

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Literature Review

1. The Concept of Translation

The term translation is generally defined as a process of changing the form of the original language (the source language or SL) into different languages (the target language or TL). This process accords with an intra-lingual translation which is an interpretation of verbal signs through some other languages (Munday, 2016: 8). Another definition is proposed by Larson (1998:3) who states that translation is a process of transferring meaning from texts in the source language into the receptor language. The process must be done by changing the form of the ST to the form of the TT in the semantic structure. The meaning is maintained, only the forms change.

Catford (1978: 20) explains that translation is the change of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). The term textual material underlines the fact that it is not the entirety of SL text which is translated but replaced by target language equivalents. For example, if we translate the Indonesian text “Berapa umurmu?” into English as “How old are you?”, there is replacement of source language (Indonesia) grammar and lexis by equivalent target language (English) grammar and lexis.

Based on Newmark (1988: 21), there are two approaches in the translation process:

- a. Start translating in the first paragraph or chapter sentence by sentence, get the feels and tones of the text, and then doing the crosscheck to review the project, and the last, reading the rest of the SL text.
- b. Read the whole source text two or three times; find the intentions, registers, and tones; marking the difficult words and paragraphs; and start translating only when the translators have found a comfortable situation.

Regarding the above theoretical foundation, the researcher summarizes that translation is a process of transferring the message of the source language or natural language into the target language or receptor language. The process must be done by changing the form of the ST to the form of the TT in the semantic structure. There are two approaches to translations. Both approaches are available for certain conditions based on the translator's intentions.

a. Translation Process

The translation process is an order of technical devices to transfer the message of the source language to the equivalent target language. The translation process can be described as understanding the meaning of the source text and then express this meaning into the target language without

ignoring grammar, syntax, idioms, and also the culture of the related target language text.

Nida and Taber as cited in Budianto and Fardhani (2010: 30) defined the translation process in three steps as follows.

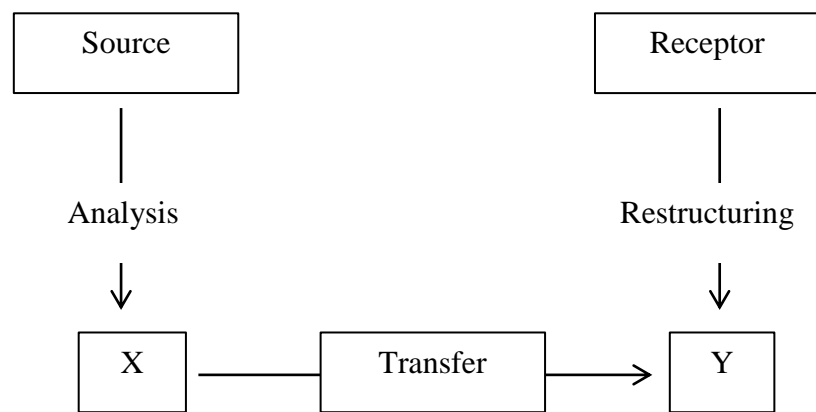


Figure 1. Steps of Translation Process

- a. Understanding the meaning or message of SL text, through analyzing its words, phrases, and sentence structures or grammar used in the sentences;
- b. Finding out the equivalent meanings of the text to transfer the analyzed messages in the source language into the target language messages. This step is called an internal process; and
- c. Reconstructing the equivalent meanings of SL to TL with equivalent forms or sentence patterns. The messages in the TL must be the same as the message in SL. When some adjustments of lexical or grammatical are

done, transformation happens. If the result is already fit between SL text and TL text, translation is written.

The steps are parsed in the following description. The first step is to study the whole text to get a general idea or to get the message, after obtaining the general picture of the message, the translator analyses it into parts of meaning to know how the message is conveyed in the SL sentences; what kinds of dictions or words choices are used to bring the message. After that, the translator finds the equivalent meanings to the target language and adjusts them in the TL natural patterns. Furthermore, the cultural aspects of SL have to be replaced with the ones in the TL.

The next step is to re-read the whole new text to evaluate the equivalent result of the SL message to know whether the text in TL gives the same effect to the readers who read it as they read the SL text or not. Then, to achieve a translation result sounds like original, the translators need to make the lexical and grammatical adjustment to the TL.

b. The Methods of Translation

Newmark (1988: 81) mentions the difference between translation methods and translation procedures. He quotes that translation methods relate to the whole text, while translation procedures are used for sentence and the smaller unit of language. It means that translation methods have a bigger scope than translation procedures. Here are the following methods of translation as flattened at the V diagram in Figure 2.

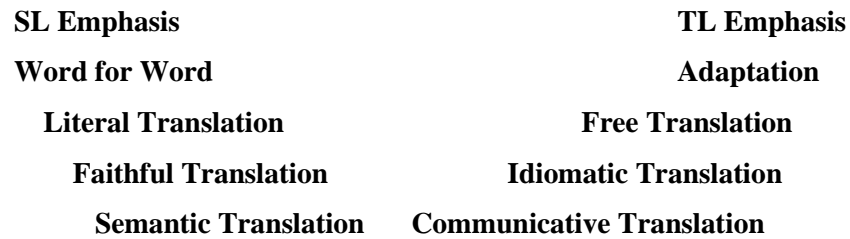


Figure 2. V Diagram of Translation Method

1) Word-for-word translation

The words of the target language are directly put below the source language words. The words in source languages are translated singly and cultural words are translated literally which is not restricted to the context. Word for word translation is used to either understanding the form of source language or elaborating difficult words as a pre-translation process.

2) Literal translation

Literal translation is the method above word for word translation. The lexical words are translated based on the dictionary, beyond contexts, but the grammatical structures of the source language are adapted to the closest target language equivalents.

3) Faithful translation

A faithful translation attempts to maintain source text composition. It reproduces the appropriate contextual meaning of source language within the

restriction of the target language grammatical construction (Newmark, 1988: 45). The cultural words are transferred, the degree of grammatical and lexical deviation from source language norms are preserved in the translation. The translation result is sometimes awkward because the sentence is translated faithfully text-realization of the source language.

4) Semantic translation

Semantic translation is different from faithful translation. Faithful translation sounds more awkward to the target language rule, while semantics translation takes more account of aesthetic aspects compromising the meaning. The translation will sound more beautiful and natural. The word which has a little cultural content can be translated into the neutral or functional term. For instance, “*She is a book-worm*” is translated into “*Dia (perempuan) adalah seorang kutu buku*”. This translation has the functional characteristic, that is, can be easily understood, though there is no cultural equivalent in the target language.

5) Adaptation

Adaptation is the freest translation method. It is generally used for translating plays (comedies), poetries, dramas, and plots. This method involves modifying the concept or using a situational analog to the source language situation. Then the target language text will have the meaning as close as possible to the source language intent. Moreover, it still creates a similar impact.

6) Free translation

Free translation is also known as intra-lingual translation. It reproduces the message without the style or the content without the form of the original. Usually, it is a paraphrase much longer than the original, often prolix and pretentious. It is not considered as a translation at all.

7) Idiomatic translation

Idiomatic translation is aimed to reproduce the message of the SL but it tends to distort nuances of source language meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original version.

8) Communicative translation

Communicative translation attempts to reconstruct the contextual meaning of the SL text in such a way that both the content and language can be understood by the reader (Newmark, 1988: 46). So the TL version will be acceptable and comprehensible. This method observes the principles of communication.

c. Translation Procedures

The variety of terminology due to translation procedures is debatable among scholars. Procedures, strategies, techniques, and processes are the most common terms used to refer to translation operation (Bardaji, 2009: 162). Krings in Guerra (2012: 5) states that translation strategies are defined as the procedure that leads to examine a translation problem so its function is

regarded as the optimal solution. Molina and Albir (2002: 509) state that a technique tends to recognize the result of a choice made by the translator. Besides, they define the translation technique as procedures to analyze and classify how translation equivalence works. According to the definition of those terms, it can be concluded that each term has a similarity which refers to the solution of the translation process used by the translators.

To specify the term used in this research, the term procedure is chosen. It is following the equivalence of translation products that aim to analyze the translation of figurative language. Several translation experts explain about the procedure in the translation, such as Newmark (1988), Vinay and Darbelnet (1955), and Molina and Albir (2002). In further analysis, the translation procedures used by the researcher are taken from Newmark (1988). He provided more detail information about translation procedures. The procedures are employed in analyzing the translated text.

Each procedure is explained in the following. The examples of the procedures are taken from Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E. (2010) and several researches because Newmark's example is mostly in German and French.

1) Literal Translation

It is called a 'word-for-word' translation. It is a translation strategy that is mostly used to translate words that have similar family and culture. (Vinay and Darbelnet in Munday, 2016: 89). Although literal translation can be called as word-for-word translation, the translator also pays attention to the sense

between the source and the target texts. This procedure is commonly used by the translator in translating the text. Newmark (1988:46) states that literal translation is the way of translating source text into target text by converting to the nearest target text equivalent, while the lexical words are translated singly. The example is explained.

SL : “He is an engineer.”

TL : “*Dia adalah seorang insinyur*”

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 18)

The example above shows that both texts have the same sense and construction. Thus, the expression of the target text is delivered as close as possible with the meaning of the source text.

Literal translation is broadly suggested as the first step to translate source language to target language text. When the literal translation is inadequate to transfer the meaning, other procedures should render the roles. It is in line with the Newmark's suggestion cited in Wei Lu and Hong Fang (2012: 746) that literal translation should be avoided in a certain condition. First, when the gap between two cultures is so large at several points that the application of literal translation may cause confusion or misunderstanding; Second, when TL is too different from SL in some expression habits to make literal translation possible; Third, when the translator thinks TL readers will not appreciate a literal version; Last, when a free version is more readable and natural. It also does not distort the intended meaning.

2) Transference

Transference is a kind of translation procedures that use source language word in the target text. The target text is the same as the source text. The words then become loan words (Newmark, 1988: 81). Generally, transference is used when the word is unfamiliar in the target language. Cultural objects, where the referent is a privilege and the concept does not appear in the target text, should be transferred, for example.

ST : Mall, Sandal, Orangutan

TT : *Mall, Sandal, Orang Hutan*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 19)

The words “*mall, sandal, dan orangutan*” are transferred to target language respectively. Transference is normally used to translate such name of living or dead people, names of geographical and topographical, periodicals and newspapers, titles of untranslatable literary works, plays, or film, names of private companies, names of public or nationalized institution (unless the translation has been recognized), and names of street or address.

3) Naturalization

Naturalization is a procedure where SL word is transferred to normal pronunciation, then to normal morphology (Newmark, 1988: 82). This process facilitates the readers to read easily and to make the word sounds familiar. For instance.

ST : As a herbivore, Panda eats *bamboo* to survive.

TT : *Sebagai herbivora, Panda memakan bamboo untuk bertahan hidup.*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 19)

The word “*bamboo*” is translated to “*bambu*”. The translation of the source language spelling to the pronunciation and morpheme of the target language text provides such easy readability. This procedure is used to avoid long descriptions and paraphrases.

4) Cultural equivalent

Cultural equivalent is one of translation procedure which is appropriate to translate SL cultural word to the TL cultural word. The translations are often imprecise because it prefers to the pragmatic function instead of maintaining the cultural term. For example.

ST : The world’s tallest *skyscraper*

TT : *Pencakar langit tertinggi dunia*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 20)

The phrase “*skyscraper*” is translated into a specific cultural word, which is “*pencakar langit*”. Therefore, the translator translates it to TL’s cultural equivalent which the meaning is more familiar to the target language readers.

5) Functional Equivalence

This procedure is applied to translate cultural words by generalizing SL cultural words. The cultural word is transferred to a free word which means

beyond the cultural words or occasionally to a new specific term (Newmark, 1988: 83). Harvey (2003) in Savitri (2017: 25) states that it is the procedure using a referent of TL's culture which has similar SL's referent. The following expression is the example of the functional equivalent procedure.

ST : *Aturan Adat*

TT : Ancestral Knowledge

(Savitri, P.W., 2017: 27)

The phrase “aturan adat” is translated to “ancestral knowledge” because the TT referent has similar function with ST referent. It is used when the equivalent word does not appear in the target language.

6) Descriptive Equivalent

Descriptive equivalent is the procedure that translates a word to the description or the function of the word. These are crucial elements in the translation (Newmark, 1988: 83-4). Generally, the target language does not have a term that depicts the concept of the words. For example.

ST : Samurai

TT : *Senjata tradisional jepang berbentuk seperti pedang yang sangat tajam.*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 20)

The word “*samurai*” is a kind of cultural words. The translator needs to give a brief explanation when the target readers are lack of the concept of the word. Therefore they can imagine referent.

7) Synonymy

Synonymy is the procedure to find the word that has a similar sense to the target language according to the source language context. It is used when the TL does not have a precise equivalent of SL words. Occasionally, they are the non-core words which its roles are less important in the sentence (Newmark, 1988: 84). This does not mean that a core word cannot be translated by synonymy. For instance.

ST : Those *cute* puppies always please me.

TT : *Anak anjing yang lucu itu selalu menenangkanku.*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 20)

The word “*cute*” is translated to “*lucu*”. The actual meaning of “*cute*” should show a small size, beauty, and funny.

8) Through Translation

Through translation is a procedure to translate common collocation, names of organization, component of compounds and phrases literally. It is also recognized as a loan translation (Newmark, 1988: 84). This procedure is used the most to the name of the organizations with its acronyms. For example.

ST : United Nation (UN)

TT : *Perserikatan Bangsa-Bangsa (PBB)*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 21)

This translation procedure is used when the term is already known in the TL. The example above is the translation in the name of organization which has known by the acronyms.

9) Shift or Transposition

Transposition is a shift involving the grammar from source to target language. Newmark (1988: 85-7) argued that there are four types of transposition. First, transposition of singular to the plural form, for instance, English "*people*" to Bahasa Indonesia "*orang-orang*". The second is a transposition of grammatical structure when the source and target language have a different form, e.g. Indonesian of "*what time is it?*" in English becomes "*jam berapa sekarang?*". Third, it is the transposition when the literal translation is possible in grammatical structure but the translation does not sound natural in the TL. The source language word classes transpose to different word classes in the target language. For example, the word "*musical instruments*" which is plural in English becomes "*alat musik*" which is singular. The fourth type of transposition is the alteration of virtual lexical gap to the grammatical structure. For instance.

ST : He pioneered this drug

TT : Dia adalah salah satu pelopor obat ini

(Newmark, 1988: 87)

The sentence above is kind of fourth type's shift. This kind of procedure can be applied into a sentential level.

10) Modulation

It refers to ‘a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view’ (Vinay and Darbelnet in Newmark, 1988: 88). The reason why modulation is applied is to avoid unsuitable target text so that the expression of the target text can be accepted by the target readers. Meanwhile, the meaning of the source text remains the same. For example.

ST : She cuts her finger

TT : *Jari tangannya teriris*

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 21)

The sentence “*she cut her finger*” is translated to “*jari tangannya teriris*”. Both sentences have the same message but different points of view. It is appropriate for the readership. Vinay and Darbelnet in Newmark (1988: 89) state modulation can be applied to the part for the whole. The other modulation procedures are abstract for concrete, cause for effect, one part for another, a reversal of term, active for passive, space for time, intervals and limits, and change of symbols.

11) Recognized Translation

This is the procedure to translate SL institutional word to an official or generally accepted term of TL. The translator may disagree with the official version if it is needed. But it will confuse the reader especially in the informative text (Newmark, 1988: 89). Thus, recognized translation can be

used only for certain terms that are recognized by the target language readers.

For example.

ST : Loss and damage

TT : *Kerugian dan kerusakan*

(Karjo, C.H., 2015: 361)

This translation procedure is generally used when the term is already known in the TL. The example above is the translation of the common term which is familiar by the readers.

12) Compensation

The procedure is the compensation of several aspects in SL such as meaning, sound-effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect to another aspect in TL (Newmark, 1988: 90). In certain cases, the target language cannot accept source language meaning so that the translator should compensate several elements to be accepted in TL's form.

SL : I was so moved that I couldn't stop crying.

TL : *Aku sangat terharu oleh tangisan itu.*

(Fitria, T.N, 2015: 8)

The translator changes the element information and gives stylistic effect in TL because the SL cannot be reflected in the same place in SL. If the SL is translated literary, the translation in TL might be different both in the structure and meaning.

13) Componential Analysis

This is the translation procedure that separates the lexical unit to its sense component. For most cases, it divides a word to two or more components or vice versa (Newmark, 1988: 90). For example.

ST : *Memanggul*

TT : Carry on one's shoulder

(Budianto, L. and Fhardani, A.E., 2010: 20)

Normally, the SL word has a more specific meaning than the TL word. The translator needs to add one or two TL sense components to the corresponding TL word. It aims to produce a closer appropriate meaning (Newmark, 1988: 114)

14) Reduction and Expansion

These procedures are the approximate translation that reduces or expands the sentence unintentionally in some cases of translation (Newmark, 1988: 90). The reduction and expansion mostly happen to reduce and add some elements to the sentence. For example.

ST : French-atteintes inflammatoires et infectieuses (inflammatory and infectious disease/ *penyakit radang dan infeksi*)

TT : inflammations and infections

(Newmark, 1988: 90)

In this case, the translation changes the noun phrase (adjective modifier) to a noun. This kind of translation functions to simplify and beautify the expression.

15) Equivalence

It refers to a strategy that is used to describe the same situation by using a different stylistic or structural method for producing equivalent texts (Vinay and Darbelnet in Munday, 2016: 91). For example.

SL : People are illogical, unreasonable, and self-centered. Love them anyway.

TL : *Orang sering keterlaluan, tidak logis, dan hanya mementingkan diri; bagaimanapun, maafkanlah mereka.*

(Siregar, R., 2016: 55)

Equivalence technique is commonly used by the translator in translating idiom. As every country sometimes has different idiom from another, idiom should not be translated literally. To make the target text understandable by the readers, the translator has to translate the source text equivalent to the target text.

16) Adaptation

Vinay and Darbelnet (in Munday, 2016: 91) define that adaptation can be used to translate source text which does not exist in the culture of the target text. It means that the translator can create another term which still makes sense with the source text, for example.

SL : They're here in my Four - Dimensional Pocket.

TL : Mereka didalam Kantung Ajaibku

(Fitria, T.N., 2015: 6)

The example was taken from translation analysis of *Stand by Me Doraemon* movie. The general term of “4D pocket” is known as “*kantung ajaib*” in the TL. If the source text is translated by using the literal translation, the target readers might confuse and misunderstand. Hence by choosing the phrase related to the culture of the target text is a better option.

17) Paraphrase

Paraphrase occurs as an additional explanation of some components of a text (Newmark, 1988: 90). It occurs commonly in cultural or certain terms that have non-equivalent meaning in TL. The translator changes the expression in SL to several expressions in TL.

18) Couplets

Couplets, triplets or quadruplets are the procedures to say a combination of two or more translation procedures (Newmark, 1988: 91). Combining two or more translation procedures is possible to achieve the equivalent meaning in TL. Occasionally, transference is combined with a cultural or functional equivalent.

19) Notes, Addition, and Glosses

This is a kind of procedure when the translator gives additional information, especially in cultural words. They may take in the various forms in translation such as within the text, at the bottom of the page, at the end of the chapter, or at the end of the book. The translator should give additional information when translating informative and important text. The information is given to the author's term, not the whole sentence.

2. Degree of Equivalence

To assess the quality of the translation product, there are many assessments needed, i.e. clarity, acceptability, accuracy, naturalness, and equivalence. They are used to consider the result of translation products whether the translated text is good or not. By doing so, one of the assessments which are used in this research is equivalence.

Equivalence can be used as a measurement in determining the accuracy of target language toward source language. Vinay and Darbelnet view equivalence oriented translation as a technique, which means that the translator can translate source text in the different expressions but it has the same situation and condition in the target text (Leonardi, 2000). Also, they claim that target text can be accepted as long as they are listed in a bilingual dictionary as “fully equivalent”.

Nida and Taber (1982: 13) also state that equivalence in translation is a form of correspondence. It focuses on the message by paying attention in both

form or style and content or meaning. They define two types of equivalence: formal and dynamic (or functional) equivalence. Formal equivalence is based on the form and content of the message. While dynamic equivalence is based on the principle of the effect being equivalent and the TT being as natural as the ST.

Catford's theories on translation equivalence are linguistically based and rather influential. He defines various levels of equivalence and factors affecting equivalence (i.e. linguistic and cultural). Moreover, he also differentiates two types of translation equivalence, such as textual and formal. Catford describes shifts within languages that are based on the diversity between formal and textual equivalence and are associated with non-equivalence problems as well.

Then, Baker introduces new approaches and new types of translation equivalence. She analyses equivalence at various levels (Baker, 1992) such as equivalence at the word level, equivalence above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence, and pragmatic equivalence. During the process of translation the attention is given to the meaning of a separate word (or morpheme) when it is spoken about the meaning of a word (Baker, 1992: 11) and the difficulty is faced when that word has more than one meaning or even has no equivalent with the same meaning in the TL.

In addition, to assess the degree of equivalence in figurative language translation, International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in Fecusova

(2017: 104) defines typology to assess equivalence. It comprises five stages of the equivalent degree. The researcher adopts the typology and evolves the criteria due to the research's aspects.

a. Exact Equivalent

Exact equivalence means that the TL unit is identical in meaning and scope with the SL unit. The term can function as a preferred term in the TL. Thus the SL figurative language has similar meanings, scopes, concepts and functions in the TL.

b. Near Equivalent

Near equivalence means that the SL figurative language unit is different from the TL figurative language in that it denotes the same general concepts. However, the meanings of the respective expressions are not absolutely equal.

c. Partly Equivalence

The SL figurative language cannot be matched with an exactly equivalent TL figurative language; nevertheless, a near equivalence in translation can be achieved by selecting a term with a slightly broader or narrower scope of meaning. In this case, SL figurative can be translated to TL non-figurative language and vice versa.

d. Single-Multiple Equivalence

Single-multiple equivalence means that the SL figurative language unit cannot be matched with a TL unit, but the concept to which the SL unit refers can be expressed by a combination of two or more existing preferred TL units.

e. No-Equivalence

The TL does not contain a term that corresponds in meaning, either partially or approximately, to the source language term. In other words, the term can be an abstract and, as a rule, a culture-dependent concept, uncommon for the users of the TL.

3. Figurative Language

a. Definition of Figurative Language

In literature, there are many perceptions about figurative language. Diyanni (2001: 242) states that figurative language is sequences of words that have meanings other than the actual meaning. Abrams (2009: 118) explains that figurative language is sequences of standard words used by language users to achieve the meanings or special effects. The effects are generally delicate, imaginative, and aesthetic. It is sometimes described as a primary poetic that integrates the function of a language and is necessary for the discourses.

Figurative language is also known as a figure of speeches, rhetorical figures, and metaphorical languages (Elder 2004: 294). The figure of speeches or figurative language is that compares and paints a picture in people's minds.

They are different names for the same thing. While Perrine (1969: 118) states that figurative language, language using the figure of speeches, is the language that cannot be taken literally (or should not be taken literally).

Holman (1980: 185) states that figurative language is an intentional departure from normal orders, construction or meaning of words to gain strength and freshness of expressions. It aims to create pictorial effects, to describe an analogy or to discover and to illustrate similarities in otherwise dissimilar things. In other words, figurative language is done as the style of writing to make it more expressive and invites imagery to the readers.

The researcher concludes that figurative language, known as the figure of speech is sequences of standard words, differ from a normal order that the function is to paint pictures in readers' or listeners' mind, to gain special meanings, to describe an analogy and to illustrate similar or dissimilar things. Figurative language becomes the basic aspect of literature, especially literary works. It gives more expressive meaning and carries the readers to relate the phenomenon that happened in their surroundings.

b. Characteristics of Figurative Language

The most important characteristic of the figurative language used in literary works is that it makes them easy and beautiful to read. According to Perrine (1969: 118), there are four characteristics of figurative language.

- 1 First, figurative language gives the readers imaginative pleasure of literary works.
- 2 Second, it is a way to bring additional imagery into the expressions, make the abstract things concrete, and make literary works more reasonable.
- 3 Third, figurative is a way of adding emotional intensity through informative statements and conveying manner along with information.
- 4 And the last, it is how to say many things in structured way.

There are two general categories of figurative language, that are tropes, which are to do with meaning variations in the use of lexemes and multi-word language constructions and schemes, which concern the repetition of phonological, syntactic, and lexical forms (Alm-Arvius, 2003: 190). By using figurative language, the writers can evoke emotion and imagery from their writing that literal language cannot provide. Thus, figurative language makes expressing meaning through writing easier and more relatable to the reader.

c. Types of Figurative Language

There are many types of figurative language based on some experts. Perrine (1969: 64-118) divides the twelve types of figurative language into three categories. The first category is the figurative language of comparison that consists of metaphor, simile, personification, and apostrophe. The second category is the figurative language of association that includes synecdoche, metonymy, symbol, and allegory. Then, the third category is the figurative language of contrast which comprise of paradox, irony, litotes, and hyperbole.

Keraf (2009) cited in Harya (2016: 48) divided the figurative language in Bahasa Indonesia into four major categories. They are.

1. The figure of speech of comparison, for example, simile, personification, metaphor, euphemism, allegory, hyperbole, and litotes.
2. The figure of speech of allusion, for example, irony and sarcasm.
3. The figure of speech of affirmation, for example, pleonasm, repetition, parallelism, tautology, climax, rhetoric, and anticlimax.
4. The figure of speech of opposition, for example, antithesis and paradox.

Then, Diyanni (2001: 242) categorizes types of figurative language into seven. They are simile, metaphor, personification, hyperbole, metonymy, litotes, and synecdoche. Here are some figurative languages reviewed by the researcher. The examples are taken from several researches because Diyanni's examples are not available.

1) Comparison or Simile

Simile is a kind of figurative language of comparison which the function is to compare one thing to another that has a similar characteristic to describe one thing to another (Alm-Arvius, 2003:125). Besides, Diyanni (2001: 242) explains that simile establishes explicitly the comparison of the words *like*, *seem* or *as*. Thornborrow and Wareing (1998:78) also state that simile explains the relations of one thing with another explicitly in a text. In Bahasa Indonesia, simile contains direct comparison by adding *seperti*, *bak*, *seakan*, or

tampaknya (Keraf, 2009: 138). It aims to present images through a direct comparison between two dissimilar things, or objects or ideas, for example.

Because it's not love to be static like the dessert, nor is it love to roam the world like the wind.

(The Alchemist (Coelho, 1988: 143) cited in Harya, 2016: 57)

The sentences compare two different things explicitly and it is in line with Leech (1969: 156) that simile is an overt comparison while metaphor is covert comparison. Simile explains the resemblance of two unlike things more explicitly than a metaphor. According to the definition of a simile, the author employs simile to give the imaginative way to the readers by comparing love with the dessert and the wind.

2) Metaphor

Metaphor is the structure of comparison, a resemblance that happens unexpectedly, and involves its distinctive structures (Wolosky, 2001: 30). Metaphor has the same function as simile which is to compare dissimilarities of two objects. However, it does not employ such explicit verbal clue (Diyanni, 2001: 243). The meaning of the metaphor is implicit because it used figurative terms that exchange the literal words (Perrine, 1969:61). In addition, the way of comparing something applies certain character to a thing which does not belong to (Keraf, 2009: 139). For instance.

The dessert is a capricious lady, and sometimes she drives men crazy.

(The Alchemist (Coelho: 1988: 68) cited in Harya, 2016: 60)

The author compares “*the dessert*” with a lady. The dessert and lady are two completely unrelated things. It is in line with the statement that metaphor associated two different unrelated things through the process of mapping (Simpson, 2004: 41).

3) Personification

Personification is a kind of figurative language that gives human qualities and characteristics to an inanimate object (Diyanni, 2001: 243). Wolosky (2001: 93) states that personification is a comparison of things which associates the non-human to human qualities. It expresses objects such as animal, plants, and natural objects as if having the feelings, action and characteristics as human. Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 33) argued that personification gives more understanding to the readers by expressing the lifeless object to be similar as human’s activity and feelings. For example.

“All the universe conspires in helping you to achieve it”

(The Alchemist (Coelho, 1988: 21) cited in Harya, 2016: 58)

Those sentences are categorized as personification because it shows that a thing is given human quality. The author personifies the universe by giving it human activity which makes the universe as if had the ability like a human who can conspire in helping.

4) Hyperbole

Hyperbole aims to exaggerate the atmosphere (Diyanni, 2001: 244). Keraf (2009: 135) defines hyperbole as the expression which contains an exaggerating statement. Besides, Wren and Martin (2000: 334) explain that hyperbole is a sentence expressing overstatement to give an emphatic effect to the readers. Thus, it makes the situation becomes extraordinary, for example.

Because a grain of sand is a moment of creation, and the universe has taken millions of years to create it

(The Alchemist (Coelho, 1988: 125) cited in Harya, 2016: 62)

The sentence contains hyperbole because the author wants to emphasize the truth of the statement. The sentence ‘*the universe has taken millions of years to create it*’ is an exaggeration expression in this sentence. Through this sentence the author of the novel tries to emphasize for certain effect.

5) Litotes

Litotes is a kind of figurative language that aims to give understatement to what is happening so that the expression is less true (Diyanni, 2001: 244). It is in line with Leech (1969: 169) statement that litotes is kind of understatement. The speaker uses a negative expression instead of a positive one to refine the statement. In addition, Mc.Guigan (2010: 19) argued that litotes is like understatement which states something opposite by the condition. In other words, litotes is used when the speaker wants to express the statements less than what it means actually. The example is below.

This unpretentious house is the result of our efforts for many years

(Keraf, 2009: 133)

The sentences apply the figurative language of litotes to express a house. The speaker tends to give understatement to his house which is shown in the phrase *unpretentious*.

6) Metonymy

Metonymy is the use of something closely related for the thing actually meant (DiYanni, 2001: 244). It is a figure of speech in which the name of one object is replaced by another that is closely associated with it (Keraf, 2009: 142). In other words, metonymy is a transposition of two entities that are associated with the same conceptual domain (Simpson, 2004: 43). Then, Kovecses (2010: 191) simply explains that metonymy is the replacement of words that has closed meaning. For example.

The pen is more dangerous than the sword.

(Keraf, 2009: 142)

It describes that pen is more dangerous than a sword, but it is not the literal meaning. Pen replaces the implicit meaning that is "*word*" because a pen is related to writing, and writing is related to a word. Those words are closely related for the thing actually meant.

7) Synecdoche

Synecdoche is used to mention a part to signify the whole (DiYanni, 2001: 244). This means a figurative language that is used as a part of the thing to say a whole or is used as a whole to say a part of the thing. In addition, Alm-Arvius (2003: 163-164) states that synecdoche is called meaning shift, using a lexeme or along with expression within a part-whole relationship. The meaning shift occurs when the whole describe by a label which indicates a part of it, or a term for the whole that can use one of its parts, for example.

Every heads need to pay for one thousand rupiahs.

(Keraf, 2009: 142)

The first sentence does not mean that only for the head but it represents the whole body of people. Those sentences are used to designate the part for a whole.

4. Translation of Figurative Language

As an activity of transferring messages from source to target language, the results of translation depend on the translator's knowledge and ability. The translators are considered to understand both source and target languages. In the translation, especially translation of literary works, most translators find difficulty in translating the meaning. Newmark (1998: 104) states that the main problem in the translation is finding appropriate strategies to translate the meaning, especially figurative language meaning.

Jakobson cited in Hatim and Munday (2004: 10), states two terms in translation, namely translatability and untranslatability. Translatability is the condition in which source text can be translated into the target text. Moreover, untranslatability is the condition when source text meaning cannot be transferred to the target text. Several translation experts, such as Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), and Nida (1964) stated that figurative language is a kind of language which is untranslatable. However, Newmark (1988) suggested that figurative language is possible to translate by using translation strategies.

Different from the writing process, the translation needs several steps before starting transferring the message. Hervey and Higgins (1992) cited in Protopopescu (2015: 27), the translator must consider a certain feature of a text in the process of translating. They are a strategic decision and decision of details. The strategic decision deals with the process before the translator started translating the text. In this process, the translator should find the linguistics characteristic of the text, infer the major effects the text has on the readers, set up the genre of the text, and surmise the nature of the target readers must be. Moreover, decision details concern specific problems of grammatical constructions, semantics, and lexis that should be created in translating certain expressions or collocation related to the context.

Accordingly, before translating figurative language expression, the translator must repeatedly read the source text to find strategic decisions. Then the translator ought to concerns the decision details of the target text. It aims to reduce some problems of untranslatable expressions. In addition, the

translator must find the appropriate strategies or techniques to translate figurative languages.

B. Review of Related Study

In conducting this research, the researcher reviews some prior studies concerning the translation of figurative language.

1. The first study is from Kendenan's research (2017) whose article entitles *Simile & Metaphor In Translation: A Study On Students' Translation Of Amy Tan's "Two Kinds" Short Story*. Her study is aimed to describe how translation students of Literary Translation class deal with the translation of similes and metaphors. By comparing students' translations and the source text, it is found that students mostly reproduce the same image in the TL to translate similes and metaphors from English into Indonesian.
2. The second study that has relevancy in this research is *Figurative Language Found in Printed Advertisement* written by I Wayan Suryasa (2016). The study analyzed kinds of figurative languages used in advertisements in Bali. He adapted the Larson's categorization as the indicators of figurative languages kinds. The method of analyzing the data is library research. The data were taken from the text advertisements of Visitor's Guide to Bali Advertisement. The findings show that there are five figurative languages found in the advertisement. Those are metaphor, personification, hyperbole, simile, and synecdoche. The function is to get the readers' interest to buy the product offered by the advertiser.

3. Another study that has relevancy on this research is from Malay researcher entitled "*Translation of Figurative Language from English to Malay: An Analysis of The Translation of The Harry Potter Series*". It is written by Puteri Roslina Abdul Wahid (2017) who enrolled as a lecturer of the Department of Malay Language Academy at the University of Malaya. Her research is aimed to analyze the translation of figurative and translators' strategies to interpret figurative language. The findings show that three categories of figurative language frequently appear in the novel, such as idiom, simile, and metaphor.
4. Yurina, Borovkova, and Shenkal (2015) have conducted the research entitled "*Cross-languages Figurativeness in Translator's Speech (Based on the Russian Translation of Turkish Novel «The Black Book» by Orhan Pamuk)*". The research aims to conduct a comparative analysis of the image-bearing vocabulary units based on several aspects such as structural, semantic, stylistic and cultural equivalency in the target text. The findings show that the images are translated successfully and the equivalents chosen satisfy the goals and objectives of the literary text.

Four prior researches mostly investigated how figurative language is translated in the target language and analyzed the technique of translating figurative language from the source to the target language. This research do not only investigate the types of figurative language found in the novel, but also to know the procedures used by the translator to translate figurative

language and to know the degree of equivalence of translation figurative language.

C. Theoretical Frameworks

This research aims to discuss how each type of figurative language found in an English novel is translated into Indonesia and how the equivalence degree of the translation is. The researcher focuses on the types of figurative language, the translation procedures influenced by the gap of forms and meanings between source and target texts, and the degree of equivalence in the translation. The framework of the research analysis is illustrated in Figure 3.

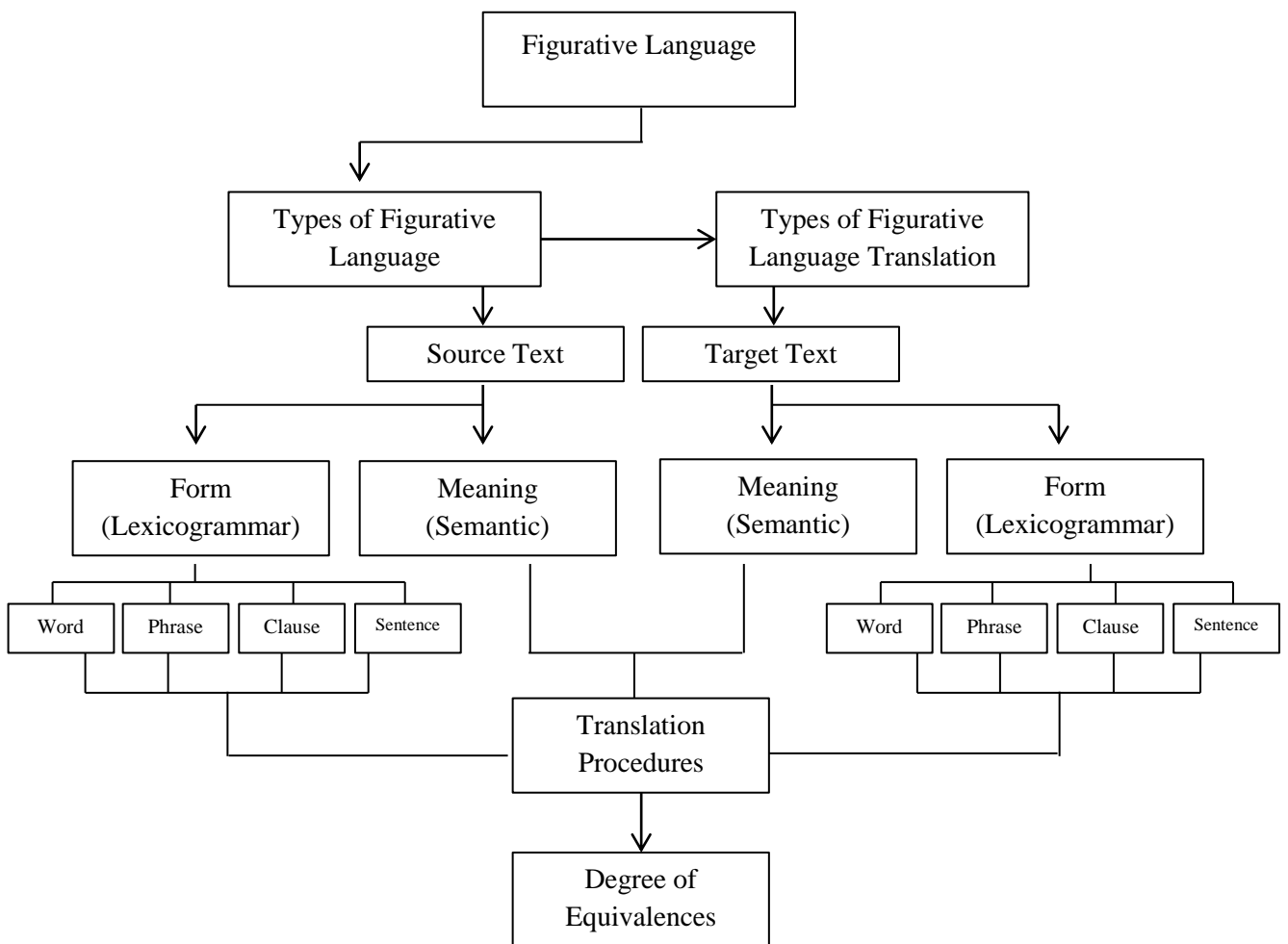


Figure 3. Theoretical Framework of the Research

Figure 3 is an outline of the research's analysis. To begin the analysis, the researcher attempts to find the expressions containing figurative language in the source text in the form of words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. The types of figurative language are determined based on Diyanni's framework. To identify the translation procedures, the researcher compares the forms and the meanings of figurative language between the source and target texts. When all expressions are identified, the last step is to determine the equivalence degree of each figurative language expression.

D. Research Questions

According to the problems formulated in this research, the research questions are as follows.

1. What are the types of figurative languages that appear in *The Spy* novel?
2. What are the translation procedures frequently used by the translator to translate figurative languages in *The Spy* into *Mata Hari*?
3. How is the degree of equivalence in the figurative language translation?
4. Did the translator transfer the meaning of the source text well?