

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the writer gives a glance perceptive to the readers about some theories related to this paper. This chapter provides some basic understanding about reading purposes, building vocabulary through reading, translations and other theories which related to this research.

2.1 The Nature of Reading

A common way to start the discussion about reading is to provide the definition of reading itself. Attempts to define reading have been numerous and a great variety have been developed. The writer has read several definitions about reading according to Bullon, S. in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2009). "Reading is an activity or skill of understanding written words." In *Teaching Elementary Reading* 4th edition, Tinker and McCullough (1975) also admitted that the definition of reading is as follows:

"Reading involves the identification and recognition of printed or written symbols which serve as stimuli for the recall of meaning built up through past experience, and further construction of new meaning through the reader's manipulation of relevant concepts already in his possession, the resulting meanings are organized into thought process according to purposes that are operating in the reader." (p. 9)

According to Nuttall (1996), reading means to find out the writer's message which conveyed in the text. As the readers, we respond and use our imagination in order to catch the writer's message from the text.

"Reading means getting out of the text as nearly as possible the message the writer put into. (How we respond to this meaning-whether, for instance, we accept it, reject it or transform it by using our own imagination – is another matter). We need to consider further the parts played by the writer, the reader and the text; and we will start with the reader." (p. 4)

Reading can be described as a process in solving a problem. As the readers, we try to find out what the author means using our own thought, our own language, and our own view to understand what the author has written.

“Reading is a problem solving process. As readers, we try to discover what the author means while, at the same time, we build meaning for ourselves. We use our own language, our own thoughts, and our own view of the world to interpret what the author has written. These interpretations are limited by what we know. Goodman and Burke (1980, p. 3).”

From these three definitions above, the writer can conclude that reading is a process of understanding the meaning of a text. This process involves an interaction between the reader and the author of the text, the reader can understand what the author’s thought. The reader has to catch the idea which is conveyed by the writer.

Based on the study in reading, the writer also would like to find out some reading skills. According to Sharpe, P.J (2005), there are 9 reading problems which can mentioned as reading skills:

1. Previewing
2. Reading for main ideas
3. Using contexts for vocabulary
4. Scanning for details
5. Making inferences
6. Identifying exceptions
7. Locating references
8. Referring to the passage
9. Reading faster

(p. 224-230)

According to Anderson (2003), there are 11 reading skills, however the writer only takes 9 reading skills which are similar to the 9 reading skills based on Sharpe, P.J.

1. Identifying main and supporting ideas
2. Identifying main ideas within paragraphs
3. Identifying main from context
4. Scanning

5. Inferring
6. Identifying cause and effect
7. Predicting
8. Logical and chronological sequencing
9. Skimming for the main idea

(p. IV-V)

Studying reading skills is important for the students to improve their comprehension skill, to read some reading texts and articles in the good way, and to understand the connection between the texts they are reading with their own knowledge. Richards and Renandya (2002) discuss reading skills, as follows:

“The teacher explains and the class discusses why learning and practicing strategies are important. The following three points are examples of what I try to elicit from students: (1) strategies help to improve reading comprehension as well as efficiency in reading; (2) by using strategies, students will be reading in the way that expert readers do; (3) strategies help readers to process the text actively, to monitor their comprehension, and to connect what they are reading to their own knowledge and to other parts of the texts.” (p. 289)

The writer combines the theory of reading skills from Sharpe, P.J and Anderson since both of the theories dicusses the same explanation of reading skills.

2.1.1 Identifying the main and supporting ideas

According to Anderson (2003) the topic or main idea of reading text can be found in the first or second sentence of a paragraph. The main idea is followed by supporting ideas. Sentences with supporting ideas help the readers to know the main idea.

“Every paragraph has a main idea, or topic, that tells us what the paragraph will be about. Often, you will find the main idea talked about in the first or second sentence of a paragraph. Supporting ideas usually follow the main idea; sentence containing supporting ideas explain or give us more information about the main idea.” (p.119)

Sharpe, P.J (2005) explains that identifying main and supporting ideas can be mentioned as previewing. “Previewing helps you form a general idea of the topic in your mind. To preview, read

the first sentence of each paragraph and the last sentence of the passage.” (p. 224)

2.1.2 Identifying main ideas within paragraphs

According to Anderson (2003), “Every paragraph has a main idea, or topic, which gives us the most important information in that paragraph. Often the main idea is talked about in the first or second sentence of the paragraph.” (p. 50)

Similarly, Sharpe, P.J (2005) explains about identifying main ideas within paragraphs as reading for main ideas. We can understand the point of view of the author, the purpose of the author to write the topic. “By reading for main ideas, you identify the point of view of the author-that is, what the writer’s thesis is.” (p. 224)

2.1.3 Identifying meaning from context

According to Anderson (2003), in guessing the meaning of unknown word in a text, student should practice some strategies; (1) finding out the relation between the new word with the topic of the text; (2) knowing the part speech of the new word; (3) looking for the synonyms and antonyms of the new word to get a definition of the new word.

“To guess the meaning of an important but unfamiliar word in a passage, try the following strategy: first, think about how the new word is related to the topic of the reading. Second, notice the word’s part of speech. Third, look at the words around the new word for synonyms, antonyms, or a definition of the new word.” (p. 38)

Sharpe, P.J (2005) describes identifying meaning from contexts as using context for vocabulary. She explains that a context combination of vocabulary and grammar that forms a word. Context can be a sentence or a paragraph or a passage. Context can be used to make a prediction to know the meaning of a word.

“A context is the combination of a vocabulary and grammar that surrounds a word. Context can be a sentence or a paragraph or a passage. Context helps you make a general prediction about meaning. If you know the general meaning of a sentence, you also know the general meaning of the words in the sentence.” (p.225)

2.1.4 Scanning

According to Grellet (1981) in scanning, we try to get specific information. We usually need a reading text quickly; we do not pay attention to every word. We only need to find the information that we want. “When scanning, we only try to locate specific information and often we do not even follow the linearity of the passage to do so. We simply let our eyes wonder over the text until we find what we are looking for, whether it be a name, a date, or a less specific place of information.” (p. 19)

Anderson (2003) also says that if we read something to get certain information, we have to read a text quickly and stop only for looking the information that we need. “ When we need to read something to find certain information, we move our eyes very quickly across the text. When we ‘scan’ like this, we do not read every word or stop when we see a word we do not know; we read quickly and stop only to find the information we are looking for.” (p. 14)

Sharpe, P.J (2005) describes scanning means reading the passage quickly and really paying attention to the specific sentences in order to get information that we need.

2.1.5 Inferring

Anderson (2003) explains information in an article or text is not always expressed straightly. Therefore the readers have to guess about events or writer’s thought. Inferring in using logical, syntactic, and cultural clues to know the meaning of unknown words. “Information in a reading passage is not always stated directly. Sometimes a reader has to infer, or make guess, about events or a writer’s opinion or meaning from the information that is available in the reading.” (p. 182)

In the same vein, Sharpe, P.J (2005) says that “Inference is a logical conclusion based on evidence. It can be about the passage itself or about the author’s viewpoint.” (p. 226)

2.1.6 Identifying cause and effect

Anderson (2003) reports, that there are some words and phrases for example; ‘because,’ ‘due to,’ ‘as a result,’ ‘so,’ ‘and,’ ‘therefore’. Those words and

phrases are used to show a cause-effect connection. Knowing words and phrases that show cause can help to understand and organize the information in a reading text.

“Words and phrases such as ‘because,’ ‘due to (the fact that),’ ‘as a result,’ ‘so,’ ‘and,’ ‘therefore’ are used to show a cause-effect relationship; that is they signal that one thing (the cause) makes another thing (the effect) happen. Recognizing words and phrases that signal cause and effect can help you better understand and organize the information in a reading passage.” (p.62)

In addition to what Anderson reports above, Sharpe, P.J (2005) mentions that identifying cause and effect can be mentioned as identifying exceptions. It means that we have to choose from four possible answers the one that is not mentioned in the reading. In order to get the one that is not mentioned in the reading, we have to use our skill to find related words and phrases in the passage. “After reading a passage on the TOEFL, you will be asked to select from four possible answers the one that is not mentioned in the reading. Use your scanning skills to locate related words and phrases and the answer choices.” (p.227)

2.1.7 Predicting

Anderson (2003) stated in predicting, first of all we should know that the topic of the reading text is about. After knowing the topic of the reading text, we can use our own knowledge to predict the words or the information. Predicting can help us more understand what the reading text we will read. “When we know what the topic of a reading is, we can use our ‘internal’ knowledge (what we already know about the topic) to predict the words, or the kind of information, we will read. Using this skill can help us to better understand what we will read about.” (p.2)

2.1.8 Logical and chronological sequencing

According to Anderson (2003) we have to be aware of how the text is organized; it can help the readers to more understand and to get specific information. Words such as ‘first,’ ‘then,’ ‘next,’ ‘when,’ ‘after,’ ‘later,’ ‘and,’ ‘today,’ are often used to show a sequence. Those words can help us to understand a reading text and also to get specific information. “Dates as well as words like

‘first,’ then,’ next,’ when,’ after,’ later,’ and,’ today,’ are often used in a reading to show a sequence of events. Being aware of how reading is organized can help you to understand it better, and enable you to find specific information in a passage more easily.” (p. 170)

2.1.9 Skimming for the main idea

Grellet (1981) describes “When skimming, we go through the reading material quickly in order to get the gist of it, to know how it is arranged, or to get an idea of the tone or the intention of the writer.” (p. 19)

Skimming is an activity which demands a general view of the text and contains an explicit reading. In skimming, we usually read the reading text quickly in order to get the topic, to understand how it is arranged, or to get an idea of the tone of the writer.

Similarly, Anderson (2003) also describes that skimming is one way to find a general idea in a reading passage. We have to read the reading passage very quickly in order to get the general idea of what we are reading. “Skimming is one way to look for the main ideas in a reading. When we skim, we read over parts of the text very quickly. We don’t understand; we just need to get a general idea of what the reading is about.” (p. 26)

Sharpe, P.J (2005) explains that skimming for the main idea can be mentioned as reading faster. In reading faster, we use preview, read for main ideas, and use contexts for vocabulary. We have to read phrases instead of words to catch the general idea of the passage. “Preview, read for main ideas, and use contexts for vocabulary, to read faster, read phrases instead of words.” (p. 230)

2.2 Reading and Reader’s Purposes

Reading is one of the four skills that students should learn in studying English, beside listening, speaking and writing skills. Reading aims to improve students’ vocabulary, gain information, or even cultural study. According to Carrel, Devine and Eskey (1988), the studies of reading can provide readers the cultural background knowledge upon the comprehension, memory, and recall of texts has been investigated since the late of 1970’s. (p. 43).

According to Goodman (1967) in Carrel, Devine and Eskey (1988) describe reading as “...an active process in which the reader forms expectations about the material being read, then samples the text to confirm or to revise the predictions.” (p.45). In this view, there is an interaction between the reader’s store of information and the ability to understand the text literally. Additionally, to make the reading process more effectively, there must be a comprehension of additional information from the text.

There are several purposes of readers in reading mentioned by Alderson (2000, p. 50-51):

1. If all the reader wishes to do is to get the general idea of text context, the reader will pay less attention to the detail of the text and the reader may well read in very different ways than if you are studying text in order to identify key information.
2. Reading a short story for pleasure at bedtime is likely to be different in all three aspects; process, products and recall – from reading history text for an examination the next morning. Just like what Thornburry (2002) says that reading for pleasure can lead students to the vocabulary growth (p. 58).
3. If the students’ purpose of reading is just for comprehension of taking reading test, it might encourage purposeless reading.

2.3 The Aspects of Reading

According to Burns, Roe and Ross in *Teaching Reading in Today’s elementary schools* (1992, p.2), the aspects of reading are explained that reading act has two components, they are *reading process* and *reading product*. The concept that the product of reading act is the act is the consequence of utilizing certain aspects of process in an appropriate sequence. The product of reading is the communication of thoughts and emotions by the writer to the reader, the reader’s understanding of ideas that have been put in print by writer. Communication is dependent upon comprehension, which is affected by all aspects of reading process. As well as being a means of communicating generally, reading is a means of communicating specifically with friends and acquaintances that are nearby, the reader must derive meaning from printed page more than decoding symbols into sound.

Besides of reading product, the other components of reading act are the reading process. Reading process is a method, a movement toward an end that is

accomplished by going through all the necessary steps. The aspects of the reading process combine to produce the reading product. When they are combined harmoniously, good communication between the writer and the reader will be created.

2.4 Building Vocabulary through Reading

All language have words. Words are normally the first thing which is introduced when people learn in foreign language they learn the grammatical thing in the language. Without knowing the words, people will not understand the language they want to learn. Wilkins (p. 13) in Thornburry (2002) states that people cannot express many things with grammar but anything can be conveyed with vocabulary.

Vocabulary can be learned in many ways. One of the ways is by reading books. By reading books, students can get their vocabulary enriched. Like what Thornburry (2002) says that extensive reading can provide students the opportunities to meet words in their context of use. (p.58). According to him, reading long texts for pleasure gives students more words rather than only reading course books that only focus on specific words. Schmitt (2000) seems agree to him. He says that reading can gives benefits to students with limited vocabulary. (p.150). Furthermore, Hultstijn (1992) in Schmitt also says that vocabulary learning can be done in reading session. (p. 151).

Those theories that the writers mentioned really prove that vocabulary building through reading is really good and effective. By reading books, learners can find many words that they might have known it before and later will be kept in their heads especially when they do the extensive reading happy. Reading is such a good way to learn vocabulary easily.

2.5 Definition of Translation

Translation, by dictionary definition is process of changing something written or spoken into another language (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005, p. 1632). Translation basically a change of form. The form here means the form of language, referring to the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc. which are spoken or written.

The purpose of translation is to reproduce the message from the source language to the target language, Nida and Taber (2003) stated that "*Translating*

consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source - language messages, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.” (p.12).

2.5.1 Kinds of Translation

To translate is not just the matter of translating word per word from the source language to the target one. Larson (1998, p.17-20) mentioned the three kinds of the translation:

1. Literal Translation

Literal translation also known as form-based. Form based translation tends to follow the form of the source language. This literal translation sounds like non-sense has little communication value. (p. 17).

Indonesian : *Siapa nama kamu?*

English : *Who is your name?*

This literal translation does not make sense in English. The appropriate translation would be, *What is your name?*

2. Dynamic Translation

Larson (1998, p. 18-19) stated that a truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation. In this type of translation, a translator may express some parts of his translation in very natural forms and in other part falls back into a literal form.

Example:

LITERAL	IDIOMATIC
<i>I don't have my name on you.</i>	I don't remember you.
<i>I've already buried my eye.</i>	I'm already ready to go.
<i>My eyes is hard on you.</i>	I remember you.
<i>I'll pull your eye-lid.</i>	I'll ask a favor for you.
<i>His ear is rotten.</i>	He is spoiled.

(Larson, 1998, p. 23).

3. Free Translation

By using free translation, the translator's goal should be to reproduce in the receptor language a text which communicates the same message as the source language. (Larson, p.19).

2.5.2 Translation Methods & the Process

Newmark (1988, p.45) stated that there are eight methods of translation that he puts in the following V diagram:

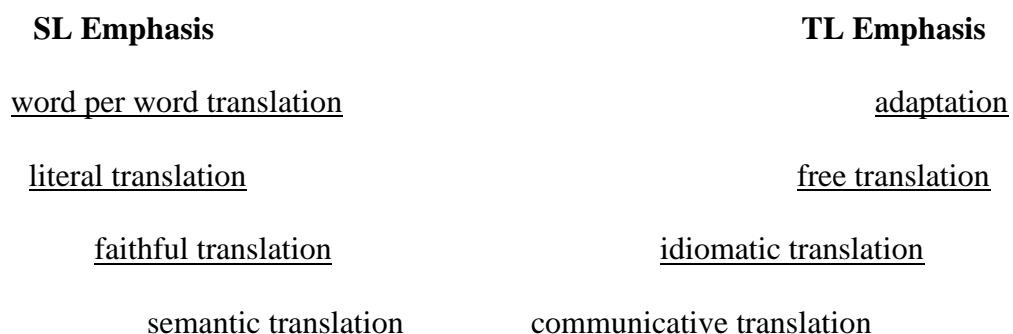


Figure 2.1 Methods of Translation

According to Newmark (1988, p.45), word-per-word translation is often demonstrated as interlinear translation. The SL word-order is preserved and the words are translated singly by their most common meanings. While in literal translation, the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but again, the words are translated singly.

Additionally, Newmark (1988) explains about the other methods. In faithful translation, it attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. On the other hand, semantic translation is more flexible than the faithful translation. (p.46).

Another method that Newmark (1998) mentions that is the adaptation translation. It is the 'freest' of translation. And it is usually used mainly for plays and poetry where the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text written. Furthermore, he also mentions the free translation that translates text by paraphrasing much longer than the original. On the other hand, idiomatic translation where it

produces the messages of the original but tends to use the colloquialisms where these do not exist in the original. (p. 46-47).

The process of translation is important to know as well. According to Larson (1998, p.4), when translating a text, the translator's goal is an idiomatic translation which makes every effort to get TL translated as natural as possible. Larson presents the diagram of the translation process as follows:

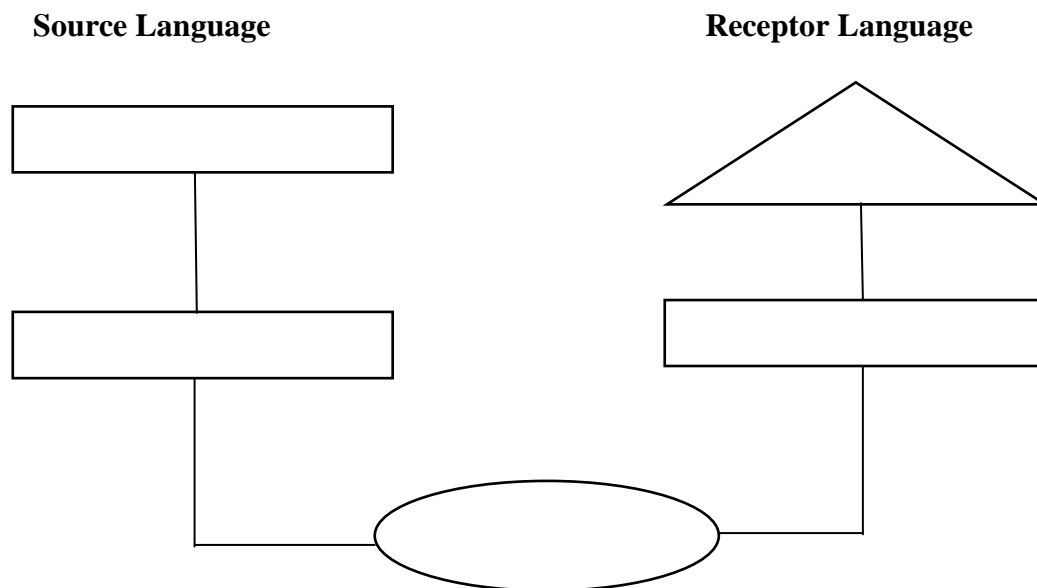


Figure 2.2 the Translation Process

2.6 Measuring Translating Ability

To measure the students' translation ability, the teacher needs to conduct some examination in the subject. Also in order to get the result of this research paper, translation test need to be conducted. The test will be run to find out the students' ability in translation.

There are some characteristics of good translator that is written in *The Modern Language Journal: The Measurement of Translation Ability* by Stansfield, Scott and Kenyon (1992, p.457). A translator should be sensitive to nuances of words in both languages. They also have to be sensitive to style, tone and purpose. It is also said that a good translator is someone who loves language, has good knowledge of both source and target language.

Translation test comes in some different ways:

- Multiple choice sections which is designed to test specific points of grammar and vocabulary.
- Production section:
 1. *Word or phrases in sentences*. This item is scored either correct or incorrect, whether there is an error regarding to grammar, word choice or syntax.
 2. *Sentence translation*. It is scored based on the accuracy of translation; whether the original meaning has been appropriately conveyed.
 3. *Paragraph translation*. It is evaluated for correctness of Grammar (morphology), expression, spelling and punctuation, and accuracy.

2.7 Translation Assessment

Translation assessment is very important because of two reasons: (1) to create dialectic connections between translation theory and practice, (2) to set criteria and standards in assessing translator's competence, especially when we try to assess several versions of Target Text from the same Source Text (Machali, 2000, p. 154).

The assessment is divided into two categories: General and Specific assessment. General assessment is based on semantic and communicative translation method. The Specific assessment is an assessment that concerns on specific types of text, such as law text, a text that its idioms are unique and special or a very expensive text like poetry.

Things that need to be remembered in translation assessment are not just right-wrong, good-bad, or literal-free aspects. There are also linguistics, semantics, and pragmatics aspects. From linguistics equivalence aspect (grammatical structure), a translator must be able to show accuracy in recreating the meanings in Source Text. (Machali, 2000, p. 153). From semantics equivalence aspect, a translator should make no fatal referential meaning distortion; otherwise, his/her translation result will be condemned wrong, worse than a 'bad translation result'. Pragmatic aspect is a translation aspect that connect a translation to contextual factors apart from the text, such as narration style.

According to Machali (2000, p. 154), aside from those assessments, clients, revisers, editors, readers, etc. may also assess the Target Text from the naturalness aspect and the awkwardness aspect. In order to do that, they have to compare it with the Source Text. The comparison is important because even though the Target Text feels natural and not awkward at all, there might be referential meaning distortion on

it. As stated before, referential meaning aspect determines the right or wrong translation result.

Another important thing is idiom. Due to the difference in systems and rules every language has, idioms will also have its own rules and systems. Transposition and modulation procedures are important to avoid unnatural and awkward idioms.

2.7.1 How to Assess

There are two ways to assess translation result: Specific Assessment and General Assessment. General Assessment relatively can be applied on any kind of translation, but Specific Assessment can only be applied of specific type of translation, such as law text or any other esthetical texts.

General Assessment uses classification, but there are some assumptions that need to be remembered; (1) there are no perfect translation, which means that on the Target Text, there is no information loss, meaning shift, transposition, or modulation at all. Therefore, the best translation result is considered as “near-perfect”, (2) Communicative and Semantic Translation are general, proper and natural message reproduction in the Target Language; (3) The translation assessment here is general and relative.

There is a table below with translation result categories which converted into range of values based on pyramid principle (the better the category, the higher it is located, and the fewer the range of the value). Another to remember is that there is a difference in the term “wrong” and “inaccurate”. The term “wrong” is obvious, but the term “inaccurate” can remain “unnatural”, “vague”, or “awkward”.

Table 2.1 Range of Translation Value

Value	Category	Indicators
86 – 95 (A)	Near-perfect translation result	Natural delivery; does not feel like a translation result; no misspell/mistype, no grammar error, no wrong term.
76 – 85 (B)	Very good translation result	No meaning distortion, no awkward literal translation; no wrong term, one or two misspell/mistype.

61 – 75 (C)	Good translation result	No meaning distortion; some awkward literal translation, grammar error, and wrong idiom but not more than 15% of the translation result; does not really feel like a translation result; one or two unnatural term; one or two misspell/mistype.
46 – 60 (D)	Mediocre translation result	Feels like a translation result, some awkward literal translation, grammar error, and wrong idiom but not more than 25% of the translation result; one or two unnatural/awkward/vague term.
20 – 45 (E)	Bad translation result	Definitely feels like a translation result; too many awkward literal translation, meaning distortion and inaccurate idioms and terms more than 25% of the translation result.

(Machali, 2000, p. 155)

2.8 Language Comprehension

Macizo and Bajo (2004) stated language comprehension includes a set of processes going from speech processing (segmenting and classification of the incoming input), lexical access (recognition of isolated words and access to information associated with them), and sentential processing (extraction and combination of syntactic information to obtain a sentence interpretation), to discourse processing (integration and interpretation of successive sentences to arrive at a global mental representation) and all of these comprehension processes are involved during both reading and translation. So, in both translation and reading, comprehension of the text is needed to reformulate the message to the target language.

2.9 Correlative Analysis

Essentially, the main aim of correlative analysis is to discover the relationships among variables, make an interpretation of the correlation coefficients

and make predictions, and control based on the data collected. Furthermore, Cohen and Manion (1980) stated:

Correlational techniques are generally intended to answer three questions about two variables or two acts of data (2); (a) is there a relationship between the two variables (or acts of data)? If the answer to this question is 'yes', then two other questions follow; (b) what is the direction of the relationship? And (c) what is the magnitude?. (p.26)

The correlative analysis is based on the Pearson product-moment formula (adapted from Bluman, G.A, 2001, p. 469):

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

Figure 2.3 the Pearson's Correlation Formula

According to Cohen and Manion (1980, p. 126), there are three kinds of correlative analysis techniques, they are the Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation, multiple correlation and partial correlation. However, there is a clear difference among these three kinds of analysis techniques. The Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation is used in analysis between only two variables.

Meanwhile, Cohen and Manion (1980, p.128) stated that multiple correlation and partial correlation are used in analysis between three or more variables. Since the writer's analysis deals with only two primary variables, which are reading comprehension score and translation result, of course, chooses the most suitable correlative analysis technique which deals with only two variables. That is why, in this case, the writer uses the Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation in analyzing the data.

Cohen and Manion (1980, p. 126) also stated that the Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation is one of the best-known measures of association. It is a statistical value ranging from -1,0 to +1,0 and expresses the relationship between two variables in quantitative form. The coefficient is described by the

symbol r . When the two variables fluctuate in the same direction, i.e as one variable increases, the other variable also increases, or as one variable decreases, the other variable also decreases, thus, we can say that a positive relationship exists. Correlation reflecting this pattern are preface with a plus sign to indicate the positive nature of the relationship. A negative correlation or relationship, on the other hand, is said to exist when an increase to one variable is accompanied by decrease in the other variable or when a decrease in one variable is accompanied by an increase in the other variable.