

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Literature Review

1. Theories of Translation

The theories about translation are discussed in this section. This section contains the explanations about notions of translation, types of translation, translation process and meaning equivalence in translation. Below are the explanations in more detail.

a. Notions of Translation

Translation is an activity performed on languages. The process is substituting a text in one language for a text in another. In other words, translation is a part of language processes; thus, it is also a part of communication processes. This process can happen not only between two completely different languages but also in the same language. However, most people are more familiar with translation between two languages, which is called interlingual translation.

Neubert and Shreve (1992: 43), for instance, argue that translation involves “text induced- texts” and insist that it is “within the framework of a science of text production and text comprehension that the translation process has to be studied”. These authors claim that their view is better able to account for the complexities of the translation process than are linguistics-based definitions. It must be noted,

however, that the distinction between ‘source’ and ‘target’, whether between *languages* or *texts*, is not as clear-cut as this position would suggest. According to conventional conceptions of translation, a transfer of meaning between texts in translation is assumed to involve a transfer of meaning between ‘languages’, since distinguishing translation from paraphrasing, adaptation or rewriting, traditionally necessitates reference to source *language* text and target *language* text. The emphasis placed on text in translation theory does not, therefore, eliminate that placed on languages.

Catford (1964: 20) states that translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). Nida in Machali (1998: 1) describes that translation 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.

According to Finlay (in Yusuf, 1994: 66), a translator should have the capability of expressing and appreciating as well as feel the style, nuance and register from both of the Source and the Target Languages. Therefore, to translate a text, especially a literary text, a translator should really understand the SL and also the style that the original author tries to express.

Looking at the definitions above, it can be said that translation deals with two or more different languages considered as the source language (SL) and the target language (TL). There is a process of transferring the messages from SL to TL with the closest natural meaning.

b. Types of Translation

Based on the language that is involved in the process of translation, Jacobson (1959: 145) divides translation into three kinds.

1) *Intralingual translation* or *rewording*. It is defined as an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language.

2) *Interlingual translation* or *translation proper*. It is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language.

3) *Intersemiotic translation* or *transmutation*. It is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of nonverbal sign systems.

In another way, Catford (1978: 21) says that translation falls into three different categories. The differences are in terms of extent, levels, and ranks.

1) In terms of Extent there are two kinds of translation, they are:

a) *Full translation*, in which every part of the source language text is replaced by the target language text material in a translation, and

b) *Partial translation*, in which some part or parts of the source; language text are left not translated, they are simply transferred to and incorporated in the target text.

2) In terms of Levels there are also two kinds of translation. They are:

- a) *Total translation*, in which the source language's grammar and lexis are replaced by equivalent grammar and lexis of the target language, and
- b) *Restricted translation*, in which the replacement of SL textual materials by equivalent TL textual material, at only one level, i.e., translation is performed only at the phonological or at the graphological level, or an only one of the two levels of grammar and lexis.

3) In terms of Ranks, the kinds of translation are:

- a) *Rank-bound translation*, in which an attempt is made always to select TL equivalent at the same rank,
- b) *Free translation*, in which always an unbounded translation - equivalence shunt up and down the rank scale, but tends to be at the higher ranks, and
- c) *Literal translation*, in which lies between the two extremes, the rank-bound, and the free translation. It may start, as it were, from word-for-word translation, but make changes in conformity with the TL grammar.

c. Process of Translation

The ideal translation should be as natural, accurate, and communicative as the original text. The target text should be easily understood. In translation, meaning is analyzed and discovered. After discovering the meaning, then there is meaning

transfer in another language or the receptor language. According to Larson (1984: 4), translation can be seen as a meaning process. The meaning is transferred and then re-expressed by the translator according to the receptor language. The source language is expressed in *re-expressed text, lexicon and grammar structure* according to the receptor language. These elements consist of meaning. The model of translation process is illustrated in the figure below.

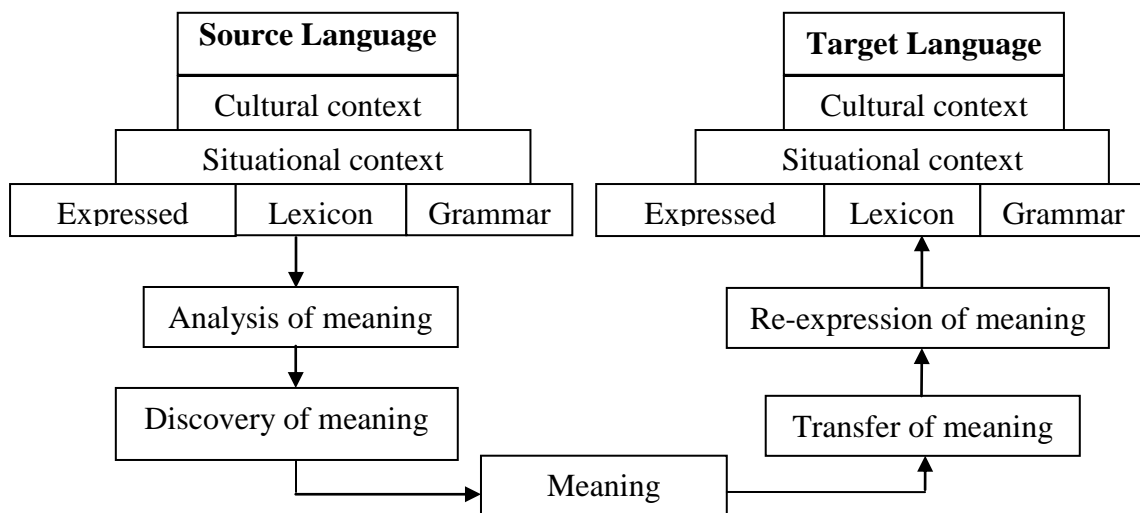


Figure 1: Model of Translation Process (Larson, 1984: 4)

Nida and Taber (1982: 17) explains that there are three steps of translation; i.e. analyzing, transferring, and restructuring.

1) Analyzing

It is used to identify the target message and contents. It includes the grammatical and semantics analysis.

2) Transferring

It deals about how analysis result to be transferred from Source Language into Target Language with someone applying of meaning and connotation, but the reaction is equivalent.

3) Restructuring

It is used to make certain in the re-establishing text which had been translated. Below is the illustration of the translation process.

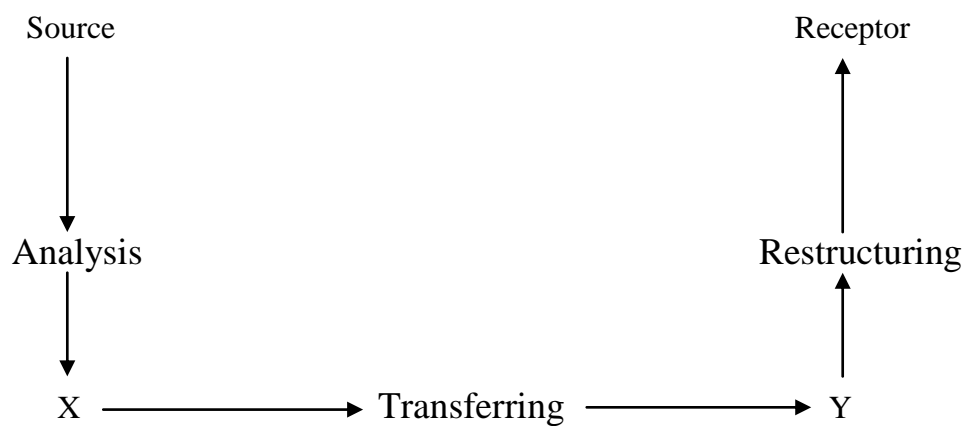


Figure 2: Translation Process

(Nida and Taber, 1982: 17)

Bell (1991: 13) distinguishes a 'process' from a 'result'. There are three distinguishable meanings of translation that is *translating*, *a translation*, and *translation*.

1) *Translating* is the process of translation.

2) *A translation* is the product of process.

- 3) *Translation* is an abstract concept which encompasses both process and product.

d. Notion of Realization and Meaning Equivalence in Translation

Larson (1984: 3) states that translation consists of changing one form into another form. He declares that one form of a language may express a great variety of meanings. In other words, a single meaning may be expressed in a great variety of forms. Realization refers to the actualization or bringing the concept into the real form. A key concept in translation is equivalence, and this helps establish our approach to translation. Equivalence centers around the processes interacting between the original source text and translated text.

Meanings are realized through wordings and wordings are realized through sounds or letters. Halliday (1985: 7) states that meaning is realized in language (in the form of text) and shaped of patterned in response to the context of situation.

According to Nida and Taber (1982: 159), there are two different types of equivalence, namely *formal equivalence* which in second edition it is referred to as *formal correspondence*—and *dynamic equivalence*. Formal correspondence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content, unlike dynamic equivalence which is based upon the principle of equivalent effect.

- 1) Formal correspondence consists of a TL item which represents the closest equivalent of a SL word or phrase.

- 2) Dynamic equivalence is defined as a translation principle according to which a translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original in such a way that the TL wording will trigger the same impact on the TC audience as the original wording did upon the ST audience.

On the other hand, Hatim (2001: 28) states that translation equivalence maybe achieved at any or all of the following levels:

- 1) SL and TL words having similar orthographic or phonological features (formal equivalence),
- 2) SL and TL referring to the same thing in the real world (referential or denotative equivalence),
- 3) SL and TL triggering the same or similar associations in the minds of speakers of two languages (connotative equivalence), and
- 4) SL and TL having the same effect on their respective readers (pragmatic or dynamic equivalence).

Kade in Hatim (2001: 29) also proposes four kinds of equivalence, they are *One-to-one equivalence*, *One-to-many equivalence*, *One-to-part-of-one equivalence*, and *Nil expression*.

- 1) *One-to-one equivalence* consists of only a single expression in the TL for a single SL expression.

- 2) *One-to-many equivalence* occurs when more than one TL expressions are available for a single SL expression.
- 3) *One-to-part-of-one equivalence* takes place when a TL expression that covers part of a concept is designated by a single SL expression.
- 4) *Nil expression* that occurs when no TL expression exist for an SL expression.

2. Theories of Language

a. Notion of Language

A language is considered to be a system of communicating with other people using sounds, symbols and words in expressing a meaning, idea or thought. Language can be used in many forms, primarily through oral and written communications as well as using expressions through body language. Language becomes the most important way in which people interact in social situation.

According to Catford (1965: 1), language is a type of patterned human behavior. It is an important way in which human beings interact in social situation. Sapir (1921: 8) states that language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols. The important thing on his definition is the term communication. Language is a medium of communication in social interaction. Therefore, language functions as a communication means.

In addition, Wardaugh (1988: 1-25) states that language is a specific set of linguistic items or human speech patterns (presumably sounds, words, grammatical features) which we can uniquely associate with some external factor (presumably, a geographical area and a social group). From definitions above, it can be concluded that language is a pattern in which human communicate each other. Since language has pattern, it can be analyzed and studied by using certain theories of language. Linguistics is the academic discipline which attends to understand language from the point of view of its internal structure in general. Linguistics in general means that the objectives of study are not limited only in one language but all of the language in the world.

b. Stratification of Language

Language is a complex semiotic system, so it has various strata. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 25) classifies language into four levels; context, semantic, lexicogrammar, and phonology and graphology.

1) Context

Context is the relation of the form to non-linguistic features of the situation in which language operates. This level concerns with field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to what is going on to the nature of the social action that is taking places. Tenor shows the people who are taking part to the nature of the participants, the relationship between participants. Mode refers to the part that language is playing.

2) Semantic

This level is divided into three components. There are ideational semantic, interpersonal semantic and textual semantic. The ideational semantic concerns with the propositional content, the interpersonal semantic concerns with speech function and exchange structure, Textual semantic concerns of how the text is structured as a message.

3) Lexicogrammar

Lexicogrammar is the resource for wording and realizing meaning in terms of grammatical structures and lexical items. Lexicogrammar consist both lexis and grammar. Lexis and grammar are the two poles of a single continuum. Both of them are organized in different techniques; dictionary and thesaurus for lexis and grammar book for grammar.

4) Phonology and Graphology

Phonology is to understand how speech sound and phonetic features are organized in language. It is viewed as subfield of linguistics that deals with sound system of language. Meanwhile, graphology is the formal units which is graphic substance organized and regarded as the exponents of grammatical and lexical forms.

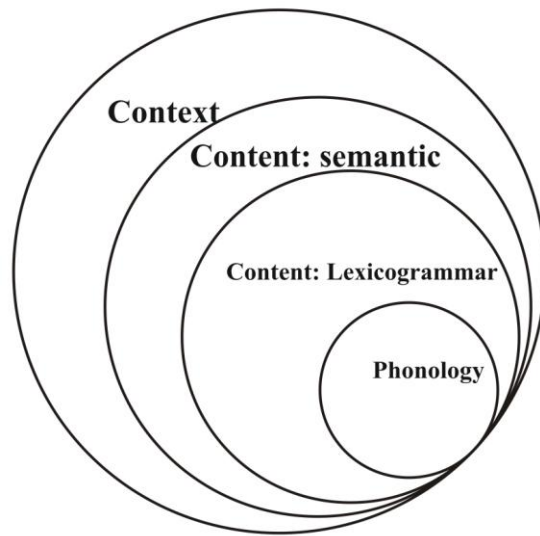


Figure 3: Stratification of language
(Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 25)

c. Approaches to Language

Halliday (1985: xxviii) states that there are two approaches on language. They are formal linguistics and functional linguistics.

1) Formal Linguistics

It is emphasizes general features in language, especially grammar called syntax. Then, there are two theories on the formal language that is *structural linguistics* and *transformational generative linguistics*. Structural linguistics occurs when a language is interpreted as a system of speech sound (phoneme), a morpheme as the unit of the grammar, and a sentence as the combination of morphemes (Bell 1991: 82). Meanwhile, transformational generative linguistics is defined as the rule of syntax used to comprehend the meaning. The grammar is reflected by the word order system in syntax to relate speakers and listeners in a communication.

2) **Functional Linguistics**

It is a language approaches regarded as a network of relation, with the structure function as realization of these relationships. Furthermore, semantics become the foundation of the grammar as the natural variable Halliday (1985: 28). This theory is used as the base analysis called Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). SFL deals with the understanding of language used in the different purposes considering the contexts, which form the language structures to comprehend meaning. There should be collaboration between the semantic system and the system of grammar and vocabulary (lexicogrammar in Halliday's term). In order to encode the meaning of the language properly, there are three kinds of meaning classified by Halliday (1985:18).

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 29-30) propose aspects of meanings called *metafunction*. Metafunction is the three principal functions which are used as the basis of grammar. Metafunction of language consists of three kinds of meaning. They are *Ideational meaning*, *Interpersonal meaning*, and *Textual meaning*. Below is the explanation.

a) Ideational meaning

Ideational meaning concerns with "ideation" in grammatical resources for construing our experience of the world around us and inside us. It is the representation of experience or in the sense of context. This function emphasizes language as an instrument of thought, a symbolic code, with which we represent the world to ourselves. Ideational meaning divided into two kinds,

which is logical meaning and experiential meaning. The logical meaning is the relationship between one process and another or participant and another that share the same position in the text. Meanwhile, the experiential meaning is the process or the participant in the process and the circumstance associated with term.

b) Interpersonal meaning

Interpersonal meaning is concerned with meaning as a form of actions. It has to do with the ways in which people act upon one another through language such as giving and requesting information, offering things, expressing doubts, asking question, and so on (Lock, 1996: 9). Butt, et. Al, (2000: 39) claims that language has an interpersonal function which is used encode meaning of attitudes, interaction, and relationship. The system of mood and modality are the keys to understanding the interpersonal relationship between interactions (Eggins, 2004: 187).

The contextualizing of interpersonal meaning is called tenor. According to Martin (1992: 523) tenor refers to the negotiation of social relationships among participant. It is realized through the interpersonal meaning metafunction in language. In general interpersonal meaning, tenor is concerned with the semiotics or relationships. It mediates these relationships along three dimensions. Those dimensions are status, contact and affect.

- (a) *Status* deals with the position of interlocutors in a social culture. The basic opposition of status is concerned is between equal and unequal

depending on whether social status of participants is comparable or not. Equal status among interlocutors is realized by taking up the same kinds of choices whereas unequal status is realized by taking up different ones.

- (b) *Contact* deals with the degree of involvement among interlocutors. This is determined by the nature of the fields' speaker/ listeners are participating in how much contact they involved, how regularly, whether work or leisure activity. Contact can be broken down into involved and uninvolved depending on a number of factors influencing the familiarity of participants with each other.
- (c) *Affect* refers to as the degree of emotional change in the relationship between participants. The basic contrast is between positive and negative.

c) Textual meaning

Textual meaning concerns of the text, which is relevant to context. This is important in the creation of coherence in spoken and written texts. It is the construct of a message of text. The function of the clause is for constructing a message, whereas the major textual system of this clause is theme (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 62).

This research deals with *mood* system of language which is the representation of interpersonal meaning. Thus, mood is discussed in more detail in the next section.

d. Mood

People make an interaction, and they exchange information. The language they use is a part of interpersonal meaning. Interpersonal meaning is expressed through the system of mood. The mood system follows the speech role in the communication, when people do the communication and interaction. Halliday (1985: 68) states that the most primary types of speech role when people interact to one another are: (i) giving and (ii) demanding through exchanging of expression of utterances, that can be (1) goods and services and (2) information.

When people exchange information, the semantic function of the clause is proposition. A proposition is something that can be argued or denied. This speech function can be realized by question and statement. On the other hand, when people exchange goods and services, the semantic function of clause is proposal. This speech function is realized by offer expression. From the explanation above can be assumed up that question, statement, offer and command are the four primary speech functions.

Table 1: Speech function and Speech Role (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:

107)

Speech Function Speech Role	Commodity Exchange	
	Information	Good and Service
Giving	Statement	Offer
Demanding	Question	Command

However, mood system consists of two elements. They are mood and residue. Mood consists of subject and finite, while, residue consists of predicator, complement and adjunct.

1) Mood Structure

As what have been explained above, mood consists of two parts, they are subject and finite. The detail is explained below.

a) Subject

Subject may be a single word (noun or pronoun), a lengthy noun phrase, or even a clause. We can use tag test to identify subject. The element that gets picked up by the pronoun in the tag is the subject.

b) Finite

The finite element, as its name implies, has the function of making the proposition finite. That is to say, it circumscribes it; it brings the proposition down to earth, so that it is something that can be argued about. A good way to make something arguable is to give it a point of reference in the here and now; and this is what the finite does. It relates the proportion to its context in the speech event (Halliday and

Matthiessen, 2004: 115). There are three features of finiteness, they are tense, polarity and modality.

(1) Tense

Primary finite means present time, past time and future time.

Present tense represents present time, past tense represents the events that have been happened and future tense represents future time.

(2) Polarity

Polarity is either tense or modality to make the proposition arguable. To make the proposition arguable, it has to be either positive (something is) or negative (something is not) which indicates the truth or falsehood of a statement.

(3) Modality

Modality is the speaker's judgment of probabilities or the obligation involved in what he is saying. A proposition or proposal may become arguable through being assessed in terms of the degree of probability or obligation that is associated with it.

Finiteness is thus expressed by means of a verbal operator which is either temporal or modal.

2) Residue Structure

Halliday (2004: 121) makes three elements of residue. Those are prediction, complement, and adjunct.

- a) Predicator is realized by verbal group minus the temporal or modal operator.
- b) Complement is an element that has the potential of being subject but it is not. It is realized by a nominal group.
- c) Adjunct is an element that has not got the potential of being subject. It cannot be elevated to the interpersonal status of modal responsibility. An adjunct is realized by an adverbial group or prepositional phrase. For the illustration, below is the table.

Table 2: Structure of Residue (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 121)

<i>She</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>reading</i>	<i>a book</i>	<i>for his student.</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
MOOD		RESIDUE		

From the explanation above, this brings us to the term of modality that consists of modalization and modulation.

3. Modality

a. English Modality

Modality is the part of finite elements. Modality refers to the area of meaning that lies between “yes” and “no”, the intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity (Halliday, 1985: 335). Moreover, Bell (1991) modality is a part of the mood system, which provides option for expressing opinions on the probability of a proposition being true and its frequency.

According to the *University Course in English Grammar* (Downing & Locke 1992: 382), modality is one of the most important ways in which interpersonal meaning can be expressed. It is the expression of attitude of the speaker towards a reality: “modality is said to express a *relation* to reality, whereas an unmodalized declarative treats the process *as* reality” (emphasis in original. Generally, modality is expressed either through an auxiliary verb (can, may should, etc.) or through a full lexical verb (wish, need). Other possible ways are through adverbs and adverbial clauses (possibly, probably, certainly) and adjectives (it is necessary).

There are three ways of doing the modality that is using Modal Finite, using an adverbial group or prepositional phrase, known as Mood Adjunct and using an interpersonal grammatical metaphor. We use the term modality to refer to all positioning by speakers about probability, usuality, typicality, obviousness, obligation and inclination (Butt, 2000: 113).

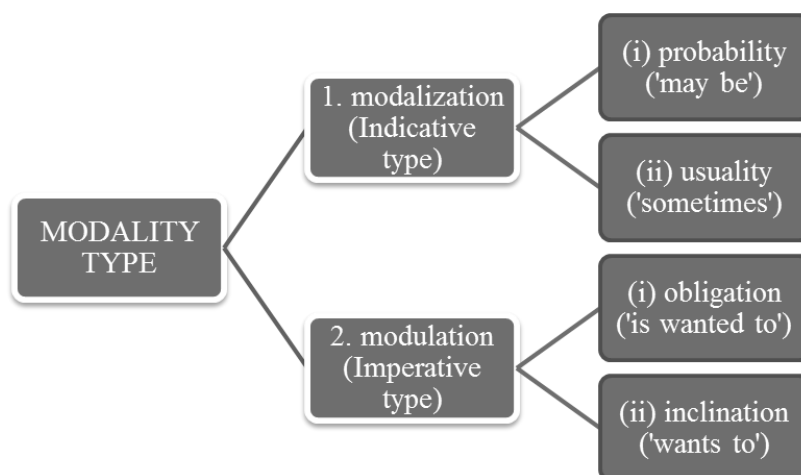


Figure 4: Types of Modality

(Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 618)

The figure above shows the types of modality according to Halliday. There are two kinds of modality, i.e. Modalization and Modulation. Each of those two types is also divided into two types. The modalization is divided into 'probability' and 'usuality', while modulation is divided into 'inclination' and 'obligation'. The two categories of modalization and modulation have three values or degrees each. They are high, medium, and low.

1) Modalization

Modalization is one half of the general grammatical area of modality. When modality is used to argue about the probability or usuality of proposition is referred to as modalization.

Modalization has to do with different ways in which the communicator can intrude their message, expressing attitudes and judgments of various kinds. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:147-50) state that modalization involves the expressions of probability and usuality.

- 1) Probability occurs when the speaker expresses judgment as to the likelihood or probability of something happening or being happened.
- 2) Usuality occurs when the speaker expresses judgment as to the frequency with which something happens or is. (Eggins, 1994:179).

Each category of modalization above is divided into three values or degrees. They are high, medium and low degree.

Table 3: The Degree of Modalization Realizations in English Text (Halliday, 1985: 337)

Realization	Degree of Modalization		
	High	Median	Low
Probability	must, certainly, sure, believe, definitely, can't, couldn't, bet, of course	Probably, probable, think, will be, wont, should	Maybe, possibly, may, perhaps, can
Usuality	Always	usually, often, frequently	Sometimes, occasionally, ever, never, once, seldom, rarely

The table above shows the modalization that consists of probability and usuality. According to the degrees level, the table shows the division that classified into high, median, and low. Based on the table of English modalization realization degree above, the degrees of modalization realizations Bahasa Indonesia is illustrated in the table below.

Table 4: The degree of modalization realizations in Bahasa Indonesia Text
 (Translated from Halliday, 1985: 337)

Realization	Degree of Modalization		
	High	Median	Low
Probability	<i>pasti, sudah pasti, tentu saja, percaya, tidak bisa</i>	<i>Kira-kira, kemungkinan, belum tentu, Insya Allah, mudah-mudahan,</i>	<i>kalau-kalau, barangkali, kalau saja, mungkin, dapat, bisa</i>
Usuality	<i>Selalu</i>	<i>Biasanya, seringkali</i>	<i>Kadang-kadang, sekali-sekali, pernah, tidak pernah</i>

The degrees of modalization both above also see the aspect of interpersonal meaning. The status, contact, and affect make the degree can be low, medium, or high. Both probability and usuality can be expressed in the same three ways: (a) by finite modal operator in the verbal group, (b) by a modal adjunct of probability and usuality, and (c) by both of them together.

2) Modulation

Modulation is the way speakers express their judgments or attitudes about actions and events. When people interact and exchange goods and services to one another, their clause of communication takes the form of proposal. Modulation is not always represented by command and structure clause. Modulation has two types, inclination (the speakers' tendency in doing something from his own feeling) and obligation (gives a command).

- 1) Inclination represents the tendency of speakers in doing something, and the capability from his or her own feeling.
- 2) Obligation occurs when the speaker give command, suggestion, demand, and advice to the listener.

Modulation is an expression of asking, directing or expression of our willingness to get somebody to do something. These can be realized into asking for someone, offering declarative statement, advice statement, or even direct imperative statement. Each category above is also divided into three values or degree. They are high, medium, and low degree.

Table 5: The degree of modulation realizations in English text Halliday (1985: 337)

Realization	Degree of Modulation		
	High	Median	Low
Obligation	Must, have to, ought to, need, is to	Should, shall, will, would	May, might, can, could, allowed
Inclination	Determine to, need to	want to, keen, will, would, won't, wouldn't	Willing, can

The table above shows the modalization that consists of probability and usability. According to the degrees level, the table shows the division that classified into high, median, and low. Based on the table of English modalization realization degree above, the degrees of modalization realizations Bahasa Indonesia is illustrated in the table below.

Table 6: The degree of modulation realizations in Bahasa Indonesia text.

(Translated from Halliday, 1985: 337)

Realization	Degree of Modulation		
	High	Median	Low
Obligation	Harus, perlu untuk,	seharusnya, mestinya, akan	Bisa, bolehkah, dapatkah, maukah
Inclination	Perlu untuk	ingin, kepingin, akan	Bersedia untuk

Beside the table represented above, there are modal auxiliaries (*shall, should, will, would, must, need, ought to, is to, has to*, etc) that can occur in the clause. These items will be used to analyze the aspects of modulation of the movie text. The status, contact, and affect make the degree into low, medium, or high.

Halliday, (2004: 619) simply describes the presentations of the degree of modalization and modulation expression on the figure below.

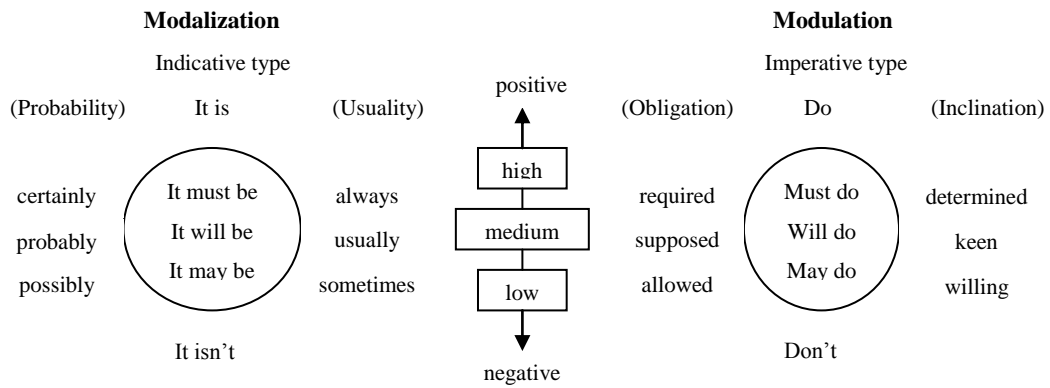


Figure 5: The representations of the degree of modalization and modulation expression (Halliday, 2004: 619)

b. Modality in *Bahasa Indonesia*

Alwi (1990: 39) classifies modality into four subcategories. Those are *modalitas intensional*, *modalitas epistemic*, *modalitas deontik* and *modalitas dinamik*.

1) *Modalitas Intensional*

Modalitas intensional is related to psychology principle because this modality is based on human consciousness so that, people can express their desire, hope, invitation, willingness, offering and permission. It can be expressed by the word “*ingin, mau, hendak, and akan, etc.*”

Table 7: *Modalitas Intensional* and its words expressions (Hasan Alwi, 1990: 50-104)

No	<i>Modalitas Intensional</i>	Words expression
1	<i>Keinginan</i>	<i>Ingin, menginginkan, mengingini, berkeinginan, menghendaki, berhasrat, mendambakan</i>
	<i>a. kadar “keinginan”</i>	
	<i>b. kadar “kemauan”</i>	<i>Mau, hendak, akan, bertekad, berketetapan.</i>
	<i>c. kadar “maksud”</i>	<i>Bermaksud, berniat, berhajat, bernadar, berkaul</i>
2	<i>Harapan</i>	<i>Harap, semoga, harapkan, mengharap, mengharap, diharapkan, hendaknya, berdoa, doakan, mendoakan, didoakannya, mudah-mudahan, moga-moga, hendaknya</i>
3	<i>Ajakan</i>	<i>Ajak, mengajak, imbau, marilah, mari, ayo, ayolah, mengimbau</i>
4	<i>Pembiaran</i>	<i>Biarkanlah, biarkanlah, biar, bairkan</i>
5	<i>Permintaan</i>	<i>Sudilah, sukalah, mohon, silakan, coba, tolong, mohon, sudilah, minta, memerintahkan</i>

2) *Modalitas Epistemik*

The word epistemic comes from the word episteme which means knowledge, lack of knowledge and lack of confidence. Coates in Alwi (1990: 117) formulates *modalitas epistemik* as an assumption or the speaker’s judgment toward the possibility which describes the certainty or uncertainty about the truth of presumption. It describes the possibility, prediction, obligation and certainty. It can be realized by the words “*kira, duga, pikir, rasa*”

Table 8: *Modalitas Epistemik* and its words expressions (Hasan Alwi, 1990: 116-179)

No	<i>Modalitas Epistemik</i>	Words expression
1	<i>Kemungkinan</i>	<i>Dapat, bisa, boleh, mungkin, barangkali, dapat saja, bisa saja, boleh saja, bisa jadi, bisa-bisa, boleh jadi</i>
2	<i>Keteramalan</i>	<i>Akan, pikir, berfikir, memikirkan, dipikirkan, dirasakan, dirasa, rasa, merasa, kira, duga, menduga, dikira, diperkirakan, mengira, diduga, konon, sepertinya, agaknya, tampaknya, nampaknya, rasanya, kelihatannya, diperkirakan, kabarnya, kayaknya, rasa-rasanya, rupanya,</i>
3	<i>Keharusan</i>	<i>Harus, seharusnya, mesti, semestinya, wajib, perlu, patut, sebaiknya, sepantasnya, seyogyanya, selayaknya, sepatutnya, patut-patutnya, pantas-pantasnya, mau tak mau</i>
4	<i>Kepastian</i>	<i>Pasti, tentu, tentunya, tentu saja, sudah barang tentu, niscaya, yakin, percaya, memastikan, tak salah lagi</i>

3) *Modalitas Deontik*

Modalitas deontik is based on social rule. Social rule can be private authority and official authority. Private authority rises because the differences of age, position or social status, while, official authority is originated from the rule that have been agreed together to control the life of society. Those factors determine each person to actualize his/her attitude. *Modalitas Deontik* expresses permission, allowance or command to do something or not to do something. It can be realized by the words “*mengizinkan, memperbolehkan and memperkenankan*”.

Table 9: *Modalitas Deontik* and its words expressions (Hasan Alwi, 1990: 211-263)

No	<i>Modalitas Deontik</i>	Words Expression
1	<i>Izin</i>	<i>Boleh, perbolehkan, memperbolehkan, diperbolehkan, dapat, bisa, diperkenankan, memperkenankan, perkenankan, izinkan, mengizinkan, diizinkan,</i>
2	<i>Perintah</i>	<i>Wajib, mesti, harus, haruskan, mengharuskan, diharuskan, diperintahkan, memerintahkan, perintahkan, larang, melarang, dilarang, tidak boleh, jangan, melarang</i>

4) *Modalitas Dinamik*

Modalitas dinamik deals with the speaker's attitude towards the situation. The event actualization is established by the circumstance. *Modalitas Dinamik* expresses ability, possibility by using the words "*dapat, bisa, sanggup*".

Table 10: *Modalitas Dinamik* and its words expressions (Hasan Alwi, 1990: 289-310)

No	<i>Modalitas Dinamik</i>	Words Expression
1	<i>Kemampuan</i>	<i>Dapat, bisa, mampu, sanggup</i>

Modality is known as *modalitas* in bahasa Indonesia. Kridalaksana (1994: 154) mentions *modalitas* as:

- a. a proposition that express asserting or denying of a prediction or obligation,
- b. the way of speaker who states his form of action to any situation in interpersonal communication, and

- c. a prediction, obligation and statement of meanings, etc. they are presented in the form of sentence or adverbial sentence in Bahasa Indonesia. They consist of *barangkali, harus, akan*, etc. They can also be the adverbial sentence like *pada hakikatnya, menurut hemat saya, menurut pendapat saya*, etc.

According to Kridalaksana (1994:183), adverbial is a category that stands closely, adjective, numeral, or, proposition in syntactic construction. It is divided into *intraklausal* and *ekstraklausal* forms.

- a. Adverbial intraklausal is constructed of verb, adjective, numeral, and other adverbial. For example : *Alangkah, agak, akan, amat, banget* (in non-standar bahasa indonesia), *barangkali, belaka, bisa, belum, boleh, bukan, cuma, dapat, hanya, kerap, lagi, masih, memang, mungkin, nian, niscaya, nggak*, (in non-standard bahasa indonesia), *pernah, saja, sangat, selalu, senantiasa, serba, sering*.
- b. Adverbial ekstraklausal has a possibility to transfer from one position to other positions part. For example: *Barangkali, bukan, justru, memang, mungkin*.

4. Modal Operator and Mood Adjunct

a. Modal Operator

The modal operators are the elements that can express the modality in the clause. Modal is a verb, such as '*can*', '*will*', '*might*', and '*must*' that is used with another verb to express an idea such as possibility that is not expressed by the main verb of a sentence. The modal operators are listed in the table below.

Table 11: Modal Operators (Halliday, 2004: 116)

	Low	Median	High
Positives	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to, need, has/had to
Negatives	needn't, doesn't/ didn't + need to, have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, (isn't/wasn't to)	Mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, (mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

As listed in the table below, the words give tense to the finite, either past, present or future. The words combine the specification of polarity with the specification of either temporal or modal reference to the speech event.

Table 12: Temporal Operators (Halliday, 2004: 116)

	Past	Present	Future
Positives	did, was, had, used to	Does, is, has	Will, shall, would, should
Negatives	didn't, wasn't, hadn't, didn't use to	Doesn't, isn't, hasn't	Won't, shan't, wouldn't, shouldn't

b. Mood Adjunct

Halliday (1985:82) points out that both modal operator and mood adjuncts can be classified according to the degree of certainty they express, high (*must, certainly, always*), median (*may, probably, usually*), or low (*might, possibly, sometimes*). Modalization is always expressing the implicit judgment of the speaker since it is the way the speaker gets into the text, expressing a judgment about the certainty,

likelihood, or frequency of something, happening, or being. While people often play with language, modalization can be realized explicitly. Sometimes speakers make it obvious of their judgment into an expression by using a particular type of Mood Adjunct, as what Halliday points out.

1) *Low*: I reckon, I guess

<i>I reckon</i>	<i>Henry James</i>	<i>wrote</i>		<i>“ The Bostonian “</i>
Adjunct mood	subject	finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE		

As the example above, the variable in modality is the *value* that is attached to the modal judgment as low degree.

2) *Median*: I think, I suppose

<i>I think</i>	<i>Henry James</i>	<i>wrote</i>		<i>“ The Bostonian “</i>
Adjunct mood	subject	finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE		

As the example above, the variable in modality is the *value* that is attached to the modal judgement as medium degree.

3) *High*: I'm sure

<i>I'm sure</i>	<i>Henry James</i>	<i>wrote</i>		<i>"The Bostonian"</i>
Adjunct mood	subject	finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE		

As the example above, the variable in modality is the *value* that is attached to the modal judgement as low degree.

These examples are known as grammatical metaphor, in this case metaphor of modality (Halliday, 2004: 626-630). They are classified as metaphorical because they are realized as a clause. This is because the words "I think", "I reckon" and "I'm sure", are technically complete clauses with its own structure.

<i>I</i>	<i>think</i>	
Subject	Finite	Predicator
MOOD		RESIDUE

The clause *I think* is a metaphor modality. Furthermore, *I think* here can be replaced by *probably* as an adjunct. In other words, *I think* is the variant of *probably*, and not a first person equivalent.

5. Theories of Subtitle

a. Notions of Subtitle

According to Gambier (1993: 226) subtitling is one of two possible methods for providing the translation of movies dialogues, where the original dialogues soundtrack is left in place and translation is printed along the bottom of the movie. On the other hand, Boardwell and Thompson (1990: 409) define dubbing as the process of replacing part of all voices on the soundtrack in order to correct mistake on record dialogue.

Subtitle is textual versions of the film's dialog appearing at the bottom of the screen. Typically, films are subtitled to provide a translation of a film's dialogues. Subtitle may be either *intralingual* or *interlingual*. Gottlieb (1997) uses linguistic and technical criteria to categorise them into *intralingual* and *interlingual* subtitles, depending on whether they are in the same or a different language; and into *open* and *closed* subtitles, depending on whether they are a matter of choice by the viewer.

They can either be a form of written translation of a dialog in a foreign language or a written rendering of the dialog in the same language, with or without added information to help viewers who are deaf and hard-of-hearing to follow the dialog. It is kind of media to ease the understanding of a movie in the different language.

Translating the movie dialogue into the target language by using the subtitling mode is complex because it is supposed to reflect spoken communication. Translators do not only copy words from the dictionary but also they should give

their decisions on every sentence, every word, and every comma and they have to change the source language (SL) into another context both linguistically and culturally. A good subtitle must be: (1) accurate in terms of meaning, (2) agreement, it means that agree with the grammatical rules of target language (TL), (3) easy to read and (4) convey as well as culture of target language (TL).

According to Hatim and Mason (2000: 430-431) the obstacles of subtitling include:

- 1) the mode shift from speech to writing because it is not the entire of speech feature can be represented in the written form of the target text,
- 2) factors that cause the medium in which meaning is to be conveyed because the physical constrains of available space,
- 3) the omission of the source text, and
- 4) the requirement of matching the visual image.

Karamitroglou (2003) in his article “A Proposed Set of Subtitling Standard in Europe” divides the standardization of the subtitle into four parts. They are in layout, duration, punctuation and text editing.

1) Layouts

- a) Subtitle should be placed at the bottom of the screen.
- b) The maximum number of line should be two lines.
- c) Each subtitle line should consist around 35 characters.
- d) The colour of font should be pale white or yellow.

2) Duration

- a) The maximum duration of two lines subtitles should be 6 seconds.

- b) The maximum duration of a single line subtitle should be 3 seconds.
 - c) The minimum duration of a single word would be at least 2 seconds.
 - d) Subtitle should not be left on the image for more than 2 seconds after the end of the utterance.
 - e) Subtitle should disappear before the cuts of the camera.
- 3) Punctuation
- a) Translators use three sequence dots (...) after the last character when the subtitled sentence is not finished and has to continue to the next subtitle.
 - b) Translators use three dots (...) before the first character, when the subtitle carries the follow-up text of the previous incomplete sentence.
 - c) The translators use full stop after the last character to indicate the end of subtitled sentence.
 - d) Translators use question mark and exclamation points after the last character to indicate a question or emphasis word.
 - e) Translators use comma, colon and semicolons to suggest a short phrase.
 - f) Translators use italics to show foreign language in the original version.
 - g) Translators are not allowed to use boldface and underline.

4) Text Editing

- a) It is better to divide a long single-line subtitle into two lines subtitle.
- b) Each subtitle should contain one complex sentence.

b. Process of Subtitling

Subtitling is very different from the translation process of written text, it's because it involves complicated procedures. Basically, there are two stages in subtitling. The first stage is translating material from source language (SL) into target language (TL) and the second stage is making subtitle from the translated materials. At the second stage, translators have to consider duration of materials that will be delivered on the screen.

Matsumoto (2003: 101-102) presents the process of subtitling.

Stages 1: Translating material

- Step 1 : Translators translate the sentence literally.
- Step 2 : Translators write considering cultural differences in order to make sense in the other language.
- Step 3 : Translators make the sound of the sentence more effectively.

Stages 2: Making subtitle from the translated material

- Step 1 : Translators ensure the duration in which subtitle will be applied.
- Step 2 : Translators calculate number of pages that can be fit in the duration.
- Step 3 : Translators check the edited image and number of shot are used.

- Step 4 : Translators divide translated sentence into the numbers of pages and see it all.
- Step 5 : Translators adjust number of letters and lines according to the basic rules by trimming the sentences and choosing the suitable word.
- Step 6 : Translators type up all sentences using a special system in computer and add them to the edited sequences.
- Step 7 : Translators check if the meaning in the original language is not lost and revise the sentence accordingly.
- Step 8 : Translators consider the difference in languages and expression in different culture, history and customs are suitable and comprehensible.
- Step 9 : Translator make all sentences better.

The steps of subtitling from the explanation above are making the translation of source text into target text, and then it is processed into the form of subtitle.

6. *A Beautiful Mind* movie

The film *A Beautiful Mind* illustrates the story of the struggle of a genius mathematician named John Forbes Nash, who succeeded in creating an economic concept which now serves as the basis of contemporary economic theory. The film was directed by Ron Howard and written by Akiva Goldsman. It was inspired by a bestselling, Pulitzer Prize-nominated 1998 book of the same name by Sylvia Nasar. The film stars Russell Crowe, along with Ed Harris, Jennifer Connelly, Paul Bettany and Christopher Plummer.

During the Cold War lasted, Nash suffered schizophrenia that make living in hallucinations and always shadowed by the fear that he had to fight hard to recover and won a Nobel prize in 1994, when he enters old age. The story opens with young Nash in 1948 that started the first days of lectures at prestigious universities, Princeton University. From the beginning, Nash, simple man from Virginia was described as a private village loner, shy, low self-esteem, and introvert at once strange. "I do not really like dealing with people and it seems that nobody likes me", Nash said many times. Behind all its drawbacks, Nash also portrayed as an arrogant man who was proud of his cleverness. This expression showed by refusing to follow the lectures which he considered only spends time and make the brain dull. Instead, Nash was spending more time outside of class to get the original idea for and received his doctoral degree at the prestigious research center, Wheeler Defense Labs at MIT.

In the midst of fierce competition, Nash got a very faithful roommate, Charles Herman who has a little girl niece named Marcee. Nash is very obsessed with mathematics, to the point that writes a variety of formulas in the glass window of the room and managed to find a new concept as opposed to the theory of the father of the modern world economic, Adam Smith. This concept is called, with the equilibrium theory, which drove my doctorate. Nash's dreams come true. Not just earned his doctorate, he managed to be accepted as a researcher and lecturer at MIT.

Nash's life began to change when he asked the Pentagon decode secret messages sent by the Soviet army. There, he met the undercover agent William

Parcher. From this secret agent, he was given a job as a spy. This new job makes Nash obsessed until he forgot the time and living in his own world.

Alicia Larde is a beautiful female student, who made him realize that he also needs love. When the couple married, Nash was even more severe and continues to be felt in danger because of his job as a secret agent. Nash is increasingly seen strange and fears, until finally when he was bringing his paper at a seminar at Harvard, Dr. Rosen, a psychiatrist arrested and brought to a psychiatric hospital. From there revealed, Nash suffered paranoid schizophrenia. Some of the events experienced during Nash are just a fantasy. There was never a roommate; Herman and his nephew are adorable, Marcee or Parcher with a secret project.

Fortunately, Alicia was a devoted wife who never tired of giving encouragement to her husband. With the encouragement and love that never runs out of Alicia, Nash got up and fight against the disease.

A Beautiful Mind is an interesting movie. It inspires the viewers and teaches them how to live as special human beings and to realize that people must be aware of the real life.

B. Conceptual Framework and Analytical Construct

1. Conceptual Framework

In this study, the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics by Halliday is applied to build the concept of the research and analyze the translation of modalization and modulation expression. There are three levels or system of

language: semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology. Semantic is a system of meaning and lexicogrammar related to wording. Lexicogrammar includes grammar and lexis. Meanwhile, phonology or graphology relates to sounding and writing.

The analysis of features and representation of modalization and modulation expressions is identified from their realization in English-Bahasa Indonesia texts. The realization deals with lexicogrammar, whereas the texts are viewed in the form of sentences. Therefore, in this study, the data are all in the form of sentences. Commonly, the realization is categorized into realized and unrealized form. Realized form happens when modalization and modulation represented in Bahasa Indonesia as a target language. In this case relates to the degree of high, medium, and low, both explicitly and implicitly. Meanwhile, the unrealized form occurs when modalization and modulation is not represented in Bahasa Indonesia. After that, each case of modalization and modulation in both texts are contrasted according to the degree of each category, so the expression degree is found. The realization in this study is categorized into realized and unrealized form.

a. Realized form

It is when the modalization and modulation expressions of English movie script are represented in Bahasa Indonesia movie subtitle. In this case, it relates to the degree of high, medium, and low, either explicitly or even implicitly.

1) Modalization

- a) Probability occurs when someone states a condition or something that will happen in the future.

(1) High degree of probability occurs when someone who conveys or tries to convey something will be happen certainly. It represented by the words *certainly, I'm sure, I believe, I'm required,* etc. Below is the example.

SL: I don't exactly know what I'm *required* to say in order for you to have intercourse with me, but *could* we assume that I said all that? (29)

TL: Aku tidak tahu persis apa yang *harus* kukatakan supaya kau *bisa* memiliki persetubuhan denganku, tapi bisakah kita menganggap kalau aku mengatakan semua itu?

(2) Medium degree of probability occurs when someone express something in the range of 'yes' and 'no'. Usually it is conveys an opinion. It is represented by the words *I think, will, would, probably,* etc. Below is the example.

SL: So, dying of thirst would *probably* feel pretty much like the hangover that finally bloody kills you. (9)

TL: Jadi,hampir mati kehausan *mungkin* akan terasa cukup banyak seperti rasa mabuk itu

(3) Low degree of probability occurs when the weak or little certainty in statement. It mostly is represented by *maybe, might be,* and *can*. Below is the example.

SL: I don't know, *maybe* work someplace else, for about 45 minutes? (75)

TL: Aku tak tahu, *mungkin* bekerja di tempat lain, selama sekitar 45 menit?

b) Usuality occurs when the speaker states a condition of the frequency of someone doing something.

(1) High degree of usuality occurs when expresses something is done almost all the time by the speakers in the statements. It is represented by *always*. Below is the example.

SL: In competitive behavior someone *always* loses. (23)

TL: Dalam perilaku kompetitif seseorang *selalu* kalah.

(2) Medium degree of usuality occurs when expresses something is done quite routine by the speakers in the statements. It is mostly represented by *usually* and *often*. Below is the example.

SL: I *often* don't get a pleasant result. (109)

TL: Aku *sering* tidak mendapatkan hasil yang menyenangkan.

(3) Low degree of usuality occurs when expresses something almost or doesn't do by the speakers in the statements. It is represented by *sometimes*, *occasionally*, *ever* or *never*. Below is the example.

SL: You see, John, what distinguishes you is that you are, quite simply, the best natural code-breaker I have *ever* seen.

(86)

TL: Kau dengar, John, apa yang membedakanmu adalah bahwa kau, cukup sederhana, pemecah kode alamiah yang *pernah* aku lihat.

2) Modulation

a) Inclination occurs when someone has desire to do something for others. It means the expression of willingness from her/his own feeling.

(1) High degree of inclination occurs when someone tries to do something which seems like a necessity. It is indicated by using *determined to*, *must*, and *need to*.

SL: I *need to* look through to the governing dynamic. (15)

TL: Aku *perlu* membidik sampai dengan dinamika pemerintahan.

(2) Medium degree of inclination occurs when more flexible than the first. Mostly, it is indicated by *want*, and other expressions that show willingness. Below is the example.

SL: I'm not *gonna* strike out. (47)

TL: Hansen Aku tidak *akan* menyerang.

- (3) Low degree of inclination shows someone's desire in the weak statements. It usually expressed by *I can, allow me, we can,* etc.

SL: I *can* restore your status at Wheeler. (190)

TL: Aku *dapat* mengembalikan statusmu di Wheeler.

- b) Obligation is used to ask someone to do something for us, ask permission, direction, demanding, and give an advice or suggestion.

- (1) High degree of obligation occurs when someone asks someone else to do something as a necessity. It is indicated by *should, need to, we have to, you must.* Below is the example.

SL: We just *have to* talk quietly. (158)

TL: Kita hanya *perlu* bicara dengan tenang.

- (2) Medium degree of obligation is used when someone asks someone else to do something in statement that is more flexible. The words indicating these degrees are *should, shall, will,* and *would.* Below is the example.

SL: Champagne *would be* lovely. (101)

TL: Sampanye *akan* menyenangkan.

(3) Low degree of obligation occurs when the obligation is indicated by the weak statements. It is represented by *may*, *might*, *can*, and *could*.

SL: Disclosure of secure information *can* result in imprisonment. (84)

TL: Pengungkapan informasi rahasia *akan* mengakibatkan hukuman penjara

b. Unrealized form

It is when the modalization and modulation of English movie script is not represented in Bahasa Indonesia movie subtitle. It can be replaced by the expression in Bahasa Indonesia which is not recognized as modalization and modulation or it is not expressed at all in Bahasa Indonesia.

2. Analytical Construct

This study includes the interlingual translation which involves two languages, they are English and *Bahasa Indonesia* (bilingual). This study observes modalization and modulation expressions that occur in *A Beautiful Mind* movie. Modalization and modulation include the mood system which is part of interpersonal meaning. The realization of modalization and modulation expressions in the English and *Bahasa Indonesia* texts are identified and recorded into graphic forms. They are considered as the data. The data will be classified according to the features based on Halliday's theory of modalization and modulation in the data analysis table. These

representations are converted into the list of numbers and percentages, and they are valued similarities and differences of the expression realization occur in the English version and *Bahasa Indonesia* version. The analytical construct of this study is illustrated in the figure below.

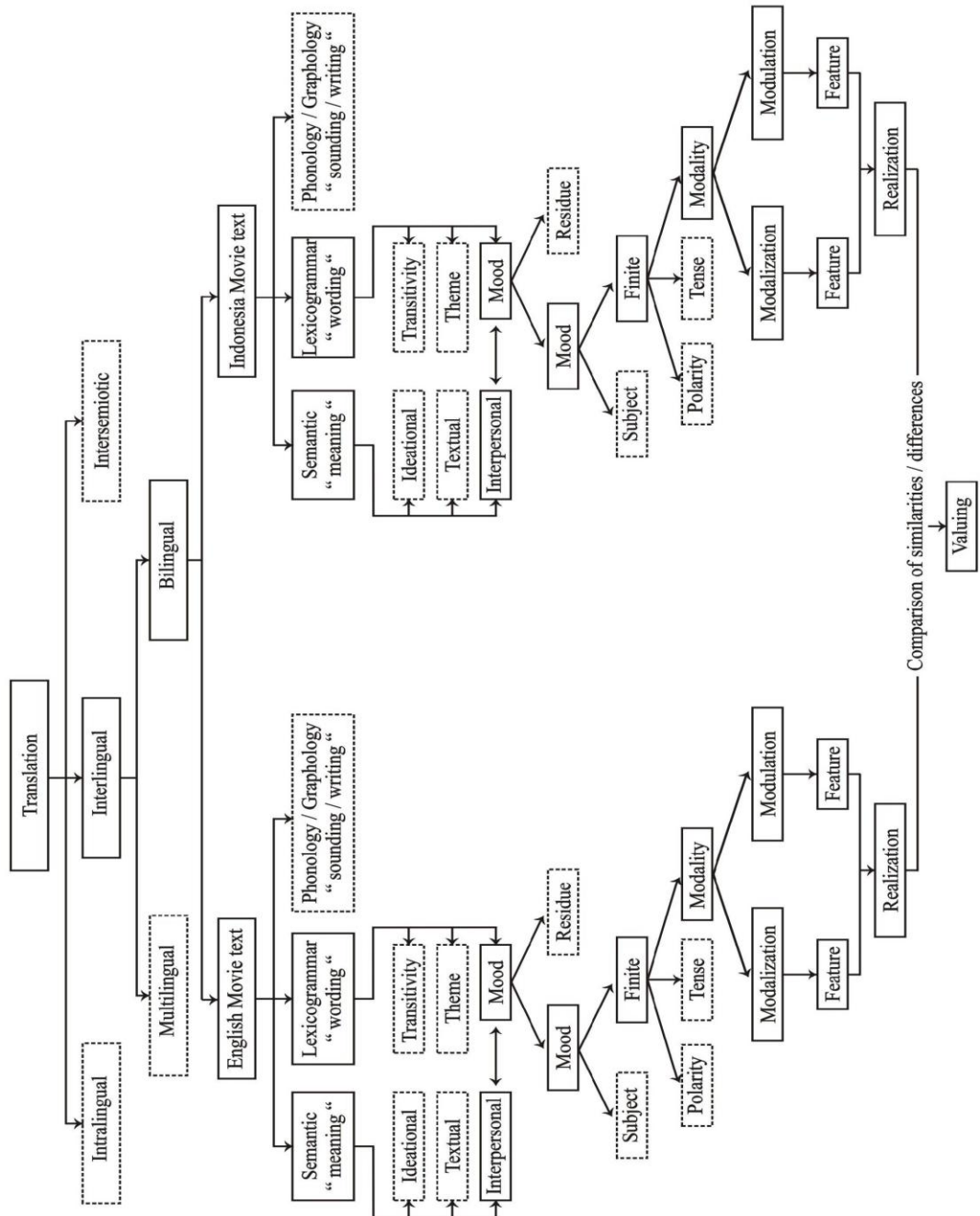


Figure 6: Analytical Construct of Modalization and Modulation Expressions