

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Literature Review

1. On Translation

a. Notions of Translation

There are definitions of translation conveyed by different experts in their field, depending on how their view about language and translation. According to Catford (1969: 20), translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). Another definition comes from Larson. He states that translation consists of transferring meaning of the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). This is done by transferring the form of the first language to the form of the second language by way of semantic structure. Newmark in Machali (1998: 1) sees translation as a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language. Therefore, finding TL translation equivalents is the central problem of translation practice.

Furthermore, McGuire (in Machali, 1998: 1) that translation is rendering of an SL into the TL so as to ensure that (1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and (2) the structure of SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted. In translation, it is only the form of a text that is being changed or replaced. The meaning remains constant. In doing

translation, the meaning must be given priority because the most important part of a message is the content of meaning. It is in line with the statement of Machali (1998: 2) who claims that what translators aim to hold constant in translation is meaning rather than form.

From the definitions of translation above, it implies that translation is a change of “form” and transfer of “meaning” of a source into receptor language. It involves two languages, i.e. the Source Language (SL) and Target Language (TL) and an act of reproducing the meaning, message, and statement of the SL text into that of the TL text. It can be concluded that translation is a process of transferring equivalent meaning from the source language to the target language by considering the style of the SL to TL.

b. Kinds of Translation

Jakobson (1959: 145) divides translation into three types, the types are explained below.

- 1) Intralingual translation: it constitutes the types of translation involving the same language from both the source and the target.
- 2) Interlingual translation: it is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other languages: it consists of the bilingual translation and multilingual translation. In short, there are more than one language involved.

a) Bilingual translation

It involves two languages because the word “bilingual” consists of the word “bi”, which means two and the word “lingual”, which means language. For example, an English text is translated into an English into Bahasa Indonesia.

b) Multilingual translation

It means translation which involves more than two languages, for example, the translation which involves three languages; the translation of an English text into Japanese text and then into Bahasa Indonesia text.

3) Intersemiotic translation. It is a sort of translation in which the source or target or both the source and the target are not expressed in the form of language, for instance pictures.

Catford (1978: 21) divides the three aspects of translation differently. Those are: extent, level, and ranks.

Based on the extent, the types of translation are:

- 1) Full translation, a type of translation in which the entire SL text is reproduced by the TL text materials.
- 2) Partial translation, in which there are only some parts of the SL text to be translated into the TL text.

In terms of level, the types of translation are:

- 1) Total translation, in which the TL material replaces all levels of the SL text.

- 2) Restricted translation, which is the replacement of SL textual material with equivalent TL material at only one level; whether at the phonological level, graphological level, or at the level of grammar and lexis.

In terms of rank, translation is divided into:

- 1) Rank-bound translation, which means that the selection of TL text equivalent is limited at only one rank, such as word-for-word equivalence, morpheme-for-morpheme equivalence, *etc.*
- 2) Unbounded translation, which can move freely up and down the rank-scale.

c. Process of Translation

There are some steps that should be followed by translator in order to translate well from the source language into the target language. The steps of translation are named process of translation. In the translation process, the stages that are involved are analyzing, transferring, and restructuring.

Nida and Taber (2003: 33) state three stages in translation process:

- 1) Analysis.

Analysis of the source language text is the first step for the translator in the process of translation. The translator should have the knowledge and master in linguistic and socio-cultural aspect of both languages. It is very crucial related to analyze the content of the whole text. The process analyzing in term of linguistic means that translator

should master in terms of structure, language style, semantic, idiom, etc, which is used in the source language text.

The second is socio-cultural aspect. It is crucial due to the fact that the translation process is not only translating the language but also transferring the culture of the source language text. Mastery in this term can help the translator to understand the message of the content and make translation work correctly.

2) Transfer.

In this step the translator begins to translate the source language text into the target language. The content of the message is transferred from language A (source language text) into language B (target language text). The translator must create the right equivalent for words, phrase, clauses, and sentences of the source language into target language.

3) Restructuring.

In this step where the translator makes some correction and make complete translation that realize in final message and fully acceptable in the target language. This step is done in order to make the translation easily to be read and accepted by the target language readers. The process of translation is presented in figure 1.

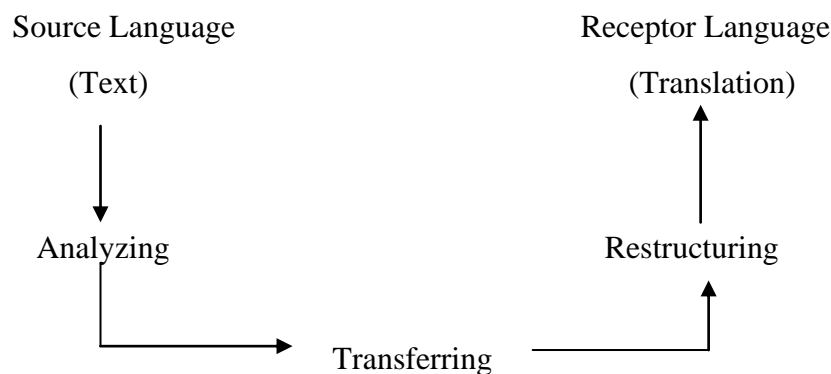


Figure 1. **Translation Process.** (Nida and Taber, 1982: 33)

Furthermore, Nida and Taber (1982: 34) states three major steps in analysis:

- 1). Determining the meaningful relationships between the words and combinations of words.
- 2). The referential meaning of the words and special combinations of words (the idioms).
- 3). The connotative meaning, i.e., how the users of the language react, whether positively or negatively, to the words and combinations of them.

d. Translation Semiotics Communication (TSC)

According to Tou (2008) translatics is designed and developed as an alternative to the traditional transfer/equivalence-based frameworks. Translatics is a transdisciplinary framework for the study of translation phenomena on which a model of translation analysis is based, as a reference that offers a declarative knowledge of translation in a new and wider horizon (Tou, 2008). Translatics is inspired by Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), in which the perspective adopted is not one of

disciplinary, interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary nature but a transdisciplinary nature.

In Translatics translation, phenomena are fundamentally viewed and interpreted as TSC phenomena, and TSC phenomena are viewed and interpreted as metasemiotic phenomena. TSC is not a pre-existing entity, an organism, a physical object, a self-contained property, or something waiting around to be made. TSC occurs because of what it has to do; it happens because of the functions it has to serve in human/human-involved society; and it means what it does by virtue of connotative (contextual) and denotative (textual) semiotic systems and representations (CDS systems and representations) that realize and instantiate it systemically and functionally (Tou, 2008). Thus, the content of TSC is created by the activity of TSC itself.

In TSC, semiotic has height in terms of meaning and consequently also in terms of the system that makes and realized meaning and within which meaning also resides. It is used to measure and cater for the height of meaning and its location in the system. TSC as a process derives its resource for meaning-making. Semiotic Knowledge Resource (SKR) is defined as material or nonmaterial reality that turns into information, including one's experience of the real world which is construed into meaning. That information is construed into meaning in CDS system. TSC as a system finds its expression and realizes into CDS. TSC views a translation as a text. TSC is a metasemiotic. It does not exist but occurs.

The occurrence is realized by and in CDS systems and representation. At connotative denotative semiotic level, TSC system as a metasemiotic system finds its expression. The expression consists of a content and expression. Denotative, in contrast, is a simple semiotic whose expression plane cannot be analyzed as content-expression constellation. Denotative semiotic comprises semantic that deals with meaning, lexicogrammar that deals with wording and phonology/graphology that deals with sounding/writing.

In TSC, contextual or connotative semiotics consists of four kinds: *Dien*, ideology, culture, and situation. The connotative semiotic is regarded as the extrinsic or context of TSC itself.

1) Cultural Context

Context of culture is very significant because it is not only the important immediate sights but also the whole cultural history behind the text and determining the significance for the culture. It can be seen by, for example, the differences in conversation between parent and son conducted by Javanese and Americans. They will be different in the case of politeness and addressing system.

2) Ideological Context

The ideology of translation may be traced in both process and product of translation which are, however, closely interdependent. The ideology of a translation will be a combination of the content of the source text and the various speech acts represented in the source text relevant to

the source context, layered together with the representation of the content, its relevance to the receptor audience, and the various speech acts of the translation itself addressing the target context, as well as resonance and discrepancies between these two 'utterances'. Ideology is sometimes defined in its negative political sense as 'a system of wrong, false, distorted or otherwise misguided beliefs in text. The example of ideology is the issue of gender. Javanese people tend to think that man has higher status than woman. It will be different in America that man and woman in equal status.

3) Situational Context

Context of situation possesses a dynamic potential for change and development overtime as a result of what is going on. Context of situation explore meaning by this environment of the text. Halliday and Hasan (1989: 24-28) give three features of context of situation called *field*, *tenor*, and *mode* as follows:

- a) The field of discourse, refers to what is happening, to the nature of the participants engaged in, in which the language figures are essential component.
- b) The tenor of discourse: refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, including permanent and temporary relationship of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved.

- c) The mode of discourse: refers to what part of the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation.

According to Halliday (Halliday and Hasan, 1985), there are certain principles that can be used to describe the context of a situation of a text. Those are to study text from the text itself and the context that encourage the creation of the text. In brief, the components to be elaborated on in the attempt to fully understand a text in the process of translation are:

- a. *Text*, as a metafunctional construct: a complex of ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings.
- b. *Context of situation*: the configuration of field, tenor, and mode features that specify the register of the text.
- c. *Context of culture*: the institutional and ideological backgrounds that give value to the text and constrain its interpretation.
- d. *Intertextual context*: relations with other text, and assumptions that are carried therefore.
- e. *Intratextual context*: coherence within the text, including the linguistic cohesion that embodies the internal semantic relationships.

4) *Dienic Context*

This context related to belief or religion context of the text. Context of God will be different from one language to another, which has

different beliefs.

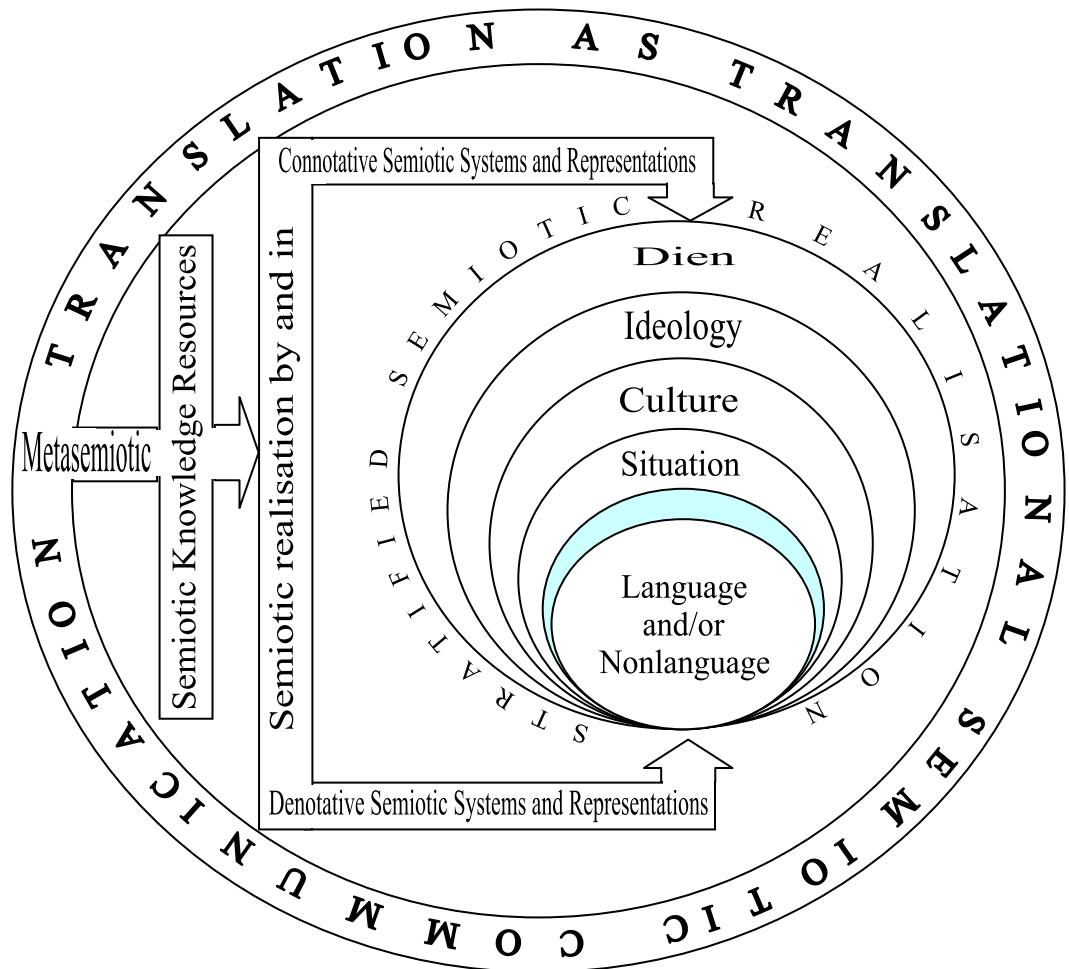


Figure 2. **Translatic-based TSC Model: Translation as TSC as metasemiotic with its stratified CDS realisation systems and representations (Tou, 2008: 23)**

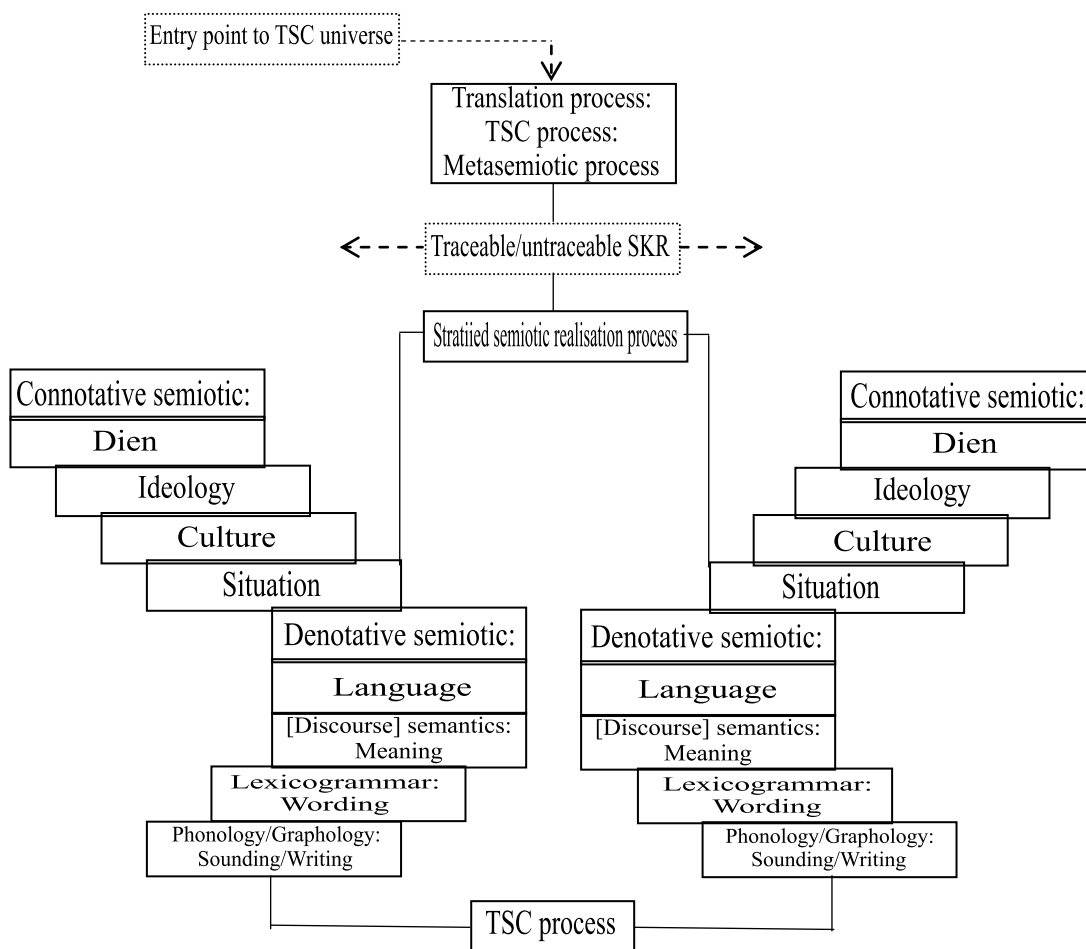


Figure 3. **Translatics interpretation of translation process: Stratified semiotic realisation process of translation as TSC as metasemiotic: Language as DS realisation of TSC (Tou, 2008: 29)**

2. Notions 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 communication as well as as using expressions through body language.

Egins (2004: 3) says that language is a semiotic system. Its function is to make meanings by involving sets of meaningful choices and

oppositions. In addition, she also says that the process of using a language is called a semiotic process; it is a process of making meanings by choosing.

According to Kridalaksana (1983: 5), in his book *Fungsi Bahasa dan Sikap Bahasa*, language is an arbitrary sound system that is used by members of social group in order to cooperate, communicate and identify each other. Language is also as a tool for communicating. People use language to communicate anything-locations, emotions, facts, procedures, possibilities, fantasies, lies, and many other things. It is a means of communication where messages are being exchanged by using the media of expression; graphologically and/or phonologically, or writing and sounding (Hofmann, 1993: 2-3).

Language cannot be separated with the culture of the societies. Without culture, there is no language existence and vice versa. The fundamental purpose of language has evolved to serve and to enable us to make meanings with each other. In other words, language functions as an interaction media for the societies.

3. Speech Function

Halliday defines the grammar interaction from semantic perspective. He points out that whenever we use language to interact, one thing we are doing with it is to determine a relationship between us: between the person speaking now and the person who will probably speak

next. To determine this relationship, we initiate and respond different speech roles in exchange.

Halliday (1994: 68) also points out that in interaction the speaker is not only doing something himself, but also requiring something of the listener. When people do the communication with other, the mood system follows the speech role in the communication. The most fundamental types of speech role are giving and demanding. It is an exchange, in which giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response. What are exchanged in the communication can be goods and service or 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. Therefore, the four basic move types of statement, question, offer and command refer to speech functions.

Table 1: **Speech function and Speech Role in Interaction (Halliday, 2004: 107)**

Role in exchange	Commodity Exchanged	
	(a) Good and Services	(b) Information
(i) Giving	‘Offer’ Would you like this t-shirt?	‘Statement’ She’s giving her the t-shirt
(ii) Demanding	‘Command’ Give me that t-shirt!	‘Question’ What is she giving her?

In addition, mood system consists of two elements; they are mood and residue. Mood consists of subject and finite, residue consists of predicator, complement and adjunct.

4. On Meaning

a. Notions of Meaning

Meaning is important thing in translation. It is said so because translation is an activity that aims in conveyingf meaning from one language to another. Eggins (2004: 8) proposes the fundamental purpose that language has evolved to serve is to enable people to make meaning with each other. In a systemic theory, grammar is seen as a resource for making meaning by means of wordings rather than systemic rules. A Text is the basic unit through which the meaning is negotiated. Halliday and Matthiessen (1994: 22-23) state that any grammatical choices can be presented as a system with two or more alternative terms specifying what alternatives are available in wording meanings.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) says that to find the meanings, one needs to see a language as *a system of making-meaning*. Further, they state that it can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding or strata. They are the *semantic level* (meaning), the *lexicogrammatical level* (forms), and the *phonological and orthographical level* (expressions). In other words, meanings are coded into forms and forms are realized in turn as expressions.

b. Kinds of Meaning

According to Halliday and Hasan (1989: 46), there are three kinds of meaning called ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings which are also the three kinds of meanings embodied in human language as a whole forming the basis of the semantic organization of all natural languages. Below is the diagram of metafunction:

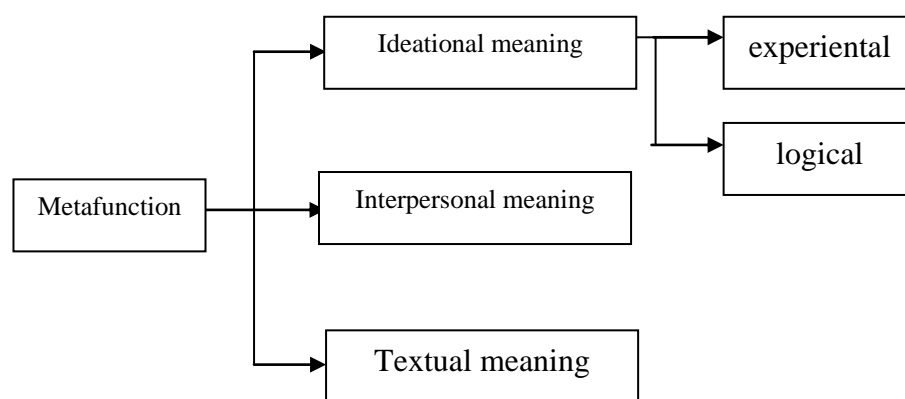


Figure 4. **Metafunction (Halliday and Hassan,1985)**

1) Ideational Meaning

The ideational meaning is the representation of experience that is our experience of the world that lies about us and also inside us. In other words, it is meaning in the sense of content. The ideational function of a clause is that of representing ‘processes’ of actions, events, processes of consciousness and relations.

The ideational meaning is divided into logical meaning and experiential meaning. The former is realized through the interdependency system, while the latter is realized through the transitivity system.

2) Textual meaning

The textual meaning is relevance to the context: both the text and context of situation. The textual function of a clause is constructing a message and the major textual system is theme. In any language we always make textual meanings: meanings about the way our conversation is constructed and to relate the statements into the context.

3) Interpersonal Meaning

The interpersonal meaning is the meaning as a form of action where the speaker or writer does something to the listener or reader by means of language. The interpersonal meaning is considered from the point of view of its function in the process of social interaction. It is realized through the mood types. There is a strand of meaning running throughout the text which expresses the writer's role relationship with the reader, and the writer's attitude toward the subject matter.

The interpersonal function of a clause is exchanging roles in rhetorical interactions like statements, questions, offers and commands, together with accompanying modalities.

In interpersonal meaning, the clause enacts a proposition that is explicitly addressed to a particular person (Halliday, 2004). It allows us to encode meanings of attitudes, interactions and relationship, which realize tenor of discourse. The interpersonal meaning is organized the clause as the exchange that consists of two elements, mood and residue. The interpersonal meaning is an encoding of the interpersonal aspect of

communication, such as speaker-addressee relationship, their social status, age, as well as setting and purpose of communication.

a. Status deals with the position of interlocutors in a social culture. The basic opposition of status is concerned 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 field speaker/listeners 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 the degree of emotional change in the relationship between participants. Affect is not linguistically manifested and cannot be realized in other ways; where language is emotionally charged. The basic contrast is between positive and negative.

According to Tou (in Sinar, 2007: 97) meaning is divided in three terms i.e. breadth, height, and depth.

1) Meaning Breadth

Meaning has breadth, which means that meaning ranges from the narrowest to the widest. This is made possible through the concept of semantic diversitification.

2) Meaning Height

Meaning has height, which means that meaning ranges from the lowest to the highest. This is made possible through the concept of semiotic stratification.

3) Meaning Depth

Meaning has depth, which means that meaning ranges from the shallowest to the deepest. This is made possible the concept of semiotic delicacy.

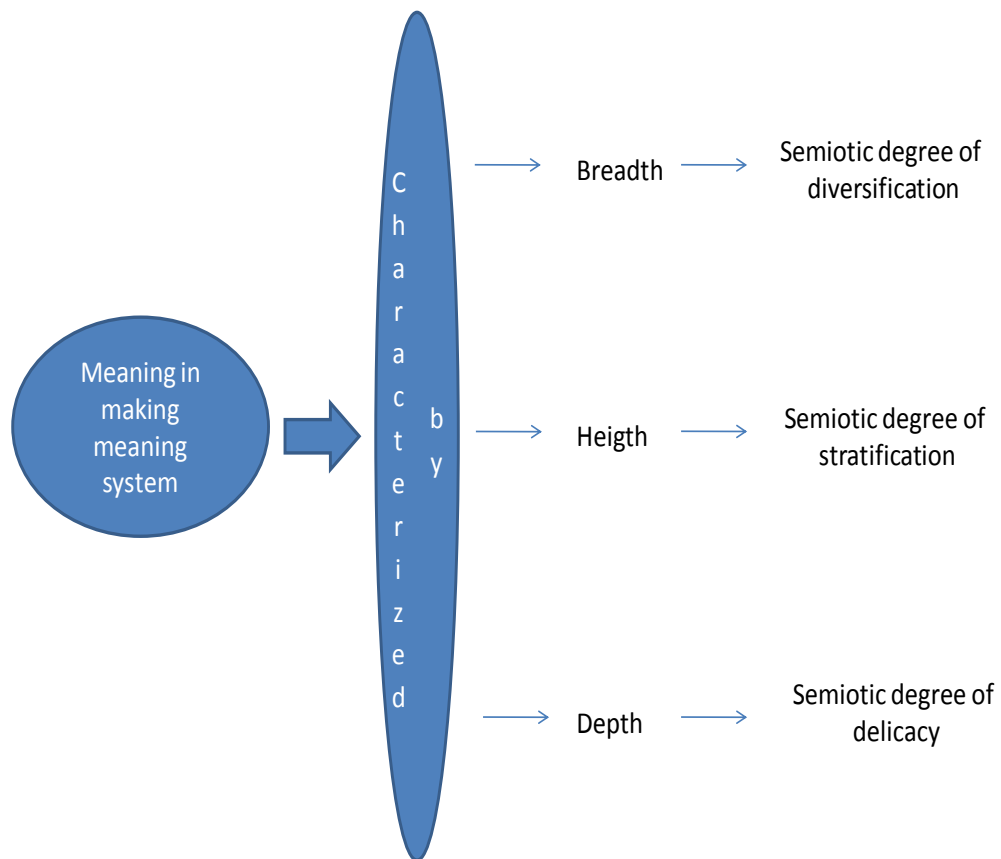


Figure 5: Meaning in Making Meaning System by Tou (in Sinar, 2007)

5. On Mood

In the mood, a clause consists of Mood structure consisting Subject and Finite, and Residue structure consisting Predicator, Complement and Adjunct. The structure of Mood is presented in the figure 5.

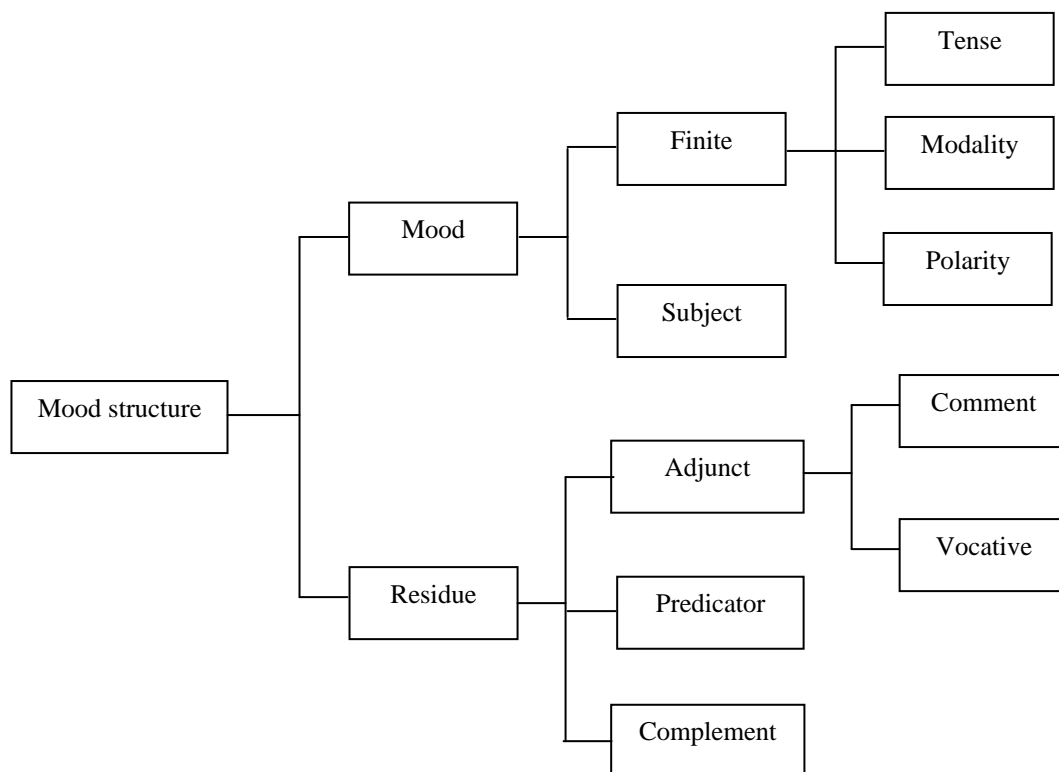


Figure 6. Mood Structure (Martin, 1992: 41)

a. The Structure of Mood

In the structure of Mood of the clause, there are two essential functional elements named Subject and Finite.

1) Subject

Subject is nominal group. It may be a single word, a lengthy noun phrase, or even a clause. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:

117), subject realizes the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed and denied. The identification of the Subject can be achieved by tag test. The element that gets picked up by the pronoun in the tag is the subject (Eggins, 2004: 151). Here is the example:

Below is the example of a single word as a subject in the a tag test.

<i>Rowand</i>	<i>ride</i>	<i>A bicyle</i>	<i>(does he?)</i>
Subject	Finite/Predicator	Complement	Subject

Below is the example of a noun phrase as a subject in a tag test.

<i>"The artists"</i>	<i>were all from Japans</i>	<i>(weren't they?)</i>
Subject		subject

Below is the example of a clause as a subject in a tag test.

<i>All the things he did</i>	<i>ruin all of our schedule</i>	<i>(aren't they?)</i>
Subject		subject

2) Finite

The second essential constituent of the Mood of element is Finite. Finite is verbal group, can be tense e.g. *is, am, are, have, has* and modal e.g. *can, must, will*. Finite is one of small number of verbal operators expressing tense, modality or polarity. It has function of making proposition finite in which something can be argued. According to Eggins

(2004: 152), the identification of finite again involves the tag test; the verbal part of the tag tells you which element the Finite is.

The Finite function's is to anchor the proposition. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 116) in Eggins (2004:153) refer to as Finite Verbal Operators, of which he identifies into two kinds:

a) Temporal Finite Verbal: these words anchor the proposition by reference to time. They give tense to the Finite; either past (I rode a bicycle), present (I ride a bicycle), or future (I will ride the bicycle tomorrow).

b) Finite Modal Operators: these words anchor the proposition not by reference to time but by reference to modality. It refers to the speaker's judgment of the probabilities, or the obligation, which is involved in what he is saying.

b. The Structure of Residue

Residue structure of the clause is part of the clause which is somehow less essential to the arguability of the clause than is the Mood structure (Eggins, 2004: 155). Residue can be ellipses in the responding moves in dialogue. The Residue consists of three kinds of functional elements: Predicator, Complement and Adjunct.

1) Predicator

Predicator is present in all major clauses, except those where it is displaced through ellipsis. It is realized by a verbal group minus the

temporal or modal operator, which as we have seen functions as finite in the Mood element. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 121).

In other words, Eggins (2004: 155) state that the definition of the predicator is that it fills the role of specifying the actual event, action or process being discussed. Predicator is identified as being all the verbal elements of the clause after the single Finite element. For example:

Andrea	is	riding	the bicycle.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

2) Complement

Complement is an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but it is not. It is an element that has the potential for being given the interpersonally elevated status of modal responsibility – something that can be nub of the argument. It is typically realized by a nominal group (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 122).

In other words, a Complement is defined as a non-essential participant in the clause, a participant somehow affected by the main argument of the proposition (Eggins, 2004: 157). It is identified as an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not. A Complement can get to be Subject through the process of making the clause passive. Bellow is the example:

Andrea	rode		the bicycle.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

3) Adjunct

Adjunct is an element that has not got the potential of being Subject; that is, it cannot be elevated to the interpersonal status of modal responsibility (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 123). It means that it cannot be constructed around elements that serve Adjunct. Adjunct can be identified as clause elements which contribute some additional (but non-essential) information to the clause. They can be identified as element which does not have the potential to become Subject – i.e. they are not nominal element, but are adverbial or prepositional (Eggins, 2004: 158). Here is the example:

I	learnt		the Russian language	from this girl.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

There are four main types of Adjunct (Eggins, 2004: 160): Mood Adjunct, Polarity Adjunct, Comment Adjunct, and Vocative Adjunct.

a) Mood Adjunct

Mood Adjunct expressing probability meanings are closely related to the Modal Operator. It is related to the arguable nub of the Mood constituent. The category of items that classified as Mood Adjunct are *Maybe*, *Possibly*, *Perhaps*, and *Presumably*.

-Maybe
Adjunct: modal
MOOD

b) Polarity Adjunct

Yes and *No*, and their common conversational alternatives (*yea*, *yep*, *na*, *nope*, *etc.*) may function in two different ways: as Polarity Adjunct and as Textual Adjunct.

-No
Adjunct: polarity
MOOD

c) Comment Adjunct

Comment Adjunct function to express an assessment about the clause as a whole. It is typically occur in clause initial position, or directly after the Subject, and are realized by adverbs.

Unfortunately	I	've	never	read	<i>Oliver Twist</i>
Adjunct: comment	Subject	Finite	Adjunct: mood	Predicator	Complement
	MOOD			RESIDUE	

d) Vocative Adjunct

Vocative Adjuncts function to control the discourse by designating a likely “next speaker”. They are identifiable as names, where the names

are not functioning as Subject or Complement, but are used to directly address the person named. It is not impact directly on the MOOD constituent of the clause, but after the clause as a whole. They are typically occur either initially or finally although they may occur at a variety of different constituent boundaries in the clause. Here is the example:

Everone	knows		that,	Simon,
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct: vocative
MOOD		RESIDUE		

According to Halliday (1994: 70-71), the mood structure is concerned with how clauses are structured to enable us to exchange information. According to Halliday (1994: 68), the most fundamental types of speech roles in the mood are two: (i) giving which means “inviting to receive” and (ii) demanding means “inviting to give”. When language is used to exchange information, the clause takes on the form of ‘Proposition’ when it is used for exchanging goods and services.

Eggs (1994: 83-84) states that there are three main elements in the mood type. There are the mood type of clause structure, modality and attitude. The mood type includes the patterns of mood structures e.g. declaratives, interrogatives, exclamatives or imperatives. The modality consists of modalization and modulation. Attitudes include expressions of

positive and negative attitude. These mood choices made constantly throughout the text together express the text's interpersonal meaning.

The grammatical category characteristically used to exchange information is the indicative; within the category of indicative, the characteristic expression of a statement is the declarative, that of a question is the interrogative; and within the category of interrogative, there is a further distinction between yes/no interrogative, for polar question, and WH-interrogative, for content questions; the characteristic expression of emotion, disgust is exclamative. The last category is imperative used for exchanging goods-&-services especially to express commands or requests.

Mood structure includes pattern of mood clause structure, modality and polarity. In the novel, the role of mood clause structure influences the messages of the text. The general principals of mood clause types are:

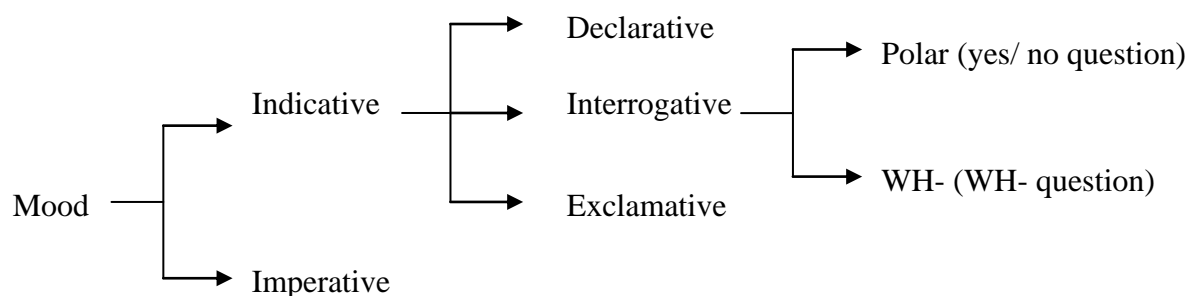


Figure 7. **Mood types (Eggins, 2004: 199)**

1) **Indicative**

Indicative is a grammatical category characteristically used to exchange information. Indicative have three categories. They are the characteristic expression of a statement is the declarative, a question is the

interrogative and exclamative is expression of emotion. The presence of Mood element, consisting of Subject plus finite, realizes the feature ‘indicative’ (Halliday,1994:74).

a) Declarative

The subject which precedes the Finite is the typical structure of the declarative. The structure of declarative is shown in the table:

Oliver	is	reading	<i>Twilight</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

There is one sub-category of the declarative clause which has a special thematic structure, namely exclamative. It is used in interaction to express emotions such as surprise, disgust, and worry. Eggins & Slade (1997) state “An exclamative structures is not merely a word or clause produced with an empathic or surprised intonation”.

Eggins (1994: 177) says that exclamative structures, which are used in interactions to express emotions such as surprise, disgust and worry, are blend of interrogative and declarative patterns. The structure of exclamative is presented below:

How neatly	He	spread	His claws
Adjunct/Wh-	Subject	Finite/Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

b) Interrogative

The typical function of an interrogative clause is asking a question; and from the speaker's point of view asking a question is an indication that he wants to be told something. In asking question English offer two main structures: Polar Interrogative ('yes/no' question type) and WH-interrogative (question using what, who, where, when, why and how).

1) Polar interrogative ('yes/no' question type).

The basic meaning in yes/no interrogatives is telling someone about something. The structure of polar interrogative involves the positioning the Finite before the Subject. For example:

Auoda	is	reading	The Secret?
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

2) WH- interrogative (WH question type).

The function of content interrogative is to specify the entity that the questioner wishes to have supplied. The meaning is telling someone about person, things, etc. Eggins (1994: 175-177) explains that Wh- element is always conflated (mapped onto, fused with) another element of clause structure. It can be conflated with the subject, complement, or circumstantial adjunct, and is shown as a constituent of MOOD or RESIDUE, according to the status of the element with which it is conflated.

WH-element conflated with subject (part of MOOD) is presented below:

Who	wrote	“Frankenstein?”	
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

WH- element conflated with complement: (Part of residue)

What	does	“ <i>viva-la-vida</i> ”	mean?
Wh/Complement	Finite	Subject	Predicator
RESIDUE	MOOD		RESIDUE

WH-element conflated with circumstantial adjunct (Part of Residue).

When	did	Mary Shelley	write	“Frankenstein”?
Wh/Adjunct	Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement
RESIDUE	MOOD		RESIDUE	

c) Exclamative

Exclamative structure used in interaction to express emotion such as worry, surprise, disgust, etc, are a blend of interrogative and declarative patterns. The clauses of exclamative have the WH- element *what* or *how*, in nominal or adverbial group. For example:

What a disagreeable old man	I 've	become?
Complement/WH-	Subject Finite	Predicator
	MOOD	
	RESIDUE	

2) Imperative

Imperative is the mood for exchanging goods-&-services. Its Subject is 'you' or 'you and me'. The basic message of imperative is asking someone to do something. Imperative mood refers to the special forms used to express commands or requests. The simple form of the verb is used for requests, commands or instructions.

The imperative clause functions as a single congruent indication that the text is doing more than simply giving information, or, rather, that the information it gives has the potential to be packaged as a good and service (Egins, 1994:314). Egins states the types of imperative structures:

- a) An imperative consisting of a MOOD element of Finite + Subject.

Don't	you	borrow	my magazine?
Finite: neg	Subject	Predicator	Complement
MOOD		RESIDUE	

In this example, the negative verb *don't* functions as finite, it is positioned before subject. This type has complete mood elements consisting of subject and finite.

- b) An imperative consisting of a MOOD element of Finite only (no Subject).

Do	read	<i>Lolita</i>
Finite	Predicator	Complement
MOOD	RESIDUE	

This pattern does not have subject element, but the finite element that is verb *do*. The finite element is the initial position.

- c) An imperative consisting of a MOOD element of Subject only

Let's	read	<i>The Secret</i>
Subject	Predicator	Complement
MOOD	RESIDUE	

He	read	<i>The Secret</i>
Subject	Predicator	Complement
MOOD	RESIDUE	

This imperative structure commonly uses *let*, which functions to enable the expression of the subject. *Let* is treated as part of subject constituent.

- d) An imperative consists of only a RESIDUE (no MOOD element at all).

Read	<i>How to train the dragon</i>
Predicator	Complement
RESIDUE	

It is a minor clause because it can be and therefore it is considered to have ellipsis finite elements (Eggins, 1994:185).

5. Frankenstein

Frankenstein is a gothic novel authored by a British novelist and short story writer Mary Shelley. She started writing *Frankenstein* when she was 18 and finished it a year later. The novel was published in 1818. *Frankenstein* is infused with some elements of Gothic novel, Romantic Movement, and warning against the “over-reaching” of modern man. Like much Gothic fiction of the period, the novel mixes a visceral and alienating subject matter with speculative and thought-provoking theme. As other literary works, novels, especially this novel, usually use complex language to express the content of them. The novel which tells about the story deals with an ambitious young scientist. He creates life but then rejects his creation, a monster. It consists of the chronological activities,

moment and feelings of the characters in it. It also consists of the character's statements, questions of many things. Because it is a great literature, this novel is translated into many languages, including Bahasa Indonesia. The translation process may cause impacts to the content of source book.

B. Conceptual Framework and Analytical Construct

1. Conceptual Framework

This research is focused on TSC as its framework because TSC is the representation of translation phenomena that correlate between text and context. The semiotic realization of TSC consists of two kinds, they are denotative semiotic and connotative. The denotative semiotic includes the semantic (meaning), lexicogrammar (wording), and phonology or graphology (sounding and writing). While the connotative semiotic includes *dien*, ideology, culture, and situation. In this research denotative semiotic which consists of lingual TSC/non-lingual TSC, lingual TSC, and non lingual TSC. Lingual TSC is Lingually which realised TSC system and representation (text). This research uses lingual TSC that is focused on bilingual TSC act (English text-Indonesian text). This research observes bilingual TSC, which is an English-Bahasa Indonesia text as denotative semiotic realization. It uses interpersonal meaning analysis through mood type to find the degree of interpersonal meaning breadth variation, its semiotic motivating factors and its semiotic effects of the original text

Frankenstein by Mary Shelley and the target text Frankenstein by Anton Adiwiyoto.

According to Halliday's theory, meaning is divided into three kinds, they are named ideational meaning, textual meaning, and interpersonal meaning which are called as metafunction. Meaning that refers to clause which exchanges roles in rhetorical interactions like statements, questions, offers, and commands, together with accompanying modalities is interpersonal meaning. The interpersonal meaning represents mood-residue system. The meaning breadth variations of interpersonal meaning that are measured in this research is used to get the degree of interpersonal meaning breadth in the text.

2. Analytical Construct

The analytical construct of this research can be illustrated as in the diagram below:

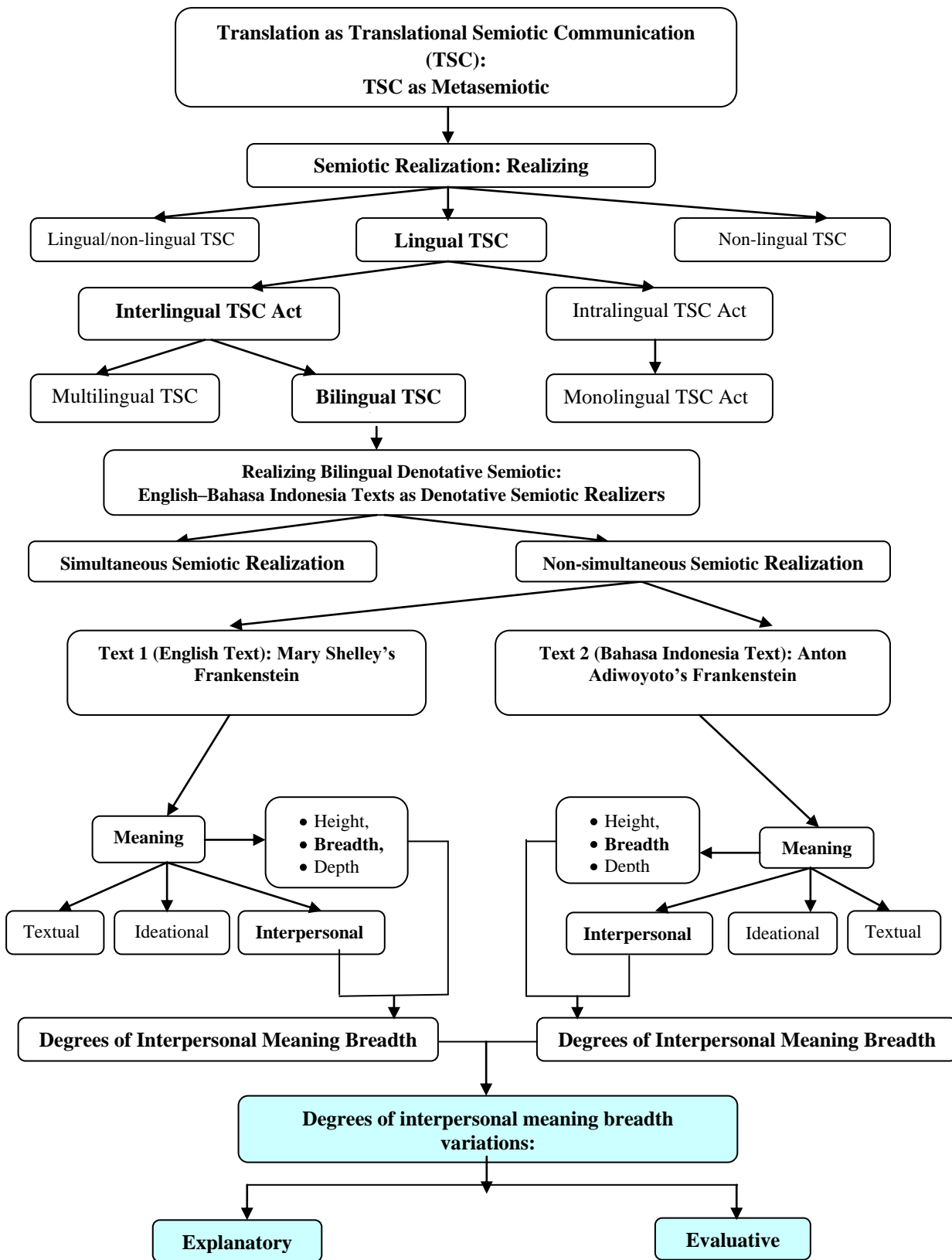


Figure 8. Analytical Construct