English Relative Clause:

Problems for Indonesian Learners and Translators

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ABSTRACT

Indonesian and English relative clauses (RCs) are complex in terms of types, functions, relativisation process and choice of relativisers. This article aims to investigate the types and functions of English RC, how the relativisation process can cause problems for Indonesian ESL learners, and their implication for Grammar teaching and translation.

English RC is differentiated in terms of its relation to the NP, whether the RC specifies the NP (restrictive) or adds information about the NP it modifies (non-restrictive). Both NP_{mat} and NP_{rel} can function as subject, direct object, indirect object, object of preposition, and predicate noun. The relativisation strategy in English uses case-marked relative pronouns such as who, which, that, whom, and whose.

Indonesian adjectives modifying the NP will function like post modifiers in English and is usually introduced by the word "yang" followed either by adjective, prepositional phrase, noun phrase or verb phrase. In Indonesian, the active verb marked by MEN-nasal prefix must be changed into a verb marked as passive by the DI- prefix after the relative particle "yang".

As equivalence occurs at word, sentence and other levels, it is recommended that translators have comprehensive knowledge on Indonesian and English RC and adopt certain strategies in translating RCs.

1. INTRODUCTION

For Indonesian learners, English relative clauses can create difficulties both in understanding and producing them. These difficulties may be caused by the many different relative pronouns or from the fact that relative clauses can function in different grammatical relations. Others may be caused by the different process of relativisation. The fact that some of the same pronouns are used for question pronouns and relative pronouns seems to complicate the problems.

What causes these difficulties? In respect to translation, what do these differences between Indonesian and English relative clauses contribute to the problems? This article aims to investigate the types and functions of English relative clause, how question pronouns and relative pronouns are connected, how the relativisation process can cause problems for Indonesian ESL learners, and what implication these have for teaching relative clauses and translating them.

This article will be divided into three (3) main headings, namely: 1) English Relative Clauses, 2) Indonesian Relative Clauses, 3) Problems and their Implication for Grammar Teaching and Translation. Finally, conclusions and recommendations will be given to sum up the article.

2. DISCUSSIONS

Of all the dependent clauses, relative clause is sometimes called adjective clause because the subordinate clause behaves like an adjective in which it modifies noun phrases (NP). Besides having pre-modifiers (i.e. adjectives that precede the NP), English also has post-modifiers such as prepositional phrases and relative clauses. Relative clause is so named because the clause following the NP is related to its antecedent (i.e. the NP it modifies). For example:

(1) Susan Mayer is a ***desperate*** <u>housewife</u>.
(2) Susan Mayer is a <u>housewife</u> ***who is desperate***.

In (1), the adjective **desperate** is the pre-modifier modifying the NP <u>housewife</u>, while in (2) a relative clause **who is desperate** comes after the NP <u>housewife</u> as its antecedent.

Givón defines relative clauses as 'subordinate clauses that are embedded, as noun modifiers, inside a noun phrase (1993: 107). More specifically, Andrews defines relative clause as 'a subordinate clause which delimits the reference of an NP by specifying the role of the referent of that NP in the situation described by the RC' (Andrews, 2004:1).

The different grammatical relations of the NP in the matrix clause and that of the NP in the RC may cause difficulties for Indonesian students to learn. The following subsections will discuss the issues deeper.

2.1.   English Relative Clauses

English RC is differentiated in terms of its relation to the NP, whether the RC specifies the NP (restrictive) or adds information about the NP it modifies (non-restrictive), as exemplified in the following sentences.

(3) The little boy **who likes to sing loudly at church** is my son.

(4) Mr. Purba, **who taught in Sanata Dharma University from 1970-2007**, is bedridden now.

The bold-typed RCs in examples (3) and (4) modify the NPs *the little boy* (3) and *Mr. Purba* (4) respectively. Example (3) is called restrictive RC, while (4) is non-restrictive RC. It is called restrictive because the RC specifies or restricts the NP (The little boy) to avoid further question "Which one?". The RC in example (4) "who taught in Sanata Dharma University from 1970-2007" does not specify the NP (Mr. Purba). The RC merely serves as additional information.

The relativisation strategy in English involves the use of case-marked relative pronouns such as *who, which, that, whom, and whose* following the NP. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983: 370-1) outline the English relative pronouns and their 'salient grammatical and discourse features' as follows:

Who + subject case + human	The man *who* saved the kidnapped girl lived in a shabby hut.
Whom + object case + human	I met the cheerleaders *whom* my sister adores.
Which - human	The book *which* you bought yesterday contains obscenity.
That ± human	I broke the vase *that* my grandmother inherited to us.
Whose ± human + possessive determiner	My neighbour *whose* son was arrested this morning cried all day.

In addition to those case-marked relative pronouns, Givon (1993:126) added that *where, when, why,* and *how* are used to replace adverbs of place, time, reason and manner respectively. These pronouns are historically derived from case-marked interrogative pronouns. For example:

(5) I know the place *where* the sky touches the ground.

(6) I don't know the reason *why* she left me without saying goodbye.

The relative pronoun to modify a place is usually ***where***, while the relative pronoun ***why*** usually modifies the NP showing reason. Originally, they are derived from these interrogative sentences *Where does the sky touch the ground?* And *Why did she leave me without saying goodbye?*

It can be seen that it is important to choose the right pronouns for the right noun phrases. The choice of relative pronouns 'depends upon the features of the NP it replaces and the discourse register in which it will be used' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 370). In other words, it is lexically selected by the NP, instead of randomly selected.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968:211) state that relative clauses 'require that a NP in the embedded sentence be identical to the NP to the left of the RC'. They further explain that the key transformation in the generation of the surface structure of RCs is the RC transformation, by adding relative pronouns. *That* is widely used as an alternative of *who* and *which*. However, *that* cannot be used to replace the function of a possessive noun phrase or the

object of preposition that is pied-piped to the front of the NP. *That* and other relative pronouns which are not functioning as subjects can be omitted.

The major types of RC, i.e. restrictive relative clause and non-restrictive relative clause, will be discussed in details in the following subsections.

2.1.1. Restrictive Relative Clause (RRC)

The structure of RRC is made up of relative pronoun followed by subject and verb. When the subject of the matrix clause and the subject of the relative clause are identical, the subject of the relative clause is omitted. The NP in the matrix clause and the NP in the RC may have different grammatical relations. Andrews (2004:1) drew these differences by calling the NP in the matrix clause NP_{mat} and the NP in the RC NP_{rel}.

(7) The young woman *who* shoplifted in my shop was taken to the police station.

Example (7) shows that the NP of the matrix clause is *the young woman who shoplifted in my shop* and its grammatical relation is as a Subject. The NPrel is

When the subject or object of the matrix clause and the subject of the relative clause are not identical, the subject of the relative clause is retained. For example:

(8) I saw the man *who(m)* **my sister** talked to last night.

(9) The picture *which* **John** took last week is now being displayed in the gallery.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983:360) mention that "the basic structure relationship among sentences is different from that of subordination or conjunction. In RRC, the embedding process consists of a sentence embedded within an NP". For example:

(10) *The flowers which are displayed in the Floriade* consist of hyacinth,

(NP(S))

sunflowers, daisies, tulips and many more.

It can be said that the subject of the matrix clause *The flowers consist of hyacinth, sunflowers, daisies, tulips and many more* is the same as the subject of the embedded sentence. The NP in this RC functions as the subject of the sentence. The NP$_{mat}$ *The flowers* has the same grammatical relation as the NP$_{rel}$, i.e. the subject. The embedded sentence 'which are displayed in the Floriade' is closely related to the NP$_{mat}$ 'the flowers'. In fact, the clause restricts the NP. For the hearers, it is clear that the speaker is not talking about general flowers, but the particular flowers in the Floriade.

Generally, NP in the RC behaves like nouns do in which it can function as a subject or object. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983:366) list the order of difficulty regarding the function of NP in RRC. They outline four basic types of RC, namely SS, OS, SO, and OO. The position of the relativised NP is maeked with a gap, indicated by the null symbol **[φ]**.

SS = **Subject** of the embedded sentence is identical to the **Subject** of the main clause. E.g.
*The woman **who** [φ]wears a pink dress is my sister.*

OS = **Subject** of the embedded sentence is identical to the **Object** of the main clause. E.g. *I hate people **who** [φ] swear.*

SO = **Object** of the embedded sentence is identical to the **Subject** of the main clause. E.g.
*The girl **who(m)** you love [φ]is my best friend.*

OO = **Object** of the embedded sentence is identical to the **Object** of the main clause. E.g. *I know the best restaurant **that** you recommended [φ].*

In addition, NP may function as an object of preposition. The preposition may be fronted/pied piped or stranded at the end of the clause. If it is fronted, the pronouns that are used obligatorily are *whom* or *which*. *That* should not be used in this construction. For example:

(11) The man ***to whom*** you were talking **[φ]** came to my house.
(12) The restaurant *which* you raved incessantly ***about*** **[φ]** serves a really
      delicious food.

Keenan and Comrie (1972; 1977) as quoted in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman posit the 'noun phrase accessibility hierarchy' which lists the most accessible type of NP that can be relativised. Subject NP is the most accessible type and object NP of comparison is the least accessible type. The **[ɸ]** shows the gap that is left by the relativised NP$_{rel}$. They are exemplified as follows:

Subject NP$_{rel}$	The Oprah Winfrey Show *that* **[ɸ]** was aired yesterday touched my heart.
Direct object NP$_{rel}$	The book *that* she wrote **[ɸ]** was quite amazing.
Indirect object NP$_{rel}$	The girl *who* he bought the flowers *for* **[ɸ]** yesterday does not show up. The girl *(for) whom* he bought the flowers **[ɸ]**yesterday does not show up.
Oblique object NP$_{rel}$	The child from *whom* you took the candy **[ɸ]** is crying* The child *who* you took the candy from **[ɸ]** is crying* ** taken from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman*
Genitive NP$_{rel}$	The girl *whose* **[ɸ]** mother died last week was still devastated.
Object NP$_{rel}$ of comparison	?The only person that I was shorter than was fritz.* *The only person than whom I was shorter was Fritz.* ** taken from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman*

In summary, NP$_{mat}$ can function as subject, direct object, indirect object, object of preposition, and predicate noun. Simultaneously, the identical NP$_{rel}$ may also function as subject, direct object, indirect object, object of preposition, and predicate noun in the embedded sentence. The interaction between these grammatical relations will add to the complexities of the English relative clauses. Without counting the RC derived from replacement of the possessive determiner by *whose*, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983:370) list 4 types of OS, 12 types OO, 3 types of SO, and 1 type of SS.

2.1.2. Non-Restrictive Relative Clause (NRCC)

The other type of RCC is the non-restrictive relative clause (NRCC), which occurs less frequently in sentences and is sometimes reduced. In relation to the NP, NRCC is an RC that 'merely supplies additional information to the head noun' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983: 376). This means that the additional information contained in the RC may be deleted without changing the meaning of the entire main clause, assuming that the hearer is

familiar with the head noun being modified. This is shown by the use of proper nouns in NRCC. For example:

(13) Mike Mothae, **_who_** _lives in Block E3_, is the senior resident in charge of my block.

This sentence is derived from two underlying sentences. *Mike Mothae lives in Block E3* and *Mike Mothae is the senior resident in charge of my block*. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983:378) identify that 'commas in writing and special pauses and intonation in speech set off the RC off from the main clause'. The pauses are usually accompanied by a drop in pitch and the punctuation is shown by two commas before and after the NRRC. Listeners will understand from the falling intonation that additional information is being supplied to the head noun.

Example (13) is also called appositive clause. The other type of NRRC has a relative pronoun (always *which*) that refers to an entire clause instead of just a noun phrase. For example:

(14) John forgot to pick me up last night, *which* infuriated me.

This sentence can be paraphrased as *John forgot to pick me up last night. It infuriated me*. Or *That John forgot to pick me up last night infuriated me*. In RCC, *that* is freely used as a relative pronoun as well as *who, whom* and *which*. In NRCC, only *who, whom* and *which* are used obligatorily as relative pronouns following a comma.(Widyamartaya ,1989:117).

2.1.3. Reduction of Relative Clauses

Relative clauses can be reduced by deleting the relative pronoun which replaces an object NP_{rel} in the embedded sentence. For example:

(15) The money *which* you gave me **[ɸ]**was more than enough.

could be reduced to

(16) The money you gave me **[ɸ]** was more than enough.

However, relative pronouns that replace the subject of the embedded clause could not be deleted. The grammatical relation of the NP_{mat} is subject and the grammatical relation of the NP_{rel} is Object. This condition allows the deletion of relative pronoun *which*. However, the reduction of the (17) into (18) is impossible.

(17) The man *who***[ɸ]** married my best friend is an American.

(18)*The man **[ɸ]**married my best friend is an American.

Who cannot be deleted because the grammatical relations of the NP_{mat} and NP_{rel} are the same, i.e. subject. Thus, the relative pronoun *who* is obligatorily attached to relate the RC and its antecedent. According to Celce-Murcia et.al. (1983: 378), there are conditions that allow the relative pronouns + BE deletion transformation with BE functioning as a copula or auxiliary such as the prepositional phrases, the appositives, progressive or passive participial phrases, and adjectives. The examples are:

(19) a. The thief stole his painting *which was* **in the gallery**. (PP)

   b. The thief stole his painting in the gallery

(20) a. Jakarta, *which is* the capital of Indonesia, is polluted and over-populated. (Appositive)

   b. Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia, is polluted and over-populated.

(21) a. The books *which were* **written** by John Dickson are captivating and enlightening. (Passive participial phrase)

   b. The books **written** by John Dickson are captivating and enlightening.

(22) a. The affair which was **scandalous** ruined the president's political career.

   (adjectival VP shift – Jacobs, et al)

   b. The **scandalous** affair ruined the president's political career.

Non-native speakers must be aware of the deletion of these relative pronouns in order to be able to understand the relativisation process and to write effective English sentences.

2.1.4. Relative Pronouns and Question Pronouns

Case-marked pronouns *who, which, that, whom, whose, when, where, why, and how* are used both in relative clauses and interrogative sentences. Givon (1993:126) added that pronouns are historically derived from case-marked interrogative pronouns. Both relative pronouns and question pronouns replace the missing nouns. For example, *who* replaces the missing subject, *whom* replaces the missing object. While *where, why, when, how* suggest the case-role of the missing noun – location, reason, time and manner respectively (Givon, 1993:126).

However, the difference between relative pronouns and the question pronouns is that relative pronouns belong to the declarative clause type and question pronouns are used in interrogative clauses. The word ordering is also different. In declarative sentence, the word order is [pronoun + (Subject) + Verb] as in *The painting **that you sold** to the millionaire is very beautiful*. In interrogative sentence, the word order is [pronoun + Verb + Subject] and a question mark must be added at the end of the sentence as in ***What did you sell** to the millionaire?* The subject and verb is inverted and the verb appears in the form of its auxiliary.

In relation to illocutionary force, a declarative clause *I know **who** killed John Lennon* may have interrogative ***Who** killed John Lennon* embedded within the declarative clause, which in normal utterance would sound like a statement, instead of a question. Some indirect questions may be worded in a declarative clause as in *I wonder **what she was doing** on the beach in the middle of the night*. The clause type may look declarative, but the real illocutionary force is to question.

2.2. Problems for Indonesian ESL Learners

Due to the fact that the structures of English RC and Indonesian RC are different, some problems may rise. Indonesian RC will be previewed in the following subsections and the problems will be discussed.

2.2.1. Relative particle *yang* in Indonesian

The defining relative clause in Indonesian is introduced by relativiser *yang* which is obligatory and cannot be deleted (Sneddon, 1996:286). The Indonesian Great Dictionary defines *yang* as a particle 'which states that the word or sentence preceding it is specified or distinguished' and that *yang* shows 'that the following sentence / clause specifies the NP preceding it'. For example:

(23) orang **yang** baik hati

    man REL kind heart

    A kind-hearted man

In (23) the NP is '*orang*' and specified by an adjective '*baik hati*'. Indonesian does not have adjective pre-modifiers. Any adjectives modifying the NP will function like post modifiers in English and is usually introduced by the word *yang* followed either by adjective, prepositional phrase, noun phrase or verb phrase. In the following example, the NP is '*pengemis*' and specified by the predicate '*sedang berteduh di bawah pohon asam*'.

(24) Dijumpainya   seorang   pengemis **yang** *sedang* berteduh

  DI-meet 3sgPOSSD-nya one-person beggar   REL   BE ING BER-cover

   di   bawah pohon asam   itu.

  LOC   under   tree   tamarind that

He found a beggar who is sitting under the tamarind tree.

Hadidjaja (1965:71-72) and Alisjahbana (1950:91-92) as cited in Purwo (1984:141) stated that '*yang* is a relative pronoun that replaces the NP mentioned previously and connects the clauses preceding and following the pronoun *yang*'. So, *yang* relates the matrix clause and RC and is usually translated into *that, who, whom, which*.

As a pronoun, *yang* is used to distinguish one NP from the other, making the NP definite. For example:

(25) buku biru (indefinite)   ----   buku **yang** biru (definite)

   book blue → a blue book   ----   book REL blue → the blue book

(26) **Yang** sudah   mengerjakan   PR   harap   tunjuk   jari.

     REL   PERF   MEN-do-KAN homework please   show   finger.

     Those who have finished doing the homework please raise your

     hand.

However, in common Indonesian noun phrases, the use of *yang* does not always mark the definiteness. It is generally added between the NP and the adjective that specifies it. For example:

(27) Rencana **yang** bagus   ---   Gadis **yang** cantik

     plan   REL good.   Girl   REL   beautiful

     That's a good plan!   *A beautiful girl*

So, the post modifier ***yang bagus*** in Indonesian is equivalent to the adjective pre-modifier ***good*** in English.

2.2.2.   Passivisation and Gap Strategy in Object NP

Keenan and Comrie (1977) as cited in Comrie (1989:157) found that 'a number of Austronesian languages (and, even more specifically, West Indonesian languages) which, typically, allow relativisation of subjects, do not allow relativisation of direct objects, but then do allow relativisation of non-direct objects and/or genitives'. Likewise, Chaer (1988:380) and Purwo (1984:143) state that relative pronouns can only replace the subject position. For example:

(28) Anak **yang [ɸ]** sedang menyanyi dengan merdu   itu adalah tetanggaku.

    Child REL MEN-sing with   melodious   that is   neighbour-KU

    The child who is singing melodiously is my neighbour.

This construction was based on two independent clauses combined with a relative clause embedded in the sentence.

(29) **Anak itu** tetanggaku.

    Child that neighbour-KU

    The child is my neighbour.

(30) **Anak itu** sedang menyanyi dengan merdu.

Child that BE-ING MEN-sing with melodious.

The child is singing melodiously.

      The relative particle *yang* replaces the NP **anak itu**. Since the subject of the matrix clause is identical to the subject of the relative clause, i.e. **anak itu**, the two clauses can be joined using relativiser *yang*. However, the same relativisation process cannot be applied when the NP of the first and second clause does not have the same grammatical functions.

(31) **Anak laki-laki kecil** itu   menangis.

    Child   male   little   that MEN-cry.

    The little boy is crying.

(32) Ali   memukul **anak laki-laki kecil** itu.

    Ali MEN-hit   child   male   little that.

    Ali hit the little boy.

 (33) *Anak laki-laki kecil *yang* Ali memukul [ɸ] itu menangis.

     Child   male   little REL   Ali MEN-hit   that MEN-cry.

    *(a) The little boy **who(m) Ali hit** is crying.*

    *(b) The little boy **who was hit by Ali** is crying.*

    It is clear that in English, it is perfectly fine to have both passive and active verbs in the RC and to use relativiser *who* or more precisely *whom* to replace the NP in Object position. Hassal (2005: 1) called the construction **Anak laki-laki kecil **yang** Ali **mem**ukul* [ɸ] *itu menangis* as MEN-gapped Object RC and this construction is rejected and criticised by grammarians as a result of English interference in Indonesian grammar. In Indonesian, the active verb marked by MEN-nasal prefix must be changed into a verb marked as passive by the DI- prefix after the relative particle *yang*. Hassal (2005: 3) stated that 'Indonesians routinely use passive RCs to ensure that a gapped NP occupies the Subject Position'. Thus, sentence (33) can be corrected:

(34) Anak laki-laki kecil *yang* [ɸ] **DI**-pukul (oleh) Ali   itu menangis.

    Child   male   little REL   **DI**-hit   by Ali   that MEN-cry.

    The little boy who(m) Ali hit is crying.

In short, if the grammatical relation of the NP is the Subject, the verb must be active. On the other hand, if the NP stands as object, the verb must be passive (Sneddon, 1996:286).

2.2.3. Topic-Comment Relative Clause

Sneddon (1996:288) states that 'both possessor topic-comment clauses and object topic-comment clauses can be embedded in noun phrases. The topic of the topic-comment clause is deleted; the noun of the embedding phrase then stands as topic (not subject) to the relative clause. The *–nya* in the RC identifies the head of the NP'. The possessor bound pronoun *–nya* (3sgPOSSD: its, her, his) is attached to the NP and is identical to 'whose+NP' construction in English. Thus, the subject of the RC is the thing possessed by the head noun.

(35) a. Temanku   itu   nama**nya** Cheni.

   Friend-KU that name-NYA Cheni

   My friend's name is Cheni or That's my neighbour whose name is Cheni.

b. Cheni suka berenang di   kolam   renang   dekat   rumahku.

   Cheni like   BER-swim LOC   pool   swimming near house-KU.

   Cheni likes swimming in the Agro's swimming pool.

If combined, these two sentences will look like this.

(36) Temanku **yang** nama**nya** Cheni suka   berenang di kolam renang dekat rumahku.

   Friend-KU **REL** name-NYA Cheni like   BER-swim LOC pool swimming near house-KU.

   *My friend **whose** name is Cheni likes swimming in the swimming pool near*

   my house.

In the object topic-comment RC, 'the head of the embedding phrase is identical to the object of the RC and is marked by *–nya* occurring in the object position within the clause' (Sneddon, 1996:289). In the case where the co-referent NP is deleted without any compensatory trace, the gap strategy is used routinely in direct-object relativisation (Givon, 1993:128). In (37) the head of the embedded phrase *masalah* 'problem' is also the object of the verb *memecahkan* 'solve'. The gap is filled with *–nya*.

(37) Dia menciptakan masalah **yang** dia sendiri tidak bisa menyelesaikan**nya**.

3sg MEN-create problem REL 3sg self   not can MEN-solve-KAN- NYA

He created a problem **which** he cannot solve [ɸ] himself.

In conclusion, both Indonesian and English RCs have their own complexities and there is no clear-cut correspondence between Indonesian and English relativisers.

2.3.   Implication on Translation

The fact that there is no one-on-one equivalence between the English and Indonesian words imply that it takes special care in translating RCs into and out of English. If the language is not seen as an independent entity separated from other languages, linguistic interference will happen. When translating any source texts, the target texts must conform to the TL norms, not the SL norms.

Hassal (2005:5) identified the case of Men-gapped Object occurs because translators are influenced by English grammar when translating from an English text. The translator forces the English grammar norms into Indonesian grammar. As a result, the Indonesian sentence sounds unnatural.

In translating from Indonesian into English, choosing the right relative pronouns is crucial. To translate *yang*, a translator must choose between many English relative pronouns in order to produce natural and grammatical English sentences containing RC. He must distinguish whether the English relative pronoun translated from *yang* is used as pre-modifier or post-modifier.

Widyamartaya (1989:105) recommends some strategies in translating RC pronouns into Indonesian, such as the construction *preposition + wh-words*; i.e. *in which, from whom, in front of which*, etc. He strongly suggests that translators avoid word-per-word translation, i.e. translating in the same *preposition + wh-word* construction in Indonesian. Instead, he recommends changing the relative pronoun with the NP it modifies.

(38) The new world ***in which*** we all work together to build it up..

Dunia baru ***tempat*** kita bekerja bersama-sama untuk membangunnya....

Instead of using unnatural ***yang mana*** *(yang + wh-),* the translator uses NP *tempat* '**place**', thus making the sentence sound more natural.

3. CONCLUSIONS

Indonesian and English relative clauses are complex in terms of types, functions, relativisation process and choice of relativisers. These complexities and differences may cause problems for ESL learners and translators. As equivalence occurs at word, clause, sentence and other levels, it is recommended that a translator have comprehensive knowledge on RC in both Indonesian and English and adopt certain strategies in translating RCs.

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GLOSSARY AND ABBREVIATION

BER- : One of the Indonesian prefixes to form an active verb. It is usually added to the base verb. For example BER+canda =bercanda (joke).

Di-   : a prefix attached to a base to form passive verb. For example: Di+ambil = diambil (taken)

-ku   : a bound pronoun which does not occur as a free word but must be attached to another word, such as –**ku** 'my' in **rumahku** 'my house'.

LOC   : Location, such as **di** 'at', **ke** 'to', **dalam** 'in', **bawah** 'under', etc.

MeN- : A nasal prefix to form an active verb. The capital N represents the sound which changes depending on the first sound of the base. N can appear as one of the nasals **m, n, ny, ng** or as zero.

-nya   : a bound possessive pronoun which means possessed by the third person singular nouns (his, her, its). –**nya** which does not occur as a free word but must be attached to another word, such as –**nya** 'her/his/its' in **bukunya** 'her/his /its book'. –**nya** also occurs as a ligature before the possessive nouns, such as **anaknya paman saya** 'my uncle's son'; or in **yang anaknya** 'whose son'.

Itu   : determiner 'that/the' to mark the definiteness in Indonesian or just a demonstrative *that*.

PE-AN : a circumfix or affix which has two parts, one occurring before the base and the other occurring after the base, such as **per-...-an, pe-..-an**, to form nouns.

Sedang: an aspectualiser indicating that an action is in progress. For example: Dia **sedang** makan → She **is eating**.

SL   : Source Language

Telah/sudah: an aspectualiser indicating perfect aspect (PERF). **Telah** is almost entirely confined to writing and very formal speech, while **sudah** occurs in all registers from informal speech to the most formal styles. For example: Saya **sudah** makan → I **have** eat**en**.

TL   : Target Language

Taken from *Indonesian Reference Grammar* by Sneddon, James Neil. (996) Sydney: Allen and Unwin

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