CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE, CONCEPTS AND
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter deals with the literature review, concept, and theoretical framework which are relevant to the present topic.

1.1 Literature Review

Earlier researches under the same topic were reviewed to give comparisons between this study and the former studies. There were three theses and an article in international journal which were reviewed to support this study.

First, a thesis entitled “Figurative Languages and Their Translation in Hemingway’s Novel Entitled The Old Man and the Sea” was done by Arya (2011). The study formulated two problems, such as to classify types of figurative languages and to describe the strategies in translating figurative language. Qualitative method was used in presenting the result of the study. The data were collected by doing library research. It was done by reading both novels, the English version as the SL text and the Indonesian version as the TL text; consequently underlining the figurative languages occurred. The theoretical framework of this study based on the theory proposed by Larson in Meaning-Based Translation (1998) about types of figurative languages and strategies in translating figurative languages. As the result, there were 21 examples of figurative languages were found covering six of seven figurative languages. There were 14 sentences using figurative languages were translated into non-figurative
equivalent, and 7 sentences were translated into figurative equivalent. Simile and hyperbole dominated the finding in this research.

In contrast to this study, the previous study has some similarities as well as differences. Both studies used the same theory as proposed by Larson about figurative languages. Furthermore, both studies used the same method in collecting and analyzing data, namely library research and qualitative method. Despite the similarities, this study uses different theory from the previous study in terms of analyzing the translation strategies. This study analyzes the translation procedures based on the theory proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet, while the previous study used the theory proposed by Larson in analyzing the translation strategies.

The second study which was reviewed concerned about types of idioms, types of adjustment, and the strategies in translating the idioms. It was done by Pramesti (2012) entitled “Idioms in The House on Hope Street and Their Translation Adjustment in Serpih – Serpih Harapan”. The study used two novels as data source, a novel entitled The House on Hope Street as the SL and a novel entitled Serpih – Serpih Harapan as the TL. The research was done under library research method and the data was analyzed descriptively by qualitative method. In collecting the data, the technique used in collecting the data were by reading the whole novel, note taking, and comparing the SL and TL novel. For the first problem about types of idioms, the theory used was the one proposed by Seidll and McMordie in their book “English Idiom and How to Use Them” (1980) about types of idioms. Consequently, the second problem about types of idiom adjustments were analyzed by using the theory proposed by Nida and Taber, and
the strategies in translating English idioms were analyzed using the theory of translation strategies proposed by Moena Baker in her book “In Other Words” (1992). The result showed that there were eight of ten types of idioms identified. Almost all types of idioms were translated into non-idioms in the TL. In translating the English idioms, most of the idioms employed the paraphrase strategy due to the factor of differences in stylistic preferences of the SL text and TL text.

In comparison to this study, there are some similarities between this study and the previous study in terms of method and technique of collecting and analyzing data. However, some differences are found between this study and the study mentioned above. The previous study concerned more specific about idioms and translation strategies, while this study analyzed the figurative senses and the translation procedures in translating figurative senses. Furthermore, this study uses the theory about translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet, while the previous study used the theory of translation strategies proposed by Moena Baker.

Similar study concerning idiomatic expressions and translation procedures was done by Astriani (2012). The study entitled “Idiomatic Expressions and Their Translation Procedure”. There are two problems formulated in this study: to classify and describe the types of idiomatic expressions and to explain the translation procedure. The method used in collecting the data was documentation method, while the analysis was done by qualitative method. Consequently, the process of collecting data was done by note-taking technique. In analyzing the problems, there were two theories applied as theoretical framework, namely: the
types of idioms proposed by Seidll and Mc Mordie in their book “English Idiom and How to Use Them” (1980); and theory of translation procedures as proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet in a book entitled “A Methodology for Translation” (1995). The result showed that all the seven idiomatic expressions found and two main translation procedures were applied in translating the idiomatic expressions from SL text into TL text.

Compared to this study, some similarities and differences are found in the previous study. The similarities are found in terms of the method used in analyzing the data, namely qualitative method; and the theory used in analyzing the data, namely the translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet. The differences, however, can be found in the problems of the study and the other theory used in analyzing the data. The previous study used the theory proposed by Seidll and Mc Mordie about types of idioms, and the theoretical framework was supported by the theory of translation shift proposed by Catford; while this study used the theory proposed by Larson in analyzing the figurative senses.

Furthermore, this study also reviewed an international journal concerning the same topic about translation. This journal was downloaded from www.ccsenet.org/journal.html. The journal is done by Lili Ni in 2009 entitled “For ‘Translation and Theories’”. The study presented a theory of translation proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) in their book A Methodology for Translation. The researcher of this journal analyzed some translation procedures in some Chinese words using the theory as mentioned above. The result showed: as she compared some words from the SL (English) to the TL (Chinese), the translation-shift occurred mostly on the micro-level translation and has proven
that ‘the smallest segment of the utterance whose signs are linked in such a way that they should not be translated individually’ (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:21). In comparison, the above study applied the same theory as this study, a theory proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet. However, the difference between this study and the journal is the data source in this journal was the original words from Chinese. Another distinct problem is about the translation shift occurred in the translation of words, phrases and sentences from English into Chinese.

Considering all of the reviews which are related to this study, it is necessary to combine the ideas and to adopt it in order to give inspiration and information regarding the theories and the problems in this study. The studies which were carried out previously inspired the present study, which is to identify and classify the figurative senses occurred in the selected literary work and to explain the translation procedures applied in the translation of the figurative senses from the SL to TL.

1.2 Concepts

It is very essential to propose one or more concepts in a study. There are some concepts presented in order to give a better understanding on this study. Therefore, the concepts which are related to this study will be the concept of translation, figurative senses, and translation equivalence.

1.2.1 Translation

Translation is about transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor or target language (Larson, 1998:3). It is the meaning that must be held
constant because translation only deals with the changing of form. The process of translation proposed by Larson (1998:4) can be illustrated in the figure as follow.

![Figure 1. The Process of Translation (Larson, 1998:4)](image)

Basically, translation is only about the changing of form, not the meaning. It can be illustrated like drinking the same milk from the different container, one is from the glass, and the other one is from the bottle. The point is that you drink ‘milk’. In this case, the milk itself is what filled the glass and the bottle, as well as translation. The milk represents the meaning or the real message from the writer which is wanted to share or convey to the readers; whereas the containers are the receptor languages that in not the same language as the original work is written, be it from English into French, English into Indonesian, English into Lithuanian, etc.

The purpose of translation is mainly to find the equivalence, the closest meaning or the most natural equivalence from the SL into the TL where the priority is put in the meaning. As Nida and Taber (1974:12) defined that translation is reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of
the source language, firstly in term of meaning and then followed by term of style. The result might not be exactly the same but at least find its equivalence in the receptor language. It is better to find the natural meaning in the TL to make the product of translation does not sound like one.

When it has to deal with culture, translation may also be complicated. As language is part of culture itself, translation from one language into another requires knowledge of the two cultures as well as the two language structures. The translators have to pay attention to the different culture background between the source language and the receptor language culture. Culture is very sensitive yet difficult to find its equivalent in the TL. It is essential for the translators to be very careful in translating literature, especially the text that is rich of cultural terms.

1.2.2 Figurative Senses

A single word may have more than one sense other than its primary meaning (Larson, 1998:121). These meanings are known as secondary meanings or secondary senses. The primary sense (or primary meaning) is the meaning of a word when it stands alone (Larson, 1998:109). In other words, it is the first meaning comes to the speakers’ mind when the word is said. However, a word suggests a different meaning when used in context with other words. It is called secondary sense. For instance, the word catch means to stop and hold something moving, especially in the hands (Hornby, 2010:63); while in the context of plane or train as in he tried to catch the train, the word catch has nothing to do with stopping something moving, especially in the hands. In that context, catch means to be in time. In addition, words do not only have primary and secondary senses
but also *figurative senses*. Different from *secondary senses*, *figurative senses* are based on associative relations with the primary sense (Beekman and Callow, 1974:94). Figurative senses can be found in figures of speech based on associative relations with the primary senses, such as: metonymy, synecdoche, idioms, euphemism, hyperbole and metaphor and simile.

1.2.3 Translation Equivalence

A key concept in translation is equivalence and this helps establish our approach to translation. Equivalence centers on the process interacting between the original source text and translated text. Translation equivalence is the process in order to transfer the same meaning by using the natural form from source language into the target language. Translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance (Catford, 1965:50). However, we have to relate it to some situation or contexts where the equivalence should be established. In other words, we have to pay attention to the situation or context to which both SL text and TL text are relatable.

Translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source language, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style (Nida and Taber, 1974:12). The equivalence here refers to the source language messages and must be natural and fit the receptor language and culture as a whole. It means that the equivalence should not ‘foreign’ either in form or in message. It has to sound natural as if it was originally written in the receptor language.
Going from the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure is how the translation is done. When transferring the meaning from SL into TL, the translation should be equivalent for both languages. There is only change of form, not the meaning. However, the difficulty comes in finding the equivalent words because a language has a different culture to another and it also makes the terms used in both languages different.

In relation to the definition of translation, Nida (in Venuti, 2000:129) adds that there are fundamentally two types of equivalence: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. A formal equivalence is basically source-oriented, that is, it is designed to reveal as much as possible of the form and content of the origin message. Formal equivalence translation usually attempts not to make adjustment in idioms but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally. Dynamic equivalence is intended to the total naturalness of expression in TL. This kind of translation is not so concerned with matching the TL message with the SL message. The main aim is to relate the target readers to the modes of behavior relevant within the context of their own. It means that the translators try to make the SL message as natural as possible in TL expression.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

It is important to give a frame in a study in order to give a distinct boundary in the process of analyzing data. There are two theories that cover this study to analyze the two problems presented. The theory about figurative senses is used to analyze problem number one, meanwhile for the problem number two is analyzed by theory of translation procedure.
1.3.1 Figurative Senses in Figures of Speech

Figurative senses cannot usually be translated with a literal form of the word (Larson, 1998:121). It has been mentioned earlier that figurative senses are based on associative relations with the primary sense. It is suggested to translate the secondary sense with different word in the receptor language since there is usually no match of secondary senses between languages. Larson divides the figures of speech containing figurative senses as: metonymy, synecdoche, idioms, euphemism, hyperbole and metaphor and simile.

1. Metonymy

Metonymy is the use of words in a figurative sense involving association (Larson, 1998:121). An expression which has collocation with other word, but they are not synonymous, is used in a figurative way. It can be divided into three:

a. Metonymy Based on A Spatial Relationship

Example:

*The kettle is boiling.*

*The response from the floor was positive.*


The example does not imply that the *kettle* that is boiling. *Kettle* is kitchen equipment and it cannot boil. It is the *water* inside the kettle that is boiling. The word *kettle* is used to substitute *water* in a figurative way. Furthermore in the second example, it does not mean that the *floor* gives positive response. It represents the *people* who are in the audience. There is an associative relationship which makes the figurative sense possible. The words *kettle* and *floor* have a figurative meaning – *water* and *audience.*
b. Metonymy Based on A Temporal Relationship

Example:

*Your hour has come.*


The sentence above can be said by a student to his/her friend with the meaning "*The time to take your exam has arrived.*" *Hour* is associated with the *time to take exam.*

c. Metonymy Based on Logical Contiguity

Example:

*I read Shakespeare.*


*Shakespeare* is used to mean the plays he wrote. It implies that people read his work, not the person as it is very irrational to read a person. The expression in sentence *I listen to Mozart* can be described as *I listen to the music composed by Mozart.* One word has a figurative sense which occurs in collocation with the certain word. This collocation cannot be regarded as synonymous.

2. **Synecdoche**

Figurative senses based on part-whole relationships (a part of something which is being substituted for the whole part) are called synecdoche. Sometimes a part of an object is used for the whole object (Larson, 1998:123).

Example:

- I’m not going to let him come *under my roof.* (Larson, 1998:123)
*Roof* in the sentence above does not mean right under the ceiling, but it is substituted for the whole house. *Roof* is a part of the house. The use of part-of-a-whole thing is commonly a synecdoche.

In addition, there are three general ways of translating metonymy and synecdoche into the receptor language (Larson, 1998:124). First, the sense of the word may be translated into a non-figurative expression. *The kettle is boiling* would be translated *the water is boiling*; and the sentence *he has a good head* would be translated *he is very intelligent*. Second possibility is to retain the word in the original while adding the sense of the word. This should be used if there seems to be a component of emotions or impact which might otherwise be lost, as in poetry. For example, *the world is mad* might be translated by *the people of the world* for *world*. The third possibility is to substitute a figurative expression of the receptor language for the figurative expression of the source language and retain the same meaning. For example, in Aguaruna, *mouth* has a figurative sense of ‘speech’ (Larson, 1998:124)

3. **Idioms**

Idioms are defined as the expressions of ‘at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which function as a unit semantically’ (Beekman and Callow, 1974:121). In other words, it means that this figurative sense will not have the same message in the target language if it is translated word per word.

Example:

- Make sure you *keep an eye* on him.
The italic words are idiomatic expression in which means to look after and it does not have anything to do with an eye. Its translation in Bahasa Indonesia will be *mengawasi* when it is translated idiomatically, rather than *menjaga satu mata* for its literal translation. Sometimes it is necessary to translate idioms non-figuratively.

4. **Euphemism**

Euphemism almost sounds similar to metonymy; however, it is used to avoid an offensive expression, or one that is socially unacceptable or is considered unpleasant (Beekman and Callow, 1974:119). According to Larson, all languages have *euphemistic expressions* which substitute for certain words, especially in the area of sex, death and the supernatural. For instance, in Africa (Twi language), *he has gone to his village* means *he died*. As well as in the United States, the *old people* are now called *senior citizen* (Larson, 1998:126-127). Euphemism will need to be translated by a comparable euphemism in the TL.

5. **Hyperbole**

According to Beekman and Callow (1974:118), a hyperbole is a metonymy or synecdoche with more said than the writer intended the reader to understand. The exaggeration is deliberately used for effect, and is not to be understood as if it were a literal description. To illustrate, in English an expression *I’m frozen to death* means that *I’m very cold*. The word *frozen* is deliberately exaggerated. In this case, a person is feeling very cold as if he or she is frozen and about to die by
the cold. Such deliberate exaggeration in the SL could be considered untruth if they are translated literally (Larson, 1998:127).

6. **Metaphor**

Metaphor is an analogy between two objects or ideas. The analogy is conveyed by using metaphoric words. It also denotes rhetorical figures of speech that achieve their effects via association, comparison or resemblance (Larson, 1998:274).

Example:

*John is a tiger*

It shows that there are two things being compared. The subject is called ‘topic’ and the object to compare with is called ‘image’ (Larson, 1998:272). *John* is the topic of the sentence, while *tiger* is the image. The point of similarity may be in some characteristic of the tiger, such as: strong, brave, cruel, etc. This sentence means that John has one or more characteristics which are like what possessed by the tiger.

7. **Simile**

Simile is a figures of speech that compares two things unlike by using the conjunction such as *like, as or than*. In forms of comparison, simile allows two ideas to remain distinct in spite of their similarities, whereas metaphor compares two things without using any conjunction like simile does. To illustrate: *John sleeps like a log* is an example of two things being compared, in this case John is said to sleep like log. It may be interpreted that the characteristic of log is just
lying in one place and does not move. This would discover that the writer is trying
to say that john has a long and undisturbed sleep.

1.3.2 The Translation Procedures

Translating a text from SL to TL is not an easy task to do and the translator has a great deal in finding the equivalent to the target language. In the translation procedures proposed by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet in their book *A Methodology for Translation* (1995) there are two methods of translation: direct translation as a source language orientation and oblique translation as a target language orientation, covering all together seven translation procedures. The direct translation is divided into three procedures, that is: borrowing, calque and literal translation; while the oblique translation is divided into four procedures: modulation, transposition, equivalence and adaptation (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:31).

According to Vinay and Darbelnet, if after trying the first three procedures, translators found it unacceptable, they must turn to the methods of oblique translation. Unacceptable in this case means that when translated literally:

i. gives another meaning, or

ii. has no meaning, or

iii. is structurally impossible, or

iv. does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL, or

v. has a corresponding expression, but not within the same register.
1.3.2.1 Direct Translation

1. Borrowing

Borrowing means a word taken directly from another language. In other word, it is considered the simplest procedure of translation. For instance, in order to introduce the flavor of the SL culture into a translation, foreign terms may be used. Such Russian words as “roubles”, “datchas” and “aparatchik”, “dollars” and “party” from American English, Mexican Spanish food names “tequila” and “tortillas” are the examples (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:32). Another example is the English word *computer* is translated into *komputer* in Bahasa Indonesia. The decision to borrow an SL word for introducing culture is a matter of style and consequently of the message.

2. Calques

Calque is a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression from another language. Then, each of its elements is translated literally. The result could be a lexical calque or a structural calque. Lexical calque is a calque which respects the syntactic structure of the TL, while introducing a new mode of expression. Structural calque introduces a new construction into the language (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:32)

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not by the announcement or the necessary apology; those were standard procedures..... (Lowry, 1993:23)</td>
<td>Bukan karena pengumuman atau permintaan maaf yang diharuskan; itu prosedur standar..... (Tarman, 2014:36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The translation of *standard procedure* into *prosedur standar* can be concluded as a lexical calque. Each of the elements is translated literally. Furthermore, it respects the syntactic structure of the TL and the new mode of expression is introduced in the TL. Another example of calque is seen in English expression *real estate* becomes *real estat* in Bahasa Indonesia.

3. Literal translation

As mentioned above, literal translation is the transfer of SL into TL literally or word-for-word translation, the direct transfer of a SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate TL text. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:33)

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally, when supplies were delivered by cargo planes to the landing field across the river, the children rode their bicycles to the riverbank and watched, intrigued, the unloading and then the takeoff directed to the west, always away from the community. (Lowry, 1993:1)</td>
<td>Kadang-kadang, ketika persediaan dikirim dengan pesawat kargo ke landasan di seberang sungai, anak-anak mengayuh sepeda mereka ke pinggir sungai dan menonton, dengan penasaran, penurunan barang-barang yang disusul kepergian pesawat ke arah barat, selalu menjauh dari komunitas. (Ariyantri, 2014:12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sentence in bold of the SL text is translated literally, or word-per-word, into the TL text. It is classified into literal translation because when it is translated, it does not sound strange in the TL and is grammatically correct. *The children* becomes *anak-anak*; *rode* becomes *mengayuh*; *their bicycle* becomes *sepeda mereka*; *to the river bank* becomes *ke pinggir sungai*. Similarly to the
example above, another example of literal example is *I am a pilot* and it is translated into *Saya adalah seorang pilot* in Bahasa Indonesia.

### 1.3.2.2 Oblique Translation

1. **Transposition**

   Transposition is a method of translation that includes the change of word class without changing the actual meaning of the message (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:36). It also involves grammatical change that occurs in the translation, such as: position of adjective, changing the word class or part of speech.

   Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Jonas, nearing his home now, smiled at the recollection.</em> (Lowry, 1993:10)</td>
<td><em>Jonas, yang hampir sampai di rumah, tersenyum mengingatnya.</em> (Tarman, 2014:15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   The expression in bold is an example of transposition. *Smiled at* is translated into *tersenyum*, but the noun phrase *the recollection* is translated into *mengingatnya*, which is a verb in the TL. The meaning is retained and sound natural in the TL. Similar procedure is also seen in the translation of the expression *toilet is out of order* into *toilet rusak* in Bahasa Indonesia.

2. **Modulation**

   In modulation, there is a change in point of view when the SL is translated into the TL. Modulation is a variation of the form of the message, obtained by expressing similar situation in different style. This change can be justified when
translation results in a grammatically correct utterance but it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:36)

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He had never seen aircraft so close, <strong>for it was against the rules for Pilots to fly over the community.</strong> (Lowry, 1993:1)</td>
<td>Jonas tidak pernah melihat pesawat sedekat itu, <strong>karena Pilot tidak boleh menerbangkan pesawat mereka di atas komunitas.</strong> (Tarman, 2014:11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sentences taken as example shows that there was a change of point of view occurred. In the SL, the act of the pilot is said against the rule, whereas its translation becomes the pilot are not allowed to fly over communities. This is done because it sounds awkward when this sentence is translated grammatically into its TL, in this case into Bahasa Indonesia. The change of point of view is done without change of meaning. Transposition also occurs in the translation of sentence such as *It is safe* into *Ibu tidak berbahaya* in Bahasa Indonesia. Instead of using literal translation into *Ibu aman*, another option as transposition is also considered true when the message is retained.

3. Equivalence

Equivalence in translation procedures used to describe the same situation by using different style or structural methods. The striking cases of equivalences are the onomatopoeia of animal sounds. The method of creating equivalences is also frequently applied to idioms. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:38)

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th>TL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;<strong>Ouch,</strong>&quot; he said loudly, and shifted on</td>
<td>“<strong>Aduh,</strong>” katanya lantang, lalu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the bed. "**Owwww,**" he said, wincing at the shift, and even moving his mouth to speak made his face hurt. (Lowry, 1993:86)


From the example above, the expression **ouch** and **owwww** are interjections, in which they are used when someone is in pain and says such expression spontaneously. An idiom **keep an eye** could be translated into **mengawasi** in Bahasa Indonesia; or **don’t cry over the spilled milk** could be translated into its figurative in Bahasa Indonesia into **nasi sudah jadi bubur**.

4. **Adaptation**

Adaptation is the final procedure where the translators have to create a new situation in the TL that can be considered as being equivalent. It is used in cases where the type of situation being referred to by the SL message in unknown in TL culture. Adaptation can, therefore, be described as a special kind of equivalence, a situational equivalence (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:39). For example, a cultural term **ngaben** in Balinese could be described as **cremation procession** in English, as it is done in several parts or processes, including cremation.

Several of these methods (borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation) can be used within the same sentence, and that some translations come under a whole complex of methods so that it is difficult to distinguish them (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995:40).