CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURES, CONCEPTS, AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Review of Literatures

In the review of literatures, related studies were collected from theses and journal which have valuable information to support the analysis of these novels.

First literary review is from Hendra (2014), in his thesis entitled “The Translation of Implicit Meaning in English Indonesian Subtitle of the Movie the Twilight Saga Eclipse”, he concluded that most of implicit meanings found in the movie subtitle was the organizational implicit meaning. The strengthness of his thesis was he explained about subtitling strategies using Gotlieb theory (1992) quiet well. In contrast, considered on data and the explanation, Hendra didn’t manage the explanation well; some data and its explanation were separated from one page to another page and triggered confusion to reader. For instance, regarding referential implicit meaning, data (1) was explained in the same page with data (2), this could confuse the reader whether the explanation is for data (1) or data (2) The relevance of Hendra’s thesis with this study, both discussed implicit meanings and used Larson’s theory. However, the difference is Hendra explained subtitling strategy in movie as part of his problem, while this study discuss procedures of translation in the novel as the other part of problem to be analyzed.
Pramana (2012) in his thesis entitled “The Translation of Implicit Meaning in English Indonesian Subtitle of the Movie Sherlock Holmes” found three types of implicit meaning in subtitle of movie and procedures of translation used to translate the subtitle. The strengthness of his thesis was the related theories which were used to explain his finding. Meanwhile, the weaknesses was he analyzed procedures of translation in each data not in detail. In example, data (1) of referential meaning in page 30 explained about types of implicit meaning and in the next paragraph he just stated the data was translated using literal translation procedure without further explanation. The explanation about them became little bit misleading and trigger the confusion to the reader. In that case, explanation of procedures of translation is essentially important for this study. The relevance of Pramana’s thesis with this study that both using Larson theory about implicit meaning and Vinay and Darbelnet theory about procedures of translation. The difference concern on the object of study in which his thesis focused on subtitle of movie subtitle meanwhile this object of this study is novel translation.

Elam (2002) in his thesis entitled “Analisis Makna Implisit Pada Novel Harry Potter And The Prisoner Of Azkaban Karya J. K. Rowling Dan Terjemahannya” explained that the translation process of implicit meaning into the target language depend on the cultural context of target language. The strengthness of Elam’s thesis, he found that some implicit meanings in the novel translated into the target language stated explicitly by the author. He concluded that the translator intended to translate the implicit meaning based on the situation in target language. Most of implicit
meanings found were referential meaning and he explained the explanation systematically in order to be easily understood. The weaknesses of his thesis that he only concern on types of implicit meanings but did not develop problems related to types of implicit meanings in this case procedures to translate the novel into target language. The relevance of Elam’s thesis with this study is both discuss implicit meanings. However, the differences showed that his thesis was written in Indonesian and focused only to one problem in which the problem is types of implicit meaning, however this study was written in English with two problems of implicit meanings and procedures implemented in translation.

Al-Zughoul (2014), in his journal entitled “Implicit Referential Meaning with Reference to English Arabic Translation” stated that:”…. In translating process, translating implicit meaning can be a demanding task due to the fact that implicit meaning is not overtly seen. Therefore, implicit meanings need to be treated appropriately because it has implied information in which the reader may not recognize and to make it clear so a translator has an important role to find them. Hence, to be able to capture the implicit message properly, the translator must have the ability to recognize and translate the various kinds of meanings and ways of translating implicit meaning. …” It is realized that implicit information has an important role in a literary text, therefore an author should be aware of source and target language in order to be able to deliver the information appropriately. The strengthness of this journal was the ability of the writer in finding out the implicit meaning in the novel Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban and its Arabic
translation despite of the cultural system in Arab. The weaknesses was the further explanation about the result explained in different chapters. In the result of his findings, in-depth explanation was discussed in different chapter not in one chapter of result and discussion. The relevance of this journal with this study is both of them discuss about implicit meaning and use translation theory by Larson. The differences with this study relies only with referential implicit meaning without problem concern.

2.2. Concepts

Translation is an important part in communication. In order to know the meaning in both source and target languages, the translator must be aware of the meaning so that he/she is able to deliver message from the source language into target language. These are some concepts based on the viewpoint of the expert.

2.2.1 Concepts of Translation

Translation is basically a change of form. These forms are referred as the surface structure of a language. In translation the form of the source language is replaced by the form of the target language. The form from which the translation is made will be called the source language and the form which it is changed will be called the target language.

Larson (1998) stated that in translation, the understanding of lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language text is important. In order to be able to determine the meaning from source language into target language, the analysis of those aspects is really important. It
means the translator must be aware of the lexicon, grammar, situation of the culture in both source and target language in order to be able to translate the source language into target language and deliver the meaning appropriately.

According to Hornby (2010) in *Oxford Learner’s Dictionary*, translation means the process of changing something that is written or spoken into another language. The product of translation can be divided into draft translation, literal translation, free translation and a word-for-word translation.

Newmark (1988) defined translation as the process in which the authors of the text modifying the meaning of a text into another language based on their intention. It means a text from source language will be translated by the translator considering their intention.

Nida and Taber (1969) also give their opinion about translation. According to them, in the process of translating there will be an activities that reproduce the closest natural equivalent in the target language from the source language, first is in term of meaning and second in term of style.

In addition, Catford (1965) stated translation as the replacement of textual material from one language (SL) by equivalent textual material to another language (TL). It can be concluded that translation is the process of replacing a material from source language by using the equivalence in target language.
2.2.2. Concept of Meaning

According to Hornby (2010) meaning is the thing or idea that a sound, word, sign, etc represent. In other words, meaning is something that is described and implied in some ways like by sound, word, sign, etc.

Leech (1981: 7) stated that “Meaning is described in the Wordnet browser as (1) The message that is intended or expresses or signified; and (2) The idea that is intended. Meanwhile Hurford (1983) stated that meaning is something which is represented differently by the speaker using other words or sentences. Hurford divided meaning into two categories; speaker meaning and sentence meaning. Speaker meaning is a meaning expressed or represented by speaker in the form of utterance. Meanwhile, sentence meaning, is a meaning in sentences or words.

In addition, Keraf (1985) also stated the meaning as part of a language vocabulary which contains two aspects; aspect of meaning and aspect of form. Aspect of meaning caused reaction of hearer’s or reader’s mind which is triggered from aspect of form’s stimulation, while aspect of form is aspect which is perceived through hearing and seeing.

2.2.3. Concepts of Implicit Meaning

Larson (1998) stated that the implicit meaning as something which is referred by a word or sentence. Implicit meaning is the meaning which is to be communicated by the translation, because it is part of the meaning intended to be understood by the original writer. Some information or meaning is left implicit because of the structure
of the source language; some because it has been stated elsewhere in the text and some because the shared information in the communication situation.

In addition, Lyons (1995) also stated that in the process of ‘communication’ what is being communicates and information which is received by the receiver are assumed to be identical. In every text that might be translated, implicit information and also the unstated information could be found.

According to Hornby, implicit means (in sth) suggested without being directly expressed (Hornby, in Oxford Dictionary 2010:753) while meaning means (of sth) the thing or idea that a sound, word, sign, etc represent (Hornby, in Oxford Dictionary 2010: 920). It can be concluded that implicit meaning is the thing that represents something without directly being expressed.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

There are some theories used to analyze the data in this study. First problem of study about implicit meaning will be analyzed by using theory of implicit meaning in translation by Larson (1998: 41) and to support the explanation, theories from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) about types of reference and substitution words also used. In addition, for second problem of study about procedures of translation will be analyzed by using procedures of translation theory by Vinay and Darbelnet (in Venuti (ed.) 2000: 84-93) and types of translation proposed by Catford (1965: 20-26).
2.3.1. Implicit Meaning

In translation, meaning is important. The translation of source language into the target language must be treated appropriately in order to get the same perception in both languages. The meaning of the language whether it is spoken or written can be stated implicit. Larson (1998) stated that implicit meaning is the meaning which is to be communicated by the translation, because it is part of the meaning intended to be understood by the original writer. In his book, Larson also states meaning bases on implied information can be divided into three kinds of meaning (Larson, 1998: 44-47). They are:

2.3.1.1. Referential Meaning

Referential meaning is kind of meaning that refers to a certain thing, event, attribution, or relation which a person can perceive or imagine. In other words, a sentence has meaning because it refers to something that happened, or may happen, or is imagined as happening. For instance, word chair. Chair refers to the kind of furniture produced by a certain wood. People know the meaning of chair because they have seen a chair and learned to call it chair. Another example of referential meaning is; if someone asked, “How many book on the table?” the people asked may answer “five”. In this context, it means “There are five books on the table”. The reference of the books and on the table is left implicit in the answer.
In order to support the explanation of referential meaning by Larson and make the meaning ‘referential’ or ‘reference’ becomes clearer, there is a theory proposed by Halliday and Hasan about types of reference. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) define three types of references:

2.3.1.1.1. Types of Reference

a. Personal Reference

Personal reference consists of three types, they are personal pronouns (I, you, they, we, she, he.), possessive determiner (my, your, our, their, his, her..) and possessive pronoun (mine, your, ours, theirs, his, hers..). These three types of personal reference represent same aspect: person. Besides reference that represent person, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 45) also stated that there is a reference which represent an object, this reference is known as it. The examples of personal reference such as:

Ted just gave a call, he said “I got my wallet back!”

In the sentence above, word he and I refer to one person: Ted which is mentioned before. Another example for personal reference as follows:

You know what Lia? That famous chef makes a cake and it is really delicious. Be happy it is yours!

In the sentence above, the personal reference represents person and object. It in the first sentence refers to the cake that cooked by the famous chef, and word yours in the second sentence refers to Lia in the first sentence.
b. **Demonstrative Reference**

Basically, demonstrative reference is form of verbal pointing. The speaker will determine the reference by placed it on the scale of closeness. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 57) divided two types of demonstrative reference: *adverbial demonstrative* and *nominal demonstrative*. Adverbial demonstrative (*here, there, now, and then*) refers to the location of a process in space or time, while nominal demonstrative (*this, these, that, those, and the*) refers to the location of something, person or object that is participating in the process. Moreover, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 71), *the* commonly refers to object or something specific and has been known before. The examples of demonstrative reference as follows:

*Two robbers stole some rings yesterday. Those are very expensive, and that was a wicked action*

In the example above there are two responses for the sentence *two robbers stole some rings yesterday*, in the first response word *those* refers to the rings that have been stolen from the store and word *that* refers to the action did by the robbers.

*You’ll get the car soon. The money will come in few days!*

In the sentence about, article *the* refers to the money that has been assumed will be coming. From the sentence, it can be assumed that the hearer will get the money from his/her salary and able to buy the car.
c. **Comparative Reference**

In referring something, comparison sometimes used to compare certain thing. The comparison about certain thing can refer to something and it is called as comparative reference. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76-84), there are two types of comparative reference: general comparison and particular comparison.

General comparison (*same, similar, different..*) express likeness and unlikeness certain things. These certain things are basically the ‘same’ things which have something that make them similar or different. For examples:

*It is a similar car to the one that parked in the Uncle John garage*

*It is a different car to the one that parked in the Uncle John garage*

In the sentences above, the comparative reference are *similar* and *different*, and the things that referred by them are *the one (other car) that parked in Uncle John garage*.

Particular comparison is the comparison to compare certain things based on their quantity and quality. If the things are compared by their quantity the comparison will be expressed in *numerative element* (more, as, fewer, less, etc) while if the things are compared by their quality, the comparison will be expressed in *epithet element* (better, so-, as-, more-, etc). For examples:

*The tourists that visit the museum this spring are less than when it is summer.*

*The score that you got today is better than the one you got last week.*
In the examples above, in the first sentence the comparative reference is *less* and refer to *the tourist that visit the museum*, while in the second sentence, the comparative reference is *better* and it is refer to *the score that the hearer got*.

### 2.3.1.2. Organizational Meaning

Organizational meaning is kind of meaning which puts the referential information together into a coherent text. Cohesion, continuity, grouping, and pattern of prominence are some of its characterization. Larson (1998: 45-46) stated there are two ways to indicate organizational meaning: by using passive construction and substitution form in sentence. Look at the sentence below:

*The house was built in 2014.*

In the sentence above, the house is put as focus, however in this sentence the information of who built the house is left *implicit*. The information of who built the house is *referential meaning* but it is left implicit to signal *organizational meaning*; that house in focus. Less explicit forms are often used to signal organizational meaning.

Larson also stated that the substitution form can be added by using pronouns, pro-verb, or any other substitution word. To support the explanation about substitution word, there is a supporting theory from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 89) which defined substitution as the relation between linguistic item, such as word or phrases, in which the reference is the relation between meanings.
2.3.1.2.1. Types of Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 91) divided substitution into three types: nominal (one, ones; same), verbal (do, does, did), and clausal (so, not). Here are the examples for each of them:

a. Nominal Substitution

_This dress is too expensive for me. I must buy the cheaper one._

_I lost my favorite book yesterday. I must buy the same as before._

In these examples, the substitution are _one_ and _same_. _One_ replaces nominal _dress_ while _same_ replaces nominal _book_ in the previous sentence.

b. Verbal Substitution

_You think Anna cleans the classroom? I think everybody does._

_In this example, the substitution is _does_ and it is replaced verbal _cleans_ in the previous sentence. It means Anna does not clean the classroom by herself, but all friend in the class also clean the classroom._

c. Clausal Substitution

_Is this a shop that sell shoes? It is not_

_In this example, the substitution is _not_ and it is replaced clause _a shop that sell shoes_ in the previous sentence. It means that the shop is not sell shoes, but sells another item._
2.3.1.3. **Situational Meaning**

Situational meaning is kind of meaning which is caused by the relation between utterance and situation when the utterance is spoken by the speaker. Larson (1998: 145-151) stated there are some factors that affect the meaning in communication. The relationship between speaker with the addressee, where the communication take place, when it take place, age, sex, and social status, cultural background, and symbolic action can affect the meaning of the utterance or sentence. From all of them, there are some factors that will be explained in order to make the explanation is not going too far and avoid confusion. They are:

a. **Situational Meaning in Speaker-Addressee Relationship**

The relationship between speaker and addressee in communication can affect the meaning and causes some meaning left implicit when the communication is happened. For example the sentence that spoken by a boy who has friend named Bob. When he talks to his other friend, he will say *Bob is moving to England next month*, while when he talks to his mother who does not know Bob, the boy will say *Mom, Bob my friend at the school is moving next month* to inform his mother about Bob’s plan next month. The relationship between the boy with his friends and his mother is different, therefore the used of word or sentence is different too.

b. **Situational Meaning caused in Place and Time**

The place and time where the communication occur will affect the meaning. Sometimes, meaning will be understandable after knowing the place and time in which the communication occur. As the example word *hot* can be interpreted in many
ways according to the place. If word *hot* is spoken in restaurant, it can means the food is spicy because too much chili on it, while if *hot* is spoken in a room with broken air conditioner it can means the air conditioner need to be repaired.

When the communication occurs, the time also can affect the meaning and make it implicit. For example when there is a student who comes late to the class that just started, the teacher will say *why did you come? The lesson is over.* The teacher might be not states the real meaning, there is implied information from the teacher that wants the student come on time and obey the rule in the school.

c. Situational Meaning caused by Cultural Background

One problem that faced by the translator in translating is the differences of culture between source and target language. People with similar culture will understand the meaning even if it stated implicitly. Meanwhile, if they have different cultural background, the speaker/author should states it explicitly or in different way related to the culture in order to avoid confusion and make the meaning understandable to the addressee/reader. The example of situational implicit caused by cultural background is in this following sentence:

*’Ah, good Percy’ he said. ‘Now, we have four for pinochle.’* (Riordan, 2013:63)

In this example word *pinochle* was known as a as a trick taking card game which is played by two to four players by using 48 card-deck. For people from source language, this game is familiar to them, while for people in target language, this game is not familiar or even unknown to them. In this case, in order to avoid confusion that caused by the difference of culture, the translator in target language must state
pinocchle explicitly or in different way to explain the game and deliver the information in target language appropriately.

d. Situational Meaning in Symbolic Action

In some situation, some words or sentences can be understood after supported by certain action. This action caused situational meaning, in which the meaning is stated implicit and left the action to indicate the real meaning. For example in this sentence:

*Nancy smiled widely as she got her new dress from Dad*

This sentence contains an action: *smiled*. According to the situation above, it can be assumed that Nancy is happy to get new dress from her father. Action *smiled* indicates Nancy’s feeling. According to the situation, this sentence can be interpreted as Nancy is really happy when she gets a new dress from her Dad.

2.3.2. Procedures of Translation

In translating a source language into the target language a translator should be aware of procedures used in translation. Vinay and Darbelnet (in Venuti, 2000: 84-93) proposed seven procedures of translation: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation. Those procedures of translation are categorized into two types of procedures of translation:

- Direct or literal translation.

*Direct or literal translation* consists of three procedures or methods of translation as of: (1) borrowing, (2) calque, (3) literal translation.
• Oblique translation

Oblique translation consist of four procedures or methods of translation as of: (1) transposition, (2) modulation, (3) equivalence, (4) adaption. Those procedures can be further explained as follows:

1. **Borrowing**

Borrowing is the simplest method to use when an unknown concept of a culture found in the target language. Commonly, borrowing used by translator to introduce the sense of the source language culture into translation. They often deliver information from source language into target language by using the word or sentence or concept from the source language. For instance:

1. (SL) I want to eat *pizza* → (TL) Saya ingin makan *pizza*.
2. (SL) He has a *mixer* → (TL) Dia mempunyai *mixer*

In this case *pizza* and *mixer* are borrowed from source language. Pizza means a food made from flour contains some ingredients such as sausage, cheese, and ketchup. While mixer is an equipment often used to make a dough. *Pizza* and *mixer* remain in target language since there is no appropriate equivalence found in the target language.

2. **Calque**

Calque is a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression form of another, but then translated literally for each of its elements. Besides, there is a case in which the translator are more interested in new calque
which can give the meaning without having actual borrowing, therefore, creating a new lexical form with Greek or Latin roots and a conversion also can be served. A conversion here is the change of head and modifier structure of each phrase. The examples are:

1. (SL) Vice President → (TL) Wakil Presiden (translated each element)
2. (SL) Study Group → (TL) Kelompok belajar (translated each element with conversion of head and modifier in target language)

3. **Literal Translation**

Literal translation or word for word translation is a direct transfer of a source language text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate target language text in which the translator translated each element in the sentence from the source language, i.e.

1. (SL) I want a new camera → (TL) Saya ingin sebuah kamera baru
2. (SL) I have three dogs → (TL) Saya mempunyai tiga ekor anjing

4. **Transposition**

Transposition is method of translation by replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message. The change can be form of verb, noun or even adjective. The examples are:

1. (SL) We had a tough practice (n) → (TL) Kami berlatih (v) dengan keras
2. (SL) He sits alone (adj) under the maple tree → Dia duduk menyendiri (v) di bawah pohon mapel.
In example (1) there is a change of word class from noun (practice) into verb (berlatih). Moreover, in example (2) there is a change of word class from adjective (alone) into verb (menyendiri). Both examples still have same meaning whether in source or target language.

5. Modulation

Modulation is method of translation obtained by a change in the point of view. This change can be justified when, although a literal or even a transposed translation result is a grammatically correct utterance, it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in target language. There is also types of modulation which turns a negative SL into a positive TL expression and vice versa. This types often categorized as fixed modulation. There are two examples of modulation:

(SL) sleep in the open → (TL) tidur di bawah bintang – bintang (free or optional).
(SL) He is not tall at all → (TL) Dia pendek (Fixed or obligatory).

6. Equivalence

Equivalence is method of translation by using different meaning in structure when translate it from source language into target language, as long as both source and target language have the same meaning, i.e.:

(1) (SL) I lost my head → (TL) Saya khilaf
(2) (SL) My nose is running → (TL) Saya sedang flu

This method of translation often used when there is a term which is unknown whether in source or target language. In order to be able to deliver the meaning the
translator has to find other terms in target language which have closest meaning to the source language.

7. Adaptation

Adaptation is used in cases where the type of situation being referred to by the source language message is unknown in the target language culture. The translators should create a new situation that can be considered as being equivalent in the target language. For example:

(1) (SL) as white as snow → (TL) seputih kapas.

(2) (SL) I took a picture in front of white house → (TL) Saya berfoto di depan kantor kepresidenan.

Word snow and white house are unknown in target language, so in order to be able to deliver the meaning appropriately, kapas is adapted from target language to replace snow, since kapas has same color as snow. White house also translated into kantor kepresidenan which is adapted from target language, since white house is known as an office for president in source language, while in target language it is known as kantor kepresidenan.

In order to support the analysis about procedures of translation, there is a theory proposed by Catford (1965: 20-26) about types of translation. According to Catford, there are three main types of translation: extent (full vs. partial), levels, (total vs. restricted) and ranks (ranks of translation). In this study, there is only one type used to support the analysis procedures of translation, in which the types of translation used is extent translation (full vs. partial).
2.3.3. **Extent Translation (full vs. partial)**

Catford (1965: 21) stated that in the process of translating, there are conditions where the text in source language is translated fully into target language and sometimes some text are *left untranslated* due some factors in the process of translating itself. *Full translation* is type of translation in which the entire text is submitted in translating process. In this case, every text or part in source language is replaced by target language text material.

In contrast, *Partial translation* is type of translation in which some part or parts in source language is left *untranslated* in target language. It is because they are simply transferred to or incorporate in target language. In the process of translating this case may happen since they are regarded as ‘untranslatable’ or for deliberate purpose of local color into the target language text.