CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter includes the review of theories which related to the study. There is a brief overview about the study of translation, translation equivalence, and equivalence translation strategies.

2.1 Study of Translation

Translation is an interesting field of study for many linguists. That is why some experts define about translation. Catford as cited by Mary Snell-Hornby (1965:20) defines “Translating is the replacement of textual material in one language (source language) by equivalent textual material in another language (target language).” Moreover, Nida and Taber (1969:12) “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.” From the definitions above, we can conclude that Catford and Nida have the same perspective that translation is a tool to deliver the meaning of text from one language to another. Moreover, they agree that when translating we have to pay attention to the equivalence.

Larson (1984: 10) states that “Translation consists of studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context of the source language, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning, then reconstructing the same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure which appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context". According to Lefevere (McGuire, 1987:2), what is generally known as translation involves the rendering of a source language (SL) text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that (1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and (2) the structures of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted. The conclusion when we translate, there are three steps that are followed: study source text, analyze it, and reconstruct the meaning. Both agreed that we have to pay attention to the structure because every language has its own ways and pattern.

Before doing a translation, the translator should understand about the essence message of Source Language Text (SLT). The translator should do a deep analysis on the SLT and understand the context where the text is applied.

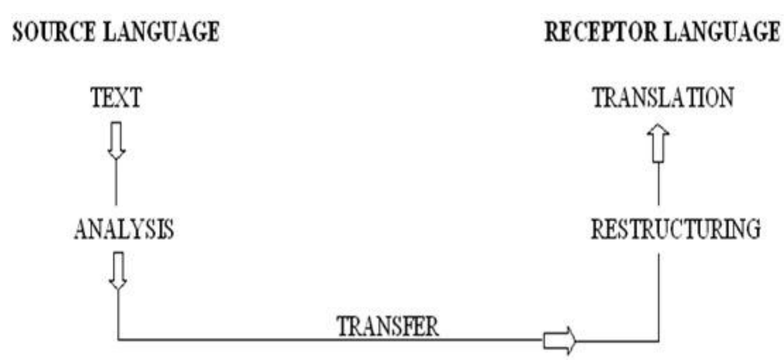

Figure 2.1 Illustration of Translation Process

A scheme above is an illustration of the three stages of translation process made by Nida and Taber (2004:161). First, the translator should analyze the original text (Source Language) and understand the meaning that the author delivers. Then, the translator transfers the meaning of original text into Receptor Language and restructures it into the most suitable form of Receptor Language. To produce a readable and acceptable product of RLT, restructuring is an important part because there are differences in grammatical and semantic structures between SLT and RLT.

2.2. Translation Equivalence

There is always a target when we translate something, the target is well known as equivalence. Equivalence can be the one of main issue in translation. A translator must see for the equivalence between Source Text (ST) and Target Text (TT), so there will be no missing information when translator transfers the message from ST to TT (Venuti 2000:133). Baker (1998:77) states equivalence as the relationship between a source text (ST) and a target text (TT) that has allowed the TT to be considered as a translation of the ST in the first place. Larson (1984:57) conveys that a translator will often find that there is no exact equivalent between the words of one language and the words of another. There will be overlap in translation product, and there is seldom a complete match between languages.

Based on the explanation above, finding the equivalent word is important when translating. However, sometimes to get the same meaning the translator should translate one word of the SL to several words in the receptor language.

2.2.1 Kinds of Equivalence

There are some equivalence theories based on the several translation scholars. Nida (2001) states there are two kinds of equivalence which are: 1) *formal equivalence* and 2) *dynamic equivalence*. Nida defined these as follows:

1. Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content. Viewed from this formal orientation, one is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. This means, for example, that the message in the target culture is constantly compared with the message in the source culture to determine standards of accuracy and correctness (Venuti 2000:129)

2. Dynamic equivalence is based on what Nida calls 'the principle of equivalent effect', where 'the relation between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message'. One way of defining a dynamic equivalence translation is to describe it as "the closest natural equivalent

to the SL message." This kind of definition contains three essential items: 1) equivalent, which points toward the SL message, 2) natural, which points towards the TL, and 3) closest, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation.

Baker (1992) conveys five strategies of equivalence based on the levels:

1. *Equivalence in word level* is a bottom up approach to get an equivalent word when the translator looks at the words as single units.
2. *Equivalence above word level* is a bottom up approach to get an equivalent word when the translator looks at the combination of word, phrase, or idiom.
3. *Grammatical equivalence* is an approach to get the equivalent from the grammatical structures. The diversity grammatical categories across languages and the difficulty of finding an equivalent term in the TT because of the differences of grammatical rules between two languages. The problems for translators usually are number, voice, person, gender, tense and aspect.
4. *Textual equivalence* is an approach to get the textual equivalence through the analysis of words structure when deliver the messages in textual level. The textual equivalence deals with the difficulties and strategies at the level of text by looking at cohesive.
5. *Pragmatic equivalence* is an approach to get the equivalence during translation process and get the implied from the analysis of text which

includes the writer, reader, and cultural context. Baker argues that the term implicature is used to refer to what is implied and not to literal meaning. In other words, the focus of interest is not on what is explicitly said but what is intended or implied in a given context.

2.3. Equivalence Translation Strategies

2.3.1. Equivalence Translation Strategies at Word Level

Baker (1992) states there are seven strategies in order to overcome the problems of non-equivalence in doing translation. The first one is translation by a more general word (superordinate). This is one of the commonest strategies with many types of non-equivalence, particular in the area of propositional meaning. It works equally well in most. For example:

ST: <u>Shampoo</u> the hair with WELLA-SHAMPOO and rub lightly towel dry.

TT: <u>Basuh</u> rambut dengan Wella Shampoo dan keringkan dengan handuk kering.

The above example illustrates the use of general word. “Shampooing” can be seen as type of “washing”, we can wash a lot of things but we can only shampoo hair. So, the translator tries to find more general word to cover the meaning of the missing hyponym in the target language.

Another strategy beside translation by general word is translation by a more neutral/less expressive word. Look at the example below:

ST: The panda is something of a zoological mystery

TT: Kemunculan panda dalam dunia hewan adalah sebuah teka teki

There is an equivalent for mystery in Bahasa Indonesia, but it mostly used for mystical things. It might be wrong if the translator used it in zoology context.

After the neutral, one of the strategies to achieve equivalent effect is translation by cultural substitution. This strategy is replacing a culture item or expression with a target-language item which does not have the same proportional meaning but have a similar impact to target reader. This strategy gives the reader a concept with which s/he can identify something familiar and appealing.

The forth strategy after cultural substitution is translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation is particularly common in dealing with culture-specific items modern concepts, and buzz words. The translator uses loan words depending on the norms in their society. Example:

ST: The next destination is Bandung

TT: Destinasi selanjutnya adalah Bandung

The next strategy after translation using a loan word is translation by paraphrase using a related word. This is the strategy that tends to be used when the concept expressed by the source item is lexicalized in the TL, but in a different form, and when the frequency with which a certain form is used in the ST is significantly higher than would be natural in the TL.

ST: He really happy

TT: Dia bahagia bukan main

Beside translation by paraphrase using a related word, there is translation by paraphrase using an unrelated word. This is the strategy of paraphrasing based on modifying a superordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question is semantically complex. The main advantage of this strategy is that it achieves a high level of precision in specifying propositional meaning. The disadvantage using this strategy is paraphrase does not have the status of a lexical item and therefore cannot convey expressive, evoked, or any kind of associative meaning. Look at the example below:

ST: Andy looked pleased as the Rocky Road finally engulfed the tip of his nose

TT: Andy kelihatan senang. Hidungnya sudah hampir tertutup es krim.

The last strategy at word level is translation by omission. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text to justify distracting the reader with lengthy explanation, translator can and often do simply omit translating the word or the expression in question. Example:

ST: That's not exactly match for her

TT: Tak cocok untuknya

So, the translation strategy that occurs at word level may come in seven strategies. They are translation by general word, translation by neutral/less expressive word, translation by cultural substitution, translation using a loan word, translation by paraphrase using a related word, translation by paraphrase using an unrelated word, and translation by omission.

2.3.2 Equivalence Strategies at Above Word Level

The non-equivalence problems of translation do not only occur at word level, but also in combining word such as idiom, phrase, and fixed expression. Baker (1992) mentions there are two main problems of idiomatic and fixed expressions in translation. They are: the ability to recognize and interpret an idiom correctly; and the difficulties involved in rendering the various aspect of meaning that an idiom or fixed expression conveys into the TL.

Baker mentions several strategies to overcome this problem the first one is the strategy using an idiom of similar meaning and form. This is the strategy involve using an idiom in the TT which roughly the same meaning as that the ST idiom and in addition consist of equivalent lexical item. This kind of match can only occasionally be achieved. Example:

> ST: Perhaps Granamyr wanted to show us that <u>things aren't always what they seem</u>.

TT: Mungkin Granamyr ingin menunjukkan kepada kita bahwa sesuatu hal tidak lah selalu sama dengan apa yang kita lihat.

After using idiom of similar meaning and form strategy, there is a strategy using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form. It is often possible to find idiom or fixed expression in the TL which has a meaning similar to that of source idiom or expression, but which consist of different lexical item. Example:

ST: “Those idiots are letting her get into her stride.” said George

TT: “para idiot itu membiarkan dia menumpahkan kemarahannya.” kata George

Another strategy besides using idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form is translation of paraphrase. This is the strategy which has the same concept with the paraphrase strategy at word level, but the differences lay on the way it translated. At the word level, paraphrase strategy translates a word in to unrelated words, but in this paraphrase at this level, the idiom was translated into related idiom. This strategy is the most common way of translating idiom (Baker 1992:75). It possible for the translator find inaccurate paraphrase. Example:

ST: “It was the first week after term ended,” said Ron.

TT: “Terjadinya pada minggu pertama liburan kita,” kata Ron.

The last strategy that occurs beside the third above is translation by omission. An idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the TT because it has no close match in the TL, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reason.

To conclude, there are four strategies that may occur in translating above word level. They are strategy using an idiom of similar meaning and form, strategy using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form, translation of paraphrase, and translation by omission.

2.3.2. Equivalence Translation Strategies at Grammatical Level

The non-equivalence problems of translation also occur at grammatical level. That is why the translators must be aware of the differences in grammatical structures of the languages he/she is currently working with. According to Baker (1992), there are some major categories of difficulty that the translators encounter because the difference grammatical structures between source language and target language they are number, gender, person, tense and aspect, and voice.

The first problem is grammatical category of number. Not all languages have a grammatical category of number and view countability in the same terms. For example, English has distinction between one and more than one. If a translator working from a language which has number distinction into language with no category of number, s/he has two options: omit the information of number, or encode the information lexically.

The second problem after category of number is gender. Gender is a grammatical distinction. It depends on the noun or pronoun is classified as masculine or feminine in some languages. English and Bahasa Indonesia do not have a grammatical category of gender.

Another problem beside category of number and gender, there is category of person. It relates to the notion of participant roles. Most languages define participant roles through the system of pronoun. Cartford (1965) explains that Bahasa Indonesia has nine term of pronoun system while English has only seven. The two other differences are: English *we* has two translation in Bahasa Indonesia *kita* and *kami*. It depends on the addressee is included or not. Then, Engish *I* has two translation *aku* and *saya*. It depends on the relationship between speaker and hearer.

The next problem after category of person, there is tense and aspect. They are grammatical categories in a large number of languages. The usual distinction is between past, present and future. Aspectual differences have to do with the temporal distribution of event, such as completion or non-completion, continuation, or momentariness.

The last problem that occur beside category of number, gender, person, tense and aspect is voice. Voice is a grammatical category which defines the relationship between a verb and its subject. In active clauses, the subject is performing the action. In passive clauses, the subject is the affected entity.

So, there are four difficulties that translators usually found when translating a grammatical level. They are category of number, category of gender, category of person, category of tense and aspect, and category of voice.

2.3.3. Equivalence Translation Strategies at Textual Level

This is about the translation difficulties and strategies at the level of text by looking at the cohesion. Baker (1992) states cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of text. Halliday and Hasan identity five main cohesive devices in English: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

The first one is the reference. The term reference is traditionally used in semantics for the relationship between words. Reference occurs when the reader has to retrieve the identity of what is being talked about by referring to another context. The pronoun *she* points to Mrs Thatcher within the textual world itself. See the example below:

Mrs Thatcher has resigned. <u>She</u> announced her decision this morning.

The next one is different with reference. Substitution and ellipsis are grammatical rather than semantic relationships. In substitution, an item is replaced by another item. On the other hand, ellipsis involves the omission of an item. In ellipsis, a word is replaced by nothing. For examples:

My axe is too blunt. I must get another <u>*one*</u>. (*One* replaces *axe*).

Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have. (ellipted items: *been swimming*).

Next strategy beside substitution and ellipsis is conjunction. Conjunction involves the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses, and paragraphs to each other. The writer uses conjunction because s/he wants to relate what to be said and has been said before. There are five types of conjunction: additive, adversative, causal, temporal, and continuatives.

The last strategy that may occur after conjunction is lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text. It can be said that lexical cohesion covers any instance in which the use of a lexical item recalls the sense of an earlier one. Halliday and Hasan divide lexical cohesion into two main categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration, as the name suggests, involves repetition of lexical items. A reiterated item may be a repetition of an earlier item, a synonym or near-synonym, a super-ordinate, or a general word. For example:

There is <u>*a boy*</u> *climbing that tree.*

The boy is going to fall if he doesn't take care. (repetition)

*The lad's going to fall if he doesn't take care. (*synonym*)*

*The child's going to fall if he doesn't take care. (*superordinate*)*

*The idiot's going to fall if he doesn't take care. (*general word*)*

Moreover, collocation as a subclass of lexical cohesion in Halliday and Hasan's model, covers any instance which involves a pair of lexical items that are associated with each other in the language in some way. Halliday and Hasan offer the following types of association as examples, but admit that there are other instances where the association between lexical items cannot readily be given a name but is nevertheless felt to exist.

To conclude, there are five difficulties the translator usually found when translating a text. They are reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

2.3.4. The Equivalence Translation Strategies at Pragmatic Level

Another aspect closely connected with textual equivalence is pragmatic equivalence. This is about the way utterances are used in communicative situations and the way we interpret them in context. To make it natural or make sense in cross-cultural communication, there are two areas those are coherence and implicature.

The first one is coherence. Coherence is a network of conceptual relations which underlie the surface text. A network of relations which is valid and makes sense in one society may not be valid in another. It's about the point of view of the world. The coherence of a text is a result of the interaction between knowledge presented in the text and the reader's own knowledge and experience of the world, the latter being influenced by a variety of factors such as age, sex, race, nationality, education, occupation, and political and religious affiliations.

In the second place after coherence is implicature. It raises the question of how it is that we come to understand more than it is actually said. For example:

The scene takes place on a public street in contemporary U.S.

> "What's your name, boy?" the policeman asked.
>
> "Dr. Poussaint, I'm a physician."
>
> "What's your first name, boy?"
>
> "Alvin." *(used by Blum-Kulka ,1981)*

Anyone familiar with address rules in American English will know that Dr. Poussaint is black. They will also realize that by refusing to accept the normal address of occupational title plus surname and by using the term boy and requesting Dr. Pouissant's first name, the policeman means to insult the doctor. Baker (1992) states not all contexts on which modes of address are used will involve deliberate violation of socio-cultural norms to convey implicatures.

In conclusion, pragmatic level is used to interpret the context. There are two areas to make it natural in cross-cultural, they are coherence and implicature.

2.4. Wonderful Indonesia

Wonderful Indonesia has been the slogan since January 2011 of an international marketing campaign directed by the Indonesian Ministry of Culture and Tourism to promote tourism. The campaign replaced the previous "Visit Indonesia Year" campaign which had been used since 1991. The "Wonderful Indonesia" concept advertises Indonesia's "wonderful" nature, cultures, people, food, and value for the money. After the campaign was launched, Indonesia reported an increase of foreign visitors; from 7,002,944 in 2010, to 7,649,731 in 2011; and 8,044,462 in 2012. We'll begin using ‘Wonderful Indonesia’ in January 2011. “We’ve had [positive] feedback from friends abroad, who said ‘Wonderful Indonesia’ is good because Indonesia does have wonderful, beautiful nature, wonderful cultures, wonderful people and wonderful food. So, we deserve to be called wonderful," said Jero Wacik the former of Culture and Tourism Minister on jakartapost.com

2.5. Theoretical Framework

In this study, the writer finds out the equivalence in 25 articles from Wonderful Indonesia’s website. This study use Baker’s theory of equivalence: word level, above word level, and grammatical level.