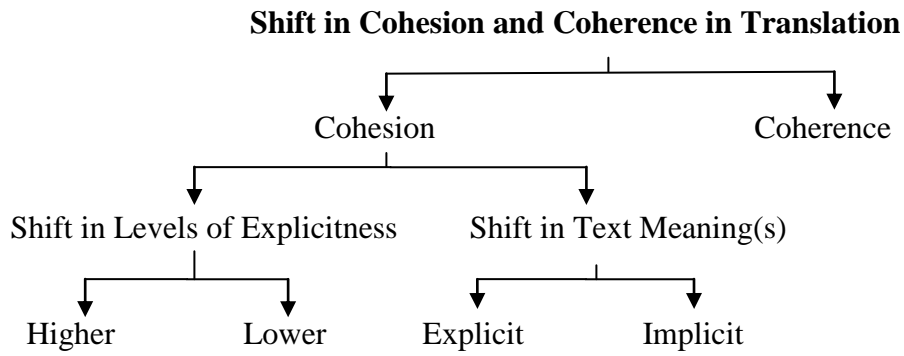
3.3   Collection and Selection Methods

In reference to the data, the study will analyze the literary text (novel) as a whole, particularly the first eight chapters in the source and translated version. The research study will only focus on the usage of conjunctions in both novels. The types of conjunctions analyzed are based on Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion which listed four major types of conjunctions. Furthermore, Componential Analysis by Katz and Fodor (1963) and Blum Kulka's Shift of Cohesion; shifts in Level of Explicitness and Shifts in Text Meanings (1986) which have been elaborated in Chapter Two are also applied in the study. The complete theory of Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy and Blum Kulka's Shift in Cohesion and Coherence in Translation are summarized in Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3.1: Halliday & Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion (1976)
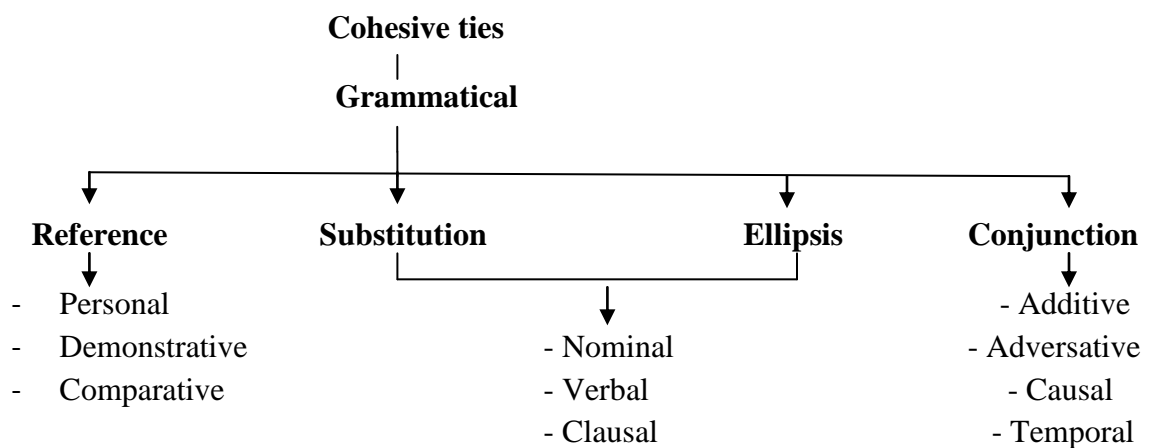
Figure 3.2: Blum Kulka's Shift in Cohesion and Coherence in Translation (1986)

Shift in Cohesion and Coherence in Translation

```
                    Shift in Cohesion and Coherence in Translation
                              │
                ┌─────────────┴─────────────────────────────┐
                ▼                                            ▼
            Cohesion                                     Coherence
                │
        ┌───────┴───────────┐
        ▼                   ▼
Shift in Levels of      Shift in Text Meaning(s)
  Explicitness
        │                   │
    ┌───┴───┐           ┌───┴────┐
    ▼       ▼           ▼        ▼
 Higher   Lower      Explicit  Implicit
```

3.4   Summary

To sum up, this chapter focuses on the corpus and the procedure and sample of data analysis. The next chapter will discuss on the findings and data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the interpretation of chosen excerpts taken from the Malay novel, *Badai Semalam* and its English translated novel, *Storms of Yesterday*. Before the analysis is discussed thoroughly, the frequencies of Malay and English conjunctions used in both novels are presented in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.1: The types of Conjunctions used in *Badai Semalam* from Chapter One until Chapter Eight

Types of Malay Conjunctions	Examples	Frequency
➢ **Coordinating Conjunctions** (*Kata Hubung Gabungan*)	*dan* (and) *atau* (or) *tetapi* (but) *serta* (along, and) *lalu* (and then) *malahan* (in fact) *sambil* (while) *kemudian* (then)	246
➢ **Embedded Conjunctions** (*Kata Hubung Pancangan*) a. Relative Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Relatif*)	*yang* (which, who)	452
b. Complementary Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Komplemen*)	*bahawa* (that) *untuk* (to)	4
c. Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Keterangan*)	*kerana* (because) *sekiranya* (if) *kalau* (if) *hingga* (until) *sementara* (while) *ketika* (while) *walaupun* (even if, although) *agar* (so that) *semoga* (that) *andai kata* (even if) *jikalau* (if) *setelah* (after) *tatkala* (when)	179

Table 4.1: Continued

	meskipun (although) *supaya* (so) *kendatipun* (though) *semasa* (when) *sewaktu* (when) *untuk* (for) *apabila* (when)	
TOTAL		881

The table above shows the used of Malay conjunctions in the novel, *Badai Semalam* from chapter one until chapter eight based on Nik Safiah Karim (1995). Based on the table above, it is clearly seen that Relative Embedded Conjunction (*kata hubung pancangan relatif*) is the most frequent conjunction used in the novel, *Badai Semalam.* Conjunction *yang* that could be interpreted to *that* and *who* for instance appear for 452 times from chapter one until chapter eight. Coordinating Conjunctions (*kata hubung gabungan*) on the other hand, are used for 246 times in the novel. Some of the conjunctions that are commonly used are *dan* (and), *tap*i (but), *atau* (or) and *kemudian* (then). Apart from the two conjunctions, Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan keterangan*) which has listed various conjunctions of different usages are used for 179 times. Some of the usual conjunctions which are seen from chapter one until chapter eight are *kerana* (because), *hingga* (until), *untuk* (for), and *meskipun* (although). The least frequent conjunction used in *Badai Semalam* is Complementary Embedded Conjunctions (*kata hubung pancangan komplemen*) that is represented by the word *bahawa* (that). From chapter one until chapter eight, the conjunction only appears for 4 times. To sum up, the four types of Malay conjunctions are used for 881 times from chapter one until chapter eight in the novel, *Badai Semalam*.

Table 4.2: The types of Conjunctions used in *Storms of Yesterday* from Chapter One until Chapter Eight

Types of English Conjunctions	Examples	Frequency
➤ Additive	and, nor, or furthermore, alternatively likewise, by contrast that is, for instance	264
➤ Adversative	yet, but, however in fact, on the other hand instead, rather in any case, anyhow	80
➤ Causal	so, consequently for this reason, as a result for, because, it follows in that case, otherwise in this respect, aside from this	55
➤ Temporal	then, previously at once, meanwhile, until then next, secondly, then first…then, in the end, finally up to now, from now on to sum up, in short	38
TOTAL		437

The table above shows the used of English conjunctions in the novel, *Storms of Yesterday* from chapter one until chapter eight based on Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy (1976). Based on the data, additive conjunctions that are represented by the words *and*, *or*, *furthermore* and *likewise* for instance are seen for 264 times. It shows that additive conjunctions are the most common conjunctions used in the novel. Adversative conjunctions on the contrary, are recorded as the second frequently used conjunctions. Conjunctions such as *yet*, *but*, *in fact* and *even though* are seen for 80 times throughout one-third of the novel. Conjunctions for example *for*, *because* and *so* represent causal conjunctions which appear for 55 times from chapter one until chapter eight. The least type

of conjunctions that is used in *Storms of Yesterday* is temporal conjunctions. The words such as *then*, *after* and *before* are seen for 38 times only. In short, the four types of conjunctions are used for 437 times from chapter one until chapter eight in the novel, *Storms of Yesterday*.

The analysis begins with the sample of study (the first one-third of the source text and its English translation) by looking at the usage of conjunctions in both ST and TT based on Halliday and Hasan's classification (1976). Then, all the extracted conjunctions are aligned manually based on Katz and Fodor's analysis (1986). Finally, types of shifts are also identified according to Blum Kulka's Shifts of Cohesion (1986). The shifts of conjunctions are analyzed from ST to TT. Additions of conjunctions in TT as well as omissions of conjunction in the TT are studied to consider the consequence of explicitation and the change in meanings. The findings are classified into two groups; those which retain the original meanings and those which meanings are distorted.

4.1   Conjunctions which maintain in meanings

The findings for conjunctions which retain the original meanings are presented in Table 4.3 until Table 6.1.

4.1.1   Coordinating Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Gabungan*)

Table 4.3 demonstrates the analysis of ***dan*** and ***and***

SL	Dia menunggu resah bersama-sama kawan-kawan ***dan*** manusia-manusia lain.
TL	She waited, as restless as her schoolmates ***and*** the rest of the crowd.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: dan [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: dan [+ CONJ, - but, - yet, - though] TL: and [+ CONJ, - but, - yet, - though]
Effect on message	There is no change in the usage of conjunctions in both Malay and English extracts. Malay conjunction 'dan' is translated into its English translation 'and'. Both carry the same meaning which then, sustains the same quality message in the original text.

The table shows the usage of 'dan' as a Malay conjunction which connects two simple (independent) sentences. In the Malay extract, the subject (she) is waiting impatiently for something. The word 'dan' shows her action and her feeling are also done and experienced by somebody else – her schoolmates and the rest of the crowd. Therefore, the conjunction illustrates that the subject (she) together with the other two subjects (schoolmates and the rest of the crowd) are doing the same action (waiting). When it is translated, the word 'dan' is translated into a simple additive conjunction 'and' which carries a similar meaning. From the data above, it shows that the SL word 'dan' carries limited semantic feature as it can only be defined with the word 'and' and does not carry the meaning of ([- but, - yet, - though]) because these words carry the meaning of 'contrary to expectation'; unlike the word 'dan' and 'and' that carry the sense of 'something more to be said.' In the English version, it also shows that the subject (she), her schoolmates and the rest of the crowd are feeling the same (restless) and are also waiting for something. Likewise, the TL word 'and' also shares similar semantic features as ST [- but, - yet, - though], thus the meaning from ST to TT does not change. Thus, the meaning sustained from ST to TT.

The Malay conjunction is translated literally to the English version which upholds the same meaning where the subject's schoolmates together with the rest of the crowd are doing the same action as the subject (she). Because of no addition or omission of conjunction in TT, it could be concluded that SL word 'dan' is similar to the word 'and' in TT. Therefore, the conjunction in TT corresponds with the norms of conjunction in SL text. There is also no shift in text meaning as neither implicit nor explicit change occurs.

Table 4.4 demonstrates the analysis of *tapi* and *yet*

SL	Cita-citanya untuk belajar hingga ke universiti terpaksa dibatalkan. Terpaksa! Apa boleh buat, keluhnya sendiri. Dia terpaksa melupakan buat sementara. *Tapi* hati kecilnya tetap teguh dengan janjinya.
TL	Her plans to go to university had to be abandoned! There was no other choice. She sighed. She must put them out of her mind now. *Yet*, deep down, she clung on her promise.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: tapi [+ CONJ] TL: yet [+ CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: tapi [+ CONJ, + but, - however, - nevertheless] TL: yet [+ CONJ, - but, - however, - nevertheless]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in both extracts. They share the same meaning: contrast or distinction. The SL and TL word also function on the same basis which focuses on opposite expectation. Comparing the usage of both conjunctions in ST and TT shows that the meaning from SL to TL is still sustained.

Based on the table above, the SL term 'tapi' is used to show opposites and contrasts. The Malay conjunction 'tapi' [= tetapi] in the example above shows contrast based on what has been mentioned previously. In the extract, the speaker needs to put aside her dream of going to university. The dream could have been forgotten. The Malay conjunction 'tapi' shows that the speaker does not want to let go off her dream; proposing the fact that the speaker is not doing the 'expected' outcome. Likewise, the conjunction is interpreted to the TL term 'yet' in the English version. In the targeted language, the word 'yet' is expressed as the simplest form of adversative conjunction which does not contain the meaning of *and* [- but]. Therefore, the word 'tapi' carries the meaning of [+ but] and [+ yet] but the word 'yet' does not carry the meaning of [- but]. It can be concluded that SL word 'tapi' can be interpreted to 'but' or 'yet' but in English, the word 'but' and 'yet' function differently because the word 'but' contains the element of *and* but not the word 'yet' even though they are under the same type of conjunction. Based on the table, the SL word 'tapi' and TL word 'yet' show stronger contrast and has different semantic features to the word 'however' and

'nevertheless' ([- however, - nevertheless]) because the word 'however' and 'nevertheless' express emphatic relations which can occur non-initially in a sentence and are associated with intonational prominence unlike the word 'yet' and 'but' that become tonal for the purposes of contrast only.

Both conjunctions in both examples appear in the beginning of a sentence (after a full stop). Because 'tapi' and 'yet' share the same meaning – contrast –, the meaning maintained equivalent. The level of explicitness in the TT is higher than ST as the conjunction used in the given sentence is restructured, giving more detail and information to the speaker's determination of pursuing her dream by comparing *tapi hati kecilnya…* and *yet, deep down, she…* In terms of semantic shift in text meaning, the usage of the word 'yet' in the English changes the meaning of the excerpt to something more explicit as the word 'yet' gives explicit meaning (stronger contrast) to the text compared to the usage of the word 'but' in the sentence.

Table 4.5 shows the analysis of *atau* and *or*

SL	Ibu lemah mengeluh panjang. Mak Atun meminta diri kerana hendak menguruskan sesuatu di rumah besar. Mungkin ada tamu. *Atau* mungkin membuat kuih untuk minum petang nanti.
TL	Her mother let out a long sigh. Atun excused herself to see something at the big house. A guest perhaps. *Or* maybe to bake some cakes for tea.
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: atau [+ CONJ] TL: or [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: atau [+ CONJ, + or else, - additionally] TL: or [+ CONJ, + or else, - additionally]
Effect on message	There is no difference in terms of the conjunctions used. The SL term 'atau' and TL term 'or' have the same meanings where they offer alternatives or possibilities in which choices are given or presented. The message from SL to TL is sustained.

According to the chosen Malay extract, the SL word from the Malay extract 'atau' is meant to give choices, alternatives in which two or more selections are given. In the

Malay extract, two options or possibilities mentioned by the speaker: (1) the guests arrival (2) the baking of some cakes; but there is no final say. Similarly, the TL word 'or' is translated literally from the SL word, 'atau'. The term 'or' belongs under additive conjunction specifically called *alternative conjunction*. In the targeted version, there are also two possibilities or choices that may occur. This means the meanings of the conjunction in TT is sustained from ST which incorporates the usage of conjunction 'atau'. It does not change the meaning since the word also functions as similar as the Malay conjunction 'atau'. As can be seen in the semantic features of both phrases, the meaning of SL and TL are similar [+ or else], showing that both words share limited semantic vocabulary. Besides that, the SL and TL word also do not carry the meaning of 'additionally' [- additionally] as it is more emphatic that means something is expressed clearly or firmly. The word 'additionally' [- additionally] stresses more on the alternativeness while both extracts carry the idea of a range of objective alternatives.

Based on both examples, conjunction in TT is interpreted literally from the ST. There is also no addition or omission of the conjunction in TT which shows that the conjunction in ST corresponds the conjunction in TT text. It is due to the similar cohesive pattern between ST and TT. In the extract above, there is no change in grammatical usage (no explicit shift) and no change in meaning (no implicit shift).

Table 4.6 demonstrates the analysis of *malah* and *in fact*

SL	"Kau ni melampau…Aku tak mahu mengubah suasana hidup di rumah ini, Man. Sorrylah..., aku tak pernah, ***malah*** tak pernah pun terlintas di hati aku nak mengusik-usik Mazni yang aku anggap macam keluarga aku, sungguhpun kami tak pernah bermesra..."
TL	"You're too much, Osman. Look, I don't want to spoil things around here. Sorry. ***In fact*** it has never crossed my mind to mess around with her. She's family, even though we aren't close."
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: malah [+ CONJ] TL: in fact [+ CONJ]
Semantic Features of	SL: malah [+ CONJ, + as a matter of fact, + actually, - however, -

SL and TL	on the other hand]
	TL: in fact [+ CONJ, + as a matter of fact, + actually, - however, - on the other hand]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in both ST and TT extracts. The SL word 'malah' is translated to TL word 'in fact'. Both conjunctions have the same meaning; therefore, the meaning in ST is sustained.

The table above shows the usage of Malay coordinating conjunction 'malah' (= malahan) and English conjunction 'in fact'. Specifically, SL word 'malah' is used to show contrast between two ideas in which one is indeed more emphasized or stressed as additional information to the previous statement. Referring to the ST extract, the speaker explains that he never messes with the girl (Mazni) and more emphasis is highlighted that he has never thought of it. The SL word 'malah' asserts that the speaker has never wanted to flirt with Mazni. Likewise, the SL word 'malah' is translated literally to the word 'in fact' in TT. It has a contrastive sense, 'as against'. In the English version, the meaning of the sentence means *as against what the current state of the communication would lead us to expect (the speaker wants to flirt with Mazni), the fact of the matter is.. (the speaker has never even thought of flirting with her).* The SL word 'malah' and TL word 'in fact' share similar semantic features [+ as a matter of fact, + actually]. Similarly, both words do not carry the same semantic features of 'however' and 'on the other hand' ([- however, - on the other hand]) which carry the meaning of forceful and not avowal that means assertion of veracity. Though 'however' and 'on the other hand' carry the meaning of 'contrary to expectation', the source of the expectation lies on the presupposed sentence, "*Look, I don't want to spoil things around here. Sorry. **However,** it has crossed my mind to mess around with her….*" compared to "*Look, I don't want to spoil things around here. Sorry. **However,** it has never crossed my mind to mess around with her…*" as such sentence does not make any sense.

Thus, it can be concluded that the meaning of the conjunction is retained from ST to TT. As the Malay conjunction is translated literally in TT, the SL and TL word shows contrast or contradiction where emphasis is highlighted. Thus, the message in TT is sustained. The level of explicitness in TT is similar to ST as there is no addition and omission of the conjunction. The conjunction in TT corresponds the conjunction in ST.

Table 4.7 shows the analysis of *kemudian* and *then*

SL	Ibunya merenung Mazni. Lama. **Kemudian**, tunduk mengalah.
TL	The old woman gazed at Mazni for a long time. She **then** lowered her head in acknowledgement of her guilt.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: kemudian [+ CONJ] TL: then [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: kemudian [+ CONJ, + next, + subsequently, + after that, - earlier, - before that] TL: then [+ CONJ, + next, + subsequently, + after that, - earlier, - before that]
Effect on message	In both extracts, the SL word 'kemudian' is translated literally to the TL word 'then'. The used of both conjunctions are to show subsequent events. Thus, the original meaning in ST is sustained in TT.

The data in Table 4.7 shows that SL term 'kemudian' is translated literally to 'then' in TL. Both conjunctions have the same meanings which depict sequential events. In the Malay and English extract, there are two actions that happen and they are separated by the word 'kemudian' in ST and 'then' in TT to show which event happens first and which happens later. In both examples, the first action (the old woman gazed) happens first followed by the second action (the old woman lowered her head). The SL word 'kemudian' and TL word 'then' put emphasis on the second action – notifying readers of the subsequent action. The SL word 'kemudian' carries the denotation of 'next', 'subsequently' and 'after that' but does not carry the meaning of 'earlier' and 'before that' as summarized in the semantic features above ([+ next, + subsequently, + after that, - earlier, - before that]).

The words 'earlier' and 'before that' do not share similar semantic features as they are meant to emphasize on preceding events.

The difference that occurs is on the sentence constructed which can be seen from SL word 'kemudian' because it is used after full stop whereas the word 'then' follows the subject (she). Though the word *she* does not appear after full stop in ST or before the word 'kemudian', the meaning is sustained because readers are still able to capture who the doer is. The word *she* before the English conjunction on the other hand, shows the translator style of translating – giving more impact to the readers by highlighting the doer (the old woman).

Based on the explanation, the meaning in ST extract is sustained. It is clearly noticed that SL word 'kemudian' and TL word 'then' have similar meanings – to show subsequent events, hence the conjunction in ST corresponds the norm of conjunction in TT. There is also no explicit shift (change in grammatical form) and implicit shift (change in meaning) as both conjunctions are similar between SL and TL.

4.1.2 Relative Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Relatif*)

Table 4.8 shows the analysis of ***yang*** and ***for***

SL	Hati perempuan ini kesal. Geram! Kalau kiranya Karim tu kecil lagi, mahu dia memiat telinga ***yang*** tidak mendengar nasihat orang tua.
TL	Her heart was filled with anger and frustration. If he were a little boy, she would have twisted his ears ***for*** not heeding her advice.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ] TL: for [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ] TL: for [+ CONJ]
Effect on message	The data in both examples show that conjunction in SL is changed in TL. The word 'yang' is translated to 'for' in TT. Both words are similar in terms of its grammatical usage, therefore; the meaning of conjunction in TT is retained.

Based on Table 4.8, the SL word 'yang' links the main clause and the dependent clause. In the chosen extract, a woman is pictured as being angry and frustrated towards her son. In the second sentence, it shows the reason why she wanted to twist his son's ears if he were still a kid. The word 'yang' refers to the 'ears' that refuse to listen to the mother's advice. The SL word 'yang' could be translated to other semantic features ([+ which, + that]) that sustain similar meaning. As the word 'which' and 'that' are relative pronouns, syntactical changes may occur (*If he were a little boy, she would have twisted his ears **that do not heed her advice***). When it is translated to the target language, the word 'yang' is interpreted to TL word 'for'. When it is inserted in TL, the word 'for' carries the purpose of an action or activity. Generally, the English word 'for' refers to the reason for twisting and the Malay word 'yang' in SL refers to the 'ears' which do not listen. The meaning is slightly sustained from SL to TL because the use of 'yang' and 'for' refers to the same idea.

Hence, based on the explanation, the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST as the conjunction in ST is omitted and replaced with another word. Explicit shift and implicit shift do not occur as the grammatical usage is not changed and the meaning is slightly sustained from ST to TT.

4.1.3 Complementary Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Komplemen*)

Table 4.9 demonstrates the analysis of **bahawa** and **that**

SL	Dari cakap-cakap Cik Mahani, jelas terbayang **bahawa** ibu ini kurang senang anak gadisnya keluar bebas dengan anak muda Cik Rohana.
TL	From Mrs Mahani's words, it was clear **that** she was not very happy that her daughter was going out and spending too much time with Mrs Rohana's youngest son.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: bahawa [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: bahawa [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]

Effect on message	Both extracts show that there are similarities in the italics words. The SL term 'bahawa' and the word 'that' are both conjunctions. Therefore, the meanings of both extracts are sustained.

Table 4.9 shows the usage of SL term 'bahawa'. The word 'bahawa' acts as complementiser to complement the main clause (it was clear). The occurrence of the word 'bahawa' completes the sentence in the form of adjective phrase complement (she was not very happy that her daughter was going out and spending too much time with Mrs Rohana's youngest son). The word 'bahawa' in this extract can be optionally deleted as it does not affect the grammatical structure and the meaning. Similarly, conjunction 'bahawa' is translated literally to the word 'that' in TL. The word 'that' is a *that-clause* that precedes a noun clause. The word 'that' itself is also a conjunction. The difference between the conjunction in SL and TL is the word 'that' has more semantic meanings [+ COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]. The meaning of ST is sustained in TT as the word 'that' links the noun clause and the main clause. The word 'that' is similar to the word 'bahawa' in SL as it could also be deleted and it does not have an effect on its meaning and structure. Omitting the word 'bahawa' (…*jelas terbayang ibu ini kurang senang anak gadisnya keluar bebas dengan anak muda Cik Rohana*) and the word 'that' (*it was clear she was not very happy that her daughter was going out and spending too much time with Mrs Rohana's youngest son*) is usually done informally especially for the purpose of speaking.

Based on the data given, the level of explicitness from ST to TT is similar. The actual conjunction 'bahawa' corresponds the word 'that' in TT. In terms of explicit shift, it is clear that there is no change in grammatical usage. Implicit shift on the other hand, does not occur since there is no change in meaning from SL to TL.

Table 5.0 shows the analysis of *bahawa* and *that*

SL	Yang dia sedar benar di saat itu *bahawa* dia sudah meninggalkan zaman indah yang dilaluinya sejak sepuluh tahun lebih itu.
TL	It was painfully clear to her *that* she was leaving behind a wonderful world, more than ten years of her life.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: bahawa [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: bahawa [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]
Effect on message	The data shows that conjunction in SL is translated literally to the word 'that' in TL. Both words are similar in terms of grammatical usage and its meaning.

The data in Table 5.0 shows that the word 'bahawa' in the chosen Malay extract works as a complementiser. It complements the main clause (it was painfully clear to her) by adding the predicate of the sentence (she was leaving behind a wonderful world, more than ten years of her life). The word 'bahawa' that is made up of an adjective phrase is preceded by *to her* to give more emphasis to the main subject. Nevertheless, the word 'bahawa' can be deleted without affecting the grammatical structure. Likewise, the word 'bahawa' is translated literally to the word 'that' in the TL extract. The word 'that' is a *that-clause* which explains more about the main clause (it was painfully clear to her). Based on the data, it clearly shows that the word 'that' has more semantic meanings [+ COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]. The word 'that' is similar with the word 'bahawa' in a way that it could also be deleted but the meaning is still sustained. Both words 'bahawa' and 'that' are usually omitted in speaking to make it less formal.

Since the conjunction 'bahawa' in SL is translated to the word 'that' in TL, it shows that the conjunction in SL corresponds the conjunction in TT. Therefore, the level of explicitness does not occur. The similarity shows that there is no explicit shift (change in grammatical usage) or implicit shift (change in meaning).

4.1.4   Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Keterangan*)

Table 5.1 demonstrates the analysis of *kalau* and *if*

SL	"**Kalau** tak cukup dua kaki tu, tambah dua lagi, cik adik...," usik pemuda bermisai nipis, berbaju panas belang-belang putih hitam.
TL	"**If** your legs aren't enough, use mine, babe," he goaded. He has a thin moustache, and was dressed in a black and white striped sweater.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: kalau [+ CONJ] TL: if [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: kalau [+ CONJ, + since, - otherwise,- then] TL: if [+ CONJ, + since, - otherwise, - then]
Effect on message	The Malay conjunction 'kalau' is translated directly to the word 'if'. Because of similarity in semantic features, the actual meaning is transferred from the Malay excerpt to the English version. Therefore, the meaning from ST to TT is sustained.

The data shows the usage of SL term 'kalau'. The word 'kalau' functions as conditionals where it means '*possibly a* (*legs aren't enough*); *if so, then b* (*use another two*)'. The term only exists in the *if-clause* which entails the idea of *in case* it (if-clause) happens, the result clause will occur. In the English translation, the SL word 'kalau' is translated directly to 'if' which undoubtedly sustains the meaning of the original text. The SL word 'kalau' carries the denotation of 'since' but does not carry the same meaning of 'otherwise' and 'then' as stated in the Table 6.2 [+ since, - otherwise, - then]. The word 'then' [- then] is the simplest form of the conditional relation which carries the meaning of 'under these circumstances' but it cannot be inserted in the *if-clause* but *result clause* instead. Because 'otherwise' [-otherwise] carries the meaning of *if not,* it does not carry the meaning of the conjunction *if.*

Based on the explanation, the meaning is sustained. Thus, there is no shift in the level of explicitatness as the conjunctive pattern in TT follows the conjunctive pattern of ST. There is also no shift in text meaning. Explicit shift (change in grammatical form) does

not occur because conjunction is used in both extracts. Furthermore, there is also no implicit shift because the meaning is sustained.

Table 5.2 shows the analysis of *hingga* and *to*

SL	Bergerak lincah dari terbit fajar *hingga* masuk matahari.
TL	The body of her mother that had been so robust and full of energy, working from dawn *to* dusk.
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: hingga [+ CONJ] TL: to [+ PREP]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: hingga [+ CONJ, - PREP, + up till that time, + until then] TL: to [+ PREP, - CONJ, - up till that time, - until then]
Effect on message	Based from the excerpts, the SL term 'hingga' is translated directly to the TL word 'to' which holds the same meaning. But the word 'to' is not a conjunction but a preposition. The word 'hingga' can be replaced with other English conjunctions but they are not chosen. Nevertheless, the meaning is sustained.

Based on Table 5.2, the SL word 'hingga' is considered as conjunction which modifies the main clause (the body of her mother that has been so robust and full or energy). The word 'hingga' is used to show rate or limit. In the Malay extract, the word 'hingga' shows that the subject started working from dawn to dusk. In the target language, SL word 'hingga' is translated literally to the TL word 'to' which also indicates a limit or an ending point. However, TL word 'to' is not considered as a cohesive conjunction but as a preposition. As stated in table above, the word 'hingga' carries the semantic features of 'up till that time' and 'until then' ([+up till that time, +until then]). The meanings of such semantic features are more specific '*before + termination*' though the word 'to' can be replaced. This shows that the Malay conjunction could be replaced with a preposition 'to' or conjunction 'until'. It may depend on translator's choice to choose the right word to best describe the extract, so the meaning does not change. In this extract, the meaning remains the same.

The word 'hingga' is replaced with the word 'to' in the TT that shows the actual conjunction is omitted and is replaced with a preposition. This means the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST. Because of the change in the grammatical usage from conjunction to preposition, only explicit shift occurs.

Table 5.3 demonstrates the analysis of *hingga* and *until*

SL	Dengan makan gaji di rumah Encik Haris inilah ibunya menyekolahkannya *hingga* ke tingkatan enam atas kini.
TL	With the wages she had earned working in Mr Haris' house, her mother had put her through school *until* she was now in the upper sixth form.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: hingga [+ CONJ] TK: until [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: hingga [+ CONJ, + up till that time, + till then] Tl: until [+ CONJ, + up till that time, + until then]
Effect on message	From the Malay extract, the Malay conjunction 'hingga' is translated directly to 'until' where both words have the same meanings. Thus, the English conjunction carries the same meaning as the original conjunction and can be replaced with other semantic features. The meaning is sustained from ST to TT.

Based on data in Table5.3, the SL word 'hingga' is translated literally to its English version with the term 'until'. Both have the same meanings which are to show limit. In Malay and English extract, the limit is to reach sixth form. The words 'hingga' and 'until' show the mother is able to bring up the subject since young up to upper sixth form. The semantic features show that SL word 'hingga' and TL word 'until' carry the meaning of the word 'up till that time' and 'till then' ([+ up till that time, + till then]). Thus, the meaning from ST to TT is sustained.

It can be clearly seen that the shift in level of explicitness could not be analyzed since the cohesive pattern of conjunction tends to follow closely to the norms of ST. There is no explicit shift or no change in grammatical form because both extracts use conjunctions

of similar semantic features. It also shows that there is no implicit shift as the meaning from

SL to TL is retained.

Table 5.4 shows the analysis of *sementara* and *before*

SL	"Ah… tak payahlah! Bukannya aku demam benar. Demam-demam air saja. Tak usahlah kau semua susah-susah!" Begitulah jawapan yang sering diberi oleh ibu tua yang takut berjumpa doktor iru. "***Sementara*** belum melarat ni, Kak, baiklah jumpa doktor."
TL	"There's no need! I'm not that ill. It's just a slight fever. Stop fretting both of you.' This had more or less become the standard reply from the old woman, who had chronic fear of doctors. "It's best that you see a doctor ***before*** it gets worse."
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: sementara (belum) [+ CONJ] TL: before [+ CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: sementara (belum) [+ CONJ, + before that, + up till that time, + till then, - then, - next, - after that] TL: before [+ CONJ, + before that, + up till that time, + till then, - then, - next, - after that]
Effect on message	In the extracts given, the SL word 'sementara (belum)' is translated to the TL word 'before' literally. Both words share the same meanings: showing a condition that has yet to stop. Thus, the message is retained from SL to TL.

Based on the table above, 'sementara' is used to show a condition or situation that

has yet to stop. It functions as a type of conjunction that helps explain the main clause (it's

best you see a doctor). In the extract, it shows that the subject is suffering from a mild

illness. The word 'sementara (belum)' shows that she (the old woman) needs to see a doctor

while she is still in good condition (before gets worse). The word 'sementara + belum'

signifies a sense of 'previous' that is literally translated in its English version. However, the

word 'sementara' has to appear with the word 'belum' to indicate such instance and to give

more explicit meaning to the readers. If it is omitted, the sentence '*sementara melarat ni,*

kak, baiklah jumpa doktor' is insignificant. Even so, the word 'sementara' can appear alone

to indicate the meaning of *while*. The TL term 'before' also shares the same meaning. This

shows that the SL word 'sementara + belum' and TL word 'before' carries denotation of

'before that', 'up till that time' and 'till then' which have explicit meaning (*before +*

termination) but do not carry the meaning of 'then', 'next' and 'after that' ([+ before that, +

up till that time, + till then, - then, - next, - after that]). Therefore, the meaning from ST to

TT is sustained. A difference in the translated version is the conjunction appears in the

middle. This is because independent clause precedes the conjunction in TT and vice versa

in ST. Nevertheless, the meaning does not change.

The usage of cohesive conjunction in TT shows that the shift in level of explicitness

in TT is higher than ST. The sentence in ST is simplified in TT where the word *before* is

equivalent to the word *sementara + belum* and is more specific in meanings. It can also be

seen that there is no explicit or implicit shift from ST to TT.

Table 5.5 demonstrates the analysis of **kerana** and **for**

SL	...sekadar bersimpati saja yang dapat diberikannya. Wang ringgit memang tidak dapat dilakukan, **kerana** dia sendiri adalah manusia yang serba kekurangan.
TL	...sympathy was all she had to give. She had no money to give **for** herself was poor.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: kerana [+ CONJ] TL: for [+ CONJ, + PREP]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: kerana [+ CONJ, - PREP, + because, + since, - as a result, - in consequence of this] TL: for [+ CONJ, + PREP, + because, + since, - as a result, - in consequence of this]
Effect on message	There is no difference between both extracts as conjunctions are used in SL and TL. The SL word 'kerana' carries the meaning of 'because' similar to TL word 'for'. Both conjunctions retain similar meanings.

Based on data in the table above, it can be seen that both SL and TL have no

difference in which conjunctions are used semantically. Referring to SL word 'kerana', it

initiates the reason of why the speaker could not give her own money. The subject (she)

indicates that the reason why she had no money is due to her poverty. The SL word 'kerana'

is translated to 'for' to show reason instead of using its nearest equivalent meaning

'because'. Since the word 'for' is rarely used in spoken English to indicate reason, it could be difficult for non-native speakers to grasp its actual meaning without basic knowledge of English. This is because the word 'for' could be a preposition [+ PREP] that upholds different meaning. If readers mistakenly assume that the word 'for' in the extract above indicates a preposition, they might probably interpret that money can only be given to her instead of looking at the reason why money cannot be given [+ for, + because]. In that case, 'for' is an unusual conjunction that carries the meaning of *the reason was that*. Based on the semantic feature above, the word 'kerana' and 'for' carry the meaning of 'because' and 'since' but does not carry the meaning of 'as a result' and 'in consequence of this' ([+ because, + since, - as a result, - in consequence of this]).

Table 5.6 demonstrates the analysis of *setelah* and *after*

SL	Malam itu *setelah* makan malam dan berihat-rihat sebentar, kedua anak muda yang berdarah panas ini berhati-hati benar berpakaian.
TL	That night, *after* dinner and a short rest, the two young men took great care choosing their clothes.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: setelah [+ CONJ] TL: after [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature in SL and TL	SL: setelah [+ CONJ, + afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier] TL: after [+ CONJ, + afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in SL and TL extracts. The SL word 'setelah' is translated to TL word 'after' which indicates the meaning of an act or event. Hence, the meaning in both extracts is sustained.

Based on the Malay excerpt, the SL term 'setelah' is used to indicate the time of an act or event. It signals an event that is done and another event is following subsequently. As in the extract given, the subject (two young men) had dinner and short rest and the word 'setelah' shows another subsequent event – choosing clothes – happened. The Malay conjunction is translated directly to an English conjunction: after. This word falls under

temporal conjunction which gives sequential sense: one is subsequent to the other. Based on the semantic features, the words 'setelah' and 'after' share similar semantic features of the word 'afterwards', 'after that' and 'next' but do not carry the meaning of 'before that' and 'earlier' ([+ afterwards, + after that, + next, - before that, - earlier]).

The cohesive pattern in TT tends to reflect the conjunctions used in ST because the conjunction in ST corresponds the conjunction in TT. Thus, the level of explicitness does not occur. Besides that, there is no explicit shift (change in grammatical usage) or implicit shift (change in meaning) since the conjunctions from SL to TL are alike.

Table 5.7 shows the analysis of *supaya* and *to*

SL	Sudah jerih dia memujuk ibu tua itu untuk berobat dengan doktor, dan sudah puas dia merayunya ***supaya*** makan sesuap dua.
TL	Of late Mazni had pleaded again and again with her mother tosee a doctor and it seemed she had endlessly appealed ***to*** her to eat, ...
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: supaya [+ CONJ] TL: to [+ PREP]
Semantic features in SL and TL	Example 2 SL: supaya [+ CONJ, - PREP, - for] TL: to [+ PREP, - CONJ, + for]
Effect on message	There is a difference between SL word 'supaya' and the TL term 'to'. The word 'supaya' is a conjunction whilst the word 'to' is a preposition. Even though both words are different in forms, the meaning from SL to TL is still maintained.

In the above extract, the SL word 'supaya' indicates the meaning of aim or purpose that is hoped to be achieved. This Malay conjunction functions to attach the subordinating clause (her to eat) with the main clause (Mazni pleaded her mother). This can be seen from the subject's (Mazni) constant pleads with the hope that the mother would want to eat. When the word 'supaya' is translated to the word 'to' in TT, the meaning in SL is sustained in the TL excerpt. The word is translated to the word 'to' in the English version but it is considered as a preposition. The difference in the target language is when *the appeal* is

done to the subject (to her) in TT while the word 'supaya' refers to the action in ST. Regardless; the meaning in TT somehow sustained the meaning in ST.

Based on the data, the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST since there is an omission and replacement of conjunction in TT. In addition, there is an explicit shift or change in grammatical usage as conjunction in ST is changed to preposition in TT. Nevertheless, there is no implicit shift or change in meaning as the meaning is still sustained.

Table 5.8 demonstrates the analysis of *supaya* and *that*

SL	"Terima kasih...! Doakan *supaya* aku berjaya, Zaki...!"
TL	"Thank you. Please pray *that* I'll succeed,"
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: supaya [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: supaya [+ CONJ] TL: that [+ CONJ, + COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]
Effect on message	The data shows that conjunctions in ST and TT are similar. The word 'supaya' is translated literally to the word 'that'. Therefore, the meaning from ST to TT is sustained.

Based on the table above, the SL term 'supaya' emphasizes a state of wish that is hoped to be achieved. It gives more explanation to the main clause. From the Malay extract, the main clause does not exist but the sentence begins with an imperative (please pray) and it is followed by the Malay conjunction 'supaya' which clarifies what the speaker wishes for. Likewise, conjunction is used when the word is translated to the target language. The word 'that' is also a conjunction but in TL the word 'that' has more semantic meanings [+ COHESIVE MARKER, + COMPLEMENTISER]. In TL, the meaning in ST is sustained as the word 'that' is referring to what the speaker wants the listener (Zaki) to pray for. The SL term 'supaya' and TL term 'that' are similar in a way that both words can be omitted. In the Malay extract, omitting the word 'supaya' will make the dialogue even less formal (*Doakan*

aku berjaya, Zaki…!) compared to the original one. The used of conjunction in the Malay extract above could be influenced by the style of language chosen to attain to formal language for the purpose of school syllabus. In the English extract on the other hand, the word 'that' can also be omitted because it is not required for instance, *"Thank you. Please pray I'll succeed"*. Thus, the meanings of both extracts are still retained and readers are still able to perceive the meaning because both words 'supaya' and 'that' do not affect the meaning of extracts if they are to be removed.

From the extracts above, the actual conjunction matches the conjunction in TT. Thus, the level of explicitness in ST is similar in TT. Comparing between ST and TT, it can be seen that there is no explicit shift as the grammatical usage is sustained. There is also no implicit shift because the meaning from ST to TT is not altered.

Table 5.9 shows the analysis of **untuk** and **to**

SL	Sudah jerih dia memujuk ibu tua itu **untuk** berobat dengan doktor, dan sudah puas dia merayunya supaya makan sesuap dua.
TL	Of late Mazni had pleaded again and again with her mother **to** see a doctor and it seemed she had endlessly appealed to her to eat, ...
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ] TL: to [+ PREP]
Semantic features in SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ, - PREP, - for] TL: to [+ PREP, - CONJ, + for]
Effect on message	There is a difference in terms of the usage of conjunction in ST and TT. The SL term 'untuk' is translated to English term 'to'. Though the Malay conjunction is translated to English preposition, the meaning is retained.

Based on Table 5.9, the Malay extract employs the usage of conjunction 'untuk'. The word connects the subordinate clause (see a doctor) with the main clause (Mazni pleaded her mother). The usage of the conjunction helps answer the question *for what* when it is used in the sentence. For example, the reason why Mazni begged her mother is for her to see a doctor. The SL word 'untuk' is translated directly to English term as 'to'. However,

it is not known as an English conjunction. The word 'to' is a preposition which can also be replaced with other words such as [+ for] that is also a preposition. The word 'to' and 'for' can be used to show motive or reason but the word 'for' [+ for] needs a pronoun following it by changing its syntactical structure (*…with her mother **for** her to see a doctor …*). Even though the word 'to' does not exist as an English conjunction, it does not change the meaning of the sentence from ST to TT. Therefore, the message from SL to TL is sustained.

It is shown that the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST since there is omission and replacement of conjunction in the English version. Grammatical usage from ST to TT is shifted explicitly since it is altered from conjunction to preposition regardless of its similar meanings in both extracts.

Table 6.0 demonstrates the analysis of **untuk** and **for**

SL	Mungkin ada tamu. Atau mungkin membuat kuih **untuk** minum petang nanti.
TL	A guest perhaps. Ormaybe to bake some cakes **for** tea.
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ] TL: for [+ PREP]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ, - PREP] TL: for [+ PREP, - CONJ, + to]
Effect on message	There is a difference based on ST and TT extracts. The SL term 'untuk' is a conjunction while 'for' is a preposition. Though the grammatical form is changed from SL to TL, the meaning from SL to TL is sustained.

Based on the Malay extract, the word 'untuk' is used to connect *tea* with the main clause (baking some cakes); giving a justification what they (cakes) are used for. When it is translated to the English version, the SL word 'untuk' is translated to TL term 'for' The TL word 'for' is not a conjunction but a preposition which has similar meaning to SL conjunction. Based on the semantic feature, the word 'for' carries the denotation of the infinitive 'to' [+ to] even though they function similarly. Nevertheless, the word following 'to' needs to be a verb whiles the word 'for' must be followed by a noun. Since the word

tea is a noun and not a verb, the word 'to' cannot be used (*A guest perhaps. Or maybe to bake some cakes **to** tea*).

In the above example, the word 'for' is a preposition which is similar to SL word 'untuk' when translated from SL to TL. Therefore, the meaning is sustained from SL to TL. From the extract, it can be described that the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST as the conjunction is omitted and replaced. Because there is a change on grammatical usage from conjunction to preposition, explicit shift occurs. Nevertheless, there is no implicit shift as the meaning is maintained from SL to TL.

Table 6.1 demonstrates the analysis of ***walapun*** and ***although***

SL	"Kau ada keluarga, kau ada ayah dan ibu ***walaupun*** hidup mereka tak semewah orang, tapi dia tidak menggangu pelajaran kau..."
TL	"You have a family, a father, and a mother. ***Although*** they may not be as well off as others, it does not affect your studies."
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: walaupun [+ CONJ] TL: although [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: walaupun [+ CONJ, + though, + in spite of, - however, - on the one hand] TL: although [+ CONJ, + though, + in spite of, - however, - on the one hand]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in both extracts. The SL word 'walaupun' is translated to the word 'although'. Both conjunctions have the same meaning: contrary to expectation. Therefore, The word 'walaupun' and 'although' portray similar meaning from ST to TT.

Based on Malay extract, 'walaupun' is a conjunction that refers to contradictory expectation. The Malay conjunction helps explain the main clause (it doesn't affect your studies) clearly. Based on the dialogue taken from the Malay novel, the speaker's parents live in poverty and are not as rich as other people. Thus, the speaker is expected to lead a pathetic life which may have a negative effect on his studies. By using the word 'walaupun', the speaker portrays that she still succeeds despite her family's poverty. When it is translated to the English version, the TL word 'although' replaces the SL word 'walaupun'

perfectly. The TL term 'although' may have two meanings: 'in spite of the fact that' or 'as against to the fact that'. In the English version, the sentence means *'in spite of the fact that his parents are poor, it doesn't affect the speaker in his studies.'* This shows that the meaning from Malay excerpt to the English one is similar as both conjunctions indicate the same meaning. As shown in the semantic features above, the SL word 'walaupun' and TL word 'although' carry the denotation of word 'though' and 'in spite of' but do not carry the meaning of 'however' and 'on the one hand' ([+ though,+ in spite of, - however, - on the one hand]). The only difference in both extracts is in the way both conjunctions are used in sentences. In the Malay example, 'walaupun' is not used in a clause while 'although' is used after a full stop and it precedes the main clause. Nevertheless, it does not affect the meaning. The word 'although' can be replaced with other adversative conjunctions such as [+ though, + in spite of]. Based on the explanation, the meaning of SL conjunction is sustained in TL.

It can be seen that there is a difference between ST and TT. Based on the example, TT is more explicit as the conjunction in TT is separated by two different sentences which make it easy for readers to comprehend. Compared to ST, the conjunction used is constructed informally in one sentence. Thus, the level of explicitness in TT is higher than ST. Both extracts show that there is no explicit shift (change in grammatical form) and no implicit shift (change in meaning) as both conjunctions 'walaupun' and 'although' have the same meanings.

4.2   Conjunctions which distort in meanings

4.2.1   Coordinating Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Gabungan)*

The findings for conjunctions which meanings are distorted are presented in Table

6.2 until Table 6.9.

Table 6.2 demonstrates the analysis of ***tapi*** and ***and***

SL	Langkahnya pendek-pendek *tapi* kemas.
TL	Her strides were measured *and* graceful.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: tapi [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: tapi [+ CONJ, + but] TL: and [+ CONJ, - but]
Effect on message	Conjunctions are used in SL and TL. However, they differ in terms of semantic features. The SL word 'tapi' carries the meaning of 'contrary to expectations' [+ but] compared to the TL word 'and' in which the word consists the meaning of additional information. The meaning of conjunction is changed from the original excerpt.

According to the table above, the term 'tapi' [= tetapi] in the ST is used to indicate

opposite meaning. The word shows that the strides taken by the subject, though they are

limited and short, they are imagined as graceful to the readers. The word 'tapi' indicates to

the readers that people are not supposed to be graceful when their strides are measured in

that way. On the contrary, in TL excerpt, the word 'and' (additive conjunction) is different

from the word 'tapi' (adversative conjunction) in SL. When 'and' is used in the English

excerpt, it gives an additional information that there is more to be said about the measured

or controlled *'strides'*, without showing any contrast as portrayed in the original excerpt.

Therefore, it inhibits the tendency of readers to think of how different measured *'strides'*

are compared to long, normal steps. Thus, they differ in semantic features in which the SL

word 'tapi' carries the meaning of 'but' ([+ but]) as opposed to the word 'and' that does not

carry the meaning [- but]. The word 'tapi' and 'and' are classified as conjunctions which

mean they have the same grammatical usage, but both words are different in terms of meaning.

Based on the data above, the meaning of SL is distorted when it is translated. The meaning of the English excerpt is changed from the original. The extract from ST to TT portrays that the word 'tapi' is omitted and is replaced with the word 'and' which makes the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST. In fact, because of the change from 'tapi' to 'and', it could be concluded that the meaning in TT is shifted implicitly as the meaning of conjunction in TT is altered even though 'tapi' and 'and' are both conjunctions.

Table 6.3 shows the analysis of *malah* and *and*

SL	Cik Rohani yang tercatuk di kerusi bilik tamu itu tidak terkata apa-apa. Matanya saja menghantar anak mudanya keluar, entah ke mana dia sendiri tak bertanya, **malah** memang tidak kuasa bertanya.
TL	Mrs Rohani, still seated, was speechless. Her eyes followed him. She did not know where her son was going **and** did not care to ask.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: malah [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: malah [+ CONJ, + in fact, + actually, + as a matter of fact] TL: and [+ CONJ, - in fact, - actually, - as a matter of fact]
Effect on message	The word 'malah' and 'and' are conjunctions in both ST and TT. However, when the SL word 'malah' in the Malay extract is interpreted to the TL word 'and' in the targeted language, the English conjunction does not share the same meaning. Therefore, the message in SL is distorted.

Conjunction used in the Malay excerpt is the word 'malah' that shows contrast between the second statement and the preceded statement. Based on the Malay extract, the speaker was not aware where her son was heading to (the first statement). When the word 'malah' is used, reader is given with an idea that she (Mrs Rohani) did not care less though she did not know where her son was heading to. Knowing that she had no clue of his son whereabouts (the first statement), the word 'malah' emphasizes her ignorance. Compared with the English version, the SL term 'malah' is not translated to its English term. The TL

word 'and' is used which signals the meaning of additional information. In the English version, the speaker (Mrs Rohani) is clueless about where his son was going and 'and' as additional information portrays that she did not want to ask where he was. The SL word 'malah' carries the denotation of 'in fact', 'actually' and 'as a matter of fact' as stated in its semantic features [+ in fact, + actually, + as a matter of fact]. When this term is translated to its English version, the TL word 'and' but does not carry the meaning of 'in fact', 'actually' and 'as a matter of fact' ([- in fact, - actually, - as a matter of fact]). Therefore, there is a change in meaning from 'malah' to 'and'. In the ST, the word 'malah' shows a sense of contrast between the occurred situation (Mrs Rohani's son whereabouts) and the speaker's current state (her ignorance). When the word 'and' is used in TT, there is no sense of contrast or ignorance because it is altered for the purpose of adding some information.

The data shows that the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST because the conjunction in ST is omitted and replaced with another word that is different in meaning. There is also an implicit shift in the extract as the meaning of the word is directed to a different perspective regardless of the similar usage of cohesive form (conjunction).

Table 6.4 demonstrates the analysis of *sambil* and *and*

SL	Tangan halus memicit-micit dahi yang berkulit lembik dan berkedut-kedut *sambil* menanti jawaban ibu yang terlantar sakit sejak dua minggu itu.
TL	Her gentle hands massaged her mother's forehead, where the skin was slack and wrinkled, *and* she waited for an answer from her mother who had been confined to bed for the past two weeks.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: sambil [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: sambil [+ CONJ, + at the same time, + at this point] TL: and [+ CONJ, - at the same time, - at this point]
Effect on message	The words used in both extracts are classified as conjunctions. The SL word 'sambil' signifies two actions which happen simultaneously. When the word 'and' is used in TT, the meaning of the original extracts is distorted.

According to the extract taken from the Malay novel *Badai Semalam*, the Malay SL word 'sambil' is used to combine two sentences. Its specific function is to show concurrency of equivalent acts or events. As in the extract, the subject was massaging her mother's forehead and at the same time, waiting for her mother's answer. There are two actions happening at the same time that is explained vividly by the word 'sambil'. Compared to the English version, the TL word 'and' is chosen to replace 'sambil' in ST. The word 'and' is an additive conjunction which links the first statement (massaged her mother) and second statement (waited for an answer) as additional information. The TL word 'and' shows that other than massaging the mother, the speaker is also waiting for an answer. As shown in the table above, the TL word 'and' differs from the SL word 'sambil' in terms of its semantic features [- at the same time, - at this point]. Therefore, in the target language, both actions are not happening simultaneously; thus, changed the meaning of conjunction in the original extract.

Because of this difference, the message in ST is distorted and changed in TT where the word 'and' does not signify two actions happening at the same time. Thus, based on the explanation, the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST because omission exists in which the actual conjunction is replaced with another. Implicit shift in text meaning also occurs in TT since the word is changed in meaning regardless of the similar grammatical usage.

Table 6.5 demonstrates the analysis of *kemudian* and *and*

SL	Ibunya merenung anak gadis kesayangannya tepat-tepat, *kemudian* bersuara lambat-lambat.
TL	Her mother stared fixedly at her considerate daughter, *and* falteringly replied.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: kemudian [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic featureS of SL and TL	SL: kemudian [+ CONJ, + then, + after that] TL: and [+ CONJ, - then, - after that]

Effect of message	Conjunctions are used in ST and TT extracts. The SL word 'kemudian' and TL word 'and' are conjunctions but they carry different meanings. The message from ST to TT changes as the word 'kemudian' that shows subsequent event is changed to 'and' that functions as to add extra information.

Based on the table above, SL term 'kemudian' is a type of conjunctions that is used to show the subsequent events – an event that happens after an action or situation. In the Malay excerpt, it can be seen that the mother (subject) did two actions – stared at her daughter and replied hesitantly. The SL word 'kemudian' shows that the mother stared at the daughter then responded to her (the daughter). In contrast with TL word 'and' in the English version, instead of focusing on the following event (stared fixedly), the word 'and' indicates it as additional information. The word 'and' carries the meaning of 'and also' ([+ and also]) which serves as supplementary information to the mother's situation. Since the word 'and' does not carry the semantic features of 'then' and 'after that' ([- then, - after that)], there is no connection between the first and second situation. Unlike the word 'kemudian' that carries the meaning of [+ then, + after that] as in the semantic features above, it can be seen that the first and second situation are related where the mother gazed at her daughter, and then responded hesitantly.

The message in TT is distorted when the term 'and' does not have similar meaning with the original conjunction word 'kemudian' in ST. The level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST as the actual conjunction is omitted and replaced with another conjunction. Instead of sustaining the meaning of subsequent events, additional information is applied in the extract; showing the dissimilarity between ST and TT. There is an implicit shift in text meaning as the meaning is changed despite the usage of conjunctions in both extracts.

4.2.2 Relative Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Relatif*)

Table 6.6 demonstrates the analysis of *yang* and *when*

SL	...mengambil tahu urusan hidup orang yang bukan menjadi tanggungjawabnya. Tanggungjawabnya *yang* sebenar di dalam rumah ini ialah menguruskan makan-minum tuan rumah, berkemas, membasuh kain-baju keluarga Encik Haris yang hanya tiga orang itu.
TL	...interfering in matters that did not concern her, *when* her real business was to cook, wash, and clean for Haris and his family?
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ] Tl: when [+ PRON]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ, - PRON] TL: when [+ PRON, - CONJ]
Effect on message	There is a difference between the SL and TL extract. In the Malay extract, the SL word 'yang' is a conjunction but when it is translated to the targeted language, the word is replaced with 'when' which carries the meaning of a relative pronoun. Nevertheless, the meaning is sustained.

In the above example, the usage of SL word 'yang' is known as a conjunction that links the main clause and the dependent clause. It functions as to identify the noun that precedes it. When it is translated to English, 'yang' that is supposed to be translated to a conjunction (of similar semantic feature) is changed to a pronoun ([+ PRON]). As a relative pronoun, the word 'when' carries the meaning of SL word 'yang' but it does not exist as English conjunction. Compared to the word 'that', the TL word 'when' is used since the sentence in the above extract indicates time clause. Based on the data above, the TL word 'when' gives extra information to the preceding noun by explaining about her 'real business'. Comma before the word 'when' shows that the clause could be removed. This means that the clause (*when her real business was to cook, wash, and clean for Haris and his family*) is not necessary and is used in the sentence to give more impact about the subject's condition to the readers. Comparing it with the Malay excerpt, the SL word 'yang' is used in the affirmative way to explain more about the 'real business'. The word 'yang'

cannot be removed because the sentence will be meaningless; emphasizing the importance of the word 'yang' in the extract.

Though there are differences and limitations in terms of semantic features, the meaning implied from SL to TL is remained. It can be described that the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST since the word 'yang' does not exist as an English conjunction and needs to be replaced with another word to sustain the meaning. Though the meaning of conjunction in TT extract is similar as ST, there is an explicit shift in text meaning as conjunction is not used in the target text.

Table 6.7 shows the analysis of *yang* and *whose*

SL	Osman *yang* berambut keriting ketak-ketak membetul-betulkan jambul tinggi entah berapa kali di muka cermin di atas rumah itu.
TL	Osman, *whose* hair fell in crinkly waves, combed the lock over his forehead a dozen times in front of the mirror in the room upstairs.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ] TL: whose [+ PRON]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: yang [+ CONJ, - PRON] TL: whose [+ PRON, - CONJ]
Effect on message	There are some differences between conjunctions in SL and TL. In the Malay extract, the word 'yang' is translated literally to the word 'whose', but it is not considered as a conjunction. Nevertheless, the meaning from ST to TT is maintained regardless the changes in grammatical usage.

In the Malay excerpt, the word 'yang' is considered as a Malay conjunction which is used to attach the main clause (Osman) and the subordinate clause that defines it. When the word 'yang' is used, the subject's (Osman) physical characteristic is vividly explained (hair fell in crinkly waves). In the English excerpt, the TL term 'yang' is translated directly to 'whose' to sustain the meaning from ST to TT. It can clearly be seen that the word 'yang' is a conjunction in Malay but appears as English relative pronoun 'whose'. As shown in the table above, SL word 'yang' and TL word 'whose' do not share similar semantic features because of the difference in usage. The TL word 'whose' is known as a relative pronoun

that is used to explain more about a person – bringing a sense of belonging. Even though 'yang' and 'whose' do not share similar grammatical usage, the meaning from ST to TT is retained. Another difference between the Malay and English excerpt is in the usage of comma. Comma is used before 'whose' and after the relative clause to indicate that it functions as additional information to the subject. In the extract, Osman is pictured as a person with crinkly hair style. It appears as supplementary to the readers and could be omitted (*Osman combed the lock over his forehead a dozen times in front of the mirror in the room upstairs*). On the other hand, the word 'yang' is not used after comma which indicates that it is not just a clause and will be grammatically incorrect if the word 'yang' is not inserted (*Osman berambut keriting ketak-ketak membetul-betulkan jambul tinggi entah berapa kali di muka cermin di atas rumah itu*).

Therefore, based on the extracts above, the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST since the word 'whose' does not exist as conjunction in English. The word 'yang' is translated literally to a relative pronoun 'whose'. Nonetheless, the shift in text meaning occurs explicitly as the grammatical usage is changed from ST to TT.

4.2.3 Subordinating Embedded Conjunctions (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Keterangan*)

Table 6.8 shows the analysis of ***kerana*** and ***to***

SL	Encik Haris suami isteri belum balik lagi dari Pulau Pinang. Mereka berdua ke sana **kerana** menziarahi anak sulung mereka Zainah yang berumahtangga di Pulau Mutiara Timur itu.
TL	Mr Haris and his wife had not yet returned from Penang. The couple had gone there **to** visit their eldest daughter, Zainal who was married and was living on the island called the Pearl of the Orient.
Classified items in SL and TL	SL: kerana [+ CONJ] TL: to [+ PREP]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: kerana [+ CONJ, - PREP, + because, + for] TL: to [+ PREP, - CONJ, - because, - for]
Effect on message	There is a difference between the word 'kerana' in ST and 'to' in TL. The SL term 'kerana' is a conjunction which explains reason of something. It is not translated directly in TL as the term 'to' is a preposition which also carries the meaning of preposition [+ for].

	Thus, the meaning from SL to TL is distorted.

From Table 6.8 above, it is clearly seen that both examples show dissimilarity in terms of the word 'kerana' and 'to'. Conjunction 'kerana' in the Malay excerpt explains the reason why the subject (Mr Haris and his wife) went to Penang – because they are visiting their eldest daughter. However, when it is translated to its English version, the SL word 'kerana' that can simply be translated directly [+ because, + for] is unlikely chosen. The word 'to' in the above extract is used to show the purpose, event, or activity that someone is heading to (moving towards something). In the extract, it shows that the couple *moves towards* Penang to do something – visiting their eldest daughter. As stated in the table, TL word 'to' does not carry the meaning of 'because' ([- because]). Therefore, the term 'to' changes the meaning from "why the subject gees to Penang" to "what they do in Penang".

From the extract chosen, the Malay conjunction is omitted and is replaced with another word. Because of the omission, TT is regarded as lower than ST. It is clearly seen that there is explicit shift or change in grammatical usage because conjunction that is used in ST is altered to a preposition in TT. Thus, the meaning is shifted implicitly from ST to TT when the word 'kerana' is changed to 'to'.

Table 6.9 shows the analysis of *untuk* and *and*

SL	Dan sudah ada selera *untuk* makan nasi, bubur sesuap-dua.
TL	And she had regained her appetite *and* was eating a few spoonfuls of porridge.
Conjunctive items of SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ] TL: and [+ CONJ]
Semantic feature of SL and TL	SL: untuk [+ CONJ, - and also] TL: and [+ CONJ, + and also]
Effect of message	Both extracts show the usage of conjunctions. However, the SL term 'untuk' is not replaced with its original word 'to' but is replaced with addictive conjunction 'and'. The meaning slightly changes because 'and' does not carry the meaning of 'untuk'. Because of the changes, the meaning from SL to TL is distorted.

Based on the Malay extract, the word 'untuk' combines the subordinating clause (eating a few spoonfuls of porridge) with the main clause (regained her appetite). It is meant to show the subject's ability to do something when she has the appetite. The SL word 'untuk' could be translated directly to 'to' [+ to] in order to sustain the similar meaning from ST to TT. Since the word 'to' is not a preposition, the word is replaced with 'and'. Though conjunction is still used in the English extract, the meaning is changed from ST to TT. The usage of 'and' in the English version shows extra information of something (eating a few spoonfuls of porridge) that the subject could do besides getting back her appetite. Based on the table above, the semantic feature shows that the word 'untuk' does not carry the meaning of 'and also' ([- and also]) while the TL word 'and' carries the meaning of 'and also' ([- + and also]). This shows that though 'untuk' is a conjunction in ST, it does not share similar semantic feature in English conjunction.

Based on the data, the meaning from SL to TL is distorted because SL word 'untuk' that shows ability to do something is replaced with 'and' that describes added information. It is seen that the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST as the conjunction is omitted and replaced with another word; thus, changes its actual meaning. Though both words 'untuk' and 'and' are conjunctions, the meaning is shifted implicitly.

4.3   Summary

In a nutshell, this chapter deals with the analysis of conjunctions from the novel *Badai Semalam* and the translated version of the novel, *Storms of Yesterday.* The analysis is divided into two parts: conjunctions which maintain in meaning and conjunctions which distort in meaning. The next chapter will summarize the findings and discuss the significance of the study and the recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.0   Introduction

This chapter comprises of the findings related to conjunctions in the Malay novel, *Badai Semalam* and its translated version, *Storms of Yesterday*. The study focuses on the semantic analysis of conjunctions when translated from the Malay novel into the English version. It also considers matters such as its contribution towards teaching and learning as well as recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1   The findings

This research study seeks to explore the semantic analysis of conjunctions in the Malay novel, *Badai Semalam* and its English translation, *Storms of Yesterday.* Since some of the Malay conjunctions may share similar meaning with English conjunctions but dissimilar in terms of grammatical usage and are very specific to the context compared to English, it is vital to study semantic analysis of both languages in further detail. Prior to various studies which prove interference as one of the most serious problems among second language learners of English, the study of how differ conjunctions are semantically in both languages, Malay and English, could be seen as a way to benefit Malay learners in learning English as a second language. Based on this research, four research questions are formed and the results from the study are collected and analyzed.

> **The types of conjunctions used in sentences in translating the Malay novel, *Badai Semalam* into the English novel, *Storms of Yesterday*.**

The first research question is created to identify the types of conjunctions used in sentences in translating the Malay novel into English. When conjunctions are compared in both novels, it can be concluded that some types of conjunctions in both languages are paralleled but some are overlapping. The first type of conjunctions in Malay is known as

Coordinating Conjunction (*Kata Hubung Gabungan).* In English, Coordinating Conjunction is a mixed of additive conjunctions such as *and*, adversative conjunctions such as *but* and *in fact* and a temporal conjunctions such as *before.* Relative Embedded Conjunction (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Relatif)* centers on the usage of *yang* that appears to be English relative pronouns (e.g. *when, whose)* and not conjunctions. Complementary Embedded Conjunction (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Keterangan)* emphasizes on the usage of *bahawa* as a Malay conjunction. Likewise, the word is defined as *that* which is also a conjunction in English. The final type of Malay conjunction is Subordinating Embedded Conjunction (*Kata Hubung Pancangan Keterangan).* It is a mixture of several English conjunctions: adversative conjunctions such as *although,* temporal conjunctions such as *after,* causal conjunctions such as *until* and preposition *to* and *for* which are defined as *untuk* in Malay. Based on the first research question, it is discovered that some Malay conjunctions exist in English. Nevertheless, they are overlapped, named and functioned differently in sentences.

> **The similarities and differences of the semantic features of the Malay conjunctions in the English translation.**

For the second research question, this study seeks to find out the similarities and differences of semantic features of the Malay conjunctions in the English translation in educating Malay second language learners. It is found that some Malay conjunctions carry some similarities while the others are different in some ways. Based on the study, coordinating conjunctions have the most equivalent semantic features when compared to conjunctions in the English translated version of the novel (*see Table 4.3 until 4.7*). The word 'dan' can only be translated to the word 'and' [+ and]. This shows that 'and' has limited semantic feature that appear as the simplest form of additive conjunction. Throughout the novels, there are many occurrences of 'dan', but it is analyzed for only

once. Likewise, both words do not carry the semantic features of [- but], [- yet] and [-though]. This is because for the first one-third of the novel, the word 'dan' is translated semantically to the word 'and'. Nevertheless, for other conjunctions such as 'tapi' and 'kemudian', they are interpreted differently in which some of them share similar semantic features and some do not. Thus, they are analyzed for more than once. The word 'tapi' carries the semantic features of [+ but] and [+ yet]. When the word 'tapi' is interpreted, the word 'but' and 'yet' can be replaced. Nevertheless, in English the word 'but' and 'yet' carry different meanings in which the word 'but' may not portray contrastive effect as strong as the word 'yet'. The word 'but' carries the meaning of '*but + and*' while 'yet' does not. It can be concluded that when the word 'tapi' is interpreted in English, the usage of the word 'but' or 'yet' will bring different meanings to the sentence. The word 'atau' and 'or' carry the semantic feature of [+ or else] but do not carry the meaning of 'additionally' ([-additionally]) as it carries emphatic variant of the 'or' while the word 'malah' and 'in fact' carry the semantic features of [+ as a matter of fact, + actually] but do not carry the semantic features of [- however, - on the other hand]. The word 'kemudian' on the other hand, can be translated to the word 'then' and share the semantic features of [+ next, + subsequently, + after that] but do not carry the semantic features of [- earlier, - before that].

In some occurrences in the novel *Storms of Yesterday,* some Malay coordinating conjunctions are interpreted with other English conjunctions but they differ semantically (*see Table 6.2 until 6.5*). Most of the conjunctions are interpreted with the word 'and' in the English version of the novel which does not share similar semantic features. For instance, the word 'tapi' carries the semantic feature of [+ but], the word 'malah' carries the semantic features of [+ in fact, + as a matter of fact, + actually] while the word 'sambil' carries the semantic features of [+ at the same time, + at this point]. For the word 'kemudian', it carries the semantic feature of [+ then, + after that]. The word 'and' does not

share any similar meanings to the conjunctions used as it differs with the word 'tapi' [- but], the word 'malah' [- in fact, - as a matter of fact, - actually], the word 'sambil' [- at the same time, - at this point], and the word 'kemudian' [- then, - after that].

It can be concluded that based on coordinating conjunctions, additive conjunction *and* is found as the most frequently used conjunction to be used in the English version of the novel.

The word 'bahawa' in the complementary embedded conjunction is translated literally to the word 'that' in the English version. The word 'bahawa' is translated to the word 'that' which also represents a conjunction, cohesive marker and complementiser *(See Table 4.9 and 5.0)*. The word 'bahawa' and 'that' can optionally be omitted or deleted for the purpose of informal speaking.

Based on the study, it is found that subordinating embedded conjunctions also share similar semantic features with some English conjunctions as many as coordinating conjunctions (*see Table 5.1 until 6.1*). The word 'kalau' and 'if' share similar semantic feature of [+ since] but do not carry semantic features of [- otherwise, - then] while the word 'hingga' and 'until' share similar semantic features of [+ up till that time, + till then]. The word 'sementara (belum)' and 'before' share semantic features of [+ before that, + up till that time, + till then] but do not carry the meaning of 'then', 'next' and 'after that' ([- then, - next, - after that]). The word 'sementara' is added with the word 'belum' to carry the meaning of 'before' [+ before that], or else the word 'sementara' is defined as *while*. The word 'kerana' and 'for' on the contrary, share similar semantic features of [+ because, + since] but do not share similar semantic features of [- as a result, - in consequence of this]. The word 'for' could also be a preposition depending on the meaning and grammatical structure. Thus, this may cause confusion to second language learners since the word 'for' can be defined and used variedly for example *for* as a conjunction and *for* as a preposition.

The word 'setelah' and 'after' carry similar semantic features of [+ afterwards, + after that] but do not carry the semantic features of [- before that, - earlier]. For the word 'walaupun' and 'although', they share similar semantic features of [+ though, + in spite of] but they do not share the meaning of 'however' and 'on the other hand' ([- however, - on the other hand]).

Since there are some differences between Malay and English conjunctions, some Malay conjunctions are being replaced with other lexical words to reflect similar meaning in the translated version. Based on this study, it is discovered that relative embedded conjunctions is unlike English conjunctions (*see Table 6.6 and 6.7*). The word 'yang' is known as a Malay conjunction but it functions as English relative pronoun. To sustain similar meaning between ST and TT, the word 'yang' in ST is translated to words such as *when, whose* or *who* which have different lexical words. They function as relative pronouns but in Malay they are referred as conjunctions. It can also be concluded that in Malay relative conjunction, the word 'yang' can be the only word to represent a conjunction while relative pronouns can be represented with words such as *that* depending on what constitutes them. There are varieties of options as the word *that* is similar in meaning with the word *who*. Interestingly, *yang* is lack in semantic features in which it has a fixed meaning. Thus, from the research study, it could be concluded that conjunction 'yang' does not exist as conjunction in English as it shares similar meaning to relative pronouns (e.g *whose, when, that*). While the word 'yang' can be used for any nouns (subject or object), English relative pronouns are changed depending to the noun it is referring to. For instance, the word 'whose' (to show sense of belonging) and the word 'when' (to describe more about time) can be replaced with the word 'yang' that shares similar meaning to *whose* and *when*.

Subordinating embedded conjunction on the other hand, shows that the word 'untuk' does not function as a conjunction in English language (*see Table 5.9 and 6.0*). The word

exists in English as preposition *to* and *for*. Though the infinitive 'to' and 'for' have similar meanings to the word 'untuk', they are used differently in sentences where a verb follows after the former and a noun follows after the latter. Specifically, the word 'untuk' can best be replaced with the infinitive 'to'. Even so, *untuk* and *for* share similar semantic features which sustain the meaning of the translated extracts. It can be concluded that, in this particular type of conjunction, English has two varied semantic features of the word 'untuk' which is not considered as conjunction. Therefore, the word 'untuk' does not share similar semantic features with other conjunctions. The word 'hingga' on the other hand (*see Table 5.2*), could be replaced with the word 'to' though it is a preposition which also sustains its meaning in the original excerpt. This shows that the word 'hingga' is similar to English conjunction 'until' (*Table 5.3*) and can be replaced with preposition 'to' which also shares similar meaning. The TL term 'to' and 'until' are similar in meaning in which they are used to show limit. Again, preposition 'to' in English can also be used to express the meaning of Malay conjunction 'supaya' (*see Table 5.7*).

To sum up, the second research question reveals that some Malay conjunctions such as *untuk* and *supaya* share similar meanings with English prepositions (e.g. *to* and *for)* and Malay conjunction *hingga* shares similar meanings with English preposition (e.g. *to*) and English conjunctions (e.g. *until* and *until then*).

➢ **The types of shifts in the level of explicitness and shifts in text meaning that might occur in the English translation.**

With regard to the final research question, this paper attempts to seek for the level of explicitness and shifts in text meaning that might occur in the English translation. Malay coordinating conjunctions show that conjunctions which have similar semantic features with the English conjunctions tend to correspond with the norms in SL texts. Thus, there is no explicit or implicit shift from ST to TT extract. On the contrary, translated version of

English conjunctions that do not share similar semantic features with the Malay ones are shifted implicitly as they change the meaning of the original extracts though they are still translated to conjunctions. The real conjunctive words are omitted and words such as *tapi, malah, sambil,* and *kemudian* are replaced with *and* which then alter the basic meanings of conjunctions in ST. Therefore, the level of explicitness for such extracts is higher in ST. Specifically for *yet* in TT*;* the word shows that it carries stronger contrast that it is more implicit in meaning compared to the word *but.* Conjunction *yet* lifts up the meaning of *tapi* in the original extract though *but* could also be interpreted. Thus, the level of explicitness is higher in TT without any change in grammatical usage and meaning. It is also discovered that from relative embedded conjunctions, the level of explicitness for all Malay conjunctions are higher in ST than TT. The word *yang* is omitted and replaced with other English words of similar meaning. The word *yang* is replaced with a relative pronoun and thus, it is not shifted implicitly in terms of meaning. The word *yang* is shifted explicitly as its syntactical changes when it is replaced with relative pronoun. It could also be concluded that there are less implicit shift that occurred as the meaning from ST to TT are sustained regardless of different grammatical usages. In terms of complementary embedded conjunctions, it shows that this type of conjunction focuses on the word *bahawa.* When *bahawa* is translated to the word *that*, it corresponds with the norms in SL and thus, the level of explicitness is similar between ST and TT. The word is not shifted explicitly or implicitly.

Subordinating embedded conjunctions, that is the final type of Malay conjunction shows that English conjunctions such as *if (kalau), until (hingga), after (setelah),* and *although (walaupun)* tend to correspond with the norms in SL texts, showing that the words share similar semantic features and the meanings are sustained. On the other hand, some occurrences of conjunctions in the translated version such as *hingga, supaya* and *kerana*

portray higher level of explicitness in ST as the actual conjunctions are omitted and replaced with other lexical words such as prepositions and thus, the conjunctions are shifted explicitly. The word *hingga* is changed to *to* while it could be translated to *until then* or *up till that time*, but the meanings are sustained. The word *supaya* also is changed to *to* which also sustains the meaning regardless the syntactical changes from conjunction to preposition. The word *kerana* is changed to *to* and not *because* where it alters the original meaning. The word *sementara* shows that the level of explicitness is higher in TT as the word *sementara* and *belum* are attached together to carry the meaning of the word *before*. It shows that English conjunction for this word is more simplified than the Malay one. In the extract, the meaning is sustained but it shifts the word grammatically through syntactic change. The word *untuk* on the contrary, is not known as conjunction in English; thus, it is translated literally to the word *to* and *for*. Thus, the level of explicitness in TT is lower than ST as conjunction is omitted and replaced with another prepositional word to sustain the meaning. This reveals that conjunction *untuk* is shifted explicitly as the grammatical form is changed from conjunction in Malay language to preposition in English language. However, there is no implicit shift as the meanings sustained. Though the word *untuk* does not exist as conjunction, it could still be translated word-by-word by remaining to the basic meaning, but they are formed as prepositions.

5.2   Significance of Study

As the findings reveal, there are some similarities and differences between Malay and English conjunctions. Some conjunctions are related, overlapping and totally dissimilar between one and another. Based on this study, it is discovered that Halliday and Hasan's types of grammatical cohesive ties particularly conjunctions are somehow interrelated with Malay conjunctions. Some types of English conjunctions are grouped under one type of Malay conjunctions. For instance, addictive, adversative and temporal conjunctions are

considered as Malay Coordinating Conjunctions. In fact, some words that are considered as conjunctions in Malay are interpreted as prepositions for instance the word 'to' and 'for'. Thus, it is proven that some Malay conjunctions share similar meaning with English conjunctions and English prepositions.

Another significance of this study is the word 'yang' is known as a conjunction in Malay but it is a relative pronoun in English. It is replaced with other lexical words to portray similar meaning when compared to its translated version. Though the meanings are sustained, the syntactic structures are affected and thus, it may cause grammatical interference in sentence production. It proves that Malay and English language could be misunderstood if its differences are not taken into account as the word 'yang' in English has more semantic features compared to Malay language. Based on this study also, the word 'yet' portrays stronger meaning compared to the word 'but' even though they do not show any difference in meaning when they are translated in Malay with the word 'tapi'.

The study between *Badai Semalam* and *Storms of Yesterday* also reveals that some conjunctions in ST correspond with the conjunctions in TT. In some extracts, the levels of explicitness for most conjunctions in ST are higher than in TT. The results also prove that most conjunctions are shifted explicitly where the grammatical usage of conjunctions in ST are changed when they are translated in TT. On the other hand, implicit shifts occur less frequent as the meanings of conjunctions in ST are sustained in TT. The findings conclude that though the Malay conjunctions do not share the same grammatical usage as in English, the meanings of the Malay conjunctions are still sustained in the target text.

While other researchers focus on cohesive ties among language learners through writing and reading comprehension, this research study determines to put an emphasis on how differ conjunctions in Malay and English language are in the established novel, *Badai Semalam* and its translated version, *Storms of Yesterday*. Apart from being the earliest

study that studies the difference between Malay and English language on conjunctions, incorporating novels helps increase language learners understanding and shows a natural linguistic phenomenon in the subject matter since it is less affected by external variables such as students' perceptions. Therefore, the difference between both languages can be vividly explained and distinguished. Conclusively, the semantic analysis between both novels show that there are some categories in Malay conjunctions that are related to English conjunctions while some are completely different. Hence, the study of conjunctions in Malay and English novel is a worthy attempt in helping Malay second language learners who may have trouble learning both languages.

5.3   Recommendations and Suggestions

The semantic analysis between Malay and English language is rarely studied in the teaching and learning field of second language. Nevertheless, the present study begins to explore the meanings of Malay and English conjunctions used in selected novel, *Badai Semalam* and its translated version, *Storms of Yesterday*. The similar and dissimilar instances used for grammatical cohesive ties particularly conjunctions suggest many possibilities for further research study that would help illuminate any confusion that may arise from the study of both languages.

This study then leads to practical application to the teaching and learning of English as a second language. Such study may help educators in teaching and learning environment by describing and explaining how conjunctions in Malay and English differ, thus avoiding learners' from making errors in learning. Furthermore, teachers could also pay extra attention in improving the methods of teaching by incorporating the accurate ways to relate the findings of this study with the learners' root words so that they are familiar with the semantic classes of Malay and English language. As this study reveals that Malay and English are similar and different in their semantic classes, educators should provide more

meaningful activities and must not only rely on controlled exercises and drilling activities. Such technigues may help teachers recognize the learners' strengths and weaknesses and plan more useful learning lessons to discover their understanding of English grammar.

The used of conjunctions in novel *Badai Semalam* and *Storms of Yesterday* is the focused in this study. Based on this study, the results from the printed data have unveiled that Malay and English conjunctions are interrelated. The same study could be incorporated by changing the source of data such as using political speeches and editorial news. As speeches and news attain to a large number of listeners, conjunctions used in such data may bring varied outcomes.

One of the most serious issues among second language learners is interference which inhibits learners understanding in viewing one language as distinct compared to other languages. The study of semantic analysis of conjunctions in both languages helps ease learners' burden and lighten their understanding especially among the less proficient ones. As learners have to be informed with knowledge of language difference, studying reference, substitution, and ellipsis as other types of cohesive ties could provide learners with more information. For instance, English substitution (*e.g one and ones*) may not exist in Malay language and its usage in Malay language could offer more distinctive aspect to the learners' learning repertoire. Such information may also educate second language learners of any similarities and differences that may arise.

While this study incorporates the used of novels as data collection, different modes of discourses may reveal more discoveries between both linguistic systems. The present study reveals that there are similarities and differences in the types and semantic analysis of conjunctions in Malay and English language. A comparative study could be done through students' compositions at varying levels of proficiency; primary, secondary and tertiary level particularly between Malay and English language. Such study needs to be researched

on as it advices educators of whether learners are aware of such difference or not and further plan the teaching and learning lessons for the students.

This study focuses on semantic analysis where shifts in grammatical form and meanings are highlighted. Due to the changes, evidence on whether conjunctions are altered or not in the translated version is taken into consideration. Nevertheless, this study excludes learners' reasons of making errors in learning English as a second language. Thus, studies regarding how errors are made should be identified in the used of conjunctions among second language learners. By studying this issue, the causes of why learners are likely to be confused between Malay and English could be analyzed in detail.

REFERENCES

Abdul Jalil Othman, Mahzan Arshad, & Rahman Shukor Ab. Samad. (2008). Penggunaan kohesi gramatikal dan leksikal dalam mod penulisan argumentatif dan ekspositori. *Masalah Pendidikan, 31* (1), 135-134.

Baker, M. (1992). *In other words: A coursebook on translation*. London: Routledge.

Baleghizadeh, S. & Sharifi, A. (2010). Explicitation of implicit logical links in Persian-English translation. *The International Journal for translation & interpreting Research*, *2* (2), 57–65.

Beikian, A., Yarahmadzehi, N., & Natanzi, M.K. (2013). Explicitation of conjunctive relations in Ghabraei's Persian translation of 'The Kite Runner'. *Canadian Center of Science and Education, 3*(2). http://dx.doi.org/ 10.5539/ells.v3n2p81

Becher, V. (2010). "Translation-Inherent" explicitation: Against a dogma of translation studies. *Across Languages and Cultures, 11*(1), 1–28.

Berman, L., & Slobin, D. I. (1994). *Relating events in narrative: A crosslinguistic developmental study*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Bex, T. (1996). *Variety in written English texts in society. Societies in text*. Routledge: London and New York.

Biber, D. (1988). *Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1986). Shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation. In: House, J. & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.), *Interlingual and intercultural communication*. Tübingen: Narr. 17–35.

Caron, J. (1994). Connectives. The encyclopedia of language and linguistics. *Oxford: Pergamon, 2*, 706-707.

Carrell, P. (1982). Cohesion is not coherence. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(4), 479-488.

Carston, R. (1994). Conjunction and pragmatics effects. *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. *Oxford: Pergamon, 2*, 692-698.

Casado Velarde, M. (1997). *Introducción a la gramática del texto del español.* Madrid: Arco Libros.

Celce-Murcia, M. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: an ESL/EFL teacher's course* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chen, L. L. (2006). The effect of L1 and CAI on grammar learning: An error analysis of Taiwanese beginning EFL learners' English essays. *Asian EFL Journal, 9(2)*, 1-19.

Chesterman, A. (1997). *The memes of translation. The spread of ideas in translation theory*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Chun-chun, Y. (2004). The relationship of cohesion and coherence: A contrastive study of English and Chinese. *Journal of Language and Linguistics, 3*(2), 243-260.

Dechert, H.W. (1983). How a story is done in a second language. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper. (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 175-195). London: Longman.

DeBeaugrande, R. & Dressler, W. (1981). *Introduction to text linguistics.* London & New York: Longman.

Dendenne, M. B. (2009). *The translation of Arabic conjunctions into English and the contribution of the punctuation marks in the target language: The case of wa, fa and thumma in modern standard Arabic.* (Master's Dissertation, Mentouri University-Constatin). Retrieved from http://www.umc.edu.dz/theses/anglais/DEN1095.pdf

Dulay, H., M. Burt., & S. D. Krashen. (1982). *Language two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Djamila, L (2010). *Shifts in translating lexical cohesion from Arabic into English. The case of first year master students of English at Mentouri university of Constantine.* (Master's Dissertation, University of Constantine) Retrieved from http://www.umc.edu.dz/theses/anglais/LAA1179.pdf

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fareh, S. (1998). The functions and and wa in Arabic and English written discourse. *Paper and studies in contrastive linguistics, 34*, 303-312.

Farzaneh, M., & Zadeh, Z. Y. (2013). A comparative analysis of subordinating conjunction in translation: the case of study in English and Persian. *International Journal of Management and Humanity Sciences,* 2, 915-920. Retrieved from http://www.ijmhsjournal.com

Fitzgerald, J., & Spiegel, D. L. (1990). Children's writing. *Research in the Teaching of English, 20*, 263-280.

Frankenberg-Garcia, A. (2009). Are translations longer than source texts? A corpus-based study of explicitation. In A. Beeby, P. Rodríguez Inés, & P. Sánchez-Gijón (Eds.), *Corpus use and translating: Corpus use for learning to translate and learning corpus use to translate* (pp. 47-58). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Garcia, M. A. (2008). Semic verbalisation: A systematic procedure for the replication of meaning in translating lexical items 2008, vol. 7 (255 p.) [Document : 18 p.] (1 p.1/4), [Notes: notes dissem.], pp. 75-92 [18 page(s) (article)]

Gass, S. (2004). *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Gee, J. P. (2005). *An introduction to discourse analysis. Theory and method*. (2nd ed.). New York: *Routledge*.

Greenbaum, S., & Quirk, R. (1993). *A student's grammar of the English language*. Essex: Longman.

Hacker, D. (2000). *Rules for writers*. (4th ed.). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin 's Longman.

Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1990). *Discourse and the translator*. London: Longman Group.

Hatch, E. (1992). *Discourse and language education*. Cambridge: CUP.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Christian M. I. M. Matthiessen. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar.* London: Arnold.

Hellman, C. (1995). The notion of coherence in discourse. In G. Rickheit & C. Habel (Eds.), *Focus and coherence in discourse processing* (pp. 190–202). Berlin & New York: de Gruyter.

Hinkel, E. (1991). Matters of cohesion in L2 academic texts. *Applied Language Learning 12*(2), 111-132.

Holloway, D. W. (1981). Semantic grammars: How they can help us teach writing. *College Composition and Communication*, *32,* 205-218.

Holzhausen, A. (1981). Componential analysis and problems of lexical equivalence. *Notes on Translation,* 1(83), 29-36.

Hughes, R. & Heah, C. (1993). *Common errors in English: Grammar exercises for Malaysians* (2nd ed.). Shah Alam: Fajar Bakti.

Innajih, A.A. (2007). *The impact of textual cohesive conjunctions on the reading comprehension of foreign language students.* (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Newcastle. Retrieved from http://research.ncl.ac.uk/ARECLS/volume_3/innajih.pdf

Ismail, Y. (1970). *Sorotan & kajian badai semalam (Karya Khadijah Hashim).* Pustaka
  Nasional: Singapura

Jackson, H. (1988). *Words and their meaning*. London: Longman. U.K.

Jared, D., & Kroll, J. F. (2001). Do bilinguals activate phonological representations in one
  or both of their languages when naming words? *Journal of Memory and Language*,
  44, 2–31.

Jenwitheesuk, T. (2009). *A study of persisted syntactic errors in writing of the 3rd year
  students of English for international communication program.* Paper presented at
  The Role of Universities in Hands-on Education.

Jin, W. (2001). *A quantitative study of cohesion in Chinese graduate students' writing:
  variations across genres and proficiency levels.* Paper presented at the Symposium
  on Second Language Writing at Purdue University. Retrieved from
  http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED452726.pdf

Johnson, P. (1992). Cohesion and coherence in compositions in Malay and English. *RELC
  JournaL, 23* (2), 1-17.

Kafes, H. (2012). Lexical cohesion: An issue only in the foreign language. *English
  Language Teaching, 5*(3), 83-94.

Kamus Dewan. (4th ed.) (1997). Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka: Kuala Lumpur.

Katz, J.J., & Fodor, J. A. (1963). The Structure of a semantic theory. *Language, 39,* 170-
  210.

Kennedy, G. (2003). *Structure and meaning in English. A guide for teacher.* London:
  Pearson Longman.

Ketabi, S., & Jamalvand, A.A. (2012). A Corpus-based Study of Conjunction Devices in
  English International Law Texts and its Farsi Translation. *International Journal of
  Linguistics. 4* (4). doi:10.5296/ijl.v4i4.2578

Khadijah Hashim. (1987). *Badai semalam*. 'K' Publishing & Distributors Sdn. Bhd: Kuala Lumpur.

Khadijah Hashim. (2009). *Storms of yesterday* (Mahani Abdul Hamid, Trans.). Malaysian National Institute of Translation: Kuala Lumpur (Original work published 1986)

Khoon, W.F. (1996). *Cohesive devices in English and Malay: An interlingual study via translation*. University Malaya: Kuala Lumpur.

Klapuri, A. at Tempere University of Technology. (2007). *Semantic analysis of text and speech.* [powerpoint slides] Retrieved from http://www.cs.tut.fi/sgn/arg/klap/introduction-semantics.pdf

Lai, Y.Y. (2008). *A corpus investigation of conjunctive use in the Taiwanese students' writing*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Ming Chuan University, Taiwan.

Larson-Freeman, D., & Long, M.H. (1991). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. Longman: New York.

Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1994). *A communicative grammar of English*. London: Longman.

Lee, E. P. (2001). *Error Analysis on medical students' writing*. Retrieved from http://www.stc.arts.chula.ac.th/ITUA/Papers_for_ITUA_Proceedings/Eunpyo-new.pdf.

Leung, C. (2005). *A comparison of the use of major English conjunctions by American and Hong Kong university students* (*Using the HKUST corpus, HKBU corpus and the ICLE corpus of American English*). Lunds Universitet, Department of Linguistics and Phonetics .Retrieved from http://lup.lub.lu.se/record/1331671/file/1331672.pdf

Leuven-Zwart, K. (1990). Translation and original: similarities and dissimilarities I, II. *Target, 1*(2), 151–181; *2*(1), 69–95.

Leki, I. (1992). ESL composing: Strategies and perceptions. In B. Leeds (Eds.), *Writing in a second language: Insights from first and second language teaching and research.* Longman: Addison- Wesley.

Li, M. (2008). University English learners' speaking competence in their monologic production. *Polyglossia 15,* 73-79.

Li, M. (2009). College-level L2 English writing competence: Conjunctions and error. *Polyglossia 16*, 13-21.

Liu, M., & Braine, G. (2005). Cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by Chinese undergraduates. *System, 33,* 623-636.

Lieber, P.E. (1981). *Cohesion in ESL students' expository writing. A descriptive study.* New York University. (Doctoral thesis). Ann Arbor: University Microfilms International.

Longman dictionary of contemporary english (5th ed.) (2005). Longman: England.

Madoui, S. (2004). *Students approach to text cohesion and coherence*. (Unpublished Magistaire Dissertation). University of Constantine.

Marian, V., & Spivey, M. (2003). Bilingual and monolingual processing of competing lexical items. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *24*, 173–193. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1017.S014271640300009

Mederos, M. H. (1988). *Procedimientos de cohesión en el español actual*. Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Canary Islands: ACT.

Moldovan et al., (2012). Interference effects as a function of semantic similarity in the translation recognition task in bilinguals of Catalan and Spanish. *Psicológica 33*, 77-110. Retrieved from http://www.uv.es/revispsi/articulos1.12/5MOLDOVAN.pdf

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

McLaughlin, B. (1984). *Second language acquisition in childhood. Volume 1. Preschool Children*. (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, N. J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Myers, G. (1989). The pragmatics of politeness in scientific articles. *Applied Linguistics, 10*, 1-3.

Nida, E.A. (1975). *Componential analysis of meaning*. Belgium: Mouton.

Nik Safiah Karim, Farid M Onn, Hashim Hj. Musa, Abdul Hamid Mahmood. (2008). *Tatabahasa Dewan* (3rd ed.). Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka: Kuala Lumpur.

Nik Safiah Karim. (1995). *Malay grammar for academics and professionals*. Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka: Kuala Lumpur.

Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International.

O'Grady, W. (2008). The emergentist program. *Lingua, 118,* 447 –664.

Ojetunde, C. F. & Okanlawon, B. (2011). *The usage of English conjuncts by students in selected tertiary institutions in Southwestern Nigeria.* The African Symposium: An online journal of the African Educational Research Network, 11 (1), 57-69. Retrieved from http://www.ncsu.edu/aern/TAS11.1/TAS11.1_Ojetunde.pdf

Olohan, M., & Baker, M. (2000). Reporting *that* in translated English: Evidence for subconscious processes of explicitation? *Across Languages and Cultures, 1*(2), 141–158.

Oshima, M. (1988). A comparative discourse analysis of English and Japanese. Occasional Papers – *Applied Linguistics Association of Australia*, *10*, pp. 194–202.

Øverås, L. (1998). In search of the third code: An investigation of norms in literary translation *meta, 43*(4), 557–570.

Pariente-Beltran, B. (2006). *Rethinking translation in the second language classroom: teaching discourse and text analysis through translation to advanced students.* University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Retrieved from

http://people.umass.edu/bparient/Reserach/CompleteThesis-BeatrizPariente-Beltran.pdf

Parrott, M. (2000). *Grammar for English Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Palmer, F. R. (1976). *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Philip, et al. (2012). Conjunctions in Malaysian Secondary School English Language Textbook. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 1*(1) Retrieved from http://www.ijalel.org/pdf/43.pdf

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartic, J. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of English Language.* London: Longman.

Rahimi, A. (2012) Lexical cohesion in English and Persian Texts of Novels. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Science, 3*(11), 569-577.

Ramadan, M.S. (2003). *Cohesion in the written works of literary and scientific streams at state secondary schools in Jordan*. (Unpublished master's thesis). GAZI University: Ankara.

Reid, J. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Saeed, J. I. (2009). *Semantics.* 3rd ed. United Kingdom: Wiley Blackwell.

Sanford, A. J. & Moxey, L. M. (1995). Aspects of coherence in written language: a psychological perspective. In M. A. Gernsbacher & T. Givón (Eds.), *Coherence in Spontaneous Text* (pp. 161–187). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Saldanha, G. (2008). *Explicitation revisited: Bringing the reader into the picture*. Paper presented at Hebrew University, Jerusalem. Retrieved from http://d-nb.info/999838504/34

Seligar, H. (1988). Psycholinguistic Issues in Second Language Acquisition. In Beebe L.M. (Eds.), *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Sew, J. W. (2008). Temporal adjectives in cognitive grammar. *California Linguistic Notes, 33*(1), 1-10.

Sunderman, G., & Kroll, J. F. (2006). First language activation during second language lexical processing: An investigation of lexical form, meaning, and grammatical class. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28,* 387–422.

Scott,V. (1996). *Rethinking foreign language writing*. Boston , MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Shlesinger, M. (1989). *Simultaneous interpretation as a factor in effecting shifts in the position of texts on the oral-literate continuum.* (Unpublished master's thesis). Tel Aviv University: Tel Aviv.

Slabakava, R. (2010). Semantic theory and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*, 249-265.

Tsareva, A. (2010). *Grammatical cohesion in argumentative essays by Norwegian and Russian learners.* (Master's Dissertation, University of Oslo). Retrieved from https://www.duo.uio.no/bitstream/handle/10852/26174/ENG4190xThesisx.pdf?sequence=1

Vinay, J. P., & Darbelnet, J. L. (1958). *Comparative stylistics of French and English. A methodology for translation.* Amsterdam – Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Vossoughi, H. (1996). Componential analysis and translation accuracy. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics,1*(1), 44-59.

Wang, W., & Wen, Q. (2002). L1 use in the L2 composing process: An exploratory study of 16 Chinese EFL writers. *Journal of Second language Writing, 11*, 225-246. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743 (02)00084-X

Widdowson, H.G. (2004). *Text, context, Pretext: Critical issues in discourse analysis.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Widdowson, H. G. (2007). *Discourse analysis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Witte, S. P., & Faigley, L. (1981). Coherence, cohesion, and writing quality. *College composition and communication, 32*, 189-204.

Yahya, S. (2005). Implicit vs. explicit textualization of conjunctive cohesion with reference to translation. *Adab Al-Rafidayn, 42*, 115–132.

Zhang, S. (2007). Analysis and classifications of common errors in spoken and written English caused by Chinese university students' lack of English grammatical knowledge. *US-China Foreign Language, 5*(5), 1-5.