

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discussed about the review of related literature which is explain the definition of meaning itself in relation to translation theories. Especially about the theory about how the meaning changed and how it could be implicit when translated into target language.

A theory is necessary in conducting a research. The theory is used to make the research clearer. Considering that, the researcher used som theories as the basis of the research and also as the way to do the analysis. In this chapter, the researcher explains the theories related to the research. Those theories are :

2.1 Meaning

Keraf (1990: 25) said that meaning has two different aspect, they are meaning and expression. Expression is a side which can catch by listen and watch. And the meaning is a side which can makes some reaction in mind because that expression.

According Kridalaksana what the meaning of meaning is:

"... The purpose of the speaker, the influence of language units in perception or understanding human behavior or human group, the relationship in the sense of equivalence or unequivalence between language and nature beyond or between

speech and language all things are appointed, or how to use the symbols of language. " (2008: 148)

Lyons (1981: 136) says "*Meanings are ideas or concepts which can be transferred from the mind of the hearer by embodying them as they were, in the form of one language or another.*" So, meaning is an idea which can moving from audience's mind with applicating that meaning in one language or others.

In the other hand Hurford (1983: 3) explain the meaning as subject's mean which applicated in the different words or sentences. That's why Hurford defined the meaning into two parts :

- 1) Speaker meaning, is the meaning which present by the speaker.
- 2) Sentence meaning/word meaning is the meaning in sentence or word.

In the daily application, the word "meaning" use in some field and contexts.

The meaning that found in words has a relationship with :

1. System social and culture
2. User and speaker
3. Social context of situational in application

From the explanation above we can make a conclusion that meaning is an idea which comes from speaker's mind that can be applicated in speaking or sentence and the meaning of meaning itself is related close with a parts out of language.

2.1.1 Change of Meaning

Djajasudarma (1977: 31) states that the provision of a word to represent a case, goods or people depending on their meaning. But from time to time words could change. The changes causes by some factors, such as:

1. Linguistic causes. Related to morphology, phonology and syntaxes.
2. Historical causes
3. Social causes
4. Psychological causes
5. Influence by foreign language
6. Need some new words

According to Ullmann (1972: 193-195) the changes of meaning can be happen because some factors such as:

- a. Language comes from generation to generation. It is possible to make some different meaning.
- b. Vagueness, the meaning of some words also as a cause the changes of meaning itself.
- c. Polisemi added some flexibility factors in language.
- d. Ambiguity, the meaning of word also cause a changes of semantic from its word.
- e. Vocabulary structure which changing easier but the phonological system and grammatical from language.

So, we can make a conclusion that meaning can be changing, and its changes depend on some factors.

2.1.2 Kind of Meaning

According to Soedjito (1990; 52-59), meaning itself has been parted into some kinds such as :

1. Lexical and grammatical meaning (based on relationship of language each other). Lexical meaning according to Djajasudarma is “*makna unsur-unsur bahasa sebagai lambang benda, peristiwa, dan lain-lain. Makna leksikal ini dimiliki unsur-unsur bahasa secara tersendiri, lepas dari konteks*” (1993 : 13). For example; the word *mata* in the sentence *mata saya sakit* means part of human body which has a function to see. And grammatical meaning is “*makna yang menyangkut hubungan intra bahasa, atau makna yang muncul sebagai akibat berfungsinya sebuah kata dalam kalimat*” (1993 : 13). For example; the word *mata* on sentence *adik ingin telur mata sapi* means frying an egg that seems like eyes cow.
2. Denotative and konotative meaning. According to Alwasilah (1995 : 147) denotative meaning is *mengacu kepada makna leksikal yang umum dipakai atau singkatnya makna yang biasa, objektif, belum dibayangi perasaan, nilai, dan rasa tertentu*. For example in the word *gadis* on sentence *seorang gadis berdiri di depan rumah sakit*. The word *gadis* is common and netral. And according to the statement of Alwasilah (1995 : 147) about konotative meaning, *makna konotatif bersifat subjektif dalam pengertian ada pergeseran dari makna umum (denotatif) karena sudah ada penambahan rasa dan nilai tertentu*. For example on the sentence *seorang perawan berdiri di depan rumah sakit*. The word *perawan*

although have a similar meaning as a young girl, for some people it's associated with loyalty in religion, moral or modernisation.

3. Real and figurative meaning.
 - a) Real meaning is meaning which match by meaning itself. For example the word *mahkota* on sentence *mahkota raja dicuri orang tadi malam*.
 - b) Figurative meaning which reference doesn't match by the word itself. For example the word *mahkota* on sentence *rambut adalah mahkota wanita*.
4. Contextual meaning is meaning depend on application. This meaning will be clear if use in sentence. Contextual meaning as a cause of relationship between speaking and situation. For example, mother said *jangan!* (don't!) To her son who playing a fire. The word *jangan!* (don't!) can be meaning as *jangan masukkan tanganmu kedalam api, berbahaya!* (don't put your hand in fire, its dangerous!).

But Larson find that there is implicit meaning on it. He also parted an implicit meaning into three parts (1984: 34-37),:

1. Referential implicit meaning.
2. Organizational implicit meaning.
3. Situational implicit meaning.

2.2 Implicit meaning

Larson (1984: 34) state that *implicit meaning is meaning which unshown but is a part of conversation or meaning that telling by speaker*.

In this understanding process of implicit meaning, sometimes an object should be trying hard to get the right idea. In the process of understanding the meaning of this implicit, responders sometimes have to try hard to arrive at the correct interpretation, with through shadowing or interpretation. Responders need to know certain things which could be a reference, situation and context. Knowledge of context will be very helpful for responders to get the proper interpretation. Aminuddin, citing the opinion of Samuel and Kiefer, raised the phrase *reading the lines*, that is reading to understand the explicit meaning and phrase *reading between the lines*, that is read to understand the implicit meaning. Thus, the meaning can be distinguished between the explicit meaning and the meanings implied (1985: 92).

Still according to Aminuddin (1985: 50) for responders to achieve a proper interpretation, in the process of interpretation of meaning must be observed association with any of the following.

1. traits or internal elements of language.
2. underlying socio-cultural system.
3. user, either as speakers or the responders said.
4. characteristics and variety of speech information conveyed.

2.2.1 Referential Implicit Meaning

The existence of the referent in interpreting the meaning is very important. Meaning will be difficult to understand if the referent is not known. *Meanings which is generated by the linguistic elements into words, sentences and other*

elements language in relation to external elements whether it is reality or experience called by referent, thus Aminuddin (1985: 88).

Kridalaksana (2008 : 208) says that *the referent is outside of the language element appointed by the elements of language*. The meaning of the language elements here include word or sentence of referential meaning, according to Kridalaksana, *is the meaning of the language element which have very close relations with the world outside of language (the object or idea), and which can be explained by the analysis component (2008: 149).*

In other words this meaning refer directly to objects, events, attributes, or certain relationship which can be viewed or conceivable that an information content or something that is communicated.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) suggests that *referen dalam suatu teks bisa bersifat eksoforik, yaitu yang mengacu pada hal-hal di luar konteks, ataupun endoforik yaitu yang referennya terdapat dalam konteks itu sendiri. Referen endoforik terbagi dalam anaforik, yang mengacu pada referen yang telah disebutkan dan kataforik*

yaitu yang mengacu pada konteks yang mengikutinya Then Halliday and

Hasan make a group of referent into three types, namely:

1. Personal referent, which is contained in the referent category of persona.
2. Demonstrative referent, which is the referent of the appointment contained in the location or place.
3. Comparative referent is the referent is not directly contained in the usage characteristics or something similar.

2.2.1.1 Personal Referent

Included in the category of persona in person is *the referent of pronouns persona (I, you, he, she, ...), possessive determiner (my, your, ...), and possessive pronouns (Mine, yours, ...)*. These three things represent the same system, namely *represents the people* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:43).

To learn more can be seen the following structure:

Personal Referent's Structure (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 44)

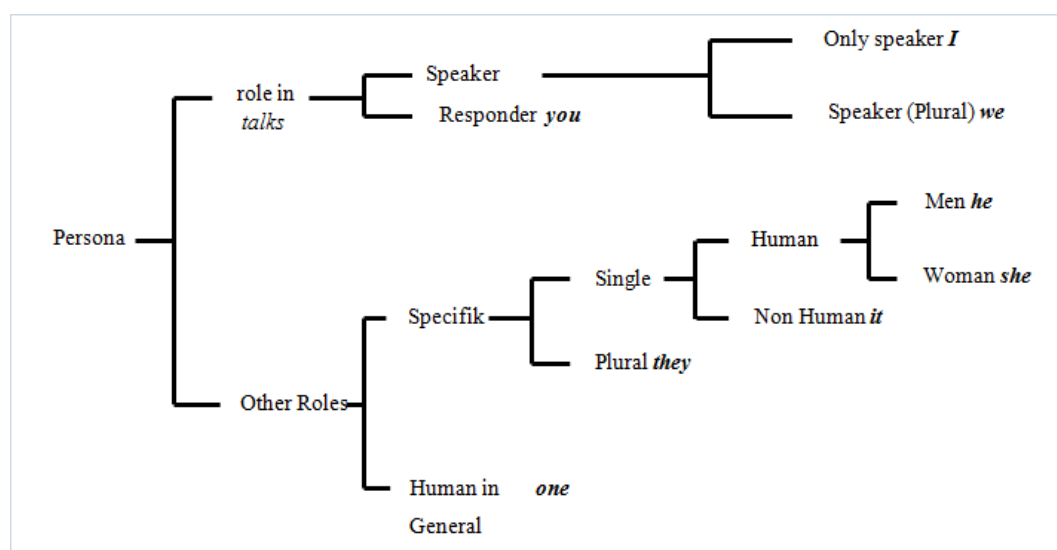


Figure 2.1 Personal Referent's Structure (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 44)

As an example can be seen in the following sentence: *There was a brief note from Susan. She just said, "I am not coming home this weekend."* At that sentence the word *I*, and she, referring to *Susan* contained in the first sentence.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 45) *the term persona is a bit vague because included in the referent of persona not only humans but also reference non-persona, which is a reference to the object.* For example shown in

the example sentence referent persona it contains the following: *I would never have believed it. They've accepted the whole scheme.*

From the example above sentence can be seen that the word *it* is located at the end. The first sentence refers to the second sentence, *they've accepted the whole scheme.*

2.2.1.2 Demonstrative Referent

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 57) reveals that *basically demonstrative referent is a kind of verbal designation in which the speaker or speaker identify the referent of scale by placing it in the distance.* Next they (Haliday and Hasan, 1976: 57-58) also split into *demonstrative referent of demonstrative adverbial (state), which includes here, there, now and then, and referent of the nominal demonstrative (this, these, that, those and the ").*

Demonstrative referent adverbial refers to the meeting place of a process in place or time, whereas the referent of the nominal demonstratives are referring to the place of something, the person or objects, which participate in this process.

For example the use of demonstrative referent in the sentence, the following a sentence along with two of his response:

They broke a Chinese vase.

a. *That was Valuable*

b. *That was careless.*

In response sentence (a) the word *that* refers to an object of the *vase*. Whereas in response to the second (b) the word *that* refers to the overall incidence of *the breaking of the vase*.

The following example is the use of *the* articles as the referent of the demonstrative.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 71) **The** article states only that the goods or thing in question is specific and has been known previously. Sentences *Don't go, the train is coming* stating that the train in this sentence (*the train*) have been known to previously. It could be the train in question is a train that had them waiting previously. The complete referen demonstrative can be seen in the following structure.

Demonstrative referent (Halliday & Hasan, 1976 : 57)

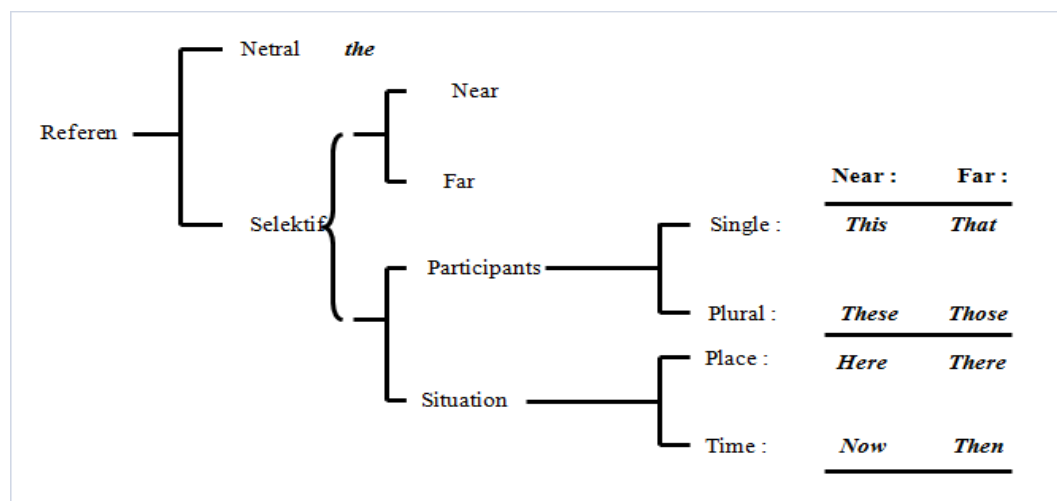


Figure 2.2 Demonstrative referent (Halliday & Hasan, 1976 : 57)

2.2.1.3 Comparrative Refferent

The similarities are referent. An object can not be said to be "similar" only, but it must be said to be "like something". So the comparison between two similar things is one form of referrals. This referent is called a comparative referent. Next in discussion on comparative referent, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76-80) comparative referent was divided into two, namely:

1. General comparative, that is the referent of which express the similarity between objects. Two specimens can be the same, similar or different.
2. Particular comparative, the comparison between objects by taking into account differences quality or quantity.

Both the general and particular comparative referent expressed in the context of using adjectives (*Same, equal, identical*) or adverbs (*Identically, differently*). To learn more can be seen in the structure of comparative referent following.

Comparative referent (Halliday & Hasan, 1976 : 76)

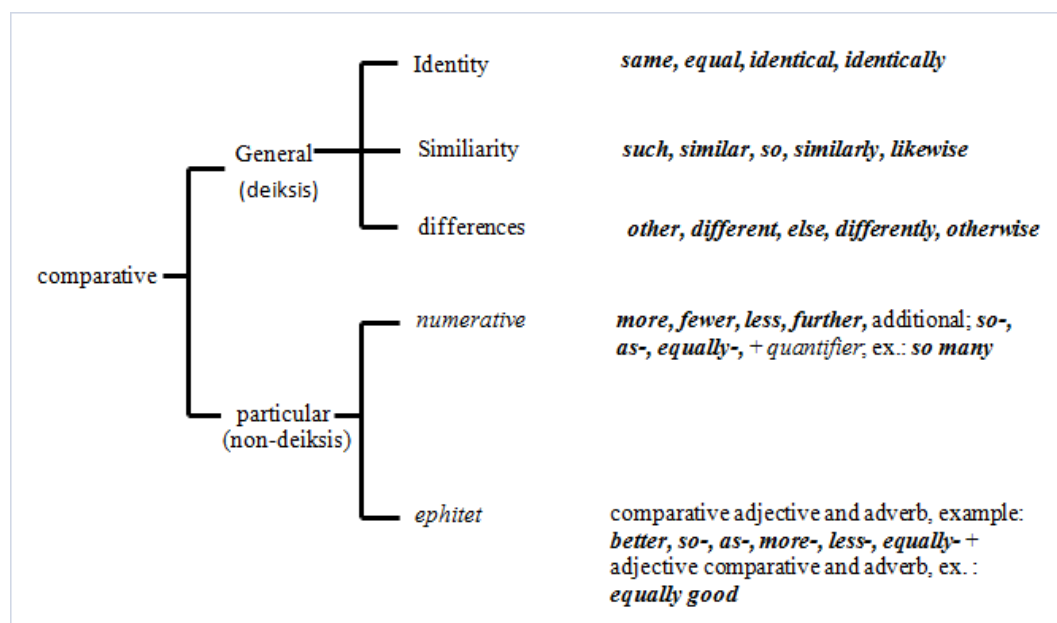


Figure 2.3 Comparative referent (Halliday & Hasan, 1976 : 76)

Through three examples below can know the use of comparative referent in a sentence and what items that compared by its comparative referent.

- a. *We have received exactly the same report as was submitted two months ago.*
- b. *There are other qualities than conviviality needed for this job.*
- c. *Find a number equal to the square of the sum of its digits.*

In the first sentence (a), the comparative referent is *as* and the referent is [*the one That*] *was submitted two months ago*. *Than* at the second sentence (b) compare *other qualities* with the referent of *conviviality*, while *equal* to (c) comparing the *number* with the referent of *the square of the sum of its digits*. The determination of the referent can only be determined if the context of utterance is

known with certainty. Referential meaning implicit will be allowed to remain implicit or explicit in the translation depends on each of the target language system.

Understanding the meaning of this implicit referent has an important role in translation, especially to prevent ambiguity. For example, when we hear the term *kota hujan* then our minds will directly referring to the city of Bogor is famous for frequent rain. In the context of sentence *flood hit the rain city* information that Bogor as a reference of the word *rain city* made implicit. This can be done because this information is already known to many people.

For certain cases, for example to provide this information to the reader who not the people of Indonesia, the sentence had to be made explicit to *flood hit Bogor which is famous as the city of rain*.

2.2.2 Organizational Implicit Meaning

Aminuddin said that organizational meaning is *meaning that arises due to the grammatical events, either between base words and affixes between words with a word or phrase by phrase called organizational* (1985: 88).

A sentence formed from the words in a sentence that's unity defined organizational meaning. Sometimes the meaning of organizational left implicit, so that we know of the meaning of organizational (contextual) implicit.

To clarify the above definition, it helps us pay attention to sentences following. Sentence *Bogor city was founded in 1620* is used for place *the city of Bogor* as the subject. To do this, information about who founded it made implicit.

If the topic is the founder of the town of Bogor, the sentence had to be made explicit become *King Siliwangi founded the city of Bogor in 1620*. To implicit organizational meanings can be translated into three sentence formations, namely : ellipsis sentences, passive sentences and the use of word substitution in the sentence (Larson, 1984: 40-41). Ellipsis is the removal element of the sentence, although sentence structure of ellipsis thus remain in compliance with the applicable rules of sentence patterns. In Passive sentences are often the perpetrators of the sentence is implied by, this is due to actors in the passive voice is not the subject. Use of word substitution in the sentence is usually caused to avoid repetition or redundancy. This third formation led to the emergence of organizational implicit meaning. Although sentence structure is not intact but the notion that was taken intact.

2.2.2.1 Substitution Word

Substitution, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 88-89) is the *replacement of a matters relating to linguistics, such as words or phrases, with other things*.

Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan also explained that the substitution also has relationships that are more related to grammatical factors, that's what the classification word substitution described grammatically (1976: 90). In English, a word substitution can serve as a noun, verb, or clause. Thus, still according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 91), there are three types of word substitution, namely:

1. Nominal: *one, ones; Same*

2. Verbal: *do*

3. Clauses: *so, note*

Three examples of the following sentences each have a word substitution for substitution of nouns and verbs.

a. *My ax is too blunt. I must get a Sharper one.*

b. *You think Joan already knows?-I think everybody does*

c. *Is there going to be an earthquake?-It says so.*

In sentence (a) the substitution word of *one* replaces the noun *axe* in the previous sentence, whereas in sentence (b) replace the word substitution *does* replaces verb *knows* located the question sentence previously. Next to the sentence (c), word substitutions *so* replace the clause *there's going to be an earthquake*. In these examples all meaning is replaced by the word substitution is located in the previous sentence. This in line with the opinion of Halliday and Hasan as saying that the substitution is relationships that occur in the text (1976: 89).

2.2.2.2 Ellipsis Sentences

Chalker (1984: 264) defines ellipsis as *a tool that is grammatically formal used to help avoid repetition*, he also describes ellipsis as a substitution with an empty element. In line with Chalker, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 142) also stated that *the ellipsis is something removed and do not say, but it does not mean that something is removed and not It is said to cause the elusive text. Ellipsis can be understood and understanding was obtained in a manner that does not say*. From

these explanations can be seen that, in addition be used to avoid repetition, ellipsis is also not cause a text to be elusive. In other words, the text remains intact awake.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 146) divide the ellipsis in three types, namely:

1. Nominal ellipsis
2. Verbal ellipsis
3. Clausal ellipsis

To clarify that three divisions, it helps us to pay attention to examples sentence in the following table. In the first column can be known types of ellipsis, The second column contains the example sentence, and the last column contains the terms of what ellipted by the example sentence in the second column earlier.

Table 2.1 Example of ellipsis sentence

<i>Kinds of Ellipsis</i>	<i>Example of Sentence</i>	<i>Ellipted become</i>
<i>Noun</i>	Four other Oysters followed them, and yet another four.	another four oysters
<i>Verbs</i>	Have you been swimming? - Yes, I have.	have been swimming
<i>Verbs</i>	What have you been doing? - Swimming	have been swimming
<i>Clause</i>	what was the Duke going to do? - Plant a row of poplars in the park.	The Duke
<i>Clause</i>	Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? - The Duke was.	plant a row of poplars in the park

Source: (Halliday dan Hasan, 1976 : 148-198)

2.2.2.3 Passive Sentence

Allen (1987: 270) states that the general principle in the use of passive sentence is when the focus of the speakers located at the activity or work performed not on the subject that do the job. The phrase *people speak English all over the world* give more weight to the subject *people*. When our main focus are *speaking English*, the phrase should be converted into a passive sentence and become *English is spoken all over the world*. Information on the subject in passive sentences often are not necessary so often omitted the existention.

Kridalaksana (2008: 175) states there are two kinds of passive sentences, namely *agentive passive and agentless passive*. Passive subjected sentence have a subject who do work, as seen in the subject *teacher* on sentence *my letter has read by teacher*. The opposite occurs in passive sentences unsubjected, there is no passive sentence in this kind.

Sentence *The new money has been circulated widely* does not showing who was responsible because the subject is not the focus of conversation.

Nida and Taber (1969: 114) says that the *delivery of passive sentence meaning become difficult especially if the target language does not recognize passive constructions*.

However, Indonesian, like English, has a passive sentence construction so that delivery of the meaning of passive sentences in English into Indonesian do not find difficulties.

2.2.3 Situational Implicit Meaning

According to Larson (1984: 37) *implicit situational meaning is meaning that arises because of the relationship between the utterance and the situation at the time of utterance is spoken.*

The meaning of situation of utterances according Kridalakaksana (1993: 200) *is the element foreign language associated with speech or discourse that speech or discourse is meaningful.*

According to Larson (1984: 133-138), the meaning can be affected by such things as: *relationship between the speakers and responders, cultural background, place of entry into force communication process, the timing of the speech, age and gender, social situation speakers and responders, presumptions that arise in situations of communication and movement cues that occurred during the communication process.*

Elements such as that already mentioned earlier is very influential in determining the meaning, because that's the things outside Language also plays an important role in determining the situational implicit meaning. Of the many factors that influence the emergence of implicit meaning situational, in this paper a discussion about it will only be limited to four categories, namely: situational implicit meanings that arise from differences in factor culture, meaning implicit situational cues arising from the movement that occurs in moment of speech, meaning implicit situational happens because the time and place of occurrence speech, and the last is

implicit situational meanings that arise as a result of certain relationship between the speakers and responders.

2.2.3.1 Situational Implicit Meaning Caused by Cultural Factors

A text may be completely not understood by people who do not know the cultural background of speakers because in it there are so many situational meaning which implied. If the speakers and responders have the same background of the culture there will be many terms associated with culture that is left implicit. This is caused by the knowledge that has been held in common.

Situational meaning implicit caused by cultural factors will be stone substantial stumbling block if responders have a very different cultural background from the speakers. Therefore, the implicit meaning of this translation should be explicit for message can be conveyed with good speakers, unless the term used is common to the responders. For more details, see the example the following sentence: "I really really love Jodie Foster in *The Silence of The Lambs*." *The Silence of The Lambs* is a fairly well-known American film and *Jodie Foster* is the main character female artist of the film. For people who do not know *Jodie Foster* or *The Silence of the Lambs*, the sentence above does not mean anything even tend to be confusing. But for most Indonesian people are familiar with American films in the sentence above has been quite clear, because they know that *Jodie Foster* was a leading female artist and *The Silence of The Lambs* is one of her film.

2.2.3.2 Situational Implicit Meaning Caused by Movement Sign

During Speech

Sometimes a word or sentence can only be understood properly if supported by the motion cue by speakers at the time of utterance occurs. This underlying the occurrence of implicit meaning that is caused by motion cues.

For more details can be seen in the example the following sentence:

James pointed to his car and said, "Get in..I'll drive you home. "

From the example sentences above appear in the first sentence there is movement by speakers, namely the movement *pointed to his car*. Through this movement, the more clear that is meant by the word *get in* on the next sentence is *get in my car*.

2.2.3.3 Situational Implicit Meaning Caused by Time and Place of

Occurance Communication

Sometimes a new sentence could understand its meaning if associated with another sense which is carried by the place or time when occurrence of speech. For example, the word *get in!* can have various meanings depending on the pronunciation. In the classroom the word *in* can be means present, whereas the same word can mean *in the line* when playing badminton in badminton courts.

The timing of the communication can also cause the implicit meaning.

For example, if a child returns home before midnight maybe his parents will say *why not just go home early?* And, of course, his parent's mean did not like that. There is an implicit meaning that is contained in the statement which could have been a plea for her son could come home early or even satire about the return of the child are too late.

2.2.3.4 Situational Implicit Meaning Caused by the Relationship Between Speakers and Responders

The relationship between the speakers and responders was very affected the meaning contained in the sentence. The existence of certain relationships between the speakers and responders can cause the meaning implied by such Budi will say to his classmates *Mr. Iwan did not go today* because the responders were aware that what is meant by Mr. Iwan is their science teacher. When Budi want talking about the same person to his mother, maybe she would say *Mr. Iwan, our science teacher, did not go today.*

As another example we will see a sentence spoken by a women. She said to her husband *Peter had the flu.* But when she wants to convey the same information to the doctor, this woman will say *my son, Peter, had the flu my son's* information is not required to indicate when talking to Peter her husband, who knew exactly who Peter was.

Meaning contained in a text can be classified into various types, one of which is the implicit meaning. The characteristic of the implicit meanings that are not shown makes its presence is sometimes difficult to be seen and understood in passing.

But the implicit meaning is part of the text so that its role in maintain the unity and integrity of the text is no less important than other components of meaning.

2.3 Translation

The experts have their own opinion about the translation. Newmark, revealed that translation is a process of transferring the message contained in the text of the source language with their counterparts in the target language. *Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and / or statement in one language by the Same message and / or statement in another language.*(1982: 7).

Then Nida and Taber (1969: 1) suggests that the translation is transfer in close significance of the source language text into text language target, the second one concerns regarding its meaning and style. *Translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.*

Catford (1965: 20) defines translation as the replacement text in one language (source language) with an equivalent text in another language (target language).

Translation is the replacement of Textual material in one language (Source Language) by Textual material equivalent in another language (Target Language).

Accordingly, Kridalaksana suggests that *translation is transfer of inter-cultural mandate and / or between languages at the level of grammatical and lexical with the intent, effect or intention that wherever possible be retained*. In addition that, Kridalaksana also, mentioned that *the translation is the linguistic field applied methods and techniques that include the transfer of mandate from one language to other* (2008 : 181).

Meanwhile, according to Larson (1984: 3) translated it means:

- a) Studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context of source language text.
- b) Analyzing the source language text to find meaning.
- c) Reveal again the same meaning using the lexicon and structure appropriate grammatical in the target language and cultural context.

It was clear from the above definition that the translation is not just looking equivalent word, but the message or the message that is in the original text should be as much as possible maintained. The integrity of the text, the authors style and intent of the text should remain visible.

2.3.1 Translation Method

Newmark divided into eight translations translation methods (1988: 45), as follows.

1. Translating word by word (word by word translation). Wording in the text source maintained and translated word by word one by one into the most common meaning out of context.
2. Literal translation. The composition of the source language grammatical replaced by the nearest equivalent in the target language, but elements lexical translated one by one out of context.
3. An exact translation (*Faithful translation*). This translation methods produce the exact contextual meaning to the original in grammatical structure target language.
4. Semantic translation. Almost similar to the third method, only in this translation is the value of beauty and fairness as well as meaning contained in the source language of more attention. Through this method translator can express freely their skills.
5. Adaptation. This is a way of translating the drama and poetry. In this translation themes, actors and the story is maintained. But the term culture in the source language is replaced with its equivalent in the target language.
6. Free translation. Here the content and form are preferred. Results of this method is usually longer than the original text.
7. Idiomatic translation. Messages sought in the original text to be delivered, but there is a tendency to turn it into a language and phrases that are used daily in the target language.

8. Communicative translation. Contextual meaning in the text translated source such that both the content and language can be accepted and understood by the reader.

Further described by Newmark (1988: 47) from those eight methods of translation, there are only two translation methods that can be considered to meet the primary goal of translation. Both methods: semantic translation and communicative translation. Semantic translation is the translation method that strongly emphasizes on the role of the original authors. Thus the translation done as far as possible appropriate with the original form manuscript. Phrases and idioms which exist in the original text will be retained in accordance with the original and given a description. Forms are also sentence maintained, for example, compound sentences retained as the compound sentence in translation. Translation methods like this better if viewed in terms of shape and sentence structure because in accordance with the original manuscript. Usually this method is used to translate a literary or religious texts. Communicative translation has a trait that more emphasis to target language text reader convenience. Translation efforts undertaken to provide an excellent explanation to the reader with the aim of the mandate of author / original author can be delivered. The expressions in the source language is replaced into the expressions in the target language. The sentence form not be maintained if deemed to cause ambiguity or vagueness of information. The meaning is emphasized in this method, so that the reader results translation in the target language can more easily understand

the purpose and message author original. This method is usually used for the translation of informative or entertainment.

Table 2.2 The Difference Between Semantic and Communicative Translation

Semantik Translation	Communicative Translation
More accurate	More Economical
Giving priority to the original author	Giving priority to the reader
Used to translate text associated with emotions or feelings	Used to translate text contains information or invitation
Involving creativity, so translators tend to be exaggerated	Giving priority to the message so simple, clear, written brief and fairly.
Translators react in accordance with the wishes original author.	Translator is not free to react because the readers are vary.

Source: (Newmark, 1988:47)

Larson (1984: 16) Translation divide into two types: Semantik Penerjemahan Komunikatif

1. Literal translation. Translation is a translation of this type are trying to follow the form language of the source. This translation form is very useful to study

language sources, but unfortunately not much help readers of target language who want to know the meaning of the source language text.

2. Idiomatic translation. Idiomatic translation is trying to convey meaning of the source language text with a reasonable target language form, whether construction grammatical and lexical elements of ownership. Translation is absolutely will not be heard as a translation, but like the original was written in the target language.

Translation form as idiomatic and communicative translation provide opportunities for translators to select the grammatical forms and elements lexical reasonable in the target language. So that will eventually result translation reasonable and acceptable without leaving a text message from the language source. Translating this kind usually have been used to translate the novel. Linguists have various opinions about the method of translation. But from the various theories regarding the method in translating at least two general method that can be used in practice, that translates literally (or semantically), and idiomatic (or communicative). Translating literally usually much encountered in literature or religious texts. While the second method of the translation of novel method is usually taken for various reasons whether it is language and non-language, such as fairness form of language, giving priority to the reader, and clarity of the message in the target language.

2.3.2 Translation of Implicit Meaning

Larson suggests one of the greatest challenges facing a translator is knowing when to be explicit or implicit meanings remain prepared implicit in the translation. In a text, there is meaning that conveyed open (explicit) but some are implicit. Implicit meaning must be conveyed well-meaning implicit in the translation because it is part of text so that meaning should not be abandoned.(1984: 42). In translation, still according to Larson (1984: 41-42) implicit meaning can be left implicit but can also be made explicit if deemed necessary or there are other considerations. A good translator must be able to know when the implicit meaning must be translated explicitly and when translated should remain implicit. Translating implicit meaning can only made explicit if necessary delivery meaning the right or to get reasonableness of the translation