**Chapter II**

**Metaphor in the Novel**

**2.1 The Definition of Figure of Speech**

The figure of speech are rightly given much attention in traditional textbook, not only of English but also of classical literature. The fact that language can be used in certain contrived ways that follow classifiable patterns has been the concern of critics of many centuries. Metaphor has been seen as feature of rhetoric, the art by which language is used to produce desired effects or influences on those who respond to it (Chapman, 1982: 47).
 Figure of speech or figurative language is one of ways to express something in analogical meaning. It means that the language is used cannot be taken literally and it needs comprehend of the readers to get the indirect devices on it. The fact many authors use figures of speech to express their ideas in writing. Basically the use of figure of speech is based on the sense, habit, and creativity of the author. The author purposes in the usage of figurative language are to beautify the language in their writing and also to involve the readers to the story they read. It is because the figure of speech can guide the thought of the readers by what were written down in the literature works and the readers can catch the true messages that were intended by the author. So, figure of speech is an important matter in literature because it can support an aesthetic target in writing as an art creation.

 The kinds of figures of speech are many types but some of them are usually used in literature works. According to Nurgiantoro (2002) that the kind of figure of speech that usually used by the authors are the figure of comparison. The figure of comparison is the comparison whereby a matter compared to another to get the similarity characteristic both of them, such as character, activity, physical, etc. The types of figure of comparison that usually use by the writers in their literature works are the simile, metaphor, and personification. Many authors exploit the figure of speech to express their inspiration. Dale in Tarigan (1985) says that Cicero and Suetonicus, the novelist of Roman, use figure of speech as the medium of classical rhetoric. They use *figura*, it means shadow, image, allusion, or symbolic. Figure of speech is the rhetoric form that is used in conversing and writing to assure or to influence the readers. The word rhetoric comes from ancient Greek that is *rhetor*, it means orator. Rhetoric is an art of using words impressively in speech and writing. At the period of ancient Greek, the rhetoric is an important thing in education. So, the kinds of figure of speech are very important by people of Greek and Rome.

 In this case, Hawkes (1974) says that figure of speech is one of the various forms of transference that is turning of language away from literal meanings and towards figurative meanings. Furman (1995) also says that figure of speech is a term used to describe the devices employed to add colour, decoration, and imaginative expression to linguistic use. Along the same line of thought, Kridalaksana (1993) has opinion that figure of speech as one of assistance on the wealth of language by someone in speaking or writing. Therefore*,* figure of speech is very important in the affair of idea’s delivery. Meanwhile, Moeliono (1988) has an opinion that figure of speech is how to describe something by equating with something else.
 The writer concludes that all experts above say that figure of speech is language that uses words or expression with a meaning that is different from the literal interpretation. Figure of speech makes expression of varied thoughts and feelings. It come to how to compose sentence effectively and aesthetically, it can give concrete description in mind of the reader. Figure of speech is not only used to embellish the language, but also cause a moment of excitement when reading. It is used equally in writing as well as in speech.

**2.2 Kinds of Figure of Speech**

According to Tarigan (1985) that the kinds of figure of speech as follows:

* Figure of Comparison
* Figure of Opposition
* Figure of Connection
* Figure of Repetition

**2.2.1 Figure of Comparison**

 Figure of comparison is classified into five types as follows:

* Simile is the comparison of berween things essentially unlike. In simile the comparison is expressed by the use of some words such as like, as, than, similar to, or resembles. For example: *Lately, my mind has been as rough and tempestuous as the sea.*
* Metaphor is an implied comparison between two objects without the use of words “like” or “as”. For example: *Keeping the same fire burning after ten years of marriage seems complete impossibility to me.*
* Personification consists in giving the attributes of a human being to an animal, an object, or an idea. For example: *My mind travels to a secret and unfamiliar place.*
* Allegory is a narrative or description that has a second meaning beneath the surface one. For example: *Imagine Marriane waiting for me in a corner with a dagger, like in the days Geneva was a medieval city and in constant battle with the French.*
* Antithesis is a method of emphasis by the placing of opposed idea or characteristics in direct contrast with each other. For example: *Man proposes, God disposes.*

**2.2.2 Figure of Opposition**

 Figure of opposition is divided into seven types as follows:

* Hyperbole is an expression in extreme language so as to achieve intensity. For example: *They got tons of money.*
* Litotes is the figure of speech in which an affirmative is expressed by the negative of its contrary. For example: *He is not the cleverest person I have ever met.*
* Irony is a contrast between what is being said, implied, or suggested and what is actually the case. For example: *A traffic cop gets his license suspended because of unpaid parking tickets.*
* Oxymoron is a figure by which two contradictory terms are united in an expression so as to give it point. For example: *No one goes to that restaurant anymore. It’s always too crowded.*
* Paronomasia is a play on words in which the repeated words are similar but not identical. For example: *The grammmarian was very logical. He had a lot of comma sense.*
* Paralysis is a figure in which pretended omission the words or sentence for rhetorical effect (Tarigan, 1985:136). For example: *No one like you (sorry) hate you.*
* Zeugma is a figure of speech by which a single word is made to refer to two words in a sentence, but only one of it which is grammatically or logically applicable. For example: *We must be good person in the earth or in the afterlife.*

**2.2.3 Figure of Connection**

 Figure of connection is divided into seven types as follows :

* Metonymy is the naming of a person, institution, or human characteristic by some object or attribute with which it is clearly associated. For example: *The pen is mightier than sword.*
* Synecdoche is a figure of speech by which a part is used to express a whole or a whole is used to express a part. For example: *His eyes met hers as she sat there paler and whiter than anyone in the vast ocean of anxious faces about her.*
* Allusion is an explicit or implicit reference of events, figures, places, mythologies, or famous masterpiece. For example: *The rise in poverty will unlock the Pandora’s box of crimes.*
* Euphemism is a mild or vague expression used to conceal a painful or disagreeable truth. For example: *Collateral damage instead of accidental deaths.*
* Ellipsis is the omission of parts of words or sentences. For example: *So...what happened?*
* Inverse is the transposition of normal word in the sentence. For example: *Powerful you have become, the dark side I sense in you.*
* Gradation is a figure that used the last words in the sentence became the first words in the sentence later. For example: *Love creates happiness, happiness creates joy, joy creates enlightenment*

**2.2.4 Figure of Repetition**

 Figure of repetition is classified into four types as follows:

* Alliteration is the commencement of two or more words in close connection with the same sound. For example: *Up the aisle, the moan and screams merged with the sickening smell of woolen black clothes worn in summer weather and green leaves wilting over yellow flowers.*
* Antanaclasis is a figure that repeats the similar words, but the meaning of words is dissimilar (Tarigan, 1985:149). For example : *I am not businessman, I am a business, man!*
* Chiasmus is a figure of speech by which the orther of the words in the first of two parallel clauses is reversed in the second. For example: *Love as if you would one day hate, and hate as if you would one day love.*
* Repetition is a figure of speech in which the same words or phrases are used repeatedly in successive clauses (Tarigan, 1985:152). For example: *Let it snow, let it snow, let it snow.*

 According to Perrine (1991), figure of speech is anyway of saying something other than the ordinary way. The usage of figure of speech is the special way to get special intention of something that said special, it means that the usage of literary work is not taken literally. The advantages have been widely known that everybody uses it all the time in attempt to give freshness to what they say. The figure of speech is needed because it attracts attention and more forceful, easier to be remember and encourages reflection. It is better for illustration, and it also can simplify the complex word.

 Perrine (1991) stated figurative language can be categorized into four groups, they are :

 1. Figure of Comparison

 Figure of comparison is divided into four types as follows : simile, personification,
 metaphor, allegory.

 2. Figure of Opposition

 Figure of opposition is divided into five types as follows : hyperbole, litotes,
 irony, oxymoron, zeugma.

 3. Figure of Connection

Figure of connection is divided into five types as follows : metonymy, synecdoche, allusion, euphemism, ellipsis.

4. Figure of Repetition

 Figure of Repetition is divided into three types as follows : alliteration, antanaclasis,
 chiasmus.

**2.2.2.1 Figure of Comparison**

* Simile is a type of comparison between things or objects by using “as’ or “like”. For example : *My heart is like a singing bird.*
* Personification is one of the most commonly used and recognized literary devices. It refers to the practice of attaching human traits and characteristics with inanimate object, phenomena, and animals. For example : *The car complained as the key was roughly turned in its ignition*.
* Metaphor is a figure of speech that makes an implicit, implied, or hidden comparison between two things that are unrelated, but which share some common characteristics. For example : *The skies of his future began to darken.*
* Allegory is a figure of speech in which abstract ideas and principle are described in terms of characters, figures, and events. For example : *All animals are equal but a few are more equal than others*

**2.2.2.2 Figure of Opposition**

* Hyperbole is derived from a Greek word meaning “over casting”, It is a figure of speech that involves an exaggeration of ideas for the sake of emphasis. For example : *I am trying to solve a million issues these days.*
* Litotes is derived from a Greek word meaning “simple”, it is a figure of speech that employs an understatement by using double negatives or, in other words. For example : *They don’t exactly have an ordinary relationship (Their relationship is different.)*
* Irony is a figure of speech in which words are used in such a way that their intended meaning is different from the actual meaning of the words. For example : *The new manager is as friendly as a rattlesnake.*
* Oxymoron is a figure of speech containing words that seem to contradict each other. For example : *Modern dancing is so old fashioned.*
* Zeugma is a literally term for using one word to modify two other words in two different ways. For example : *She broke his car and his heart.*

 **2.2.2.3 Figure of Connection**

* Metonymy is a figure of speech that replaces the name of a thing with the name of something else with which it is closely associated. For example : *The Oval office was busy in work. (The Oval Office is a metonymy as it stands for people who work in the office.)*
* Synecdoche is a literary device in which a part of something represents the whole or it may use a whole to represents a part. For example : *Prepared to scrub the entry and the stairs, the youth with broomy stumps began to trace.*
* Allusion is a brief and indirect reference to a person, place, thing or idea of historical, cultural, literary or political significance. For example : *Hey! Guess who the new Newton of our school is?* “Newton” means a genius student, alludes to a famous scientist Isaac Newton.
* Euphemism is a polite expression used in place of words or phrases that might otherwise be considered harsh or unpleasant.these phrases are used regularly, and there are many examples of euphemisms in everyday language. For example : *Wearing cement shoes instead of killed.*
* Ellipsis is the omission of a word or series of words. For example : *Beauty and the beast...Loneliness...Old Grocery House....Brooklyn Bridge....*

**2.2.2.4 Figure of Connection**

* Alliteration is a term to describe a literary device in which a series of words begin with the same consonant sound. For example : *She sells seashells by the sea shore.*
* Antanaclasis is the term used to refer to the repetition of a word or phrases (or a similar word or phrase) that means something different each time it is repeated. For example : *Put out the light, and then put out the light.*
* Chiasmus is a rhetorical device in which two or more clauses are balanced against each other by the reversal of their structures in order to produce an artistic effect. For example : *Bad men live that they may eat and drink, whereas good men eat and drink that they may live.*

According to Sweneey (2002), Figure of speech is figurative language in the form of a single word or phrase. It can be a special repetition, arrangement or omission of words with literal meaning, or a phrase with a specialized meaning not based on the literal meaning of the words. There are many types of figure of speech. Here are a few of them with detailed descriptions :

1. Personification is the attribution of a personal nature or human characteristics to
 something nonhuman, or the representation of an abstract quality in human form.
 For example : *The wind howled in the night.*

2. Simile is specific comparison by means of the word “like” or “as” between two
 kinds of ideas or objects. Like a metaphor, simile also compares two different
 things, but it uses a connotative word. Simile is a figure of speech in which an
 explicit comparison is made explicit by the uses of some words or phrases as
 “like, as, than, similar, resembles or seems.”

3. Metaphor is usage word or phrase, it is indicate one kind of idea or object to
 replace other word or phrase for suggestion of likeness between the two.

4. Metonymy is the use of a word or phrase for another to which it bears an
 important relation, as the effect for the cause, the abstract for the concrete and
 similar construction.

5. Symbol is a figure of speech that combines a literal and sensuous quality with an
 abstract or suggestive aspect.

6. Hyperbole is exaggerated statements or claims not meant to be taken literally.

7. Synecdoche is a figure of speech whereby the part is made to stand for the whole,
 the whole for a part, the species for the genus, and vice versa.

8. Allegory is a narrative or description that conveying the meaning beneath the
 surface. The name and event in Allegory may be abstract but the purpose is
 always clear. The meaning of Allegory should be drawn up to the surface in
 understanding it. Althrough the surface story or description may have its own
 interest, the author’s major interest is in the ulterior meaning.

 The writer concludes that Tarigan (1985) explained the kinds of figure of speech as follows: figure of comparison, figure of opposition, figure of connnection, and figure of repetition. Figure of comparison is classified into five types as follows: simile, metaphor, personification, allegory, and antithesis. Figure of opposition is divided into seven types as follows: hyperbole, litotes, irony, oxymoron, paronomasia, paralysis, and zeugma. Figure of connection is divided into seven types as follows: metonymy, synecdoche, allusion, euphemism, ellipsis, inverse, and gradation. Figure of repetition is classified into four types as follows: alliteration, antanaclasis, chiasmus, and repetition. Perrine (1991) stated figure of speech can be categorized into four groups, they are : figure of comparison, figure of opposition, figure of connection, and figure of repetition. Figure of comparison is divided into four types as follows: simile, personification, metaphor, and allegory. Figure of opposition is divided into five types as follows: hyperbole, litotes, irony, oxymoron, and zeugma. Figure of connection is divided into five types as follows: metonymy, synecdoche, allusion, euphemism, ellipsis. Figure of repetition is divided into three types as follows: alliteration, antanaclasis, and chiasmus. Sweneey (2002) stated figure of speech that often appear in the classic novel, namely : personification, simile, metaphor, metonymy, and symbol. The statement of Tarigan and Perrine is almost same but the statement of Sweneey is different because he only stated figure of speech that often appear in the classic novel.

 **2.3 The Definition of Metaphor**

 The word metaphor comes from Greek, *metaphora* derived from *meta* means ‘over’ and *pherein* means ‘to carry’. It refers to a particular set of linguistic processes whereby aspects of one object are “carried over” or transferred to another object, so that the second object is spoken of as if it was the first. According to Aristotle in Hawkes (1972) that metaphor is the application to one thing of a name belonging to another thing. The analysis is carried out in terms of content and the transference involved may be as follows from the genus to the species, from the species to the genus, from one species to another, and a matter of analogy. In another side, Quintilian in Hawkes (1972) distinguishes four kinds of metaphorical transference, such as from the inanimate to the animate, from the animate to the inanimate, from the inanimate to inanimate, and from the animate to the animate.

 Aristotle and Quintilian say that the essence of metaphor is language expression by which one object is trasferred to another object. Aristotle explains the metaphor by genus and species whereas Quintilian explains the metaphor by animate and inanimate. Along the same line of thought, Newmark (1982) says that metaphor has some components, such as:

* The object is what is described by metaphor.

For example: *She has a sunny smile*. The object is *a smile*.

* The images (means of comparator) is the picture or thing conjured up by the metaphor.

For example: *She has a sunny smile*. The means of comparator is *the sun*.

* The sense (meaning) is the literal meaning of the metaphor.

For example: *She has a sunny smile*. If the smile is compared with the sun, it gives an impression that *the smile is warm, bright, cheerful, and happy*. So, the meaning of the metaphor is *she has a warm, bright, cheerful, and* *happy smile like the sun.*

 Keraf (1994) argues that the metaphor is an analogy that compares two matters directly but in a brief form. Metaphor as direct comparison does not use the words **like** or **as**, so that the object is directly connected to the means of comparator. For example: *buah tangan, buaya darat, kembang desa*. Peter Newmark (in Parera (2004)) proposed ways to analyze metaphors. There are three concepts that are discussed, namely : **Objects**, it is items of meaning which are described by metaphor. Because objects can be in internal structures or outside structures, metaphorical analysis also needs to pay attention to internal structure. **Imagery**, which is an event, process, thing that wants to be used as a comparison and is a description of the object or topic. **The point of similarity’s sense**, between objects and images, it has special aspects that have similarities that are comparable to topics or objects.

 Badudu (1993) says that *metafora merupakan majas yang memperbandingkan suatu benda dengan benda yang lain. Kedua benda yang diperbadingkan itu mempunyai sifat yang sama*. A metaphor according to Webster’s New Collegiate Dictionary in Murray (1978) is a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea used in place of another by way of suggesting a likeness or analogy between them. Along the same line of thought, Wynne (1989:521) argues that metaphor is a figure of speech by which unlike objects are identified with each other for the purpose of emphasizing one or more aspects of resemblance between them. A simple example is *the camel is the ship of the desert.* But according to Ullman (1977) metaphor consists of two main parts: the tenor and the vehicle. The tenor is the subject to which the metaphor is applied. The vehicle is the metaphorical term through which the tenor is applied. These two parts come together to reach a point of similarity known as a ground. For example: *Life is a yo-yo. it's a series of ups and downs.* Here, life is the tenor and yo-yo is the vehicle. The fact that both life and a yo-yo have ups and downs. According to Keraf (2009:139) tells that metaphor is a kind of analogy that compares two things directly. But in a form that brief. Metaphor as direct comparisons do not use the words: as, tubs, like, and so on. So that the first principal directly connected with the principal second fact. Process the same as simile but gradually equations and basic information about the first eliminated.

 Abrams (1999:97) said that metaphor is a word or expression that in literal usage denotes one kind of thing is applied to a distinctly different kind of thing, without asserting a comparison. Kundera (1984:28) said that metaphors are dangerous. Metaphors are not to be trifled with. Searle (1979) said that a metaphor is a figure of speech that imaginatively drawn a comparison between two unlike things. It does this by stating that. This A is This B. Through this method of equation, metaphors can help explain concepts and ideas by colorfully linking the unknown to the known, the abstract to the concrete, the incomprehensible to the comprehensible. Richards (1937) described a metaphor as having two parts: the tenor and the vehicle. The tenor is subject to which attributes are ascribed. Punter (2007) said that a metaphor is a kind of figurative language that compares two different things or ideas. Unlike a simile, metaphor makes this comparison without using the words “like” or “as”. Sometimes, the two things or ideas in a metaphor will be very much like one another, other times, they will be different. Using metaphors can allow for beautiful and sometimes fantastical descriptions that can be quite memorable. Herscberger (1943) said that metaphor is a figure of speech that makes an implicit, implied, or hidden comparison between two things that are unrelated. But which share some common characteristics. In other words, a resemblance of two contradictory or different objects is made based on a single or some common characteristics.

 Lakoff (1980:45) argued that metaphors are pervasive in everyday life. It is not just in language, but also in thought and action. A common definition of metaphor can be described as a comparison that shows how two things that are not alike in most ways are similar in another important way. Underwood (2015) said that metaphor is a figure of specch that describes an object or action in a way that is not literally true but helps explain an idea or make a comparison. Here are the basic: A metaphor states that one thing is another thing, it equates those two things not because they actually are the same but for the sake of comparison and symbolism, and metaphors are used in poetry, literature, and anytime someone want to add some color to their language. Lakoff and Johnson (2003:5 and 57) defined metaphors as “understanding and experiencing one kind of things in terms of another”. They also explain that “every experience takes place within a vast background of cultural presuppositions.” The English language makes heavy use of metaphorical words and phrases which could prove problematic for English as a second language (ESL) learners whose conceptual systems may differ from the typically western culture that English language metaphors reference.

**2.4 Kinds of Metaphor**

 According to Hawkes (1972) and Shipley (1970) that the kinds of metaphor as
 follows:

* Dead metaphor is metaphor in which the sense of a transferred image is not present. For example: *Money*. The word money taken from the name of the temple of Juno Moneta where the first time it is minted.
* Live metaphor is metaphor that is relatively new and has not become part of daily linguistic usage. The readers know that a metaphor has been used.

For example: *You are my sun*.

* Complex metaphor is metaphor that mentioned one identity on another.

For example: *That throws some light on the question*. Throwing light is a metaphor and there is no actual light.

* Compound metaphor is metaphor that catches the mind with several points of similarity.

For example: *He has a wild stag’s foot.* This sentence suggests grace and speed as well as daring.

* Simple metaphor is a metaphor that possess one point of resemblance between the tenor and the vehicle.

For example: *Thou art the grave*. The phrase suggests to the death.

Nordquist (2003) stated the kinds of metaphor as follows :

* Absolute metaphor is a metaphor in which one of the terms (the tenor) can’t be readily distinguished from the other (the vehicle). For example: *We faced a scallywag of tasks.*
* Complex metaphor is a metaphor in which the literal meaning is expressed through more than one figurative term (a combination of primary metaphors). For example: *The ball happily danced into the net.*
* Conceptual metaphor is a metaphor in which one idea (or conceptual domain) is understood in term of another. For example: *I have invested a lot of time in her.*
* Conventional metaphor is a metaphor that is commonly used in everyday language in a culture to give structure to some portion of that culture’s conceptual system. For example: *The time is running out.*
* Creative metaphor is an original comparison that calls attention to itself as a figure of speech. For example: *Fear is a slinking cat I find.*
* Visual metaphor is the representation of a person, place, thing, or idea by means of a visual image that suggests a particular association or point of similarity. For example : *All the world is a stage.*

 Haser (2005) stated the kinds of metaphor as follows:

* Absolute metaphor is a metaphor that compare two things that have no obvious connection in order to make a striking point. For example: *She is doing a tightrope walk with her grades this semester.*
* Dead metaphor is a metaphor that have lost their punch through over usage. For example: *You light up my life.*
* Implied metaphor is a metaphor compare two things without using specific terms. For example: *Spending too much time with him is worse than swimming in a sea of sharks*.
* Mixed metaphor is a metaphor jumble comparisons together often without any logic. For example: *In the heat of the moment, she turned to ice and danced to the beat of her own drum.*
* Root metaphor is a metaphor that rooted in everyday language and assumptions. For example: *Life contains nothing but clear skies up ahead.*
* Primary metaphor is the most basic of metaphors. For example: *Patience is a virtue*.

 The writer concludes that Hawkes (1972) and Shipley (1970) stated 5 kinds of metaphor, namely: dead metaphor, live metaphor, complex metaphor, compound metaphor, and simple metaphor. Nordquist (2002) stated 6 kinds of metaphor, namely: absolute metaphor, complex metaphor, conceptual metaphor, conventional metaphor, creative metaphor, and visual metaphor. Haser (2005) stated 6 kinds of metaphor, namely: absolute metaphor, dead metaphor, implied metaphor, mixed metaphor, root metaphor, and primary metaphor. we can easily infer the function of metaphors both in our daily lives and in a piece of literature. Using appropriate metaphors appeals directly to the senses of listeners or readers, sharpening their imaginations to comprehend what is being communicated to them. Moreover, it gives a life-like quality to our conversation and the characters of fiction. Metaphors are also ways to thinking, offering the listeners and the readers fresh ways of examining ideas and viewing the world.

**2.5 The Definition of Translation**

Translation is the process of translating from source language to target language. In this case from English to Indonesian. The message that is translation result must can be understood by the reader. Because translation must fulfill the rules of theory in translation. Many translation’s theory which is offered by the experts, but no all theories can be used in translating specific topics. The writer is still find many translators who are not following the theories of translation. So that the target language (TL) is not matching with the message which will be delivered by source language (SL).

 Machalli (2000) defined translation as the activity of changing a message from source language to target language. Because every language has closed system and structure. So, we are still possible to do translating. Translating is not just changing a text from source language to target language, but it must be communication means which has purpose and mean in it. Newmark (1981) said that 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.

 Wills (1982:3) said Translation is a transfer process which aims at the transformation of a written source language text into an optimally equivalent target language text, and which requires the syntactic, the semantic, and the pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the source language.

 Nida and Taber (1982:12), which is important in translating is switching the message or source language meaning to target language. Translating consists in 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. Moentaha (2006) defined translation is replacing process of the text in source language with the text in target language without changing level of content of source language. It need to be emphasized that the meaning of “level of content of source language” must be comprehended maximally and extensively, it is not only involving material meaning, conception which is included in level of content, but also lexical meaning, gramatical meaning, expressive nuance.

 In the practice of translation, metaphor is an expression of the most hard transferred from one language to another, because its meaning is difficult to explain. Metaphor can be defined as an indirect comparison between two or more apparently unrelated things or subjects. According to Newmark, 1988 : 85, the point of similarity ‘may be physical, but often it is chosen for its connotations’. Some authors use figurative language in their work to insert aesthetic value and make it interesting. One of the figurative language that is often used by authors is a metaphor, it plays an important role in catching a message of an utterance or text. Based on this thought, the writer intends to analyze and find metaphors in the novel entitled *Great Expectations*. The *Great Expectations* is chosen as the source of data because the following reasons: first, there are differences in concepts and perspective of translating metaphors. Second, there are differences between Indonesian and English culture in expressing meaning.

 Translation is replacing procces or message transformation from source language to target language with regard to the valid rules on target language. Proportional meaning is important matter in translating proces. For obtaining translation which has proportional meaning, the translator must comprehend source language, both from gramatical aspect or expressive aspect. Translation to target language also must be communicative and expressive. Machalli (2000) assumed that language is a voluntary symbol system and with this system a social group cooperated. From this definition can be said that language is system which has structure such as other system. Language has pattern and according to this pattern language is used. Language is voluntary sound system. Language sounds created voluntarily and this sounds have no mean, afterward this sound arranged voluntarily. So then it appear the word which bring certain mean. Language can be enable happen interpersonal communication. Comunication is main function of language. As communication mean, language has task for delivering information or as tool for receiving information.

 Hatim and Munday (2004: 6) defined translation as the process of transferring a written text from source language (SL) to target language (TL). In this definition they do not explicitly express that the object being transferred is meaning or message. They emphasis on translation as a process. Hatim and Munday (2004: 34) also suggest that one of the key problems for the analyst was in actually determining whether the source text meaning had been transferred into the target text.” It is clear here that meaning is the key problem: whether meaning of the source language text is accurately transferred into the target language text.

 Larson (1984:3) defined translation as the process of transfering 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 the way of semantic structure. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant.

 From the statement above, it means that a process of transferring the source language into the target language must be done without changing the idea or meaning of the source language. Hartono (2012: 15) said that translation was kind of activity which inevitably involved at least two languages and two cultural traditions. Based on the statement, translating has complexity of language, which means many problems can come up when people translating something. Thus to deliver the message from Source Language (SL), it will take a proper translation strategy then the message can be delivered properly.

 **2.6 Newmark’s Translation Method**

Newmark (1988: 45-47) classifies 8 kinds of translation’s method, namely:

 1. Word for Word Translation

 In this type of translation, the word order of source language is kept up and the words in
 source language is translated one by one in accordance with the general meaning and it
 does not consider its context.

 Example : (source language) : You bet.

 (target language) : *Kamu bertaruh.*

2. Literal Translation

 In this type of translation, the grammatical construction of source language is transferred to
 the closest grammatical construction of target language. But the lexical words is still being
 translated singly and it is out of its context.

 Example : (source language) : I know that this is not good.

 (target language) : *Saya tahu ini tidak baik.*

3. Faithful Translation

 In this type of translation, contextual meaning is transferred from source language into
 target language. Although, within the limitations of target language’s grammatical structure.
 The cultural words are transferred and the level of grammatical abnormality and lexical are
 still happened.

 Example : (source language) : *Komedi Aristofen dianggap radikal dalam membantu
 ideologi tertentu dan berbeda dengan yang lain. Para
 penerjemah Lysistratas yang ingin menyatakan gagasan
 mereka sendiri telah bekerja selama satu setengah abad
 terakhir.*

(target language) : Since Aristophanic comedy is rather radical in attacking
 certain ideologies and defending others, most of the
 translation whose *Lysistratas* have been published over the
 past century and a half have felt the need to state their own
 ideology.

4. Semantic Translation

 In this type of translation, It put forward the values of beauty from source language. This translation is more flexible with provide space for the translator’s creativity and intuition. It respects the target language grammar and culture. The target language is as close as possible to the source language functionally and pragmatically.

Example : (source language) : Keep off the grass!

 (target language) : *Jauhi rumput ini!*

5. Adapted Translation

 This is the freest form of translation mainly used for plays and poetry. This methods emphasizes the content of message while its form is adapted to the target language’s reader needs.

Example : (source language) : What a questioner you are. Ask no questions, and you’ll be told
 no lies.

 (target language) : *Kau banyak cakap. Jangan tanya agar kau tidak dibohongi.*

6. Free Translation

 In this type of translation, the messages is reproduced regardless of the form in the source language. In other words, this type of translation, its contents are translated without following the form as in sorce language. According to Pei and Gaynor (1954:77) Free Translation is a translation that reproduces the general meaning of the original text. It may or may not closely follow the form or organization or the original.

Example : (source language) : *Ekspor naik, pembagunan meningkat merupakan dampak
 ekonomi yang berkembang pesat.*

 (target language) : The economy is booming : export is up and construction is
 growing.

7. Idiomatic Translation

 In this type of translation, the message is reproduced in target language but there is distorted variation of meaning’s tendency. Because there is actually no idiom’s usage in source language. It reproduces the message of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preffering colloquialisms and idioms.

Example : (source language) : *Diam!*

 (target language) : Hold your noise!

8. Communicative Translation

 In this type of translation, it attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such away that both language and content are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

Example : (source language) : Keep off the grass!

 (target language) : *Dilarang berjalan di atas rumput!*

**2.7 The Synopsis of Charles Dickens’ *Great Expectations***

 A little boy named Phillip Pirrip (nicknamed Pip) lives with his old sister namely Mrs. Joe Gargery and old brother in law namely Mr. Joe. His father and mother passed away and they were buried in the church yard near his house. Pip often stays near the grave of his parents for running away from the pressure which he feel at his old sister’s house. His old sister is not actually person who can replace his mother position. She is very cruel to Pip. In contrast to his old brother in law, even though he is common people, but he loves Pip. One day, Pip sits near his mother’s cemetery. Suddenly, there came a sturdy man in black shirt who had broken handcuffs in his both hands. He is like a felon who escaped from jail. He interrogates Pip so that he feel scared. He asked Pip for bringing food and a knife for him. If not, he would ask for his liver. He also forbid Pip to tell the reason why he is moved. As a child, Pip is absolutely afraid with the challenges. Tomorrow, he takes his Christmas food and he gives this food to his felon. When he give it to sturdy felon, he met another man in front of the church with his hancuffed hand. There are two felons there. In the next day, a group of police came to Mr. Joe’s house and one of the police ask Mr. Joe to borrow the gun. They have trouble to catch two felons who run away.

 Finally, Mr. Joe help them to find those felons with Pip. Actually Pip feel afraid. If those felons are found, then they saw him, whether those felons will peevish to him and they think that Pip has shown their existence? But after both felons have been found, Pip is not threatened at all. Both felons run away to Australia for the action of those felons who had escaped from jail. In the next day, Mr. Joe come to uncle Pumblecook. He want to sent Pip to Mrs. Havisham in the city. Mrs. Havisham want a boy who accompany her little daughter to play. As a result, Pip become a playmate of Mrs. Havisham’s daughter namely Estella. When Pip comes to Mr. Havisham’s house, Estella opens the door. Afterwards, Pip is invited into her big dark house. Estella bring a candle to Mrs. Havisham’s room. He see Mrs. Havisham’s room is full of spider web. He also see old woman sits in a chair with handhold. Seemingly, the old woman is Mrs. Havisham. She wear long white gown and a half head veil. It seem like a wedding dress. Her hair is white like his dress. Her skin is pale like she has never been exposed to sunlight. In front of her, there is a table and Bible that have been wrapped up by spider web. There is also a intact cake which has been wrapped up by spider web. Afterwards, Pip see the off clock show twenty to nine. Estella and Pip often play cards. Pip secretly likes Estella and it will continue until the story is finished but the thing that make Pip sad is Estella always satirize Pip with harsh word. She often say that Pip is stupid and she feel sorry when she play with Pip. So, Pip feel become poor child. One day, a blond man come to Estella’s house. Pip suppose that he will take Estella from him. So, they wrestled.

 Pip won the wrestling match. Pip hoped Estella would be proud of him, but she did not seem to. the days continue until Pip moved to 14 years. At that time he said goodbye to Mrs. Havisham. Mrs. Havisham gave him a handful of gold in return for his work. Since that Pip felt more weak. He want to be a gentleman. When Pip stated that he want to be a gentleman, Mrs. Havisham said, “So, you are a boy with a great expectation.” Afterwards, Pip help his brother in law’s work a lot. While Estella go to school in Paris. Pip’s old sister namely Mrs. Joe begin to get sick. So, Mr. Joe have to hire a maid namely Biddy to take care of her and help her household affair. Pip tells a lot to Biddy. Biddy argues that Pip does not have to be someone else for being a gentleman. He just to be himself. But this seems to be ignored by Pip. One day in a pub, Pip is drinking with his hold brother in law, Mr. Jagger come to them. He is a consultant who offer Pip the school to London. There is someone who completes a donation to stay and school there until it is finished. Pip is absolutely happy because besides being a distinguished man, he will meet and receive Estella easily. Meanwhile his uncle, Mr. Joe is also extremely happy. Mr. Joe is Pip’s true friend. He never keep Pip for leaving just because he had fostered him. Mr. Joe allow Pip go for his good future. But Pip will underestimate his true friend later. In London Pip live in casual apartment with an auburn hair man namely Mr. Pocket. Mr. Pocket is known as a man who Pip defeated in wrestling match on Mrs. Havisham’s home page. Pip undergo prosperous life here. All his need fullfilled even more than enough. He often shop with Mr. Pocket and waste the money. But the thing that has not being known yet by Pip until now who is his benefactor.

 During that period, he thought that Mrs. Havisham is his benefactor. Pip’s life changed a lot in London. He became a prosperous man. But the change that is happened to him already made him delirious. He just think to be gentleman and the way to get Estella. One day, Mr. Joe come to Pip’s apartment unexpectedly. He just want to announce that Mrs. Havisham want to meet Pip evidently. Finally, Pip go to his hometown afterwards he goes to Mrs. Havisham’s house. There he does not come to his uncle’s house at all. He instead stay at the hotel. Pip meets Estella there. She looks who has grown up and more beautiful. When he express love to Estella, she does not respond. She only say that she also want to go to London for going to school there. Pip surely is extremely happy because he will possess more opportunities to meet with Estella in London. His life is happier while his memory and sympathy for his old brother in law’s family more decreased. Pip and Estella go back to London. One day, Pip’s old brother pass away and he go to his uncle’s house. He is sad to see his uncle’s situation who have to spend much money for his old brother funeral while he waste much money when he stay in London. When Pip go back to London, Pocket get married. They dispart in apartment. He begin feel lonely because Estella does not make him happy. Estella is still like before. She is ignorant and often speak hatespeech. But it does not why, he is keeping loving Estella. Even finally, Estella get married with Bentley Dummle. So, Pip is more missing her. In his loneliness, a mysterious guest come to Pip’s apartment suddenly. His hair is blonde and his body is muscular. In fact, he is a felon who ever beg a food and threaten Pip to eat Pip’s liver. His name is Abel Magwitch. He is actually Pip’s benefactor. Pip almost does not believe it. the person who fund him feel like someone who hate because of his childhood remembrance. But afterwards, Pip recognize him too.

 In fact Estella is Magwitch’s daughter. In his story, when Magwitch was arrested due to commiting criminal action, he left his wife and his daughter. After his leaving, his wife was caught due to stealing her daughter’s food. Besides that his mother was executed by death penalty because she was accused murdering someone even though the police had no evidence. So, Estella who is Magwitch’s daughter was living alone and she was nurtured by Mrs. Havisham. Magwitch’s existence in London is big secret which can not be revealed. Magwitch is a felon which is deported from his country. If he is caught up to come back to his country, he will be executed by death penalty. Therefore, Pip, Pocket, and Magwitch try to flee for leaving England. Before they were leaving England, Pip visit Mrs. Havisham’s house. He want to say goodbye. He say that all this time he assume Mrs. Havisham is his benefactor. But in the fact, she is not his benefactor. However, he thank to Mrs. Havisham because she already made him became gentleman. Pip has an opportunity to ask why let him to assume that she is a benefactor. Mrs. Havisham say that she does not make it. but Pip made his problem by himself. Moreover, Pip ask to Estella why she will not receive his love? He was still loving Estella until now. But Estella said that she does not love anyone. Afterwards, Pip ask her why she get married? Does she love Dummle? Estella say that she is tired with people here. Mrs. Havisham ask to Estella. “If you does not love anyone, does it include me?” Afterwards, Estella answered that Mrs. Havisham who made me like this. She directly go and ignore Mrs. Havisham’s calling. Pip get out from Mrs. Havisham’s house. Meanwhile in Mrs. Havisham’s house, it was heard Mrs. Havisham shout for help. When Pip go back, Many rooms of Mrs. Havisham’s house has been afire and Mrs. Havisham pass away there.

From Mr. Jagger, Pip know that Mrs. Havisham will get married when her future husband never come. In her wedding day at 09.40 AM, her future husband report that he will go. It is the reason that she is still wearing dress and she never get out from her house. Afterwards, Pip realize why in every her room all the clocks show at 09.40 AM. Then, Pip continue his plan for leaving England with Magwitch. But unfortunately, in the journey his ship is caught by English police. Magwitch is caught in injured situation and he pass away later. While Pip go back to his hometown. He meet Mr. Joe who has got married with Biddy and he has a son. When he arrive in his house page. He saw Biddy’s son is like himself in the past. The end of this story. Pip meet Estella who already got divorce with her husband. Now, she became a widow. She already learned her lesson and she want to receive Pip become her future husband.

**2.8 The Biography of Charles Dickens**

 Charles John Huffam Dickens (February 7th,1812 – June 9th 1870) was an English writer and social critic. He created some of the world’s best known fictional characters and he is regarded by many as the greatest novelist of the Victorian era. His work enjoyed unprecedented popularity during his lifetime, and by the 20th century critics and scholars had recognised him as a literary genius. His novels and short stories are still widely read today. Born in Portsmouth, Dickens left school to work in a factory when his father was incarcerated in debtors’ prison. Despite his lack of formal education. He edited a weekly journal for 20 years, wrote 15 novels, 5 novellas, hundreds of short stories and non-fiction articles, lectured and performed readings extensively, was an indefatigable letter writer, and campaigned vigorously for children’s rights, education, and other social reforms. Dickens’ literary success began with the 1863 serial publication of *The Pickwick Papers*. Within a few years, he had become an international literary celebrity, famous for his humour, satire, and keen observation of character and society. His novels, most published in monthly or weekly instalments, pioneered the serial publication of narrative fiction which became the dominant Victorian mode for novel publication.

 First edition publication schedule of *Great Expectations* : Part 1-5 (1, 8, 15, 22, 29 December 1860) Chapter 1-8. Part 6-9 (5, 12, 19, 26 January 1861) Chapter 9-15. Part 10-12 (2, 9, 23 February 1861) Chapter 16-21. Part 13-17 (2, 9, 16, 23, 30 March 1861) Chapter 22-29. Part 18-21 (6, 13, 20, 27 April 1861) Chapter 30-37. Part 22-25 (4, 11, 18, 25 May 1861) Chapter 38-42. Part 26-30 (1. 8, 15, 22, 29 June 1861) Chapter 43-52. Part 31-34 (6,13, 20, 27 July 1861) Chapter 53-57. Part 35 (3 August 1861) Chapter 58-59. Robert L Patten estimates that *All the Year Round* sold 100.000 copies of *Great Expectations* each week and Mudie, the largest circulating library which purchased about 1.400 copies, stated that at least 30 people read each copy. Aside from the dramatic plot, the Dickensian humour also appealed to readers. Dickens wrote to Forster in October 1860 that “You will not have to complain of the want of humour as in the *Tale of Two Cities*,” an opinion Forster supports to find that Dickens’ humour is not less than his creative power. It was at its best in this book. Moreover, according to Paul Schlicke, the readers found the best of Dickens’ older and newer writing styles. Overall, *Great Expectations* received near universal acclaim. There are not all reviews were favourable. However, Margaret Oliphant’s review published May 1862 in *Blackwood’s Magazine*, it vilified the novel. Critics in the 19th and 20th centuries hailed it as one of Dickens’ greatest successes although often for conflicting reason. G.K Chesterton admired the novel’s optimism. In 1941, Edmund Wilson emphasized its social context. In 1974, Jerome H Buckley saw it as a bildungsrowan, writing a chapter on Dickens and two of his major protagonists (David Copperfield and Pip) in his 1974 book on the Bildungsroman in Victorian writing. John Hillis Miller wrote in 1958 that Pip is the archetype of all Dickensian heroes. In 1970, Q D Leavis suggest, “How we must read *Great Expectations*.” In 1984, Peter Brooks in the wake of Jaques Derrida offered a deconstructionist reading. The most profound analyst, according to Paul Schlicke is probably Julian Moynahan who in a 1964 essay surveying the hero’s guilt made Orlick “Pip’s double, alter ego and dark mirror image.” Schlicke also names Anny Sadrin’s extensive 1988 study as the “most distinguished.”

 The narrative structure of *Great Expectations* is influenced by the fact that it was first published as weekly episodes in a periodical. This required short chapters centered on a single subject and an almost mathematical structure. Dickens’ novel has influenced a number of writers. Sue Roe’s *Estella: Her Expectations* (1982) for example, it explores the inner life of an Estella fascinated with a Havisham figure. Miss Havisham is again important in *Havisham: A Novel* (2013). It is a book by Ronald Frame that features an imagining of Miss Catherine Havisham’s life from childhood to adulthood. The second chapter of Rosalind Ashe’s *Literary Houses* (1982) paraphrases Miss Havisham’s story with detail about the nature and structure of Satis House and coloured imaginings of the house within. Miss Havisham is also central to *Lost in a Good Book* (2002), Jasper Fforde’s alternate history fantasy novel which features a parody of Miss Havisham. It won the Independent Mystery Booksellers Association 2004 Dilys Award. Magwitch is the protagonist of Peter Carey’s *Jack Maggs* which is a reimagining of Magwitch’s return to England with the addition, among other things of a fictionalised Dickens character and plot line. Carey’s novel won the Commonwealth Writers Prize in 1998. *Mister Pip* (2006) is a novel by Lloyd Jones, a New Zealander author. The winner of the 2007 Commonwealth Writers’ Prize, Lloyd Jones’s novel is set in a village on the Papua New Guinea island of Bougainville during a brutal civil war there in the 1990s, where the young protagonist’s life is impacted in a major way by her reading of *Great Expectations*.