

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To do the research, some theories are needed as references of the study. The theories which are discussed in this study are: Translation, Translation Process, Domestication and Foreignization, Domestication and Foreignization as Translation Strategy, Ecology Word and Label. Those relevant theories are used to analyze and support this research in order to find out the data analysis about domestication and foreignization.

2.1 Translation

As has been mentioned previously, this study is concerned with translation, namely the domestication and foreignization in Mustika Ratu traditona. In relation to this matter, Nida and Taber (1974:12) state that translating consists in reproducing in the TL the closest natural equivalent of the SL message, first in terms of meaning, and secondly in terms of style). From the definition of of translation, they further add that translating must aim primarily at 'reproducing the message'. And in reproducing the message, the translator must make a good grammatical and lexical adjustment. However, since no two languages are identical, there can never be a fully exact translation. Generally, translation is known as a process of transferring a language to another. Furthermore, Newmark (2003:5) also gives the same definition about translation. He defines translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.

The definition of translation above emphasizes that translation is a process of transferring 'meaning' of the SL, not of its 'form'. Therefore, a translator should not only be able to identify and understand the meaning in general, but also the types of meaning in the text. It should also be important to realize that meanings can be signaled either by linguistic features or by extra linguistic features and normally by both.

Furthermore, there are so many types of translation. There are many classifications of translation types proposed by the experts. Those different types are influenced by their different points of views on translation. According to Jakobson (in Venuti, 2000: 114), there are three kinds of translations: intralingual translation, interlingual translation, and intersemiotic translation.

Intralingual translation is a kind of translation where the verbal signs are interpreted by means of other signs of the same language (Jakobson in Munday, 2001: 2). In other words, there is only one language involved in this kind of translation. Paraphrasing a poem in the same language and simplifying a novel are the examples of intralingual translation. Since it involves only one language, it is also called monolingual translation. In this case, Jakobson gives an example, 'every celibate is a bachelor, but not every bachelor is a celibate'. This example explains that the synonymy is not complete equivalence. Intralingual translation could be fully interpreted only by means of an equivalent combination of code-units, for instance, 'every bachelor is an unmarried man, and every unmarried man is a bachelor'.

Interlingual translation is the translation which refers to different languages, whether bilingual or multilingual. Here, the message of a language is transferred into a different language. This is the kind of translation which is done the most often. Translation of books, novels, and dubbing of movies are few examples of interlingual translation. However, it is hard to get equivalent meaning, since the languages involved in the translation process have different natures, structures, and characteristics. Jakobson states in Venuti (2000: 114) that on the level of interlingual translation, there is ordinarily no full equivalent between code-units, while messages may serve as adequate interpretations of alien code-units or messages. He also mentions a Slavic apostle's statement 'Greek, when translated into another language, cannot always be reproduced identically and that happens to each language being translated' (Jakobson in Venuti, 2000: 117). He provides an example of an English word 'cheese'. The word cheese does not completely equal with the word 'Сыр' in Russian. It is

because, in English, a cheese is a cottage cheese, while in Russian a cheese and a cottage cheese are different. In Russian a cottage cheese is 'TBopopy'. When it is impossible to transfer the meaning equivalence in an interlingual translation, the translator may use some translation strategy, such as using adaptation, preservation, literal translation, and omission.

Intersemiotic translation refers to an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other sign or non-verbal sign systems. There is transfer of message from the shapes of symbol and sign into the language or other shapes. This kind of translation often occurs in people's daily activity. For example, a written text is translated into dance, music, cinema, or painting.

Furthermore, translation should be easily understood by target readers and the message of ST should be equivalent with TT. The term of closest natural equivalent, which is rooted in Nida's concept of dynamic equivalent, explicitly considers about cultural aspect. He argues that a translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression (Nida in Venuti, 1995: 21). In Nida's work, the term of naturalness of expression obviously signals the fluency translation which involves domestication. For Nida, a translator must be a person who can draw aside the curtains of linguistic and cultural differences so that people may see clearly the relevance of the original message (Nida in Venuti, 1995: 21).

Meanwhile, according to Venuti (1995: 17), translation is:

A process by which the chain of signifiers that constitutes the source language text is replaced by a chain of signifiers in the target language which translator provides on the strength of an interpretation.

He sees that translation is the forcible replacement of the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text with a text that can be understood by the target readers. Different from Nida, the aim of translation is to bring back a cultural other as the same, the recognizable, even the familiar; and this aim always risks a wholesale domestication of the foreign text, often in highly self-conscious projects, where translation serves an appropriation of foreign cultures for domestic, cultural, economic, political agendas (Venuti, 1995: 18-19). Venuti

criticizes the translation for being too domesticated. In Venuti's view, domesticated translation is a devaluated reproduction of the original and he makes clear that foreignizing translation is his choice. Using this method, a translator is expected to preserve the foreign identity of the ST.

2.2 Translation Process

The translation process is series of activities which be done by a translator at the time he transfer the message from the SL into the target language (Nababan, 1997:6). A translator has to be careful in doing the activity of translation, because a mistake in one point can caused mistakes in another point. If this happened, the result of the translation would be less satisfying.

According to Levy in Venuti (2000: 148), translation is a process of communication: the objective of translating is to impart the knowledge of the original to the foreign reader. Moreover, Bell (1991: 1) states translation could refer to the process to translate or the activity rather than the tangible object, otherwise known as translating. When translating a text, four levels more or less consciously translated in mind. Furthermore, according to Newmark (2003:19), there are four processes of translation:

1. The SL text level, the level of language, where one begins and which one continually (but not continuously) goes back to.

This is the level of literary translation of the SL into the TL, the level of translation has to be eliminated, but also acts as a connective of paraphrase and the paper-down of synonyms. Translation is pre-eminently the occupation in which the translator has to be thinking several things at the same times.

2. The referential level, the level of objects and events, real or imaginary, which progressively have to be visualized and built up, and which is an essential part, first of the comprehension, then of the reproduction process.

One should not read a sentence without seeing it on the referential level, whether text is technical or literary or institutional, one has to make up mind summarily and continuously.

3. The cohesive level, which is more general and grammatical, which traces the train of thought, the feeling tone (positive or negative) and the various presuppositions of the SL text.

This level encompasses both comprehension and reproduction: it presents an overall picture, to which the language level has to be adjust. This level also links the first and the second level. It follows both the structure and the moods of the text.

4. The level of naturalness, of common language appropriate to the writer or the speaker in a certain situation.

Natural depends on the relationship between the writer and the readership and the topic or situation. What is natural in one situation may be unnatural in another, but everyone has a natural, 'neutral' language where spoken and informal written language more or less coincide.

According to Nida and Taber in Hoed (2006:57), the processes of translation are:

1. Analysis (learning the source text).

It is the first step in which the content and the purpose in the source text is entirely be read and be understood.

2. Transfer (replacing the substance of SL with its equivalence substance of TL).

In this step, the message in the source text is transferred into the target text. The message can be a content, idea or thought.

3. Restructure (adapted the translated text to the turn of reader).

Restructure means rearrange. In other word, after transferring the message from source text into the target text, a translator has to rearrange.

By knowing the processes according to some experts above, anyone can do translating easily. It is because the processes above give explanation that

anyone can follow. There are many problems in translation process faced by a translator and one of problem is ecological word in translation process.

Moreover during translation process, there are some problems in transferring the meaning from SL to TL. Nida (in Venuti, 2000: 133) states that it is not easy to produce a completely natural translation. This happen because not every word in one language can be translated into another. To solve this problem, translator must modify this translation by using another word in target language (TL) that equivalent with the word in source language (SL) so the reader of the translation can understand. It is important for a translator to make sure the message from the source text can be delivered correctly into the target text, so that it is a mandatory for a translator to have a deep knowledge about both languages.

Meaning transferring process from the source language to the target language has to consider the principle of equivalence when the meaning between the SL and the TL are not equivalent; the basic notion of the SL is unaccepted by the target reader. In fact, not all meanings can be transferred to the target language due to the cultural gap. Whatever the problem is, equivalence must be the first awareness. Catford (1965: 50) says that translation equivalence occurs when a source language and a target language or item are relatable at least some of the features of substances. To solve the problems of the cultural gap, the translator needs a strategy.

2.3 Domestication and Foreignization

Languages have differences including their cultural content. Nida (2004:153) explains that since no two languages are identical, it stands to reason that there can be no absolute correspondence between languages. Hence there can be no fully exact translation. A very different cultural context can be seen as a major challenge for any translator.

The concepts of foreignization and domestication were first discussed by Schleiermacher in the early 19th century. Schleiermacher in Venuti (2004:49)

states that there were only two possible applicable strategies for translation: either the translator leaves the author in peace as much as possible and moves the reader toward him; or he leaves the reader in peace as much as possible and moves the writer toward him. The terms domestication and foreignization can be explained as foreignization entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which are excluded by dominant cultural values in the TL (Venuti in Munday, 2008:145). While domestication aims to reduce the impact of foreignness in the target text due to ethnocentric trends that stimulate the translator to elevate his own cultural references and keep them intact from other alien ones (Venuti in Munday, 2008:144). Further explanation about domestication and foreignization are:

1) Domestication

Venuti (1995: 21) defines that domestication ideology is not only rendering the message, the SLT into the TLT, but also rendering its culture. Domesticated translation adapts the source text to the target text culture. Its aim is to make target language readers easier to understand. Domestication is oriented to target language and focuses on the taste and expectation of the readers who want to get translation based on their own culture.

Furthermore, in domesticated translation, translators are required to be able to translate all the things in source language into target language. The purpose is to lead the readers to understand the source text and the readers accept it easily. However, Venuti (1995:21) argues that domestication can reduce the message of the source text and claims that foreignization should be used to translate ST, although some target readers may find the result weird and strange.

2) Foreignization

Foreignized translation is one of the translating ideology that invite readers to enter the scope of foreign cultures. It offers local color and atmosphere of the SL. Foreignization is oriented to the SL and it implies and attempts to preserve the culture of the source text. According to Venuti (1995:

20), foreignization should signify the difference of the foreign text, yet only by disrupting the cultural codes that prevail in the target language. The cultural codes of the TL should be sacrificed in order to make the reader of a translated text feel the foreignness. It also can be seen as a way to encourage the TL readers to be interested in other cultures.

However, foreignized text requires the TL readers to be highly educated, which is not always possible in every country. Furthermore, the alien and different culture and linguistic feature may overwhelm the readers. In this case, foreignized translation becomes an obstacle for less educated readers because the text is difficult to understand.

2.4 Strategies in Domestication and Foreignization

Strategies are related to the mechanism used by translators throughout the translation process to find solution of the problems they find. Besides, strategies are the procedures (conscious or unconscious, verbal or non-verbal) used by the translator to solve problems that emerge when carrying out the translation process with particular objective in mind (Molina and Albir, 2002:12). One of strategy that is used by the translator to solve problem in cultural differences between SL and TL is domestication and foreignization. Moreover, domestication and foreignization are two basic translation strategies which provide both linguistic and cultural guidance. They are termed by American translation theorist L.Venuti.

Venuti (1995:114) argues that translating texts of two different cultures requires a choice between two translation procedures, namely domestication and foreignization. Generally speaking, domestication designates the type of translation in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers, while foreignization means a target text is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original (Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997:59). Foreignization is the strategy of retaining information from the source

text, and involves deliberately breaking the conventions of the target language to preserve its meaning. Further, strategies of domesticating or foreignizing a TL vary among translators, depending on the translator's goal, the client's purpose, the genre of the text and its nature, but the judgment and vision of the translator are still primary factors.

There are some kind of domestication and foreignization. Here, the researcher chooses translation strategy which are categorized into domestication and foreignization proposed by Davies in Judickaitė (2009:15). Those strategies can be seen in the table 1 below:

Table 2.1 Domestication and Foreignization by Judickaitė (2009:15)

Domestication	Foreignization
Cultural Equivalent	Preservation
Omission	Addition
Globalization	Naturalization
Translation by a more concrete/specific word	Literal Translation
Creation	
Equivalent	

From the table above, it is seen that there are six domesticating strategy. The explanation can be seen below:

a. Cultural Equivalent

Newmark (2003: 83) defines cultural equivalent as the replacement of a SL term with a target language one which is not accurate. In other words, it means an act of translating a source language term with a roughly equivalent term of a target language. It is sometimes used to replace a SL term by a similar term of the TL, when the SL term is difficult to understand in the culture of TL.

For example:

SL : Diana is trying her white **wedding dress**.

TL : Diana sedang mencoba **kebaya** putihnya.

'Wedding dress' is the clothing that worn by the bride in a wedding ceremony. In Western cultures, the bride usually wears a white gown. However,

in Indonesia, 'kebaya' is a national clothes that is commonly wore by a bride. The replacement of 'wedding dress' with 'kebaya' is not the most accurate translation. However, it is easier to understand for Indonesian readers who are not very familiar with Western cultures.

b. Omission

Baker (1992: 40) states that it does not harm to omit translating a word or expression in some contexts. Baker also claims that sometimes it is better to omit a non-vital item that can be a distraction for the audience because of its lengthy explanation. Davies in Jaleniauskiene and Čičelytė (2009:33) add that omission can be justified when a translator cannot convey any meaning in the translation. Furthermore, he argues that, when the inclusion of a problematic culture-specific item might create a confusing or inconsistent effect, it is better to omit it.

For example:

SL : This delicious dessert is made from **yam**, sweet potato and pumpkin.

TL : Hidangan penutup yang enak ini terbuat dari ubi jalar dan labu.

In this sentence, the word sweet potato is not realized into the TL. It is may be cause by the confusion of the translator. There are many people who think that yam and sweet potato is the same thing, but actually there are some differences between them. Yams come from different plant all together -- they're of the family *Dioscoreacea*, while sweet potatoes belong to the family *Convolvulaceae*. The two veggies also originate from different parts of the world. Yams from Asia and Africa and sweet potatoes from the tropical Americas (<http://www.aol.com/article/2015/11/23/yams-and-sweet-potatoes-are-not-the-same-thing-heres-why/21271105/>).

c. Globalization

Davies in Judickaitė (2009: 16) states that globalization refers to the process of replacing culture-specific references with one which are more natural or general, in the sense that they are accessible to audience from a wider range of cultural background. However, globalization may cause loss of effect in

translation, because the source language term is replaced by the one that has more general meaning.

For example:

SL : Many children like **cupcake** because it is sweet.

TL : Banyak anak-anak menyukai **kue** karena rasanya manis.

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2002: 323), a cupcake or fairy cake in American English, means a small cake, baked in paper container shaped like a cup and often with icing on top. In this case, it translated into Bahasa Indonesia as 'kue'. In Indonesia, 'kue' is a general term to describe snack and dessert foods. Therefore, the translator only translated a part of the meaning of the original word.

d. Translation by a more concrete/specific word

This strategy is the opposite of globalization. This strategy is less popular, it is caused by the fact that it is easier to search for general term than a specific one. So, the translator uses the hyponym of the word.

For example:

SL : **Rumah** berlantai tiga itu sudah terjual kemarin.

TL : The three-story **mansion** sold yesterday.

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2002: 759), the word 'mansion' means a large impressive house. Because the house has three stories, it is assumed that the house is large. Therefore, the word 'mansion' is used in the sentence. The word 'mansion' is more specific than the word 'rumah' since the translation of the word 'rumah' is 'home or house'.

e. Creation

Creation means the recreation of a SL term. In other words, creation means a creation of a SL term which is firmly or totally different from the ST or is not present in there (Davies, in Jaleniauskiene and Čičelytė, 2009: 33). Davies states that there are cases when translator creates term that are not found in the original text. It means, the target text may contain references that are not present in the original text.

For example:

SL : ‘... have discovered the delights of the *Mirror of Erised*.’
 TL : “... telah menemukan keseangan yang bisa didapat dari *Cermin Tarsah*.”

The example is taken from ‘*Harry Potter and the Sorcerer’s Stone*’. In the novel, J.K. Rowling creates the word ‘erised’ by simply writes it backward. The word is ‘desire’. The translator of the novel decides to use the same method to translate the word ‘erised’, by using the word ‘tarsah’, which is the backward version of the word ‘hasrat’.

f. Equivalent

Vinay and Darbelnet (in Judickaité, 2009: 19) state that equivalent or established equivalent occurs when the same situation is rendered by two texts using completely different stylistic and structural methods. Equivalent translation is the most domesticating strategy as it replaces the SL term with its TL equivalent.

For example:

SL : Mr. Smith likes rowing the **boat**.
 TL : Tuan Smith suka mengayuh **perahu**.

The example shows that the SL ‘boat’ is translated into its TL equivalent, which is perahu.

Next, the foreignization also divides into five strategy. They are:

a) Preservation

Davies in (Judickaité, 2009: 16) describes preservation as the strategy which is used when “an entity in the ST has no close equivalent in the target culture. In such cases a translator may decide to keep the ST in translation. It means, when preservation is used by a translator, the SL concepts are transferred exactly the same to the TL.

Preservation also can be used if the translated term carries different connotations but would be recognized more easily in its original meaning in the SL. However, in some cases, there are times when a translator preserves the ST in order to maintain the effect of the original.

For example:

SL : It would be like going up to a top American businessman and saying, '**T-bone steak!**'"

TL : Itu sama seperti menghampiri businessman Amerika, dan berkata, "**T-bone steak!**"

The reason of the translator to preserve the word 'T-bone steak' might happen because there is no close equivalent in Bahasa Indonesia. There is a possibility that the readers may not know what 'T-bone' steak is, and that could be another reason why the translator preserve the word to show there are many kinds of steak available.

b) Addition

According to Davies in Titiškýtė (2009: 130) addition occurs when a translator chooses to keep the original item but supplement the text with whatever information is judged necessary. It means when the ST item is transferred to the TT, additional information is added by the translator, which serves as an explanation of ST to the TT reader. Davies in Jaleniauskienė and Čičelytė (2009: 33) adds that translators [...] need a good knowledge of the background of their target audience if they are to gauge accurately [...] what supplementary information it is necessary included. Furthermore, Aixela in Jaleniauskienė and Čičelytė (2009: 33) defines addition as information that can be inserted within the text or in a footnote, gloss, introduction, and notes.

For example:

SL : I make my tea and fill a bowl with **Shreddies**.

TL : Aku menyeduh teh dan mengisi mangkuk dengan **sereal Shreddies**.

'Shreddies' is a popular brand of breakfast cereal in England. Since in Indonesia, cereal is not the main option for breakfast, the possibility of the readers in Indonesia not knowing this brand of cereal is very high. Therefore, the word 'sereal' is added as the explanation of the proper noun, 'Shreddies'.

c) Naturalization

Naturalization involved the process of adaptation of source item with respect to phonological and/or morphological rules of the target language (Newmark, 2003: 82). In other words, naturalization basically transference in which a translator apply target language spelling and morphology (and pronunciation) to the expression.

For example:

SL : A week in an Italian ***villa*** and a top-salon haircut, and a Harvey Nichols voucher...

TL : Menginap di ***vila*** di Italia selama seminggu, potong rambut di salon terkenal, dan voucher Harvey Nichols...

In the example, the word *villa* is naturalized in the translation by phonologically adapting it. The meanings of both words are the same, which means a large and luxurious country residence.

d) Literal Translation

Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000: 86) define literal translation as the direct transfer of a SL text into a grammatical and idiomatically appropriate to TL text. However, some scholars consider literal translation to be more harmful than useful, because it may present the target language audience with strange and odd expressions that actually are not in used in the TL. In response to this, Vinay and Darbelnet (2000:78) say that literal translation is useful when the languages have more or less the same language systems and similar meanings for certain expressions.

For example:

SL : Poppies' well-known dish is ***fish and chips***.

TL : Masakan terkenal di Poppies adalah ***ikan dan keripik kentang***.

In this example, the translator literally translated the word 'fish and chips' into 'ikan dan keripik kentang'. The word 'fish' is equivalent with 'ikan' in Bahasa Indonesia and the word chips is equivalent with 'keripik kentang' in Bahasa

Indonesia. The message of this term is successfully transferred although the word 'chips' is plural and actually is translated singular in Bahasa Indonesia.

2.5 Ecology Word

Ecological word is one of cultural word categorization. Larson (in Terestyényi, 2011: 13) defines culture as "a complex beliefs, attitudes, values, and rules which a group of people share." Larson notes that the translator needs to understand beliefs, attitudes, values, and the rules of the SL audience in order to understand the source text and translate it for people who have different set of beliefs, attitudes, values, and rules. In addition, Newmark (2003: 94) defines culture as the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expressions. Newmark acknowledges that each language group has its own culturally specific features. Therefore, a society, or even a generation has its own language and culture. From Newmark's explanation, it is clear that cultural word is a word in a particular language that brings cultural value which does not exist or differ from other language.

When a cultural word is translated, it is possible that the cultural value will change. Newmark (2003: 95) classifies cultural words into five categories. They are:

- 1) Ecology: flora, fauna, winds, plains;
- 2) Material culture: food, clothes, houses and towns, transport;
- 3) Social culture: work and leisure;
- 4) Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts: political and administrative, religious, artistic;
- 5) Gestures and habits.

In this research, the researcher only focuses on the ecological ter. Ecology defines the study of relations of living things to their surroundings. It involves ecological features such as: flora, fauna, winds, plains, hills, forests, etc. (Newmark, 2003:95) These ecological features are usually are not similar in

different area. Therefore, it is not easy to find the satisfactory equivalence. Many words with strong elements of local colour, such as local words for plains; 'prairies', 'steppes', 'tundras', 'pampas', 'savannahs', 'llanos', 'bush', 'veld' (Newmark, 2003: 96). Those words are generally translated with the addition of a brief culture-free third term which is necessary in the text.

Ecological terms also results in translation problem. Newmark gives his statement that "the more spesific a language becomes a natural phenomena (e.g. flora and fauna) the more it becomes ebbded in cultural features, and therefore creates translation problems" (2003:95). The common problems are generally in the distinction of terms used to translate them into TL. Certain species of plants and animals are having their own characteristic or special features and habitats. This applied also to geographical environment and any terms associated to ecology. Nida in Newmark (2003:97) explains that certain ecological features (the seasons, rain, hills of various sizes where they are irregular or unknown) may not be understood denotatively or figuratively, in translation.

2.6 Label

Label or commonly called "product label" is a term which refers to printed information affixed on a particular article or a container of product (Prasetyarini, 2013:211). Labels function to communicate product-specific information to the consumers and encourage a purchase. Proper labeling is an important aspect of marketing a cosmetic or personal care product. It is used to help inform consumers of a product's intended use and any related warnings, its ingredients and net quantity of contents, and its place of manufacture or distribution. One of the example of label is cosmetic label. The cosmetic label includes body treatment, face treatment, and make up. The example of the cosmetic label is:



The information of the label can accommodate information where the consumer is likely to see it. The information are:

- a) Name and place of business: This may be the manufacturer, packer, or distributor.
- b) Distributor statement: If the name and address are not those of the manufacturer, the label must say "Manufactured for..." or "Distributed by..."
- c) Warning and caution statements: These must be prominent and conspicuous. Cosmetics that may be hazardous to consumers must bear appropriate label warnings. Flammable cosmetics such as aerosols are an example of products that require specific warnings.
- d) Material facts: Failure to reveal material facts is one form of misleading labeling and therefore makes a product misbranded. An example is directions for safe use if a cosmetic product has the potential to be misused.
- e) Ingredient declaration: The declaration of ingredients shall appear with such prominence and conspicuousness as to render it likely to be read and understood by ordinary individuals under normal conditions of purchase. The declaration shall appear on any appropriate information panel in letters not less than 1/16 of an inch in height and without

obscuring design, vignettes, or crowding. In the absence of sufficient space for such declaration on the package, or where the manufacturer or distributor wishes to use a decorative container, the declaration may appear on a firmly affixed tag, tape, or card.

- f) Ingredient name: Use the name based on the country regulations.
- g) Ingredient listing: The ingredients must be listed in descending order of predominance. Exceptions are active drug ingredients, ingredients with less than 1% concentration, and color additives. Fragrance and flavor compounds may be declared in descending order of predominance as "fragrance" and "flavor." If a fragrance compound also serves as a flavor, it must be declared as "flavor and fragrance". Concentration percentages are only necessary for active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) like, for example, salicylic acid, titanium dioxide, and zinc oxide.