

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Translation

Translation has been defined in many ways by different writers in the field, depending on how they view language and translation. According to Wills in Cholimudin (2007: 3), translation is a procedure which leads from a written source language text to an optimally equivalent target language text and requires the syntactic, semantic, stylistic and text pragmatic comprehension by the translator of the original text. Besides, Nida and Taber (1982: 12) say that translating consists in the reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, firstly in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. Both definitions above imply that translation involves two languages: the source language (SL) and the target or receptor language (TL or RL), and that an act of translating is an act of reproducing the meaning of the SL text into that of the TL text.

Catford (1965: 20) states that translation may be defined as the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). Similar definition is also mentioned by Larson (1984: 3). He says that translation consists of translating the meaning of the source language into the receptor language. This is done by going from the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant. Only the form changes.

From the notions above it can be concluded that translating includes the act of transferring message from the source text to the target text. The aim of translation is to find the equivalent meaning of the source language expression in the target language. Thus, meaning is important in translation and it must be held constant. Furthermore, translating a literary work into another language is creating a new literary work in another language. A translation novel is a novel that contains different language from the original text but carrying the spirit of the original text. It also arouses the same response to the readers between the two languages.

1. Types of Translation

Catford (1965: 21-25) makes categories of translation in terms of extent, levels, and ranks. Based on the extent, he classifies translation into *full* and *partial* translation. On the levels of translation, there are *total* and *restricted* translation and on the ranks there are *rank bound* and *unbounded* translation.

In full translation, the entire text is submitted to the translation process, that is, every part of the source language text is replaced by the target language text material. In partial translation, some parts of the source language text are left untranslated. They are simply transferred to the target language text.

Total translation means the replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology or graphology by non equivalent TL phonology or graphology. While restricted translation means the replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL textual

material at only one level, that is translation performed only at the phonological or at graphological level, or at only one of the two levels of grammar and lexis.

Rank-bound translation is translation in which the selection of TL equivalents is deliberately confined to one rank or a few ranks in the hierarchy of grammatical units, usually at word or morpheme rank, that is, setting up word-to-word or morpheme-to-morpheme equivalence. In contrast with this, normal total translation in which equivalences shift freely up and down the rank scale is called unbounded translation.

Based on the purpose of translation, Brislin (in Cholimudin, 2007: 26-29) categorizes translation into these following types.

a. *Pragmatic* Translation

It refers to the translation of a message with an interest in accuracy of the information that was meant to be conveyed in the source language form. It is not concerned with other aspects of the original language version.

b. *Aesthetic-poetic* Translation

This refers to translation in which the translator takes into account the affect, emotion, and feelings of an original agnate version, the aesthetic form used by the original author, as well as any information in the message. The examples of this type are the translation of sonnet, rhyme, heroic couplet, dramatic dialogue, and novel.

c. *Ethnographic Translation*

The purpose of ethnographic translation is to explicate the cultural context of the source language and target language versions. Translators have to be sensitive to the way the words are used and must know how the words fits into cultures.

d. *Linguistic Translation*

This is concerned with equivalent meanings of the constituent morphemes of the source language and grammatical form. The example is the language in a computer program and machine translation.

Brislin says that basically, based on the kinds of texts to be translated, there are two types of translation namely *factual* and *literary* translations. Factual translation refers to translating to convey information with precision, without involving the emotions or feelings of the translator but only based on the real facts such as translating scientific fields, reports, newspaper, etc. Literary translation refers to the translation of art works. In this kind of translation, the translator involves his or her emotion or feeling and it tends to be subjective, for example the translation of poems, drama, novels, etc.

According to Larson (1984: 15) translation is classified into two main types, namely *form-based* and *meaning-based* translation. Form-based translation attempts to follow the form of Source Language and is known as literal translation, while meaning-based translation makes every effort to communicate the meaning of the SL text in the natural forms of the receptor language. Such translation is called idiomatic translation.

Larson (1984: 16) says that idiomatic translations use the natural forms of the receptor language both in the grammatical constructions and in the choices of lexical items. A truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation. It sounds like it was written originally in the receptor language. Therefore, a good translator will try to translate idiomatically.

In practice, however, it is hard to consistently translate idiomatically or literally. These translations are often a mixture of literal and idiomatic forms of language. Translation then falls on a continuum from very literal, to literal, to modified literal, to near idiomatic, to idiomatic, and may fall, even more on the unduly free as displayed below.

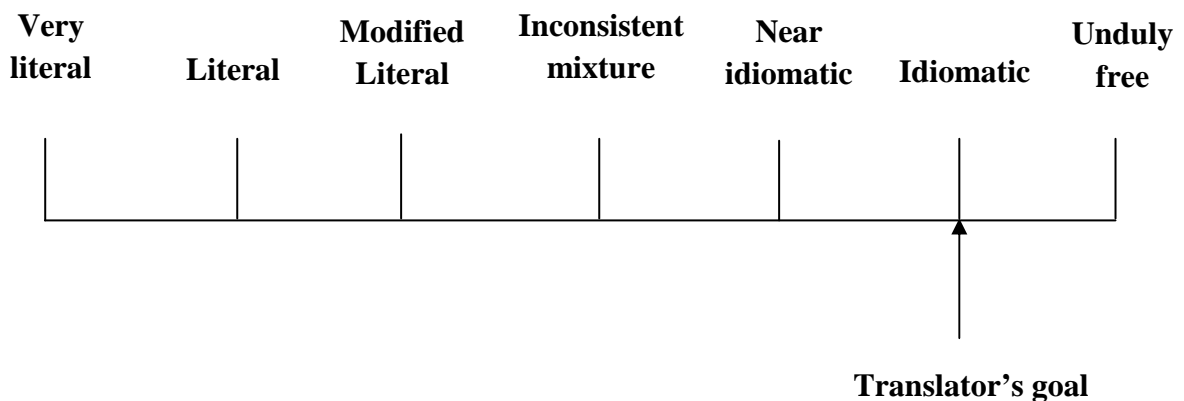


Figure 1. **Translation as a continuum by Larson (1984: 17)**

The translator's goal should be an idiomatic translation. Newmark (1988: 46) states that idiomatic translation reproduces the message of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idiom where these do not exist in the original. He will know he is successful if the receptor language readers do not recognize his work as a translation at all, but simply as a text written in the receptor language for their information and enjoyment.

2. Translation Process

According to Larson (1984: 3) when translating a text, the translator's goal is an idiomatic translation which makes every effort to communicate their meaning of the SL text into the natural forms of the receptor language. Furthermore, he states that translation is concerned with a study of the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the SL text, which is analyzed in order to determine its meaning. The discovered meaning is then re-expressed or reconstructed using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context. The following diagram is presented by Larson as the translation process.

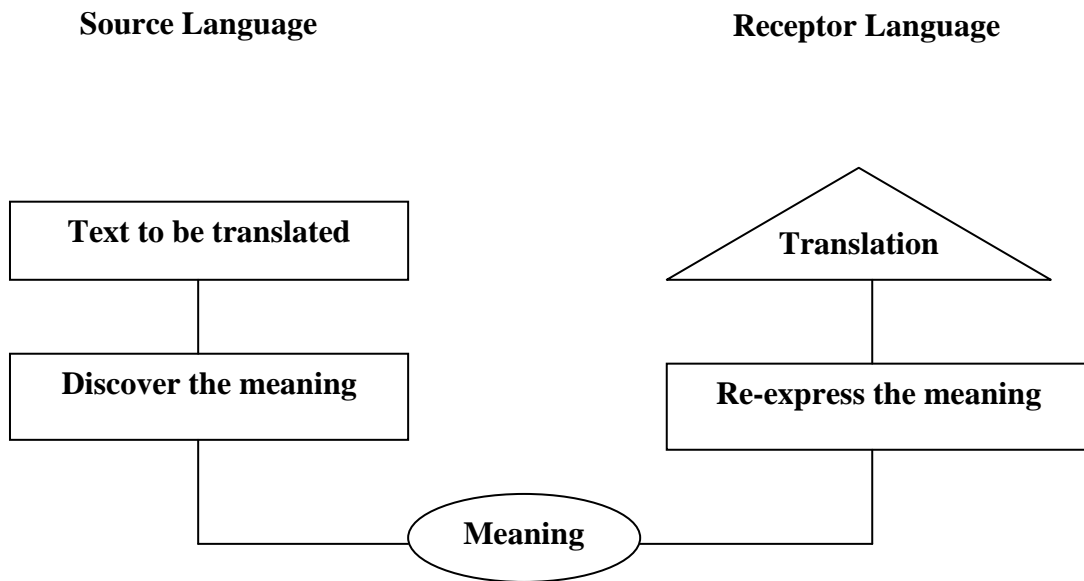


Figure 2. **Translation process by Larson (1984: 4)**

Nida and Taber (1982: 33) distinguish translation process into three stages: (1) analysis, in which the surface structure is analyzed in terms of (a) the grammatical relationships and (b) the meaning of the words and combinations of words, (2) transfer, in which the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from language A to language B, and (3) restructuring, in which the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the receptor language. The translation process can be illustrated in the following diagram.

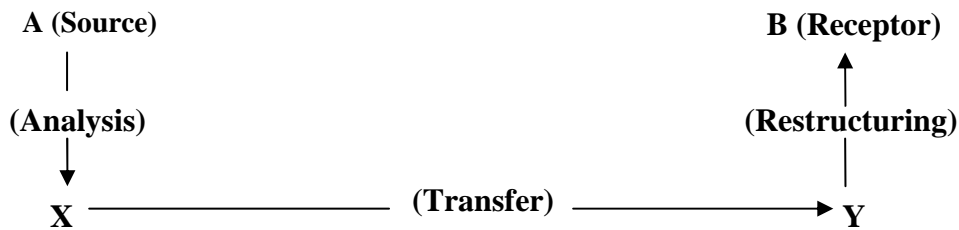


Figure 3. **Translation process by Nida and Taber (1982: 33)**

3. Form and Meaning in Translation

Larson (1984: 3) states that translation is basically a change of form. These forms are referred to as the surface structure of a language. It is the structural part of language which is actually seen in print or heard in speech. Baker (1992: 24) says that the form of the source language in translation is replaced by the equivalent lexical item (form) of the receptor language. However, there is often no equivalent in the target language for a particular form in the source text.

According to Larson (1984: 3), translation is done by going from the form of the first language to the form of second language by way of semantic structure. When a translator makes a translation, it means that he or she transfers meaning of source text. What is necessary to consider is that the meaning must be maintained constantly or, in other words, when the change of form occurs, the meaning must be maintained. It is the characteristic of a language that the same meaning component will occur in several surface structure lexical items (forms).

In the translation process, the first thing to do is understand the total meaning of the source text. There are three types of “meaning” that can be determined in the analysis of meaning of the source text (Nida and Taber, 1982: 34), namely (1) *grammatical* meaning, (2) *referential* meaning, and (3) *connotative* meaning. In grammatical meaning, when one thinks of meaning, it is almost inevitably in terms of words or idioms. Generally grammar is taken for granted since it seems to be merely a set of arbitrary rules about arrangement, rules that must be followed if one wants to understand, but not rules themselves that seem to have any meaning. Referential meaning refers to words as symbols which refer to objects, event, abstracts, and relations. Connotative meaning refers to how the users of the language react, whether positively or negatively, to the words and their combination.

Translation has been performed as a process which begins with the source text, then the meaning of the text is analyzed, discovered, transferred, and re-expressed in the receptor language. In actual practice, however, the translator moves back and forward from the source text to the receptor text. Sometimes he or she will analyze the source text in order to find the meaning, then restructure this meaning in the receptor language, and move back once again to look at the source text. In translation, the translators should know the types of meanings. By knowing what meaning they should produce, the messages of the source text can be transferred well. Then, the well-transferred meaning will make easier to understand for the readers.

4. Equivalence in Translation

Machali (1998: 3) states that target language equivalents have to be sought not simply in terms of the “sameness of meaning”, but in terms of the greatest possible overlap of situational range. Thus equivalence in translation should not be approached as a search for sameness since sameness of meaning cannot easily exist between the source language and the target language.

Nida (1964: 159) proposes two basic orientations in translating: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, both form and content. The message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. On the contrary of formal equivalence, dynamic equivalence does not concern with matching the receptor language message with the source language message, but with the dynamic relationship. A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture.

Bell (1991: 6) states that texts in different languages can be equivalent in different degrees (full or partly equivalent), in respects of different levels of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of semantics, of grammar, of lexis, etc.) and different ranks (word-for-word, phrase-for phrase, sentence-for-sentence). Sometimes, the source language text has no meaning in the target language text that the meaning in the target language can be fully or partly equivalent, but the meaning

in the target text can be said as equivalent to the meaning in source text when they have function in the same communicative situation and express the same purpose.

5. Translation Strategies

The term *strategy* is often said similar to the term *technique*. In some ways it can be called similar because some experts use these terms with the same purpose. For example, Mona Baker says that she proposes some strategies to translate idiomatic expressions, whereas Andrejs Veisberg proposes some techniques to translate idiomatic expressions. Both expressions aim at the same point.

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, technique is a method of doing or performing something whereas strategy is a plan to accomplish a specific goal. This research will use the term strategy related to Mona Baker's theory of strategies to translate idiomatic translation. Mona Baker's view of translation strategies are applied when a translation difficulty occurs and the translator wishes to solve the problem and produce a good translation. Thus, translation strategies are means which considers to be the best in order to reach the goals.

Based on many experts in translation, there are many translation strategies to translate a text. Every translator uses different strategies to translate a text since different people may understand a word in different ways. Furthermore, there are kinds of expressions such as idioms and proverbs which are the products of culture. Idioms in one language probably have different forms in other languages. It may have distinctive form but the same meaning.

The way in which an idiom can be translated into another language depends on many factors, such as the availability of an idiom with a similar meaning, the significance of the specific lexical items which constitute the idiom, and the appropriateness of using idiomatic language in a given register in the target language.

Mona Baker (1992: 72) proposes some strategies that can be used to translate idioms.

a. Using an idiom of similar meaning and form

This strategy involves using an idiom in the target language which conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the source-language idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items (Baker, 1992: 72). The example is given as follows.

SL: In a little while, however, she again heard a little pattering of footsteps in the distance, and she looked up eagerly, half hoping that the Mouse had **changed his mind**, and was coming back to finish his story.

TL: Beberapa saat kemudian, sekali lagi dia mendengar suara langkah kaki di kejauhan. Alice menatap dengan penuh semangat, berharap si Tikus **berubah pikiran** dan kembali untuk menyelesaikan ceritanya.

The English idiomatic expression *change his mind* is translated into Bahasa Indonesia idiomatic expression *berubah pikiran*. According to *Dictionary of American Idioms and Phrasal Verbs*, change one's mind means to alter one's decision or opinion. The word *change* has similar meaning with *berubah* and *mind* has similar meaning with *pikiran*. According to the context

of the sentence, the word *his* is optional. In conclusion, both English and Bahasa Indonesia idiomatic expression refer to the same meaning and consist of similar lexical item.

b. Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form

It is often possible to find an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression, but which consists of different lexical items (Baker, 1992: 74). This strategy uses different lexical items to express more or less the same idea. The example is presented below.

SL: It would twist itself round and look up in her face, with such a puzzled expression that she **could not help** bursting out laughing.

TL: Tapi, burung itu memutar dirinya dan menatap wajah Alice dengan sangat bingung sehingga Alice **tidak dapat menahan diri** untuk tertawa.

According to *Dictionary of American Idioms and Phrasal Verbs*, the idiom *could not help (doing something)* means could not prevent or avoid on doing something. It means could not restrain, the word restrain refers to prevent oneself from doing something. Thus, idiomatically *could not prevent* means *tidak dapat menahan diri*. Therefore, both expressions in the source language and its translation in the target language refer to the same meaning. In terms of form, both expressions cannot be said as equivalent. If the idiomatic expression *could not help* translated literally, it will become *tidak dapat menolong* and it will be confusing to the reader.

c. Translation by paraphrase

This is by far the most common way of translating idioms when an equivalent cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target language (Baker, 1992: 74). Below is the example of the paraphrase strategy.

SL: They all sat down **at once**, in a large ring with the Mouse in the middle.

TL: **Seketika** anggota rapat itu duduk dalam lingkaran besar, sementara si Tikus berada di tengah-tengah.

The English idiom *at once* is translated into *seketika* in the target language text. Since the translator cannot find the equivalent of the English idiom in the idiomatic form of the target language, the translator does not translate it into idiomatic expression. The idiom *at once* means immediately or at the same time, the word *seketika* means *dengan serta merta*. The idiomatic expression in the source language text is translated based on its context which is more acceptable and understandable.

d. Translation by omission

As with single words, an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. It is because it has no close equivalent in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons (Baker, 1992: 77). The example is presented below.

SL: I shall have to ask them what the name of the country is, **you know**.

TL: Tapi aku harus bertanya pada mereka nama negeri ini.

It can be seen in the example above that *you know* is not realized in Bahasa Indonesia. According to *Dictionary of Idioms and Phrasal Verbs*, the idiomatic expression *you know* is used to open a conversation or switch to a new topic. The translator applies the omission strategy by letting the idiom *you know* be not translated to get effectiveness and considers that the readers will easily understand the meaning of the idiom.

Since it is very difficult to translate idioms into idioms, then a translator may apply non idiomatic translation in order to maintain the meaning of the translated expressions in the target language. Moreover, he or she has a choice not to realize an idiom in the translation since it has no close match in the target language or its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased.

B. Idioms

One of the most important aspects of language is idioms. They are frequently used in a wide variety of situations, from friendly conversations to more formal conversations and written contexts. Hornby (1995: 589) mentions that an idiom is a phrase or sentence whose meaning is not clear from the meaning of its individual words and which must be learnt as a whole unit, for instance, the idiom *spill the beans* means to reveal secret information, especially without intending to do so.

Carter (1993: 65) defines idioms as special combinations with restricted forms and meanings that cannot be deduced from the literal meanings of the words which make them up. Accordingly, an idiom is learned and used as a single unit. It should not be analyzed into its constituents; it is unchangeable and always carries figurative meaning.

In addition, Ball (1968: 1) finds that an adequate definition of an idiom is “the use of familiar words in an unfamiliar sense.” Palmer (1996: 80) states that “an idiom is semantically like a single word, it does not function like one. A large number of an idioms contain a verb and a noun, but although the verb may be placed in the past tense, the number of the noun can never be changed”, for instance, the expressions ‘kick the bucket’ and ‘kicked the bucket’ (someone who dies) are largely used in English, in contrast to ‘kick the buckets’ which never occurs.

An idiom allows no variation in form under normal circumstances. Unless the speaker is consciously making a joke or attempting a play on words. Baker (1992:63) identifies the grammatical and syntactic restrictions of idioms. A speaker or writer cannot normally do any of the following with an idiom.

1. Addition: adding any word to an idiomatic expressions would alter its meaning, or remove its idiomatic sense. Thus, adding the adverb ‘very’ to the adjective ‘red’ in ‘red herring’ (very red herring) affects the figurativeness of its meaning completely.

2. Deletion: deleting the adjective 'sweet' and the article 'the' from the expressions 'have a sweet thooth' and 'spill the beans' would totally change their meanings. Hence, (have a tooth) and (spill beans) have no idiomatic sense.
3. Substitution: idioms accept no replacement of words even if those words are synonyms. For example, 'the long and short of it' means the basic facts of a situation. The adjective 'long' cannot be substituted by another adjective, like tall, despite they have nearly the same meaning.
4. Changing the words order: any changing in the order of the words of an idiom leads to the destruction of the idiom's meaning. For instance, the order of the words in the expression 'the long and the short of it' cannot be changed into 'the short and the long of it'.
5. Changing the grammatical structure: the passive form 'some beans were spilled' has different meaning from its active form 'they spilled the beans' meaning 'they reveal a secret'.

Translating idioms is one of the most difficult tasks for translators. It involves far more than the replacement of lexical and grammatical items between languages, and it may involve discarding the basic linguistic elements of the SL text. According to Baker (1992: 65), the first difficulty that a translator comes across, while translating idioms, is the ability to recognize and distinguish idiomatic from non-idiomatic usage. Recognition is difficult, and sometimes impossible, since many idioms can be slightly modified, while others can be discontinuously spread over a clause. As a rule, the more difficult an expression is to understand and the less sense

it makes in a given context, the more likely a translator will recognize it as an idiom (Baker,1992 :65-66).

From the definitions above it can be concluded that an idiomatic expression or an idiom is an expression (i.e. term or phrase) whose meaning cannot be deduced from the literal definition and the arrangement of its parts. An idiom can be in the form of phrase, clause or sentence. In addition, the source and the target cultures have a great influence on the comprehensibility as well as the translatability of idioms. Hence, better understanding and using idioms needs both knowing their historical background and familiarity with both the source and the target cultures, and having a clear idea about their different situational context.

It should be quite clear by now, the concept of idiom has been interpreted differently by different people. The scope of idiomaticity and the view of different types of idioms are quite extensive. Since idioms differ greatly both in their character and composition, it is indeed important to provide categorizations for different types of idioms. In this research, some classifications of English idioms from some experts will be introduced by the researcher.

Lim (2004: i) says that generally speaking, English idioms consist of the following six types:

- a. phrasal verb, as in *call on, put off, do away with,*
- b. prepositional phrases, as in *in a nutshell, from time to time, with a view to,*
- c. idioms with verbs as keywords, as in *come in handy, fight shy of, leave much to be desired,*

- d. idioms with nouns as keywords, as in *a blessing disguise, child's play, food for thought,*
- e. idioms with adjectives as keywords, as in *cold comfort, wishful thinking, plan sailing,* and
- f. idiomatic pairs, as in *safe and sound, aches and pains, sink or swim.*

Moreover, Seidl and McMordie (1980: 41-240) also classify idioms into the following groups.

- a. Key words with idiomatic uses
 - 1) Adjective and adverb, e.g. *bad news, a big mouth, in short, it is high time*
 - 2) Noun, e.g. *by the way, in the end, the bottom line*
 - 3) Miscellaneous, e.g. *after all, how in the world, it is too bad*
- b. Idioms with nouns and adjectives
 - 1) Noun phrases, e.g. *a blessing in disguise, a breath of fresh air*
 - 2) Adjectives + noun, e.g. *a blind date, a close call, a narrow escape*
- c. Idiomatic pairs

This kind of idiom consists of some combination. Five different types are given as follows:

- 1) pairs of adjectives, e.g. *safe and sound,*
- 2) pairs of nouns, e.g. *flesh and blood,*
- 3) pairs of adverbs, e.g. *in and out,*
- 4) pairs of verbs, e.g. *sink or swim,*
- 5) identical pairs, e.g. *all in all.*

d. Idioms with prepositions, e.g. *at ease, behind the scenes, in a flash, out of bounds*

e. Phrasal verbs, e.g. *break up, go on, get out, settle down, get up*

f. Verbal idiom

1) Verb + noun, e.g. *throw a party*

2) Verb + prepositional phrase, e.g. *keep in touch*

g. Idioms of comparison , e.g. *as black as coal, as dumb as a statue, to eat like a horse, to go like the wind*

McCarthy and O'Dell (2003: 6) give another classification to the English idiom types focusing on their combinations, as it is shown in the following table.

Table 1. **Fixed Aspect of Idioms (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2003)**

Forms	Examples	Meanings
Verb+object/complement (and or adverbial)	<i>Kill two birds with one stone</i>	Produce two useful results by just doing one action
Prepositional phrase	<i>In the blink of an eye</i>	In an extremely short time
Compound	<i>A bone of contention</i>	Something which people argue and disagree over.
Simile (as+adjectives+as or like+a noun)	<i>As dry as a bone</i>	Very dry indeed
Binominal (word +and + word)	<i>Rough and ready</i>	Crude and lacking sophistication
Trinomial (word+word+ and word)	<i>Cool, calm and collected</i>	Relaxed, in control, not nervous
Whole clause or sentences	<i>To cut a long story short</i>	To tell the main points, but not all the fine details

The types of idioms in Bahasa Indonesia and English are different. English has more types of idioms than Bahasa Indonesia. In this research, the researcher provides the classification based on an expert. Khak (2006) states that there are three types of idiom in Bahasa Indonesia, they are as follows:

1. complex idiom

a. affixation

1) prefix + noun or verb, as in *mengekor, tersemat*

2) affix (combination) + noun, as in *bersemuka, bersebadan*

b. reduplication, e.g. *mata-mata, kuda-kuda*

2. phrasal idiom

a. verba idiom

1) verb + noun, as in *naik darah*

2) adverb + verb, as in *sudah berpulang ke rahmatullah*

b. nomina idiom

1) noun+ noun,e.g. *buaya darat*

2) noun + adjective,e.g. *kuda hitam, air besar*

3. proverb (peribahasa),e.g. *sambil menyelam minum air, gali lubang tutup lubang.*

This research uses Seidl and McMordie's classification of English idiom to determine the types of idiom in the source text and the target text. It is because the types of English idiom and Bahasa Indonesia idiom in this research overlap each other. The table of the classification of the types of English and Bahasa Indonesia idiom that overlap each other can be seen in the following table.

Table 2. The Overlap Classification between English and Bahasa Indonesia

Types of Idiom

No.	Types / Forms	English	Bahasa Indonesia
1.	Noun phrase	A piece of cake	Buaya darat
2.	Adjective + noun	A bitter pill	Kuda hitam, air besar
3.	Pairs of nouns	Flesh and blood	Mata-mata, kuda-kuda
4.	Verbal idiom (verb + noun, verb + prepositional phrase)	Break the ice, stand on ceremony	Naik darah, berubah pikiran
5.	Idiom with comparisons	Go like the wind	Melesat seperti panah

C. About the Novel

Lewis Carroll (1832-1898) - pseudonym of Charles Lutwidge Dodgson, was born at Daresbury in Cheshire in 1832. He is known as a mathematician, and writer of English. He contributed humorous poems and parodies to periodicals. *Alice in Wonderland* is a novel written by Lewis Carroll. This novel is considered to be one of the best examples of “literary nonsense”, and its narrative course and structure have been enormously influential, especially in the fantasy genre (<http://www.amazon.com/exec/obidos/redirect-home/authorscalend-20/>).

It tells the story of a girl named Alice who falls down a rabbit hole into a fantasy world called wonderland. It is populated by unique and weird creatures. The character of Alice herself is the best part of this novel. She comes over as an independent, fearless and inquisitive child. Her strong character can be seen from her ability to accept all the strange creatures and situation that is found by herself.

The story began when one day Alice and her older sister were sitting on the riverbank. Alice’s sister was reading a book and Alice noticed that the book did not have any pictures, which made Alice lose interest in it. Then suddenly Alice saw a White Rabbit running past her, looking at his watch saying “Oh dear! Oh dear! I shall be too late.” Then he popped down a rabbit hole. Alice followed the rabbit down that hole and found herself in a land with many wonders. It was a wonderland.

She met some interesting creatures including the King and Queen of Hearts, the Hatter, and the March Hare. Alice could not figure out where to go and what to do because many creatures in this land did not want to help her. Alice also found

things such as food and drink, and she found herself changing size after eating or drinking things she found. Alice did not think much of the unusual occurrences when she was in this land. She helped other people by using her knowledge, such as when she made sense of evidence during a trial. As much as Alice thought that it was interesting being with these strange creatures and trying to get along with them, she wondered when she would return home to her normal life ([http://www. online-literature.com/carroll/alice](http://www.online-literature.com/carroll/alice)).

Related to this research, the English text of Lewis Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland* is used as the source text and its translated version in Bahasa Indonesia by Khairi Rumantati is used as the target text. This research takes all the entire clause or sentences of the English and the Bahasa Indonesia expressions which contain idiomatic expressions as the data of the research.

D. Analytical Construct

Firstly, this study focuses on describing types of idiom found in both novels. Related to the types of idiom, this research uses Seidl and McMordie's classification of types of idiom to determine the types of idiom found in the source text and the target text. The classification stated above is used by the researcher because both English and Bahasa Indonesia idiomatic expressions are overlapped each other. It is also easier to classify the forms or types of the idioms by using the English classification. The classification of types of the idioms and their codes will be presented in the next section. Secondly, this study focuses on describing the

translation strategies used in translating the idiomatic expressions and thirdly, it focuses on describing the extent to which the Bahasa Indonesia translations are equivalent to the English text. Concerning the translation strategies in translating the idiomatic expressions, this study uses Baker's theory. Baker (1992: 72-77) proposes four strategies in translating idioms: translation by using an idiom of similar meaning and form, translation by using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form, translation by paraphrasing, and translation by omission.

In translating, meaning must be held constant. The translated expression must be equivalent with the source language expression in terms of context and content. However, some constraints often arouse that complete equivalent translation cannot be achieved. In this case, the meaning of the translation can be increased, decreased, or even not equivalent with the source text. The following description explains the classification of meaning equivalence.

1. Equivalent meaning

a. Complete meaning

Complete meaning occurs when the meanings in the source language text are completely transferred in the target language text, the example is presented below.

SL: As there seemed to be no sort of chance of her ever getting out of the room again, **no wonder** she felt unhappy.

TL: Sepertinya dia tidak bisa keluar dari ruangan itu lagi, **tak heran** jika sekarang Alice merasa sedih.

The idiomatic expression *no wonder* is translated into Bahasa Indonesia expression *tak heran*. *No wonder* means not very surprising. These two expressions are completely equivalent because they have precisely the same meaning.

b. Partly equivalent meaning

1) Increased meaning

Increased meaning occurs when there is an addition of information realized by new meaning which is not found in the source language text. Below is the example of increased meaning.

SL: 'I really must be **getting home**; the night air doesn't suit my throat!' and a Canary called out in a trembling voice to its children.

TL: 'Aku benar-benar harus **cepat pulang**; udara malam tidak cocok untuk tenggorokanku!' seekor Canary memanggil-manggil anaknya dengan suara gemetar.

The idiomatic expression *getting home* means to return home. The word *cepat* which corresponds to *quick* is added to intensify the meaning. The addition has increased the meaning of the translation.

2) Decreased meaning

Decreased meaning occurs when a part of the meaning in the source language text is omitted in the target language text. The example is written below.

SL: ‘And I should have croqueted the Queen’s hedgehog just now, only it **ran away** when it saw mine coming!’

TL: ‘Dan pasti aku sudah berhasil memukul landak sang Ratu sekarang jika landak itu tidak **berlari** ketika melihat landakku datang!’

The idiomatic expression *ran away* is partly equivalent with the expression *berlari*. *Ran away* is an English idiom which means *to leave somebody or a place suddenly or to escape from somebody or a place*. In Bahasa Indonesia there is an expression which is said in that kind of situation, that is *melarikan diri*. The meaning decreases because a part of the meaning is not transferred in the target language text, it is the word *away*.

2. Non-equivalent meaning

a. Different meaning

Different meaning occurs when the translator changes the information contained in the source language text by using words which have different meaning in the target language text. The example is presented below.

SL: ‘Do you mean that you think you can **find out** the answer to it?’ said the March Hare.

TL: ‘Maksudmu kau kira kau bisa **menjawab** pertanyaan itu? tanya si Kelinci-Bulan-Maret.

Find out is an idiomatic expression which means to discover or to learn something. It is translated into *menjawab* which has similar meaning

with to answer in English. Thus, *find out* and *menjawab* have different meanings. According to English Idioms Dictionary, the translation should be *mengetahui*.

b. No meaning

No meaning occurs when the translator omits the words or expression in the source language text so that the target language text loses the information contained in the source language text.

SL: ‘Unless it was written to no body, which is not usual, **you know**.’ Said the King

TL: ‘Jika ditulis bukan untuk siapa-siapa, tentu menjadi aneh.’ Kata sang Raja.

The idiom above is not realized by the translator. It causes the target language loses the meaning of the expression. The idiomatic expression *you know* is often used when reminding somebody of something or it is used in conversation to keep the attention of the person listening or to give one time to think what will be said next.

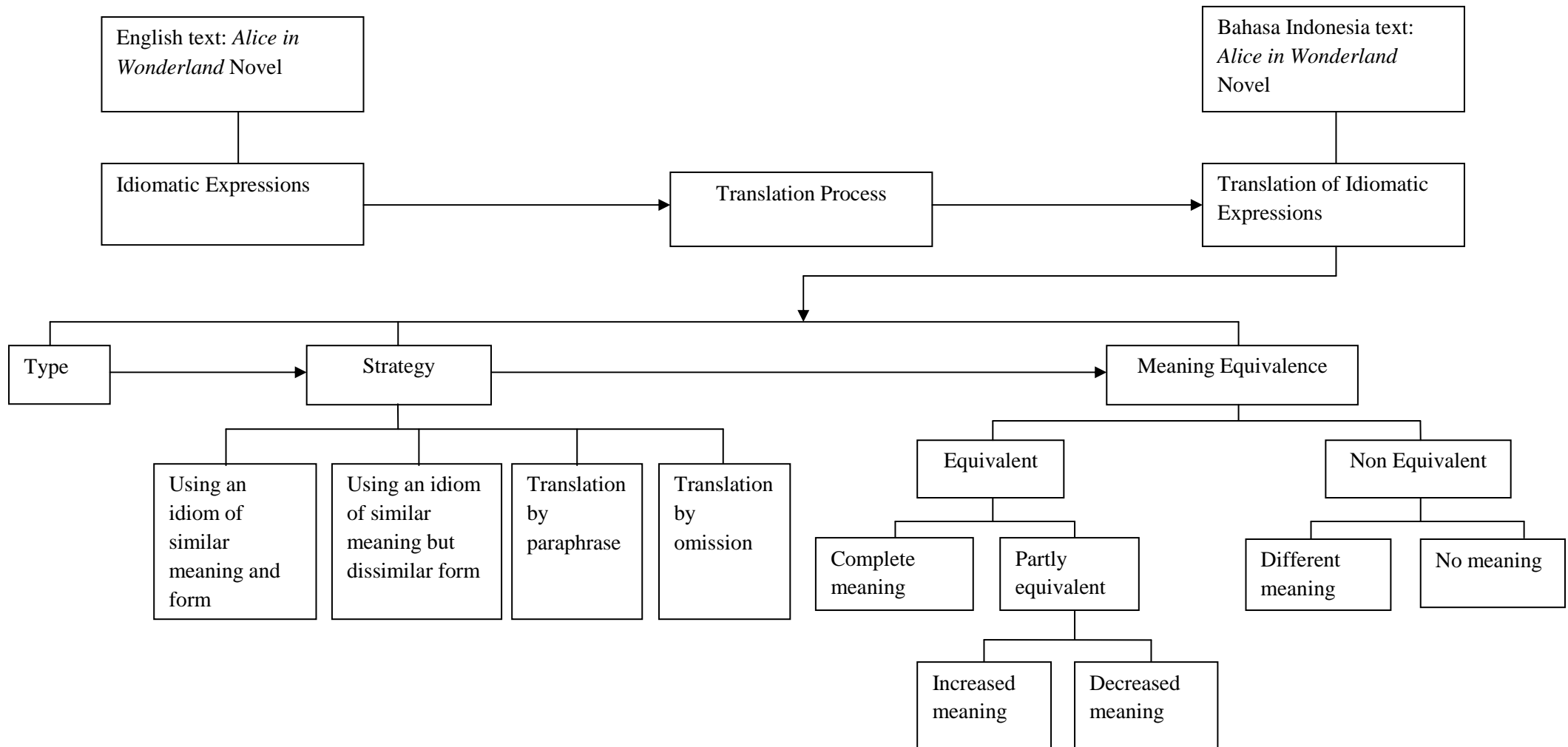


Figure 4: Analytical Construct

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

A. Type of the Study

This study is a descriptive-qualitative research with a content analysis method. Krathwohl in Wiersma (1995: 12) defines qualitative research as a research that describes phenomenon in words instead of numbers or measures. Descriptive qualitative research concerns providing description of a phenomenon that occurs naturally without any intervention of an experiment or an artificially contrived treatment (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992: 28).

This research provides natural data. Any treatment and experiment is not applied by the researcher that this research can be categorized into descriptive qualitative research. Meanwhile, content analysis method is applied for analyzing data in relation to their contexts. Since it is a descriptive-qualitative type, the data and the analysis are in the form of letters and descriptions. This research is accomplished by collecting, rewriting, classifying, analyzing the data and making some conclusions.

B. Data and Source of Data

The sources of data are the original version of *Alice in Wonderland* written by Lewis Carroll that is published in 2004, and its translated version by Khairi Rumantati that is published in 2009. The data are the idiomatic expressions taken