

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter, this study determines the theory dealing with the analysis which is defined by some theorists to be the base form of identifying data afterward.

#### **2.1 On Translation**

##### **2.1.1 Definition**

Translation as the part of conflict in the everyday life participates in shaping the way in which conflict unfolds in a number of ways. Internationally, translation is the tool to solve the crucial problem between nations; for instance to communicate the legal document of agreement between two nations in different language (Baker, 2006). Simply, translation is an incredibly broad notion which can be understood in many different ways. It is supported by several scholars as Catford (1965) defines translation as the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language (p. 20) and Jakobson (1959) finds out that translation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other languages (p. 233).

Similarly, Newmark has his own definition of translation:

Supplying the meaning from a language to another language based on an intended text. It might be either simple or complicated due to the different language the translator tries to understand. Related to this definition, Newmark unfolds some tensions in translations such as: sound and sense, emphasis (word order) and naturalness (grammar), the figurative and the literal, neatness and comprehensiveness, concision and accuracy (1988:5).

In addition, this study compiles the meaning of translation based on the explanation above as an crucial activity in a everyday life to transfer a meaning from one language to another language equally.

### **2.1.2 Levels of translation**

In terms of the tensions Newmark (1988, p. 19) described, he adds that the translating procedure is operationally begun with determining the approach of the studies. As the result, in translation there are four levels the translator should bear in mind to get the goal of a translation product well.

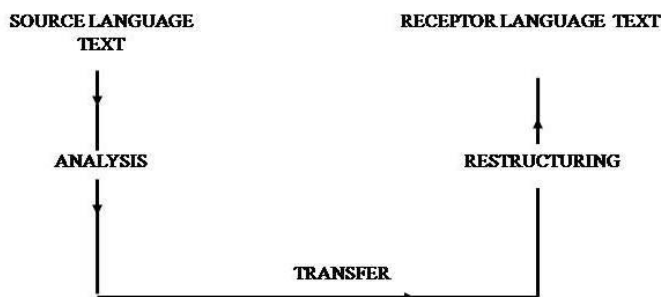
Firstly is textual level. It relates between the SL grammar (clauses, groups) and lexical units which the text becomes the base level. It is about the literal translation from SL to TL to have a corrective paraphrase by sometimes sorting the synonyms. Secondly is referential level. In this level, translation is based on the level of objects and events, real or imaginary which progressively have to be visualized and built up. It is an essential part to get the comprehension first and later the reproduction process.

Next level is cohesive level. It is generalized to link the first level to the second one by comprehending the structure and moods of the text. The structure is seen through the connective words (conjunctions, enumerations, reiterations, definite article, general words, referential synonyms, punctuation marks) linking the sentences usually proceeding from known information (theme) to new information (rheme); proposition, opposition, continuation, reiteration, opposition, and conclusion. The last level, naturalness level is a generalized level which concerns of reproduction only. Revision procedure may be concentrated or staggered according to the situation which constitutes at least half of the complete process. After all of the levels before have been completed in translating a text, naturalness comes to give the final touch for revision reason at once.

In addition, a translation product cannot be transferred offhand. The levels of translation, instead, are to facilitate the translator to begin with the essential base; the textual level as the part of translating word by word from ST to TT, while second level, referential level, completes the first level by referring to the situation in the text in terms of the event, the issue, the field, etc. Meanwhile, cohesive level, concerns of connecting the two beginning level. It considers the equivalence of structure, moods, and connectivity. Finally, the naturalness level is the part of furnishing all of the translation work by reviewing the whole composition to be acceptable to target readers.

### 2.1.3 Process of Translation

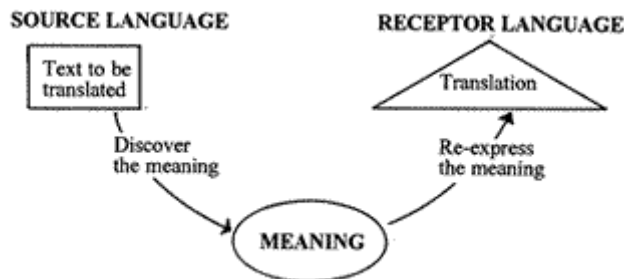
Translating source text to target text needs process to be clearer, more accurate and more natural. Nida and Taber (1982) have compiled the process of translation into three steps. First, analyze the message in source text by making questions. It should use the source language simply, clearly, and structurally. Secondly is transferring the analyzed message. The message in the source language is changed into target language by the translator's language skill himself. It all depends on how far the translator comprehends both source language and target language. The last process is to reproduce and review the clarification, accuracy, and naturalness in the target text whether the translated text is the acceptable one in all aspects or not.



*Figure 2.1 Process of translation by Nida*

In line with Larson (1984), he conducted the process of translation in discovering the message in the source language to be translated in the beginning. It is followed by finding the meaning in the message in terms of lexicon, grammatical

structure, communication situation, and cultural context. The meaning is translated to the closest meaning of the target language which at last will be revised to be worthy for publishing reason. This process can be drawn as below:



*Figure 2.2 Larson's process of translation*

As the explanation above about process of translation, it can be concluded that in translating a text, a translator should understand the meaning in source text first to be continued to the comprehension of transferring the text from source language to target language in terms of clarification, accuracy, and naturalness. Moreover, it is also important to consider the context of grammaticality, culture, lexicon and the situation of event to get the clarification, accuracy and naturalness. In the end of translating a text based on the process before, reproduction is a must to make sure the translation product has completed the qualification of being published.

#### **2.1.4 Principles of Translation**

In the end of processing a translation, evaluation is always needed to minimize the mistakes. According to Alan Duff (1989, pp. 10-11) the principles of translation can be a guidance to avoid the mistake. First principle is meaning. In translating a text, the transferred meaning should not be changed. It refers to the equivalent to be accurate. Likewise, form cannot be modified regarding to the author's principle in terms of idea and structure. Yet, sometimes target language has different form of structure and word order. In this case, the form should be altered instead.

Register principle, on the other hand, is associated with degree of formality which a translator should be able to distinguish the differences of formality between source language and target language. The translator has to concern of the context in order to equalize the diversity. Furthermore, source language influence may cause confusion for a translator since the choice of words does not seem natural. Occasionally, the source language is much more dominant that may cause the difficulties in translating naturally. However, the difficulties can be denied by comprehending the text by the context instead of word by word. Finally, to acquire the final comprehension the translator should also frame the source text intention.

Next is style and clarity. Actually, a translator cannot alter the style of the author in source text but for clarity reason, it may be done. Especially when the

source text contains many distractions to get target readers understanding such as: repetition or a wordy explanation. The last but not least, idiom is the principle that had to be concerned by a translator because generally, idiom cannot be translated as that easy. Different culture may be the reason of this difficulty. To avoid the mistake, a translator should not translate the original word in the literally meaning, the idiom can stay with the original word in the source language with the inverted commas flanked or giving the literal explanation in the bracket with the idiom in source language remains. A translator may also consider the closest meaning based on the target language has or at least try to write a non-idiomatic or plain prose translation. The important thing is the idiom cannot be fitted in the target language if it is not.

To be concluded, the principle in the translation can be the boundaries for a translator to separate the dos and don'ts in translating. The meaning and form principles are the basic in terms of the essential of translating. A translator, first, should translate the meaning and form correctly in order. Meanwhile, register principle is about to be aware of the context –the degree of formality– because it may influence the meaning. On the other hand, the influence of language principle is considered as the way to make the translation naturally translated in terms of getting the meaning by memorizing the main idea and rewriting it. For style and clarity, it offers the translator to have a right in changing the original style just because of clarity reason but without reducing the meaning in context. Then, the translator should pay more attention in idiom for the mistaken untranslatable expressions

reason. Thus, the translator is suggested not to stay in the line with the not working idiom in target language. The idiom expressions can stay with the source language but a notice should be still applied as giving the inverted commas, additional information in the brackets, using the closest equivalent, or changing it into the non-idiomatic expressions.

## **2.2 Universal Translation**

As the meaning of translation described before that is related to the international term, or it can be the universal one, recent research found that universal translation is one of linguistic features which typically occurring in translated texts rather than original ones. It is thought to be independent from the influence of specific language pairs involved in the process of translation (Baker, 1993). A number of hypotheses or assumptions about these features have been made and have been resulted certain kinds of features as: explicitation, disambiguation, simplification, conventionalization or normalization, and reduction or removal repetition (p. 243).

For gaining insight into universal features one has to depend on an analysis of a corpus of translations of the same texts or similar texts, a sub corpus consisting of comparable untranslatable texts of the TL, and translations belonging to different genres and involving different SLs but the same TL. Baker (1996a) emphasizes that the importance of elaborating corpus design criteria and hypothesis are specified to the needs of descriptive research in translation studies. Furthermore, she explains the



production of translation, such as literature, related to universal of translation has two conditions to be investigated. The first one is about the explicitness of criteria, selection procedures, acquisition and annotation of the texts to be included in the corpus. The other one is about the linguistic features considered the concrete manifestations of the “universals” of translation; simplification and explicitation in terms of rendering the global and abstract constructs operational and verifiable.

Specifically, in terms of the applied conditions in a literature translation product (the linguistic features) simplification includes one of the reasons that should be investigated in a literature translation product due to simplification is one of the features of universal translation. In other words, it is one of tools for translation products become verifiable globally.

### **2.2.1 Simplification**

Simplification, as Baker (1996a) exclaimed, is a tendency to simplify the language used in translation to ease the understanding of a translated text. Target text may have the lower information load than the source text because of the ambiguous information in original text that has been disambiguated in translation process (Toury, 1995, p. 270). Then, the deletion or omission must be occurred on target text. It does so because the meaning conveyed by such a word or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text to justify distracting the reader with lengthy explanations. Omitting words, phrases, sentences or sections of the original text is the most direct way of simplifying a translation (Baker, 1992).

Laviosa-Braithwaite as the researcher of simplification –a feature of universal translation- argued that the proof to support simplification is still lack of information. Simplification cannot be easily in a research because the studies have been carried out for different purposes, have asked different types of questions and have made use of different sets of data (Laviosa-Braithwaite 1996b, p.534). The object of analysis consisted mainly of shifts that occurred during the translation process at sentence level and the impact of simplification strategies over entire texts has also not been directly assessed. Yet, in early research, Laviosa-Braithwaite has found out the types of simplification: lexical, syntactic, and stylistic (1997, p.533).

First of all, lexical simplification which involves in lexicon matters. Lexical simplification is the process and or result of making do with fewer words. It operates according to six microtextual principles to deal with various types of non-equivalence –typically at the word level. Those microtextual principles include: the use of superordinate terms when equivalent hyponyms are lacking in the target language; an approximation of the concept expressed in the original text; use of “common” or “familiar” synonyms; transfer of all the functions of source language word to its target language equivalent; use of circumlocutions instead of conceptually matching high-level words or expressions –especially with theological, culture-specific or technical terms; and the use of paraphrase where there are cultural gaps between source language and target language.

The other simplification is syntactic. It is applied in simplifying the non-finite clause with finite ones and in suppressing suspended periods. Sometimes, the

pronouns would be replaced because it is potentially ambiguous. To complete those simplification features before, stylistic simplification is the completion for disambiguation reason. Stylistic simplification is a process of breaking up long sentences and sequences, replacing elaborate phraseology with shorter collocation, reducing or omitting repetition and redundant information, and shortening overlong circumlocution and leaving out modifying phrases or words. That process, further, becomes the forms to indicate the translator's style in transferring the meaning from source text.

In breaking up long sentence and sequence form the translator breaks long sequences or sentences from the origin that considered as the distraction for the readers because of the length of those sentences and or sequences. For example:

ST: Saya memiliki dua ekor kucing, saya beri nama Ciki dan Caka.

TT: I have two cats. Their names are Ciki and Caka

In source text there is just one sentence but in target text, the translator breaks the sentence into two sentences because of the different term of order in English as the target language.

Otherwise, replacing elaborate phraseology with shorter collocations means the translator changes the particular way in which words and phrases are arranged to the shorter words group. For example:

ST: Ceritanya terdengar seperti dibuat-buat.

TT: His story doesn't make sense.

*Terdengar seperti dibuat-buat* can be unnatural if it is translated word by word. If it is translated by the context, the elaborate phraseology *terdengar seperti dibuat-buat* can be replaced by doesn't make sense as the shorter collocation. Besides, for the target language, English, *make sense* is suitable phrase for the translation.

In reducing or omitting repetitions and redundant information there is a deletion or reduction of information from source text to target text to avoid repetition or unnecessary additional material. In other words, the translator decided not to translate the source text into target language because the information is not necessary enough for target readers. The last form, shortening overlong circumlocutions and leaving out modifying phrases or words simplifies a long indirect way of using more words than the necessity. It sometimes indicates to leave out modifying phrases or words to be a shorter circumlocution. For instance:

ST: Rina membeli buku. Selain itu, ia juga membeli alat tulis seperti:  
pulpen, penghapus, dan penggaris.

TT: Rina bought a book, a pen, an eraser, and a ruler.

In this form, the translator unites two sentences in source text to be one only because the translator considers the sequences in source text can be shorten in English form like that way.

Baker (1996a:182) reported, sometimes the punctuation should be changed for the reader to have the easier comprehension. It was proved by Malmkjaer in Baker (1996a) she found out the simplification of Danish punctuation by changing commas into semicolons or periods and semicolons into periods. Furthermore, Baker (2000) often assumed individual literary translation can use typical styles of their own such as a preference for specific lexical items, syntactic patterns, cohesive devices or even style of punctuation. It can strengthen the relation between finding the stylistic simplification in a literary work and the use of punctuation marks as one of the aspects to find it (p.182).

Additionally, Vanderauwera (1985, p.93) finds the motivation for stylistic simplification in the form is to obey to TL norms and textual conventionality. With some adjustments, together with modifications that render the translation more explicit and more readable have to overall effect of creating easier, more coherent fluent and familiar prose. She observes that these changes do not occur in those translations only which are explicitly ‘target-accomodating’. Normalized punctuation and sentence structures also make the texts more accessible.

In short, from the kinds of simplification; lexical simplification relates to the word level in a text while syntactic simplification regards to the sentence structure

orderly and stylistic simplification considers of the written style in translation differentiates the author's style. Specifically, this study concerns to stylistic simplification dealing with finding the mostly occurred form in the data. The form of stylistic simplification in the novel will be analyzed through the use of punctuation as one of its aspects influences the matter.

### **2.3 English Punctuation Marks**

Punctuation is a system having rules and procedures which is some ways for personal discretion, scope for individual preferences and private tastes which lay upon a text the marks of its writer's personality or style. It depends on the choice of material, vocabulary, and sentence structure. Punctuation is called an art as well as a matter of good manners where there is scope for personal interpretation, there are possibilities for skill and taste to show themselves (Mcdermott, 1990, pp.172-173). Simply, punctuation is the system of symbols that we use to separate sentences and parts of sentences, and to make their meaning clear.

Similarly, Newmark (1988) defines punctuation in term of translation as a essential aspect of discourse analysis, since it gives a semantic indication of the relationship between sentences and clauses, which may vary according to language. In translation products there would be some differences in using punctuation from ST to TT, for example; in French suspension points indicate a pause where in English they indicate the omission of passage.

English punctuation based on Punctuation Basics (2011), a booklet of Lincoln University, was conducted into twelve units. First is full stop or period. Full stops or periods are usually used at the end of affirmative sentence, indirect questions and after most at all abbreviations words except in symbols of measurements, acronyms and initials in capital letter, and personal titles. Sometimes, it is also used at the end of some commands or requests.

For examples:

- The cat is sitting on the couch. (affirmative sentence)
- Please show me your passport. (command or request)
- I need some paper, a pen, etc. (abbreviation)
- They need to know where the station is. (indirect question)

Secondly, comma is added to separate two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction, an introductory word, phrase or clause from the rest of the sentence, “extra” (non-essential) information from the rest of the sentence and separate a final phrase from the rest of the sentence. Besides, it can also separate items in a series and large numbers into groups of three figures by separating off the thousands and millions but not in dates.

For examples:

- I cannot join today, but I can make it tomorrow.
- However, the house still has to be sold.

- Jack, the foreigner, is not accepted in the village.
- The refugees need to be given aids, shelter especially.
- We bought many things today: bags, purses, shoes, and clothes.

Thirdly is a semicolon. Semicolon generally is to combine two main clauses in cases where sentences are grammatically independent but the meaning is closely connected. It should also be inserted to separate a series of items which themselves contain commas in order to make it totally clear where the divisions come.

For examples:

- On a regional basis, South America has the highest percentage of vegetated land in undisturbed areas; Europe has the lowest, almost all of it in the northern countries.
- The threat pesticides pose to human health is particularly potent in the developing world, where most serious exposure occurs; in fact, pesticide poisoning represents a major occupational hazard for farmers and their families.
- Scientists define biodiversity at several levels: genetic diversity, the variation between individuals and between populations within a species; species diversity, the different types of plants, animals, and other life forms within a region; and community or ecosystem diversity, the variety of habitats found within an area.



Next punctuation mark is colon. To separate two main clauses when the second clause is explained first, colon is necessary placed in it. Besides, it has to be placed to introduce lists and to sign the direct attention to a brief summary, a quotation or direct speech. In a letter it is placed in the open salutation.

For examples:

- Ranchers regard their use of the land as a public service: they keep the land in production and provide a valuable commodity for the American market.
- Of the forest cover in industrialized countries, over two thirds are in three countries: the former Soviet Union, Canada, and the United States.
- Dear John:

Besides, apostrophe in a sentence is set in order to show possession, some plural nouns ending in 's' and for considering the metalinguistic citation. Similarly, there is a mark as apostrophe namely quotation marks. The difference is quotation marks have two apostrophes and should place in the beginning and the end of words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. Quotation marks identify a direct quotation, highlighting unusual word and ironic words and distinguishing words in a sentence. Not only that, in indicating titles, the suitable sign is also quotation marks instead of apostrophe.

For examples:

- Mary’s house is that one (apostrophe)
- There are four A’s in my report (apostrophe)
- He says, “Don’t move!” (quotation marks)
- I don’t know what “*keris*” is. (quotation marks)

Moreover, parentheses and brackets seem to have the same order while actually the parenthesis is officially to enclose the additional of non-essential information to the meaning or the grammar of a sentence. It also adds a fact (name, number, abbreviation, and source) and encloses numbers or letters in a numbered list. On the other hand, brackets are used to show changes in wording a quote. It is written when the text needs an addition or a changing wording direct quote to make its meaning clearer or to make it fits smoothly into the sentence. By enclosing the changes in [ ], it shows that they are not the part of the original quote.

For examples:

- Central Processing Unit (CPU) is a part of computer (parentheses)
- Five countries (India, Indonesia, Brazil, Vietnam, and Thailand) are home to 85% of these plantations (parentheses)
- Inequities that are detrimental to [women] are detrimental as well to society at large and to the environment. (brackets)

In addition, dashes and hyphen are the marks with a same form of line but in different order. Dash (–) is to add an “extra” information to a clause to sign a sudden break in thought, an interruption, or an abrupt change of tone. Besides, it is needed in

the middle of sentence to emphasize a phrase or clause or to add a comment. Differently, hyphen (-), has three classification of the use. First, it is to write several types of number. Second, hyphen clarifies the time and size or quantity phrases. Then the last, it joins some compound words.

For examples:

- Five countries – India, Indonesia, Brazil, Vietnam, and Thailand – are home to 85% of these plantations. (dash)
- Most of the world’s biodiversity is located in the tropics – some 40 to 90 percent of the world’s species live in tropical forests. (dash)
- Those forty-two applicants come the hall. (hyphen)
- A well-liked author is hard to find. (hyphen)

Last but not least, there are other two English punctuation marks. The first one is a question mark which basically shows a direct question. The other one is an exclamation mark to sign an exclamation and symbolize an interjection.

For examples:

- Where is your house? (question mark)
- Watch out! (exclamation mark, an exclamation)
- I don’t care! (exclamation mark, an interjection)

## 2.4 Indonesian Punctuation Marks

Similarly to English punctuation, Indonesian has its own meaning for punctuation as the essential feature for writing. It is based on the intonation, grammatical relation, phrase, and inter-relation between the sentences. Indonesian punctuation depends on specific style of the writer because it is influenced by the language, location, and time (Sugiono, 1989, p.201)

Based on *Ejaan Yang Disempurnakan* (2002) conducted by Ministry of education and culture, Indonesian punctuation compiles into fifteen units. Firstly is period. As in English, Indonesian period is placed in the end of an affirmative sentence. It also separates time written and number indicating amount. Secondly is comma. In a sentence that has lists, commas should be put to separate the lists. The same order is applied in an independent clause to another independent clause in a sentence followed by *tetapi* or *melainkan*. Moreover, a comma separates a main clause that is begun by a subordinate clause. It also follows the conjunction that is placed in the beginning of a sentence and becomes an interjection in the beginning of a sentence. On the other hand, comma needs to separate a direct speech to another direct speech in one role but it is not used in a question or exclamation speech. For unlimited additional information, commas are also flanked. Lastly, comma avoids the misreading by placing it after the beginning of circumstance.

For example:

- *Kemerdekaan negara Indonesia berasal dari rakyat Indonesia.*
- *Pada pukul 12.00 tiket masuk menjadi Rp. 150.000.*
- *Saya membeli kertas, pena, dan tinta.*
- *Saya ingin datang, tetapi hari hujan.*
- *Didi bukan anak saya, melainkan anak Pak Kasim*
- *Kalau hari hujan, saya tida datang.*
- *Jadi, soalnya tidak semudah itu.*

Thirdly, semicolon and colon encounter a similar use in a clause or sentence. However, semicolon typically is set to separate similar or equivalent independent clauses and to be the substitution of conjunction to differ dependent clause from compound clause. Colon, oppositely, is set in a complete sentence followed by a list or description if it indicates the end of a statement. But, when the description is only a complement colon is not appropriate.

For example:

- *Malam akan larut; pekerjaan belum selesai juga.*
- *Ayah mengurus tanamannya di kebun itu; ibu sibuk bekerja di dapur; adik belajar di kamar; saya sendiri sedang mendengarkan radio.*
- *Hanya ada dua pilihan bagi para pejuang kemerdekaan itu: hidup atau mati.*

In Indonesian, a plural noun is written in reduplication as in *rumah-rumah*. It is a hyphen to link the reduplication. Moreover, the related words or expressions and the omitting in a part of sentence is clarified by a hyphen. A hyphen should be put after prefix *se-* and *ke-* as in *se-Indonesia*, and *ke-2*, before suffix *-an* as in *tahun 50-an*. If there is an abbreviation in the middle of affixation, dash is also necessary, for instance: *mem-PHK-an*.

On the other hand, a sentence employs a dash when giving a boundary of additional information that doesn't relate to the main clause and clarifying the occurrence of oppositional information. For instance: *Kemerdekaan bangsa itu—saya yakin akan tercapai—diperjuangkan oleh bangsa itu sendiri*.

Additionally, the other Indonesian punctuation mark, ellipsis, is applied in a discontinue clause. It also indicates the missing part in a clause. For instance: *Jika begitu.... Saya akan pergi* and *Sebab-sebab kemerosotan ... akan diteliti lebih lanjut*. Likewise English punctuation, Indonesian has the question mark also that is placed in the end of question to distinguish the intonation of questioning. Sometimes, question mark is in brackets to show the unproved statement (i.e. *Uangnya sebanyak 10 juta rupiah hilang (?)*). Similarly, exclamation mark belongs to Indonesian punctuation mark that signs a command. It is placed in the end of a command or an exclamation to show the intensity of seriousness, complex emotions, and unbelievable expression, *Merdeka!*, for example.

Add list, parentheses and brackets are the same punctuation that Indonesian has. Parentheses are used in the middle of a sentence to cover additional information either the extension of the previous information or the disintegrated topical information. In some cases, it brackets the deletable words or letters in a clause.

For example:

- *Bagian Perencanaan sudah selesai menyusun DIK (Daftar Isian Kegiatan) kantor itu.*
- *Keterangan itu (lihat Tabel 10) menunjukkan arus perkembangan baru dalam pasaran dalam negeri.*

Then, brackets have two conditions when it is employed in a sentence. Firstly, in the letter or words or phrases as the correction or additional information to validate the mistaken origin text, for instance, *Sang Sapurba men[d]engar bunyi gemerisik*. Secondly, in the clarifierr information that has been in parentheses as in *Persamaan kedua proses ini (perbedaannya dibicarakan di dalam Bab II [lihat halaman 35-38] perlu dibentangkan*.

Inverted commas and quotation marks sometimes seem similar. Actually, in direct speech and unpopular or special phrases quotation marks are placed to give different tendency in sentences or a text. For instance, “*Saya belum siap,*” kata Mira, “*tunggu sebentar!*” or *Ia bercelana panjang yang di kalangan remaja dikenal dengan nama “cutbrai”*. Whereas inverted commas indicate the occurrence of another quoted

phrase in a direct speech using quotation marks (e.g *Tanya Basri*, “*Kau dengar bunyi ‘kring-kring’ tadi?’*”).

The last two Indonesian punctuation marks are slash and apostrophe. In the substitution of *atau* or *tiap* slash is the suitable punctuation to be the sign. Meanwhile, apostrophe is used to indicate the reducing part of a word as in *Libur t’lah tiba*.

## **2.5 Theoretical Framework**

This study is conducted to investigate stylistic simplification form mostly found in *This Earth of Mankind* (the translated novel of *Bumi Manusia*). The investigation will be approached by the use of punctuation marks as one of the aspects indicating translator’s style. The theory that is going to be employed is stylistic simplification by Sara Laviosa-Braithwaite. She proposed four forms of stylistic simplification: breaking up long sequences and sentences, replacing elaborate phraseology with shorter collocations, reducing or omitting repetitions and redundant information, shortening overlong circumlocutions and leaving out modifying phrases and words.