

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Background of Study

Language is a set of rules used by human as a tool of their communication. The use of the language governed by the conventional rules shared by the speakers of the language. Each of them must obey the rules. Otherwise, they cannot use it effectively for the sake of their communication. They can not communicate well. Even worst, they cannot understand each other. Therefore, in order to be successful to join a communicative interaction, the members of a speech community must use their language according to the conventional rules they share among themselves.

English is an international language that used by many people in the world. Using English is the easiest way communication with people from other countries about many aspect in human life such as education, science, business, technology, culture and also another aspects that used in Indonesian people.

The language skill is the performance of the speakers of a language. In using their language as a tool of the communication in their daily routines. It is the ability to use their language according to the set of the conventional rules they share among themselves. It refers to the correct use of the rules of their language. People having a good language skill are those who can apply the rules of their language in transferring information in their communication effectively.

Translation is a process of transferring and reproducing written language message of one source language to one target language which should be understood by the target language readers. It is a tool which acts as a bridge for dual act of human communication which meant

there are two different languages interact with. By this fact, translation plays many important roles in social community life like as communication exchanges, development of knowledge, and socio-cultural interchanges.

According to James (2000:1) translation is a kind of activity which inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions. Translation makes people easily get any information without confusion. To create a good translation, translators have to use appropriate procedures in translating the source texts to target texts to create suitable and meaningful messages. Translation activity is not always easy. Besides translating language, the translator is also translating culture. Translation has a role to transfer culture to another culture. It means that if the translator has to translate a word or a sentence which contains the cultural aspect of a country, then they have to find its equivalence in the target language that is suitable to the source language.

Translating Indonesian text into English text is not easy an work. The translator must know what words he/she has to use appropriately. Learners have difficulties to handle words or word associations because they do not comprehend them or because they do not find proper equivalents, which makes translation a difficult task. Concerning the translation of Indonesian into English Text, the learners should be able to find the equivalence in Indonesian. Translation is not just changing Indonesian word into English word for the real meaning but it also definitely depends o the context in which word is used.

Every translator needs also to consider the fact that each language has its own distinctive forms to represent meaning. It is also important for translator to realize that one all of the elements of a language have equivalent forms in another language. Therefore, finding the equivalence may be considered as one of the problems which are commonly faced by translator.

Based on Baker's theory, there are five levels of equivalence : 1) Equivalence at word level, 2) equivalence above word level, 3) grammatical equivalence, 4) textual equivalence, 5) pragmatic equivalence. This particular study merely concerns with the third level, i.e. the grammatical equivalence. There are a variety of grammatical categories, which may or may not be expressed in different languages. Baker mentions five categories that commonly lead to difficulties in finding the equivalence during the process of translation. They are number, gender, person(the system of pronoun), tense, and voice.

Translation here indeed involves two language, namely : the sources and target languages. In this particular study, the source language is English for it may be the most translated language in the world. The target language is Bahasa Indonesia since it our national language which is used as the medium of instruction in our country.

The most important thing in translating a text is transferring the same message as source language produces. the Students still make many mistakes in understanding the text and in restructuring it into good English or Indonesia. There are four stages in translation process that can happen very fast or slow, only once or repeatedly, depending on the intensity of the difficulties encountered by the translators. The process such as analysis, transfer, restructuring, evaluation

and revision (Nida and Taber, in Suryawinata, 2003). This theory on translation process is useful for the writer to understand what is actually going on in the mind of a translator when he tries to identify the problem in the source language text and then find strategies to be applied in the target language text.

Regarding with the explanation above, the writer have conducting a research on “An Error Analysis of Grammatical Equivalence Translation in Translating *Batu Menangis* Myth at Eleventh Grade Students in Senior High School”

1.2 The Problem of Study

The problem of this research are formulated in the following questions

1. What are the errors of the grammatical categories of equivalence found in translating “*Batu Menangis*” of Eleventh Grade students of Senior High School?
2. What is the most dominant error of grammatical categories of equivalence found in translating “*Batu Menangis*” of Eleventh Grade students of Senior High School?

1.3 The Objective of Study

Based on problem, the aims of the study formulated to:

1. To find out the errors of grammatical categories of equivalence found in translating “*Batu Menangis*” of eleventh grade students of Senior High school.
2. To find out the most dominant error of grammatical equivalence found in translating “*Batu Menangis*” of Eleventh Grade students of Senior High School.

1.4 The Scope of Study

In this study the writer will focus in analyzing the errors of grammatical categories of equivalence proposed by Baker’s Theory in translating ”*Batu Menangis*” from Indonesian to English. There are four paragraphs in *Batu Menangis* myth. For effectiveness and minimize the time, the writer only analyze two paragraphs.

1.5 The Significances of Study

There are two kinds of significances of the study. They are:

1. Theoretically

There are three theoretical significances from this study that the researcher expected to be useful to develop analyzing translation process.

- 1) The result of the study is expected to enrich the horizon of English teaching translation.
- 2) The result of this study can be used as a model to identify and to understand equivalence for the teacher.
- 3) The result of this study is expected to help the next researchers in analyzing translation.

2. Practically

- 1) The result of this study can help the students to identify the grammatical in a translating.
- 2) This model helps the next researchers to investigate translation in the classroom.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Theories are needed to explain some concepts or terms applied in the research concerned.

Some terms are used in the study and they need to be the theoretical explained.

2.2 Error Analysis

Error or mistakes committed by students in the second/foreign language classroom had a hard time until current views on them became widely accepted. Even in modern times, errors in the second language classroom were harshly banned. The structuralist (descriptive) linguist took the philosophy that language was a set of mechanistic habits from the behaviorist psychologist and put it into practice in his audio-lingual classroom, where errors were carefully avoided right from the very beginning and banned from every learning stage. Students error thus treated as a surface phenomenon and are sometimes the learner's own system to approximates the real system of the target language (Chiang 1981:10)

As a matter of fact, "correct" production yields little information about the the actual linguistic system of learners. Thus the purpose of this report is just analyze students' errors so that teacher can give some comprehensive and considerate feedback to them and eventually help them achieve successful learning.

Brown (1994: 206) stated that learners make errors and that errors can be observed, analyzed and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners called error analysis. Error analysis is a procedure involving collecting sample of the learner's language, identifying the errors in the sample, describing errors, classifying them according to their hypothesized causes and evaluating their seriousness.

2.2.1 Sources of errors

Brown (1980) states there are four sources of errors, namely:

1) Interlingual transfer

In early stages, the native language is the only previous linguistic system that the learner can draw upon; thus the interference is inevitable.

2) Intralingual transfer

Once a learner has acquired parts of the new system, more and more intralingual transfer-generalization would occur.

3) Context of learning

Richards (1971) called “false concepts” and Stenson (1974) called “induced errors.” Including a) misleading explanation from the teacher, b) faulty presentation of a structure in a textbook, c) improperly contextualized pattern, d) confused vocabulary items because of contiguous presentation, e) inappropriately formal forms of language.

4) Communication strategies

In order to get the messages across, a learner may use some techniques like word coinage, circumlocution, false cognates, and prefabricated patterns, which can all be sources of error.

2.2.2 Types of Error

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 146) the most useful and commonly used as bases for the descriptive classification of errors is linguistic category, surface category, comparative taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy.

1. Linguistic Category

Linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language components or linguistic constituents. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary) and discourse while constituents include the elements that comprise each language component.

2. Surface Category

The categorizing of error is according to how the surface structure of a sentence or expression is altered by the error. Such as classification: omission, addition, misinformation, and misordering.

1) Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. For example “she crying” (*dia sedang menangis*) indicates that one item is omitted, which is *is*. The word “is” is grammatical verb form that plays an important role in constructing a proper sentence. And the word “is” in that sentence functions as an auxiliary. A verb in a proper sentence is something that can not be neglected, so one who omits verb (*is*) fails in constructing a proper sentence. That type of error is called omission error.

2) Additions

Additions errors are the presence of an item that must one appear in well formed utterances. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 156), addition usually occurs in later stage of second language acquisition or when the learner has acquitted some target language rule.

3) Misinformation

Misinformation error is a type of error that is characterized by the use of incorrect morpheme or structure. For instance, “the cat catch a mouse”. The simple present tense was not supplied by the learners. The well formed sentence is “the cat catches a mouse” (*kucing itu menangkap seekor tikus*).

4) Misoordering

Misordering error is error that is characterized by the incorrect of a morpheme or group morphemes in an utterance. In other word, it is the error of putting the word in an utterance in the wrong other. For example, “*dia akan datang besok malam* (she will come evening tomorrow). Here, the learner misorder the word ‘evening tomorrow’ and the well-formed sentence is “*dia akan datang besok malam*” (she will come tomorrow evening)

3. Comparative taxonomy

Error in this taxonomy are classified based on the comparison between the structure of target language errors and certain other types of construction (Dulay 1982:189)

4. Communicative effect

The communicative effect deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listeners or readers. It focuses on distinguishing between error and mistake that cause miscommunication.

2.3 Translation

There many different definitions of translation, although there are similarities on the main points. Many experts of translation give different explanation about translation.

Hatim and Munday (2004:3) state that “translation is phenomenon that has a huge effect on everyday life”. He also said there are two senses relates to translation as a process, the second to the product.

Larson (1998: 3) stated that “translation is basically change of form. In translation the form of the source language is replaced by the form of receptor (target) language”.

Machali (2000: 60) noted that “translation as an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another”.

According to Brislin (1976: 1) “translation is a general term referring to the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another, whether the language is in written or oral form, whether the languages have established orthographies or not; or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign of the deaf.

According to Simatupang (2000) “translation is transferring the meaning of source language into the target language and expressing it in the target language with the form which is proper in the target language.

House (2015: 2) stated that “translation can be defined as the result of a linguistic-textual operation in which a text in one language is re-contextualized in another language. House (2015: 3), so while translation is, as stated above, at its core a linguistic- textual operation, a multitude of other conditioning and constraining factors also routinely impinge on its processes, performance and of course on translation quality.

All above the statements above translation have the same ideas, in the sense that translation is a process of replacing or transferring messages, thoughts, ideas, meaning or information from the source language to the target language.

2.3.1 Method of Translation

Talking about translation, there are some method of translation. Newmark (1988: 45) classified those method of translation. There are:

1. Word-for-word translation

This is often demonstrated as interlinear translation, with the TL immediately below the SL words. The SL word-order is preserved and the words translated singly by their common meanings, out of context. Cultural words are translated literally. The main use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or to construe a difficult text as a pre- translation process.

2. Literal translation

The SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical word are again translated singly, out of context. As a pre-translation process, this indicates the problems to be solved.

3. Faithful translation

A faithful translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It ‘transfers’ cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical ‘abnormality’ (deviation from SL norms)

in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intensions and the text-realisation of the SL writer.

4. Semantic translation

Semantic translation differs from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value that is, the beautiful and natural sounds of the SL text, compromising on 'meaning' where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play or repetition jars in the finished version. Further, it may translate less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents- *une none repassant un corporal* may become 'a nun ironing a corporal cloth'- and it may make other small concessions to the readership. The distinction between 'faithful' and 'semantic' translation is that the first is uncompromising and dogmatic, while the second is more flexible, admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity and allows for the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.

5. Adaptation

This is the 'freest' form of translation. It is used mainly for plays (comedies and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten by an established dramatist or poet has produced many poor adaptations, but other adaptations have 'rescued' period plays.

6. Free translation

Free translation reproduces the manner, or the content without the form of the original. Usually it is paraphrase much longer than the original, so called 'intralingual translation', often prolix and pretentious, and not translation at all.

7. Idiomatic translation

Idiomatic translation reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.

8. Communicative translation

Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

2.3.2 Kinds of Translation

Brislin (1976: 3-4) stated translation can be divided into four types: (a) pragmatic, (b) aesthetic-poetic, (c) ethnographic, and (d) linguistic translation.

a) Pragmatic translation

Pragmatic translation is the translation of a message with an interest in accuracy of the information meant to be communicated in the target language form. Belonging to such translation is the translation of technical information, such as repairing instructions.

Source text: Master Kids Shower gel formulated with Triclosan, Aloe Vera Extract, D-panthenol and Vitamin E to make your skin clean, fresh, soft and stay healthy. Lather into wet body, rinse well. Use under adult supervision. Store in cool and dry place. No direct sunlight.

Target Text: sabun mandi Master Kids yang diformulasikan dengan triclosan, ekstrak aloe vera, D-panthenol dan vitamin E. kulitmu jadi bersih, harum, lembut

dan tetap sehat. Usapkan pada tubuh hingga berbusa, bilas hingga bersih. Ajarilah anak anda untuk menggunakannya dengan benar. Simpan ditempat kering dan tidak terkena sinar matahari langsung.

b) Aesthetic-poetic translation

The second type is aesthetic-poetic translation that does not only focus on the information, but also the emotion, feeling, beauty involved in the original writing.

Source text: diluar salju terus. Hampir pagi. Tubuhmu terbit dari berahi. Angin menembus. Hilang lagi. Nafasmu membayang dalam dingin. Mencari.

Target text: outside snow falls. Almost morning. Your body shaped in sensual feeling. The wind pierces. And is clearing. Your breath a shadow in the cold. Searching.

c) Ethnographic translation

The third is ethnographic translation that explicates the cultural context of the sources and second language versions.

Source text: *delman* and *bemo*

Target language: two wheeled buggy and a small motorized vehicle used for public transportation.

d) Linguistic translation

The last type is linguistic translation, the one that is concerned with equivalent meanings of the constituent morphemes of the second language and with grammatical form.

Source text: * John is willing to help

* John is difficult to help.

Those two sentences are ambiguous sentence. They have surface' structure and deep structure

Target text: John rela menolong seseorang (deep structure)

John rela menolong (surface structure)

John sulit bagi seseorang untuk menolong (deep structure)

John sulit ditolong (surface structure)

2.3.3 Translation Process

When translators are translating, they are engaged in a translation process. They perform a series of actions in their attempt to transfer messages from a source language into a target language.

According to Suryawinata (2003: 9) there are four stages in the translation process than can happen very fast or slow, only once or repeatedly, depending on the intensity of the difficulties encountered by the translators. The translation stages are analysis, transfer, restructuring and evaluation. In the stages of analysis, translators analyze the text to get the textual or contextual meaning of the text. In the stage of transfer, the meaning or message obtained from the analysis is transferred from the Source Text (ST) to the Target Text (TT). This stage happens in the translators' mind. In the stage of restructuring, translators write the TT, maintaining the equivalent content, meaning and message of the ST. the stage of evaluation and revision is where the translators evaluate the TT (the translation), whether or not it is the same as the ST. if it is not the same, then the TT is revised and the process is repeated from analysis.

Suryawinata (2003: 19) drew the diagram of translation process:

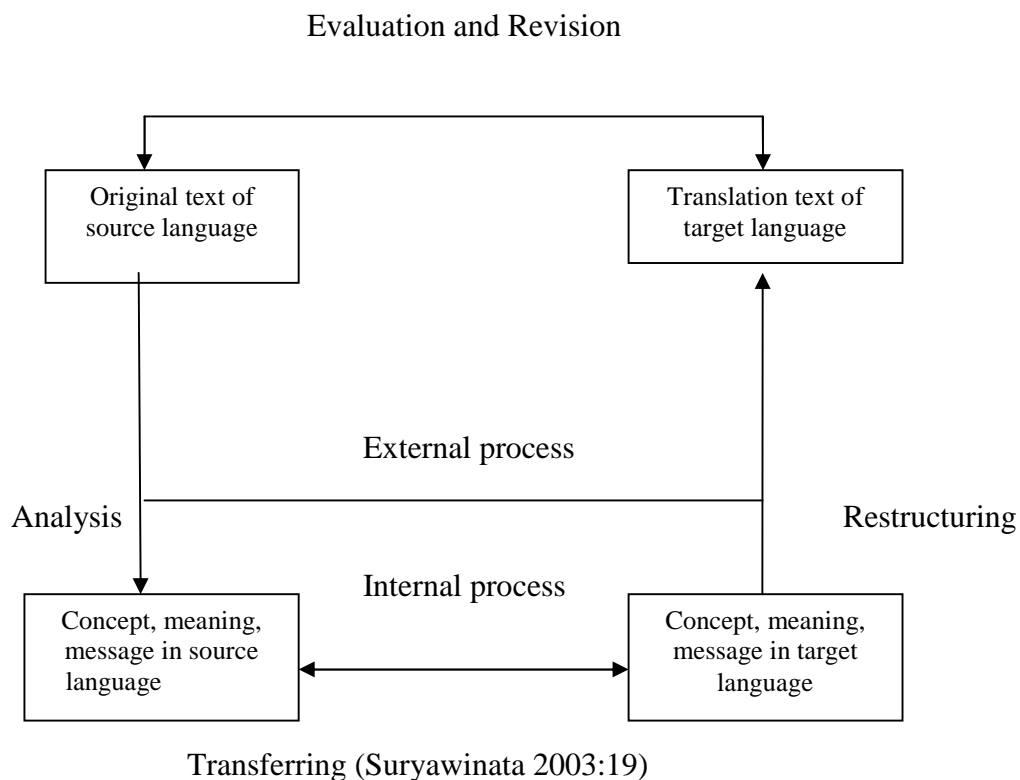


Figure 1. Translation Process

During the translation process, translators can pay attention to the whole text, one sentence, one clause, one group of words or even one word or referred to as translation unit. The unit of translation is the smallest segment of the utterance whose signs are linked in such a way that they should not be translated individually.

A translator dealing with a short text as the example given by Hatim (2004: 20-21) will divide up the ST below as follows:

Travelling from Heathrow

There are easy to follow instructions on the larger self-service touch screen ticket machines.

[travelling from Heathrow]

There are/

[easy to follow/instructions]/

[on the/larger/self-service/touch screen/ticket machines]

The slashes (/) indicate small word groups with a distinct semantic meaning that might be considered separately, while the brackets ([.....]) are larger units that a translator is likely to translate as a whole.

2.4 Definition of Equivalence

Munday (2001: 58) stated that “equivalence cases where language describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means”.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 32) argued that equivalence is viewed as a procedure in which the same situation is replicated as in the original but different wording is used. Vinay and Darbelnet distinguish between *direct* and *oblique* translation, the former referring to literal translation and the latter to free translation. Moreover, they propose seven procedures, the first three covered by direct translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation. Through this procedure, it is claimed that the stylistic impact of the source-language text can be maintained in the target language text.

Pym (2010) stated “equivalence is a relation of ‘equal value’ between an ST segment and a TT segment and can be established on any linguistic level from form to function”. He make is own contribution to the concept of equivalence by pointing out that there is no such things as perfect equivalence between language and it is always *assumed equivalence*.

Baker (1998: 77) used the notion of equivalence for the sake of convenience because most translator used it rather than because it has any theoretical statements. Thus equivalence is variously regarded as a necessary condition for translations, an obstacle to a progress in translation studies, or a useful category for describing translation. She also added that proponent of equivalence as the relationship between a source text (ST) and a target text (TT). That allowed the TT to be considered as a translation of the ST in the first place.

2.4.1 Type of equivalence

Translation equivalence does not mean that source and target texts are identical. It is a degree of similarity between source and target texts, measured on a certain level. Viewed from semiotic angle, the source and target texts can be identical pragmatically, semantically and structurally.

Every text should be equivalent to the source text pragmatically, which means that the both texts should have the same impact upon the receptor as the source text has. Semantic identity implies describing the same situation, using similar lexical meanings of the units, and similar grammatical meaning of the element.

According to V. Komissarov in Proshina (2008: 29), one can distinguish five levels of equivalence: pragmatic, situational, lexical (semantic), grammatical and structure levels.

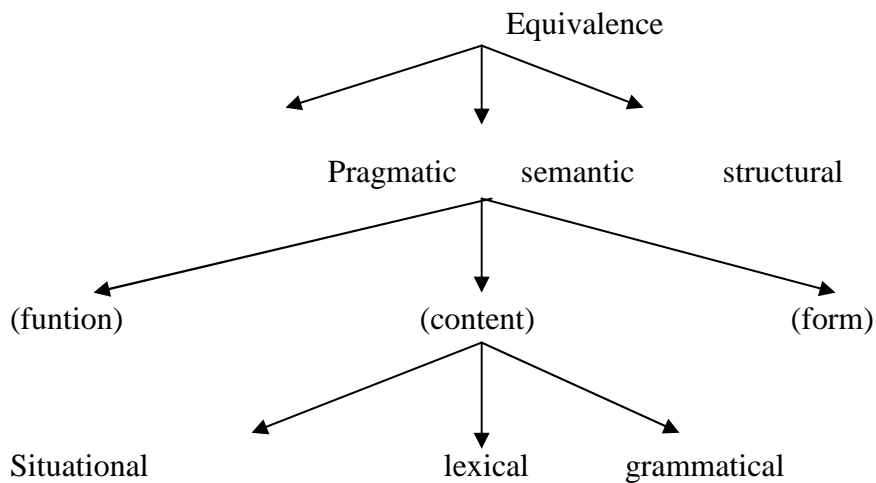


Figure 2. Equivalence

Nida in Munday (2001: 41) stated there are two basic orientations or ‘types of equivalence’ (1) formal equivalence, and (2) dynamic equivalence.

(1) Formal equivalence

Formal equivalence is thus keenly oriented towards the ST structure, which exerts strong influence in determining accuracy and correctness. Most typical of this kind of translation are ‘gloss translations’, with a close approximation to ST structure, often with scholarly footness, allowing the students to gain close access to the language and customs of the source culture.

(2) Dynamic equivalence

Nida’s concept of Dynamic equivalence “aimed at complete naturalness of expression” and trying to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture. Nida’s principle of dynamic equivalence is widely referred to as the principle of similar or equivalent response or effect.

Baker (1992) stated different kinds of equivalence, that is, at the level of word, phrase, grammar, text and pragmatics. Hence, terms such as grammatical, textual, and pragmatic equivalence.

1. Grammatical equivalence

Grammatical equivalence refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages and the difficulty of finding an equivalent term in the TT due to the variety of grammatical rules across languages. In fact, she stresses that a consequence, the translator may be forced to add or delete information in the TT because of the lack of specific grammatical categories. Some of the major categories that often pose problems for translator are number, voice, person, gender, tense and aspect.

2. Textual equivalence

Textual equivalence refers to equivalence that may be achieved between a ST and TT in terms of cohesion and information. Baker argues that the feature of texture is of immense importance for the translators since it facilitates their comprehension and analysis of the ST and helps them to produce a cohesive and coherent text in the TL. The decision has three factors: the target audience, the purpose of translation and the text type.

3. Pragmatic equivalence

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. The primary aim of the translator should be to increase the intended message of the SL in such a way so it becomes accessible and comprehensible to the target audience.

2.5 Grammatical equivalence

Hatim and Munday (2004: 40-42) mention that the term equivalence in translation could be divided into two main divisions, i.e. the formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. The former refers to a relationship which involves the purely 'formal' replacement of one word or phrase in the SL by another in the TL.

Baker (1992) however, has made classification on the notion of equivalence in translation. He mentions five levels of equivalence and one of them is grammatical equivalence. Baker (1992: 83) states that grammar can be said to be the set of rules which determine the way in which units such as words and phrases can be combined in a language and the kind of information which has to be made regularly explicit in utterances. A language can, of course, express any kind of information its speakers need to express, but the grammatical system of a given language will determine the ease with which certain notions such as time reference or

gender can be made explicit. Baker claims that the differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages often result in some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

Baker mentions some grammatical categories which are intended to illustrate the kinds of difficulties that translators often encounter because of differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages. Those are the categories of Number, Gender, Person, Tense, Aspect and Voice.

a. Person

The category of person relates to the notions of participant roles. These can be defined through a closed system of pronouns. English has three types of pronouns with person reference; namely the personal pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and possessive pronouns. These pronouns have distinctions of person: the first person referring to the speaker (*I or We*); the second person referring to the person(s) addressed (*you*); and the third person referring to one or more other persons or things (*he/she/it/they*). The personal pronouns have two sets of case-forms: the subjective and the objective forms. Whereas the reflexive pronouns replace a co-referential noun phrase, normally within the same finite clause and the possessive ones combine genitive functions with pronominal functions. The following table illustrates three types of English pronouns.

Table 1. English Pronouns

		Personal pronouns		Reflexive pronouns	Possessive pronouns	
		Subject case	Object case		Determiner function	Nominal function
1 st	Singular	I	me	Myself	My	Mine
	Plural	We	Us	Ourselves	Our	Ours
2 nd	Singular	You		Yourself	Your	Yours
	Plural			yourselves		

Bahasa Indonesia, however, only has one type of pronoun with person reference, which is the personal pronoun. This kind of pronoun also has distinctions of the first person (speaker), the second person (the person spoken to), and the third person (the person being spoken of (Moeliono, 1988: 172). In Bahasa Indonesia, there is not only a distinction of singular and plural forms but also a distinction of exclusive and inclusive forms (especially in the first person plural form).

b. Tense and aspect

Tense and aspect are grammatical categories in a large number of languages. The form of the verb in languages which have these categories usually indicates two main types of information: time relations and aspectual differences. Time relations have to do with locating an event in time. The usual distinction is between past, present and future.

The word tense stands for a verb form or series of verb forms used to express a time relation. Tenses may indicate whether an action, activity or states is past, present, or future. Hornby (1975: 78-79) notes that English verbs have not only one two simple tenses which are called the simple present and simple past but also many compound tenses which are made by combining two or more verb forms. These combinations may be concerned with time, especially those with parts of the verbs “be” and “have”. There are actually 12 tenses in the lists: 1) Simple Present Tense, 2) Present Progressive Tense, 3) Simple Present Tense, 4) Past Progressive Tense, 5) Future Tense Non-Progressive, 6) Future Progressive Tense, 7) Present Perfect Tense Non-Progressive, 8) Present Perfect Progressive Tense, 9) Past Perfect Tense, 10) Past Perfect Progressive Tense, 11) Future Perfect Tense Non-Progressive, and 12) Future Perfect Progressive Tense.

What makes the English tenses complicated is the fact that the term present, past and future within these tenses do not actually refer to the present time, past time and future time. In Bahasa Indonesia, on the other hand, there are no changes of verb forms in representing the tense category. Bahasa Indonesia does not indicate the category of tense morphologically but rather lexically by adding a particular word that indicates the tense. Words which are usually used to express tense in Bahasa Indonesia are '*sudah* or *telah* (to express the idea of past tenses), '*sedang*' (to indicate present tenses), and the word '*akan*' (for future tenses)

c. Voice

Frank (1972: 55) states that voice in English grammar refers to the active and passive use of a verb. He also notes that the English people use the active voice more often than the passive voice since they prefer to make a direct statement of an action. The passive voice is used when the greater emphasis is to be placed on the 'event' than on the 'actor', or when the 'doer' of an action is unimportant or is unknown.

Voice is a grammatical category which defines the relationship between a verb and its subject. In active clauses, the subject is the agent responsible for performing the action. In passive clauses, the subject is the affected entity, and the agent may or may not be specified, depending on the structures available in each language.

d. Number

Baker (1992) The idea of countability is probably universal in the sense that it is readily accessible to all human beings and is expressed in the lexical structure of all languages. However, not all languages have a grammatical category of number, and those that do do not necessarily view countability in the same terms. As explained above, English recognized a distinction between one and more than one (singular and plural). This distinction has to be

expressed morphologically, by adding a suffix to a noun or by changing its form in some other way to indicate whether it refers to one or more than one: *student/students*, *fox/foxes*, *man/men*, *child/children*.

A translator working from a language which has number distinction into a language with no category of number has two main options: s/he can (a) omit the relevant information on number, or (b) encode this information lexically.

e. Gender

According to Baker (1992: 91) Gender is a grammatical distinction according to which a noun or pronoun is classified as either masculine or feminine in some languages. The distinction applies to nouns which refer to animate beings as well as those which refer to inanimate objects. For example, French distinguishes between masculine and feminine gender in noun such as *fils/fille* ('son/'daughter') and *chat/chatte* ('male cat'/'female cat'). In addition, nouns such as *magazine* ('magazine') and *construction* ('construction') are also classified as masculine and feminine respectively. Determiners, adjectives, and sometimes verbs usually agree with the noun in gender as well in number.

Gender distinctions are generally more relevant in translation when the referent of the noun or pronoun is human. Gender distinctions inanimate objects such as 'car' or 'ship' and in animals such as 'dog' and 'cat' are sometimes manipulated in English to convey expressive meaning, particularly in literature, but they do not often cause difficulties in non-literary translation.

2.6 Myth

Myth is type of speech. Myth is a system of communication, that is a message. This allows one to perceive that myth cannot possibly be an object, or an idea; it is a mode of

signification, a form. This form historical limits, conditions of use, and reintroduce society into it. (Barthes, 2006: 107)

According to Barthes (2006: 107) myth is not defined by the object of its message, but by the way in which it utters this message: there are formal limits to myth, there are no 'substantial' ones.

Since myth is a type of speech, everything can be myth provided it conveyed by a discourse. Myth is not defined by the object of its message, but by the way in which it utters this message: there are formal limits to myth. There are no 'substantial' ones.

Barthes (2006: 108) states Speech of this kind is message. It is therefore by no means confined to oral speech. It can consist of modes of writing or of representations; not only written discourse, but also photography, cinema, reporting, sport, show, publicity, all these can serve as a support to mythical speech. Myth can be defined neither by its object nor by its material, for any material can arbitrarily be endowed with meaning; the arrow which is brought in order to signify a challenge is also a kind of speech. Mythical speech is made of a material which has already been worked on so as to make it suitable for communication: it is because all the materials of myth (whether pictorial or written) presuppose a signifying consciousness, that one can reason about them while discounting their substances.

For mythology, since it is the study of a type of speech, is but one fragment of this vast science of signs which Saussure postulated some forty years ago under the name of *semiology*. Semiology has not yet come into being. Semiology is a science of forms, since it studies significations apart from their content. I should like to say one word about the necessity and the limits of such a formal science.

Sarapik (2000) states myth we can clearly distinguish at least two usages: on the one hand myth is used in its classical meaning, the one that most people are generally in agreement on, and on the other hand we can find phenomena prevalent even today's society that seem to resemble classical myths. A cursory glance at such myths amply demonstrates the radically divergent precepts around them. From this diversity it is obvious that the question is going to crop up whether all of the phenomena subsumed under myth should be lumped together as being part of one concept and whether myth is the best word to express this concept.

One possibility allowing myth to survive today lies in its ability to continue as a narrative. This is what we find for example in film series, comics, detective novels or other stories produced by mass culture, another possibility lies in its ability to continue as a cognitive element, that is, the part of the myth used to explain the world. One common meaning of myth associated with its cognitive aspects is that of myth as a deception, distortion or falsehood. We can see the origins of this meaning when the ancient *mythos* diverged from *logos*. This became firmly established during the middle ages when the word myth became associated with a pagan lie. We could now say that's theory of the myth is open but even though it would appear that we are dealing with one and the same thing our conclusions can often be diametrically opposed.

A comparison of the relationship myths have to language provide us with another example of a different approach. In some ways both myth and language are similar types of words. Both language and myth have a core of languageness and mythness that everyone agrees on. At the same time, both have an endless supply of hypostases in which these words are used with either a more literal or more metaphoric meaning. In some instances, the original metaphor has become so worn away that the difference between their literal and extended meaning

becomes indiscernible. There are plenty of examples of the world language used where the languageness of the thing discussed is completely non-existent.

Myths are commonly defined as stories that attempt to explain something, such as natural phenomenon or the origin of the world. Myths are stories about gods and goddesses, or heroes and heroines; myth are stories used to educate or to provide guidance by sharing collective knowledge or experience. All of these definitions are valid, and in fact, myths are true because they are based on reality and address issues of the tangible world in which we live, even if the characters and events themselves are imaginary.

One of reason it is difficult to define the term myth is because of similarities and analogies between myth and other traditional literary or narrative forms. Examples include legends, fables, fairy tales, folktales, sages, epics, and parables. As with myth, there is no consensus among scholars regarding definitions, and boundaries for these terms tend to be fluid. Scholars also disagree about how the various genres relate to both myths and each other. Myth, folktales and legend often merge in a particular narrative, this is particularly true if the story lengthy and elaborate, or if it has been retold many times over a long period.

Folktales are sometimes considered a subdivision of myth, and myths are sometimes thought to be a branch of folktale. Tompson 1927² believe the one particular characteristic of myth that differentiates it from folktales is the nature of its narratives. They feature the world as it was in the past, and explain the origin and creation of its current condition.

2.6.1 Function Of Myth

Myth has two primary functions. The first is to provide an explanation of facts, whether natural or cultural. Mythology evolved as peoples sought to answer questions about their world. A myth of the Wyandot (Huron) of the Great Lakes region, for example, tells of the origin of

tobacco: a dead girl's father discovers an injured hawk that bursts into flames as he approaches. All that remains is a flaming coal, in which he sees his daughter's face. She tells her father of a precious gift she has for her people, a gift of tobacco seed, and stays to show him how to raise and harvest this new crop. In addition to providing an explanation, the narrative form and imaginative qualities of a myth such as this lend credibility to the explain and transforms it into something memorable and lasting.

The second primary function of myth is to justify, validate, or explain the existence of a social system and traditional rites and customs. For example, the culture hero Wiske creates the potawatomi clans and given them medicine bundles. Each clan has a bundle that is associated with specific rights and obligations.

Myth also has secondary functions. Myths are important as a vehicle for instruction. Those that portray, for example, the origin or end of the world, the land of the dead, or paradise, describe what people are unable to understand and experiences for themselves. Myths often comprise the most important model for reaching learning traditional. Myth also function as sources of healing, renewal and inspiration.

2.6.2 Type Of Myth

Myths come in a wide variety of categories. There are creation or origin myths, myths of death and destruction, and myths about culture heroes. Some myths focus on nature, time and eternity, providence and destiny, memory and forgetfulness, or birth and renewal. Some feature high beings or celestial gods, founders of religion or religious figures, or kings and ascetics. Myths can hold special meaning for just one person or for many. Families have their own myths, as do schools, organizations, institutions, neighborhoods, cities, regions and countries.

Kirks proposes three main categories of myths (1970, 252-261). His first category includes mythical narratives told solely for entertainment. Some may challenge the validity of this category, as myths that fall into it are rare or these stories might more plausibly be classified as folktales or legends. His second category includes operatives, iterative or validatory myths that are thought to have the power to change the world and 'told to repeated regularly on ritual or ceremonial occasions. Kirk's third category includes explanatory or speculative myths. These may simply explain the origin of a natural feature, animal, or object or they may be complex stories that attempt to provide answers to questions that perplex humanity, such as why natural disasters occur or people die. All of these categories of myths are represented in the mythology of native Americans. Before exploring this mythology, it is useful to consider the geography and climate of North America.

2.7 Previous Research

Sudartini, Siti 2009. "**The Question of Grammatical Equivalence in Translation**". She is concerned with three aspects of grammatical equivalence occurring in English-Bahasa Indonesia translation, namely, person (pronoun), tense and voice. In particular, this study will try to answer some questions related to the notion of grammatical equivalence in English-Bahasa Indonesia translation related to the categories of person (pronoun), tenses and voice.

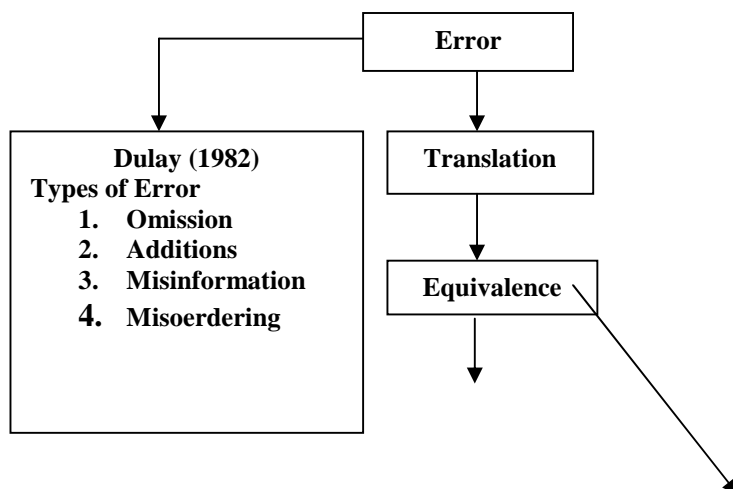
The result of her study shows the fact that category of person, tenses, and voice may cause problems in the translation from English into Bahasa Indonesia. Most of English pronouns with person reference are translated by the personal pronouns in Bahasa Indonesia, some are not translated by the personal pronouns in Bahasa Indonesia since their meaning are considered known from their context, and some others are not translated by personal pronouns but rather by the noun reference. The category of tense in English is presented morphologically by changing

the verb forms whereas in Bahasa Indonesia it is seen that this category is presented lexically by adding words indicating the time relation of the event presented by the verbs. In term of voice category, English and Bahasa Indonesia have the category of voice but they do not always use this category with the same frequency.

Similar with the previous research above, Rusmiati 2010. “**Grammatical Equivalence in the Indonesian Translation of J.K Rowling’s Novel, ‘Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows’**”. she concerned to identify the grammatical equivalence which includes number, gender, person, tense and aspect, and voice categories as well as to see whether the translated sentences can be justified with the Indonesian structures and the translating problems in English-Indonesian sentences found in the novel.

The finding of the analysis are as follows. First, with regard to number, singular or plural forms in the source language (SL) can be translated into either singular or plural forms in the target language (TL). second, with regard to person and gender, all SL pronouns can be translated into their respective counterparts in the context. Fourth, the active forms in SL can be translated into either TL active or passive forms, while the passive forms are translated into TL passive forms.

2.8 Conceptual Framework



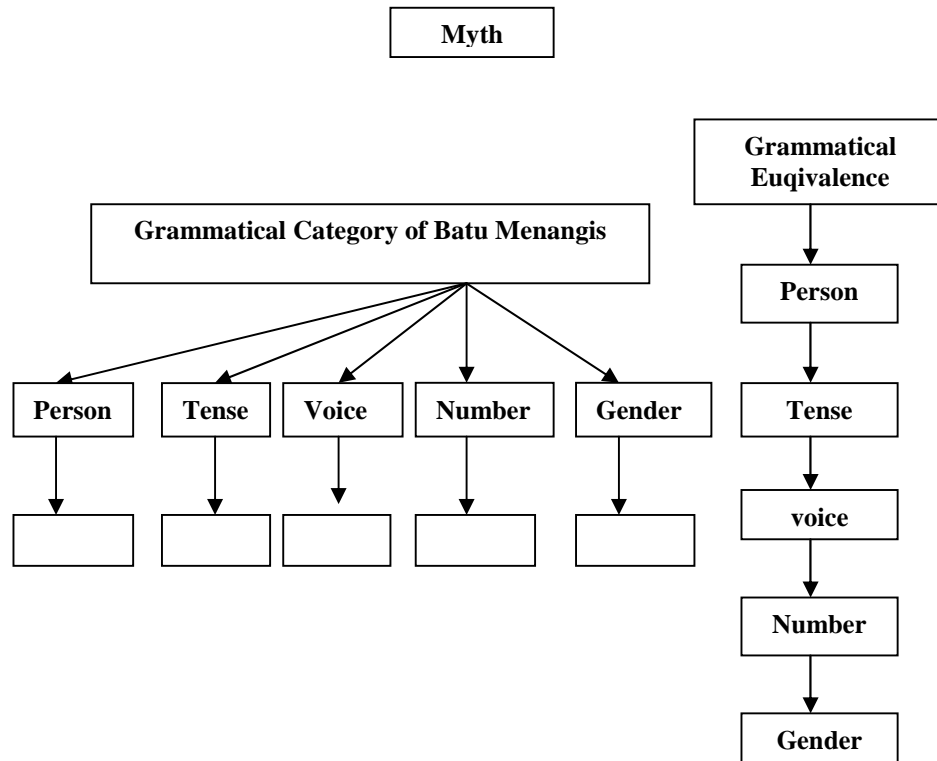


Figure 3. An Error Analysis of Grammatical Equivalence Translation in Translating *Batu Menangis* Myth at Eleventh Grade of Senior High School

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

Research method is defined as a planned, structured, systematic and scientific activities has a particular purpose both practical and theoretical. I is said as a scientific activities' because of research by aspects science and theory. 'Planned' because of research should be planned with regard to time, funds and accessibility to places and data.

According to Sekaran (2003) Research as a organized, systematic, data-based, critically, objectively, scientifically to get a deeper answer or understanding of a problem.

According Creswell (2008) Research as a gradual cyclic process begins with identification of issues or issues to be studied.

According to Creswell (2008) qualitative research methods defines it as an approach or search to explore the sentral symptoms to researchers interviewed study participants or participants by submitting question are common and rather broad. The information submitted by participants then collected, the information submitted by participants then collected, information it is usually a word or text.

In order to analyze the errors, the writer used a descriptive qualitative data analysis in which categories of reaction are devided directly from part of data without an organizing scheme.

3.2 Subject of the research

Subject of this research is the students of XI IPA-4 in SMA Negeri 1 Girsang Sipanganbolon which contained of 20 students. The writer took 5 of students paper sheet to be analyzed. The writer chosen them because she wanted to know how far the students' ability in translating Indonesian-English.

3.3 Instrument of collecting the data

In this research, the instrument for collecting data is a test. It is to translate a text from Indonesian to English. To help their translation, they can use dictionary or grammar book to find out the difficult word and to construct the sentence well.

3.4 Technique of collecting the data

The writer collected the translation test. The writer asked the students to translate a text entitled "*Batu Menangis*". There are four paragraphs in *Batu Menangis*. To effectiveness and minimize the time, the writer analyzed two paragraphs. The writer used the essay as the instrument of collecting data to test the students' ability in translating the text. In this research there are some steps which used by the writer in collecting the data.

First, the writer determined the topic of the text which translated by students. Next, the writer shared the text sheet for the students. The writer gave 90 minutes to translate it. Then the writer asked the students to start translating the text. After time is up, the writer collected all the answer sheets of the students to be analyzed.

3.5 Technique of analyzing data

After collecting the data, it must be analyzed to achieve the intended objectives. The technique that are used to analyze the data are descriptive statistics and error analysis. Based on descriptive method applied in this study, the writer, in analyzing the data of this study, used the following procedures.

1. Data collection

In this step, the writer collected the result of students' translation of the text entitled "*Batu Menangis*" as the data of this research.

2. Identification

After collecting the data, the writer identification all grammatical categories translation error in the students' answer sheet.

3. Describing the frequency error

In describing the data, the writer used a percentage correction technique in describing the dominant errors in grammatical categories used the formula as follows:

$$\text{Error percentage(\%)} = \frac{\text{the number of errors each category} \times 100\%}{\text{The total number of errors}}$$