

A Study of Translation of Relative Clauses from English into
Thai and from Thai into English



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การศึกษาการแปลคุณาประโยชน์จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทยและจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ



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ณัฐรัฐ ลีนะกิตติ : การศึกษาการแปลคณานุประโยคจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทยและจาก
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งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษากลวิธีการแปลคณานุประโยคภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้คำเชื่อม ‘who’ ‘which’ และ ‘that’ เป็นภาษาไทย และคณานุ
ประโยคภาษาไทยที่ใช้คำเชื่อม ‘ที่’ และ ‘ซึ่ง’ เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ นอกจากนี้ยังศึกษาเรื่องผลของประเภทคณานุประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษ ได้แก่ คณานุ
ประโยคเจาะจงและคณานุประโยคไม่เจาะจง ที่มีต่อกลวิธีการแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย ข้อมูลในการศึกษาวิจัยประกอบด้วยคณานุประโยคจำนวน
714 คู่ประโยคซึ่งมีคณานุประโยคในตัวแทนต้นฉบับ สำหรับการแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทยประกอบด้วยคณานุประโยคจำนวน 348 คู่ประโยคจาก
นิยายภาษาอังกฤษสองเรื่องและบทแปลภาษาไทย ส่วนการแปลจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษนั้น ข้อมูลประกอบด้วยคณานุประโยคจำนวน 366 คู่ประโยค
จากนิยายภาษาไทยสองเรื่องและบทแปลภาษาอังกฤษ ข้อเสนอสมมติฐานที่ตั้งไว้มีว่ากลวิธีการแปลแบ่งออกได้เป็นสองกลุ่มคือ การแปลตรงตัวโดยใช้คำเชื่อม
และการปรับบทแปล อีกทั้งประเภทของคณานุประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษมีผลกับกลวิธีการแปลในคู่ภาษาจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย สำหรับการ
วิเคราะห์กลวิธีการแปล ผู้วิจัยได้สร้างกรอบแนวทางการวิเคราะห์การแปลคณานุประโยค โดยอ้างอิงจากกลวิธีการแปลของ Chesterman (1997)
เป็นหลัก เสริมด้วยกลวิธีการปรับบทแปลของ Nida (1964) และ Saibua (2007) ด้านการศึกษาผลจากประเภทของคณานุประโยคใน
ภาษาอังกฤษทำโดยการทดสอบไคสแควร์ ผลของงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ขึ้นสมมติฐานเกี่ยวกับกลวิธีการแปลว่ามีสองกลวิธีหลัก ได้แก่ การแปลตรงตัวโดยใช้
คำเชื่อมและการปรับบทแปล อย่างไรก็ตามการปรับบทแปลแบ่งออกได้เป็นสามกลุ่มคือ การปรับตัวถูกอ้างถึง การปรับคณานุประโยค และการปรับ
ทั้งหมด ขึ้นอยู่กับระดับการปรับบทแปลในส่วนของคำนามหลักและคณานุประโยค สำหรับประเภทของคณานุประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษนั้น ผลการ
ทดสอบไคสแควร์ชิ้นนี้ขึ้นสมมติฐานและแสดงถึงความสัมพันธ์อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติระหว่างประเภทของคณานุประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษกับการใช้
คำเชื่อม ‘ที่’ และ ‘ซึ่ง’ ในบทแปลภาษาไทย การนำงานวิจัยนี้ไปประยุกต์ใช้แบ่งได้เป็นสองด้านคือด้าน ทฤษฎีและการแปลกับด้านการ
สอน ผลการวิจัยสะท้อนให้เห็นว่ามีกลวิธีการแปลหลากหลายกลวิธีระหว่างการแปลตรงตัวกับการแปลเอาความ นอกจากนี้ ผลของงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้
แนวโน้มการใช้คำเชื่อม ‘ที่’ กับ ‘ซึ่ง’ ในการแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทยเมื่ออิงจากประเภทของคณานุประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษ งานวิจัยนี้ยังมี
ส่วนสนับสนุนการเรียนการสอนแปล กล่าวคือ กรอบแนวทางการวิเคราะห์ที่นำเสนอในงานวิจัยและกลวิธีการแปลที่พบนั้นใช้เป็นแนวทางในการแปล
คณานุประโยคระหว่างภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทยได้



สาขาวิชา	ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ	ลายมือชื่อนิติ
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KEYWORD: relative clause, relativizer, translation strategy, literal translation, translation adjustment

Nattharath Leenakitti : A Study of Translation of Relative Clauses from English into Thai and from Thai into English. Advisor: Assoc. Prof. Nattama Pongpairoj, Ph.D.

This study examined translation strategies which were used in translating English relative clauses (ERCs) with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai and Thai relative clauses (TRCs) with the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sũŋ/’ into English. In addition, the types of relative clauses, namely restrictive and non-restrictive, in English were investigated for their effects on the translation strategies in the English-Thai translation. The data comprised 714 sentence pairs whose source texts contained relative clauses. English-Thai translation consisted of 348 sentence pairs from two English novels and their Thai translations. With regard to Thai-English translation, the data covered 366 sentence pairs from two Thai novels and the English translations. The hypotheses stated that the translation strategies would be in two groups: literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment, and relative clause types in English affected translation strategies in the English-Thai language direction. In order to analyze the translation strategies, frameworks for the analysis of the translation of relative clauses were constructed based mainly on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, complemented by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment techniques. In relation to the investigation of the effects of the relative clause types in English, a chi-square test was performed. The findings of this study confirmed the hypothesis with respect to the translation strategies in that the two main translation strategies were the literal translation with a relativizer and the translation adjustment. Nonetheless, the translation adjustment could be further divided into three groups: Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment, depending on the degrees of adjustment on the head nouns and the relative clauses. Regarding the types of relative clauses in English, the results of the chi-square test confirmed the hypothesis and demonstrated a statistically significant association between the relative clause types in English and the use of the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sũŋ/’ in the Thai translations. The implications of this study were twofold, namely the theoretical and translation aspect and the pedagogical aspect. The findings mirrored the fact that there were various translation strategies along the translation continuum between literal translation and free translation. In addition, the findings confirmed the usage trend of the Thai relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sũŋ/’ in English-Thai translation concerning the English relative clause types. This study also contributed to translation teaching and learning in that the proposed analysis frameworks and the translation strategies found could be used as guidelines on relative clause translation between English and Thai.

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Abbreviations

ADV	adverb
ASP	aspect auxiliary
CAUS	causative
CLF	classifier
CM	challengeable marker
COMP	complementizer
COP	copula
ERC	English relative clause
LINK	linker
LP	linking particle
NEG	negative marker
NP	noun phrase
NRRC	non-restrictive relative clause
PASS	passive
PFX	prefix
POT	potential
PP	pragmatic particle
QP	question particle
REL	relativizer
RC	relative clause
REC	reciprocal

RRC	restrictive relative clause
SL	source language
SLP	speech level particle
ST	source text
TRC	Thai relative clause
TL	target language
TT	target text



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study (1.1), followed by the research questions (1.2), the objectives of the study (1.3), and the statements of hypotheses (1.4). Then, the scope of the study (1.5) is stated, together with the definition of terms (1.6), and the significance of the study (1.7). The last section presents the summary of the chapter (1.8).

1.1 Background of the study

In everyday language usage, people convey messages sometimes in a simple way and sometimes with details. When modification or elaboration is required, that is when the language constructions such as relative clauses (RCs) come into play. RCs can be used to modify the content, provide specific references to the elements of the sentence or give additional information. Examples of a typical RC structure in English and Thai are provided as follows.

- (1) a. *I used to live in one of **those houses** that have now been demolished.* (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 298)

b. หนังสือ **ที่คนซื้อमतอนนี้** คือ หนังสือคุณทองดี

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 29)

Example 1a shows an English sentence which contains an English RC (ERC), and Example 1b illustrates a Thai sentence with a Thai RC (TRC). That is, the ERC ‘that have now been demolished’ provides information about the head noun phrase ‘those houses’ in the main clause. In other words, Example 1a may come from two sentences: “I used to live in one of those houses. They have now been demolished.” (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 298). When the two sentences are conflated, the relative pronoun ‘that’ becomes the subject of the ERC, and the head noun or the pronoun

referring to the head noun is not repeated in the RC. Likewise, the head noun ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsǔ/ (‘book’) in Example 1b is modified by the TRC ‘ที่คนซื้อจำนวนมากตอนนี้’ /tʰi: kʰon sú: mâ:k tɔ:n ní:/ (‘which people are buying in large numbers’), which means the book is a bestseller at the moment. This suggests two sentences which are ‘หนังสือคือหนังสือคุณทองดี’ /nǎŋsǔ: kʰu: nǎŋsǔ: kʰun tʰɔ:ŋ di:/ (‘the book is the book by Ms Thongdi’) and ‘คนซื้อหนังสือจำนวนมากตอนนี้’ /kʰon sú: nǎŋsǔ: ma:k tɔ:n ní:/ (‘people are buying the book in large numbers’). Thus, the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ reflects that the missing element in the RC is the noun ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsǔ/ (‘book’) which is the object of the verb ‘ซื้อ’ /sú:/ (‘buy’).

It may be posited that the RC construction is universal as it is shared by multiple languages of the world. This may be testified through the following research studies. Keenan and Comrie (1977, 1979) conducted research on relative clause formation in approximately 50 languages. Yaowapat and Prasithratsint (2008) carried out the study on a typology of RCs in four languages in mainland Southeast Asia, which comprised Thai, Lao, Vietnamese, and Cambodian; these languages were not included in Keenan and Comrie’s (1977, 1979) work. Despite being a common structure, syntactic differences among languages give rise to various relativization strategies such as the gap strategy¹ – which is the structure of an RC with a missing argument in the subordinate clause – and the relative pronoun strategy² – the structure of an RC which has the initial pronominal element being case-marked to specify the role of the relativized noun phrase within the RC (Givón, 1975 cited in Maxwell, 1979, p. 355; Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008, pp. 6-7). In other words, there are various ways for languages to form RCs. As the structures are complicated and shared by many tongues, RCs have long been one of the popular areas of interest

¹ One example of the gap strategy is the RC in Example 1b. The missing noun ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsǔ/ (‘book’) in the TRC is the object of the verb ‘ซื้อ’ /sú:/ (‘buy’) (Kullavanijaya, 2010, pp. 29-30).

² An example of the RC which employed the relative pronoun strategy is the RC “whom you know” in the clause “The man whom you know came here yesterday.” (Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008, p. 7). The relative pronoun ‘whom’ in the initial position of the RC specifies that the relativized noun in the RC is the object of the verb ‘know’ (Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008, p. 7).

to conduct research with regard to linguistics and language acquisition within a language and across languages.

Regarding English and Thai, the structure of RCs is also one of the focal syntactic structures. It can be seen in most grammar books and in common usage. For example, based on *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999, p. 606), which comprehensively elaborates the English grammar from the over-40-million-word corpus of actual language usage from four main registers (conversation, fiction, news, and academic prose), it is found that, although prepositional phrases secure the most common type of postmodification, among other types of non-prepositional postmodifiers, RCs are proportionally the most frequently used structure in all four registers.

Between English and Thai, the RC structure also receives ample attention in language studies, especially because English relative clauses (ERCs) and Thai relative clauses (TRCs) share many RC characteristics and some relativization strategies. In English, an RC normally begins with a relativizer, for example, a relative pronoun (such as the relative pronoun ‘that’ in Example 1a), a relative adverb, or a nominal pronoun. In some situations, some of these connectors can be omitted (Ballard, 2007; Foley & Hall, 2004; LeTourneau, 2001, p. 338 cited in Pingkarawat, 2009; Yule, 2006). This leads to the structure of ‘bare RCs’ with a zero relative pronoun. RCs are often reformulated using the present participle or the past participle, resulting in a structure called ‘reduced RCs.’ As for Thai, TRCs are similar to ERCs in that the RC is located after the head noun, and for the typical structure, the relativizer is placed before the RC (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243). As exemplified in Example 1b, the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ introduces the TRC which postmodifies the head noun. There are also other structures, even if not as many, which are parallel to ERCs such as bare RCs. Although the core concept between the two languages is somewhat identical, essentially, they can be complicated due to some unique language features. Language users and learners need to clearly comprehend the constructions in order to understand the content correctly.

With many aspects to explore, there have been many studies concerning ERCs and TRCs. Currently in the RC field, there are studies in relation to, for example,

contrastive or comparative analysis of Thai and English RCs (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Suktrakul, 1975), the analysis of TRCs or TRC elements (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2008; Sornhiran, 1978; Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008), and the acquisition or interlanguage of ERCs (e.g. Amornwongpeeti, 2013; Phoocharoensil, 2009). However, there is hardly any research on ERCs and TRCs regarding translation and translation strategies.

It is common that when at least two languages interact and translation is involved, one of many interesting points would be how the language is transferred. Challenges in deciding on the translation methods and strategies are unavoidable, and the RC construction is no exception. Interestingly, there is the syntactic structure shared by ERCs and TRCs. That is to say, the head noun is postmodified by an RC headed by a relativizer. This same construction differentiates itself from other constructions or other language elements which may cause translation problems such as idioms or participle clauses due to the fact that there may not be a translation equivalent in terms of phrase levels or syntactic levels between the source texts (STs) and the target texts (TTs). Nida (1964, p. 209) also states that “the most acute problem in clause correspondences occurs when a clause type that is important in the source language simply does not exist in the receptor language.” On the other way around, RCs are more similar to structures such as a passive construction. These two constructions have the equivalent structures in Thai; yet, the word-for-word translation may yield an unidiomatic expression. For example, the RC construction can be matched structurally between English and Thai as in the following examples.

(2) ST: Ancram nodded to **Jack Morton**, who set the machine running.

TT: แอนแควรม พักหน้า ให้ แจ็ก มอร์ตัน

?ɛ:nk^hrɛ:m p^haʔjâk nâ: hâj cék mɔ:tân

Ancram nod to Jack Morton

ที่ กำลัง ตั้ง เครื่องอัดเทป³

tʰi: kamlan tân krû:an ?àt tʰé:p

REL⁴ ADV set recorder

‘Ancram nodded to Jack Morton who was setting the recorder.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 301, 364)

(3) ST: สองเมือง กอดอก พลาจ ดู แสง เรื่อ⁵

sǎ:ŋ mu:an kò:t ?òk pla:ŋ du: sǎ:ŋ rû:a

Songmuang fold arms while look light dim

ที่ เริ่ม กระฉ่าง

tʰi: rǎ:m kra?cà:ŋ

REL start bright

‘Songmuang folded arms, looking at the dim light that began to brighten.’

TT: Songmuang stood with folded arms, looking at **the dim light that began to brighten.**

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 58, 60)

The examples above are English and Thai sentences containing an RC and their translations which reflect the same structure of the head noun followed by the relative words and the rest of the RC. Although the translation is not exactly word-for-word, the main structure is identical. However, there could be cases where the literal translation could yield unnatural translation as exemplified in the following English ST and the Thai translation.

³ In this study, the transcription and translation of the Thai texts retrieved from the novels, which were used as the data sources, were carried out and inserted by the researcher.

⁴ REL refers to ‘relativizer.’

⁵ In this study, the whole head noun phrases containing the head noun would be in bold type.

- (4) The dog that was old could still learn new tricks.

(Chantasingh, 1986, p. 57)

Chantasingh (1986, p. 57) mentions that, if the sentence is literally rendered, the Thai translation would be unnatural. That is, the literally translated sentence could be ‘หมาที่แก่สามารถเรียนกลใหม่ๆ ได้’ /mǎ: thî: kè: sǎ:mâ:t ri:an kon màj màj dâj/ (‘The dog that was old can learn new tricks’). Chantasingh (1986, p. 57) suggested the adjusted translation: ‘หมาแก่ตัวนั้นยังสามารถแสดงกลใหม่ๆ ได้’ /mǎ: kè: tu:a nán jaŋ sǎ:mâ:t saʔde:ŋ kon màj màj dâj/ (‘That old dog could still perform new tricks’). Thus, the challenges in rendering languages between English and Thai could be in the naturalness of the translation.

The relative words are also the major element of RCs. From English into Thai, there have already been translation problems with the word ‘/thî:/,’ which possesses multiple functions in the Thai language. The word ‘/thî:/’ can function as, for example, a simple noun, a compound, an ordinal numeral marker, a preposition, including a relativizer (Kullavanijaya, 2008, pp. 445-450). The word ‘/thî:/’ sometimes seems to be repetitive in translated texts causing unidiomatic expressions. As suggested in many English-Thai translation manuals, that the relative pronoun in an RC should be translated as a relativizer ‘/thî:/’ or ‘/sûm/’ in Thai, it is possible that this practice leads to many occurrences of the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ in Thai translated texts. Provided by Wiwatsorn (2005), one of many examples of Thai translated sentences with the repetitive use of the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ is as follows.

- (5) เธอกระโดดข้ามหินที่กองอยู่บนพื้น ซากกำแพงที่พังทลายและคานพาดานที่ควั่นยังก่อกองอยู่

(Wiwatsorn, 2005)

This sentence contains three occurrences of the relativizer ‘/thî:/,’ which signifies RCs. Example 5 illustrates the translation problem of a repetition of a word in the Thai translation, and this requires adjustment. Wiwatsorn (2005) also suggested ways to edit the sentences with multiple words of ‘/thî:/,’ for example, employing

other relativizers such as ‘/sûŋ/’ or ‘/ʔan/,’ omission, or adjustment of the sentence structure. Her alternative translation is presented below.

- (6) เรอกระโดดข้ามหินที่กองอยู่บนพื้น ซากกำแพงพังทลาย และคานเพดานซึ่งยังมีควันกรุ่น

(adapted from Wiwatsorn, 2005)

The adjusted translation contains only one relativizer ‘/thî:/’ which remains unchanged from the first translation. The second relativizer ‘/thî:/’ was omitted, and the last one was altered to the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/.’ The translation as in Example 5 shows the translation problem which could be caused by the RC structure. In addition, this also confirms the fact that the parallel RC structure between English and Thai does not always mean the literal translation would be the optimal translation strategy.

While ERCs with a relativizer might lead to translation problems from English into Thai, on the other hand, TRCs might also give rise to difficulties in translating into English as well. Wimonchalao (2000, p. 156) mentions the translation problem of the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ which could happen if the English text is translated by following the structure of the Thai language. The examples are as follows.

- (7) ชื่ออ่างศิลามาจากอ่างหินเก็บน้ำตามธรรมชาติ ซึ่ง มีอยู่สองแห่ง เพราะคำว่า “อ่างศิลา” แปลว่า “อ่างหิน”

- (8) *The name Ang Sila is derived from natural stone basins **which have in two places** because the word “Ang Sila” means “stone basin.”

- (9) a. The name Ang Sila is derived from natural stone basins **of which there are two**, because the word “Ang Sila” means “stone basin”.

b. The name Ang Sila is derived from natural stone basins **which exist in two places**, because the word “Ang Sila” means “stone basin”.

c. The name Ang Sila is derived from natural stone basins **which can be found in two places**, because the word “Ang Sila” means “stone basin”.

(adapted from Wimonchalao, 2000, pp. 158-159)

The ST in (7) contains the main head noun phrase ‘อ่างหิน’ /ʔà:ŋ hĩn/ (‘stone basins’) modified by the TRC ‘มีอยู่สองแห่ง’ /mi: jù: sǎ:ŋ hèn/ (‘there are two places’). To illustrate, the head noun and the RC are from the sentence ‘อ่างหินมีอยู่สองแห่ง’ /ʔà:ŋ hĩn mi: jù: sǎ:ŋ hèn/ (‘stone basins exist in two places’). Wimonchalao (2000, p. 159) explains that the sentence “อ่างหิน มี 2 ที่” /ʔà:ŋ hĩn mi: sǎ:ŋ thĩ:/ (‘stone basins exist in two places’), which, if strictly following the Thai language structure, can be translated into ‘*stone basins have in two places,’ can be used in the Thai language. On the other hand, the translation of ‘stone basins which have in two places’ is ungrammatical in English because the relativizer ‘which,’ coreferencing to the antecedent ‘stone basins,’ cannot perform the transitive verb ‘have’ without the object of the verb. Therefore, the English translation in (8) is ungrammatical, and the suggested translations are Examples 9a to 9c.

Thus, in order to reach the conclusions and better understand how meanings and forms of RCs are comprehended and transferred between the two languages, the study of the translation of RCs between English and Thai should be examined.

To the best of my knowledge, the study that has conducted on the translation of RCs between English and Thai is *The study of translation methods used with relative clauses containing “which” and “that” relative pronouns* by Leenakitti (2012). The research studied 630 sentence pairs from the English STs and the Thai translations. The sources were from two children’s books including 1) *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire* by J.K. Rowling, and 2) *Eragon* by Christopher Paolini. The findings showed that the translation methods used were literal translation with the relativizer ‘/thĩ:/’ (52.54%), translation adaptation (30.48%), and literal translation with the relativizer ‘/sũŋ/’ (16.98%). The study also incorporated the factors of the types of RCs and the context of other ‘/thĩ:/’ relativizers in the same sentence into consideration. However, other relativizers in English were not included in the study, nor the translation methods used for the Thai-English language direction.

Looking beyond the scope of English and Thai language pair, some research studies on RC translations are Anshori (2007); Dwijati, Pastika, and Puspani (2016);

Nau (2011). Table 1 summarizes the language pairs and translation strategies found in these studies.

Table 1. Previous studies and the translation strategies adopted in translation of RCs

Previous studies	Language pairs	Translation strategies
Anshori (2007)	English-Bahasa Indonesia (BI)	1) translated into BI relative pronoun 'yang' 2) translated into BI words other than 'yang' 3) not translated in BI
Dwijati et al. (2016)	Indonesian-English	1) modulation 2) adaptation 3) literal translation
Nau (2011)	Swedish-German, Polish, Latvian, English	1) finite RCs 2) other finite clauses 3) participle construction 4) other translation 5) no translation

Anshori (2007) studied the translation of English embedded clauses, or defining RCs, with the relative pronouns 'who,' 'that,' and 'which' into Bahasa Indonesia (BI) or the Indonesian language. The source of the data was a novel *Nothing Lasts Forever* by Sidney Sheldon and its Indonesian translation *Tiada Yang Abadi*. The sample comprised 91 relative pronouns. The results showed that the translation of English embedded clauses with relative pronouns could be classified into three groups: 1) translated into BI relative pronoun 'yang,' 2) translated into BI words other than 'yang,' and 3) not translated in BI (in other words, no equivalents). The most common translation with 89.01% occurrence was the translation into BI embedded clauses with relative pronoun 'yang.'

Dwijati et al. (2016) carried out a study with regard to the Indonesian-English language pair. The researchers analyzed the types of Indonesian noun phrases (NPs) with RCs and the translation procedures. The data of this study were from a short story *Mati Sunyi* which was written in Indonesian by Sawitri and published in 2015.

The selected Indonesian-English version was part of a trilingual edition of short stories, including Indonesian, English, and German. With respect to the analysis, the translation procedures were based on Vinay and Darbelnet (2000). The findings indicated that there were two main types of Indonesian NPs used in the story, i.e. 1) NPs with RCs that contain adjectives and relative pronoun ‘yang,’ and 2) NPs with RCs whose relative pronouns functioning as the subject or the object of the RC. The translation procedures found from the data were modulation, adaptation, and literal translation; the procedures also differed according to each type of the NPs.

Nau (2011) examined RCs in written narrative fiction with the focus on functions of RCs. The data of this study were from a chapter of the Swedish novel *Hundarna I Riga* by Henning Mankell. The chapter contained 5,114 words of approximately 17 pages in the paperback version. The corresponding translations were in four languages, namely German, Polish, Latvian, and English. Although the main objective of this research was the RC functions, the researcher also analyzed the translation equivalents of all the texts to support the study. The data show that there were 93 RCs in the Swedish ST; the translation equivalents varied in number for the four translations. The types of translation equivalents found from the data included finite RCs, other finite clauses, participle construction, other translation, and no translation.

The aforementioned studies mirror the RCs of the selected languages and how translation transfers and reflects the RC structures in each language.

With the lack of research on the translation of RCs between English and Thai, the present study aimed to fulfil the gap. It focused on the RC structure in both languages with an overt relativizer as it is the most distinct form of RCs. The data of the study were ERCs with a relative pronoun – ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that,’ and for TRCs it aimed at RCs with a relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ or ‘/s^uŋ/.’ The data were collected from Thai and English novels and their translations in the form of the parallel corpora; therefore, the contexts were provided and the languages could reflect the actual usage and the translation works.

1.2 Research questions

1. What are the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai?
2. What are the translation strategies used in translating the TRCs with the relativizers ‘/t^hi:/’ and ‘/s^un/’ into English?
3. Are the translation strategies used in translating RCs in this study the same or different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai?
4. Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies?

1.3 Objectives of the study

1. To compare and contrast the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai, and in translating the TRCs with the relativizers ‘/t^hi:/’ and ‘/s^un/’ into English;
2. To investigate if the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies.

1.4 Statements of hypotheses

1. The translation strategies used in translating the ERCs into Thai and the TRCs into English are the literal translation with a relativizer and the translation adjustment.
2. The translation strategies used in translating RCs in this study are the same and different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai.
3. The RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies.

1.5 Scope of the study

The scope of the study describes four aspects which are 1) the language pair and the language directions, 2) the data, 3) the RC types that might affect the translation strategies, and 4) the source of the data for the analysis.

1.5.1 The language pair and the language directions

This study examined English and Thai RCs in English-Thai and Thai-English translation. The reasons to include both language directions are threefold. Firstly, regarding the RC translation, each language direction has its own challenges in translation and characteristics due to the nature of the source language (SL) and the target language (TL). Secondly, including English-Thai and Thai-English translation provides the findings of both translation of ERCs and TRCs, so the translation strategies can be compared and contrasted between the two language directions. Lastly, to the best of my knowledge, there have not been any research studies or translation textbooks which include both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. These three reasons will be elaborated further in greater detail in Section 3.1 The inclusion of both English-Thai and Thai-English translation.

1.5.2 The data

This research focused only on the sentences with the structure of RC using the gap strategy and containing an overt relativizer in the STs. The ERCs were preceded by the relativizer ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that,’ excluding ‘whom;’ the relativizer ‘that’ might be used interchangeably with the other two relativizers only in restrictive RCs (RRCs). As for the TRCs, the relativizers included ‘/tʰi:/’ or ‘/sûŋ/,’ excluding ‘/?an/.’ The reason for choosing these three relativizers in English is because the relative words – ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ – are the three most used relative pronouns based on Biber et al. (1999, pp. 609-611). They are also of frequent use in the register of fiction with both RRCs and non-restrictive RCs (NRRCs) for the relative pronouns ‘which’ and ‘who,’ and high frequency of the relative word ‘that.’ Since the relative pronoun ‘whom’ is less common among all registers according to Biber et al. (1999, pp. 609-611) and is known to be less used generally as it is tied to formal language (Murphy, 2003, p. 186; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 367; Swan, 2005, p. 482), it was excluded from the study. Concerning the TRCs, the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ were selected for this study with a similar reason to that of the ERCs. That is, these two relative words are the most common and can be used in

several types of text, styles and contexts (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 27; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, pp. 243, 246; Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20; Sornhiran, 1981, p. 55). The relativizer ‘/?an/’ was excluded from this study since it is less common and tends to be considered a dated word or formal language (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Sornhiran, 1981, p. 55). In brief, the structure of RCs collected and analyzed is presented in the following figure.

Determiners, Premodifiers (optional)	The head noun	Postmodifiers (optional)	+	RC	
				Relativizers	Other elements of the RC
				(English) who, which, that (Thai) /tʰiː/, /sûŋ/	

Figure 1. The structure of RCs to be collected and analyzed

The ST sentences collected must contain the head noun, which is the antecedent, followed by an RC headed by the selected relativizers in English and Thai. There could be determiners or premodifiers, for example, an adjective, preceding the head noun, or other postmodifiers such as a prepositional phrase between the head noun and the RC. These constitute noun phrases and they are also treated as the data of the study. The examples of the RC without or with determiners or modifiers in English and Thai are provided, respectively.

It should be noted that, for the examples of sentences provided throughout the research, the sentences were adapted to some degree from the original sources for the sake of convenience when it came to identifying the RCs and the head nouns. The general adaptation is only as follows. The head nouns and the head noun phrases would be in bold type. The relativizers would be bold and underlined, and the RCs would be underlined. Emphasized words would be italicized. This system would be used throughout the study, except in the sections relating to findings and data analysis where the adjusted translations of the ST RCs would also be underlined.

- (10) a. I'm looking for **stories that would be about a robber who shoots people.**

(*Blood Work*, p. 52)

- b. **The young woman with the braided hair who'd been so persuasive the previous day** was sitting cross-legged on the grass, smoking a roll-up, looking like she was on her break.

(*Black and Blue*, p. 203)

- (11) a. ผม มอง ออกไป ที่ รถ ซึ่ง จอด
 phǒm mɔːŋ ʔò:k paj thî: rɔt sɯŋ cò:t
 I look out at car REL park
 แอบ อยู่ ริมทาง
 ʔè:p jù: rim th̄a:ŋ
 discreetly ASP⁶ roadside

'I look out at the car which parked discreetly by the roadside.'

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 18)

- b. หล่อน ถาม เมื่อ เรา ไปถึง ทางแยก
 lòn th̄á:m mû:a raw paj th̄n̄ŋ th̄a:ŋ jê:k
 she ask when we reach crossroads
 พลาจ หันไป ดู รถ เบนซ์ สีดำ ใหม่เอี่ยม
 pla:ŋ hǎn paj du: rɔt bɛn sǐ: dam mǎj ʔi:am
 and turn to look car Benz black brand-new

⁶ ASP refers to 'aspect auxiliary.'

ที่ _____ เล่น ตาม มา ห่างๆ

tʰi: _____ lɛn ta:m ma: hà:ŋ hà:ŋ

which run follow come far

‘she asks when we reach the crossroads and turns to look at the brand-new black Mercedes-Benz which follows us at a distance.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 17)

Example 10a has the head noun ‘stories,’ which is modified by the RC. In (10b), the head noun is ‘woman’ premodified by the determiner ‘the’ and the attributive adjective⁷ ‘young.’ There is also the prepositional phrase ‘with the braided hair’ between the head noun ‘woman’ and the RC. The relativizers used are ‘that’ and ‘who.’ As for Thai, Example 11a has the head noun being a single word ‘รถ’ /rót/ (‘car’). In (11b), between the head noun and the RC, the antecedent ‘รถ’ /rót/ (‘car’) is postmodified by the adjective phrase ‘แบรนด์สีดำใหม่เยี่ยม’ /bén sǐ: dam màj ʔi:am/ (‘brand-new black Mercedes-Benz’). The relativizers used are ‘/sũŋ/’ and ‘/tʰi:/.’

1.5.3 The RC types

The third aspect of the scope of this study deals with the RC types that might influence the translation strategies of RCs. This research included only the English RC types that might affect the translation strategies in the Thai translations. This is because English has prominent features and functions of the RC types. The restrictiveness of the RCs can clearly be identified by the punctuations or the relativizer ‘that,’ which normally occurs with the RRCs. However, in the Thai language, although there are studies (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010) suggesting that the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sũŋ/’ are for RRCs and NRRCs, respectively, some studies (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Sornhira, 1981) propose that the usage is uncertain. The context or the usage style sometimes determines the

⁷ An attributive adjective precedes and modifies a head noun or pronoun (Biber et al., 1999, p. 510).

restrictiveness of the RCs, resulting in the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ being occasionally interchangeable. It can be inferred that the restrictiveness of the TRCs may not be as prominent as in English. Therefore, the factor involving the RC types in Thai having effects on the translation strategies in English translations was not included in this study. Details of the type of TRCs are examined further in the section on Types of TRCs (2.2.2.3).

1.5.4 The source of the data for the analysis

The fourth aspect of the scope of the study concerns the source of the data for the analysis. The data, which were the English and Thai sentence pairs, were collected from two English novels and two Thai novels and their translations. The descriptions of the source and the translated texts are provided below. This is to be noted that the year of publication stated in Table 2 is for the edition used to retrieve the data for this study.

Table 2. List of source texts and their translations

English source texts					
Title	Author	Year of publication	Translation title	Translator(s)	Year of publication
<i>Blood Work</i>	Michael Connelly	2015 ⁸ (2558)	ภารกิจเลือด <i>/pʰa:raʔkít</i> <i>lû:at/</i>	Sumet Chaochuti	2004 (2547)
<i>Black and Blue</i>	Ian Rankin	2012 (2555)	สี่บั้งจัน ฆาตกรรมเงา <i>/sù:p só:n</i> <i>kʰâ:ttaʔkɔ:n</i> <i>ŋaw/</i>	Nantawan Termsangsirirak	2007 (2550)

⁸ The year of publication of the STs and the translations is based on the edition that is used to collect the data. Therefore, the publication years of both English and Thai STs are more recent than the translations due to this reason.

Thai source texts

Title	Author	Year of publication	Translation title	Translator(s)	Year of publication
เวลาในขวดแก้ว <i>/we:la: naj k^hu:at kɛ:w/</i>	Praphatsorn Seiwikun ⁹	2015 (2558)	<i>Time in a Bottle</i>	Marcel Barang and Phongdeit Jiangphatthana- kit	2009 (2552)
ปูนปิดทอง <i>/pu:n pìt t^hɔ:ŋ/</i>	Krisna Asoksin	2015 (2558)	<i>Poon Pid Thong: Gold- Pasted Cement</i>	Wasana Kenman	2014 (2557)

1.6 Definitions of terms

Some particular terms used in this study are defined as follows:

1. Relative clauses

Regarding the data of this study, RCs refer only to adnominal RCs, excluding other RCs such as bare RCs which omit the relativizers and sentential RCs which modify the entire preceding clause, except directly stating the particular type of RCs. According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1244), the term ‘adnominal RC’ refers to typical RCs introduced by a relativizer, either present or omitted. To illustrate, an RC is a subordinate clause which modifies nouns and some pronouns; the modification could be by identifying the head noun or providing more information about it (Hewings, 2003, p. 140; Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 183; Swan, 2005, p. 477). Relativizers refer to the same referents as the head noun, which is also known as the antecedent (Biber et al., 1999, p. 608). Furthermore, RCs typically contain a gap or the missing constituent which “corresponds in meaning to the head noun” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 608). This RC structure with the head noun, the relativizer, and the gap is shared by ERCs and TRCs. Some examples are provided below.

⁹ This spelling is according to the Thai version of ‘*Time in a Bottle*’ translated by Marcel Barang and Phongdeit Jiangphatthana-kit. The spelling of his name based on his website, www.psevikul.com, is ‘Prabhassorn Sevikul.’

(12) The woman who lives next door is a doctor.

(Murphy, 2003, p. 182)

(13) แม่ชอบให้เงินเด็กที่เรียนหนังสือเก่ง

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 37)

In (12) the head noun or the antecedent is the noun ‘woman’ postmodified by the RC ‘who lives next door.’ That is, the ERC identifies the woman. The relativizer ‘who’ refers to the woman, and the missing constituent or the gap is in the subject position within the RC. The underlying meaning of the RC is ‘the woman lives next door.’ As for (13), the head noun is ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’). The TRC is ‘ที่เรียนหนังสือเก่ง’ /tʰi: ri:an nǎŋsǔ: kèn/ (‘who studies well’) with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/.’ The gap locates in the subject position, signifying the clause ‘เด็กเรียนหนังสือเก่ง’ /dèk ri:an nǎŋsǔ: kèn/ (‘child studies well’).

2. Relativizers

Relativizers refer to all relative markers, including relative pronouns, in the English and the Thai contexts. In the English context, relativizers in this work are the umbrella term for relative pronouns (‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ ‘that’), the relative determiner (‘whose’), relative adverbs (‘where,’ ‘when,’ ‘why’), and the nominal pronoun (‘what’). However, when discussing particularly the data or the analysis of this study, relativizers only refer to the ones under the investigation which include ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ As for Thai, the term ‘relativizers’ refer to ‘/tʰi:/’ or ‘/sǔŋ/’ – instead of the traditional term ‘relative pronouns’ (Prasithratsint, 2010, p. 326). Additionally, the relativizers can also be used interchangeably with other terms, for example, relative markers, subordinators, or relative words.

3. Translation strategies

Based on Chesterman (1997), translation strategies refer to the strategies employed to deal with a translation problem. The translation problems are at a specific level, for example items, structures, or sentences (Chesterman, 1997; Newmark, 1988). In this study, the term ‘translation strategies’ differs from ‘translation methods.’ Translation methods concern the translation of the entire texts based on Newmark (1988).

3.1 Literal translation

Literal translation is considered one translation strategy in this study. According to Chesterman (1997) and Newmark (1988), literal translation is the translation that tends to follow the ST form; however, the translation is also grammatical in terms of the TL. Thus, for the translation strategy of RCs to be analyzed as literal translation, the structure of the ST and the TT must be in the following order: ‘a head noun + an RC (preceded by a relativizer).’ Some adjustments to the head noun or the RC can be made as long as the literal translation structure holds.

3.2 Translation adjustment

Translation adjustment is the term adapted from Nida’s (1964, pp. 226-240) ‘techniques of adjustment.’ The term refers to the adjustments that are carried out on the translation whether the translation method is literal or free (Saibua, 2007, p. 63). With regard to the analysis of the data, translation adjustment is the umbrella term as opposed to literal translation. Translation adjustment comprises various strategies based mainly on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies. The term is selected over ‘translation adaptation’ because the latter also refers to the major alteration performed on the ST and the TT when there are cultural differences between the SL and the TL (Newmark, 1988, p. 46; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 39).

1.7 Significance of the study

This study yields insights into the translation of ERCs with a relative pronoun ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that’ into Thai and TRCs with a relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ or ‘/s^un/’ into English. Not only are the findings hoped to benefit practical translation, it is hoped to be an advantage in terms of the pedagogical implications. The findings can be used to teach or guide translation students, language learners, and enthusiasts with the strategies to translate ERCs and TRCs found in this study. In addition, the findings can be adapted to teach ERCs to Thai learners for better understanding of ERCs and their meaning equivalence in Thai.

1.8 Summary

This chapter begins by addressing the background of the study, the research questions, and the objectives of the study. The focus of this research was to investigate the RC translation strategies from English into Thai and from Thai into English and to examine the effects of the RC types in English on Thai translations. In response to the research questions and objectives, the hypotheses were formulated. The chapter also presents the scope of the study in relation to the language pair and the language directions, the data, the RC types, and the data source for the analysis. The final sections cover the definition of terms used in the research and the significance of the study.

The next chapter presents the literature review in relation to the translation theories concerning translation methods, strategies, and adjustment, and RCs in English and Thai.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on translation (2.1) with respect to translation theories, i.e. translation methods, translation strategies, and translation adjustment, and RCs in English and Thai (2.2). The chapter ends with the summary section (2.3).

2.1 Translation

As languages exist, there is translation. According to Munday (2016, p. 8), translation has three broad meanings: 1) translation as a subject field, 2) translation as a product, and 3) translation as a process producing translation products. What will be focused in this study is the last two meanings: translation as a product and a process. In accordance with the first statement, translation is a part of any language. Jakobson (1959, p. 233) elaborates on the “three ways of interpreting a verbal sign” which are that the verbal sign “may be translated into other signs of the same language, into another language, or into another, nonverbal system of symbols.” In other words, these three categories of translation are 1) ‘Intralingual translation’ or ‘rewording,’ 2) ‘Interlingual translation’ or ‘translation proper,’ and 3) ‘Intersemiotic translation’ or ‘transmutation.’ House (2009, p. 4) exemplifies the three translation categories as follows. The intralingual translation is the translation within one language; for example, an Old English text is translated into a Modern English text. The interlingual translation is the typical translation as understood generally. That is, the interlingual translation is the translation between languages from a ST into a TT. The last category, the intersemiotic translation, is concerned with the translation into another method of expression which is non-linguistic. For example, a poem turns into a dance. In conclusion, the translation regarding this present study is the interlingual translation or the translation from one language into another.

Based on this category of translation, between languages, Catford (1980, p. 1) states that “translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another.” He (1980, p. 20) also defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).” Similarly, Larson (1984, p. 3) states that translation is a change of forms which are “the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc.,” and these forms are replaced by forms of the target language, in other words, the receptor language.

Nevertheless, before translators can start the translation process, there are many more factors that need consideration. According to Nida (1964, p. 156), what differentiates translations is normally due to three factors in translating which are 1) the nature of the message considering the importance between the content and the form, 2) the purposes of the author and the translator, and 3) the type of audience. In addition, the context of the translation plays a vital role. Like what Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 6) mentions in their book, the sociolinguistic formula that could lead to the solution of how to translate is “who is translating what, for whom, when, where, why and in what circumstances?” All in all, translation as a process aims at being qualified as a good translation with characteristics summarized by Nida (1964, p. 164) which are “(1) making sense, (2) conveying the spirit and manner of the original, (3) having a natural and easy form of expression, and (4) producing a similar response.” Following these good translation requirements, it relates to the selection over content and form, which Nida (1964, p. 164) states that both content and form are to be compromised because they are inseparable. Still, when the final decision must be made, meaning is to be chosen over form.

2.1.1 Translation theories

2.1.1.1 Translation methods

In order to carry out the translation, it is crucial to discuss ways of translating. The two poles between ‘literal translation’ and ‘free translation’ have been one of the highly debatable translation issues. The origin can be traced back to Cicero and St

Jerome in 46 BCE and 395 AC, respectively (Hatim & Munday, 2004, p. 11). From the approaches used, Cicero appeared to adopt the literal translation or ‘word-for-word’ approach, while St Jerome employed the free translation or ‘sense-for-sense.’ Thus, the main methods¹⁰ fall into two sides with different terms by various scholars.

Table 3. Two poles of translation methods

Translation scholar	Towards literal (word-for-word) translation	Towards free (sense-for-sense) translation
Catford (1980, p. 31)	Rank-bound translation	Unbound translation
Nida (1964, p. 159)	Formal equivalence	Dynamic equivalence
Newmark (1988, p. 45)	SL emphasis	TL emphasis
Larson (1984, p. 15)	Form-based translation	Meaning-based translation
Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 31)	Direct (or literal) translation	Oblique translation

Each of the major translation methods by different scholars can be further categorized into sub-types. According to the table above, Catford (1980, p. 31) and Nida (1964, p. 159) have the broadest translation method concepts.

Catford (1980, pp. 20-26) categorizes types of translation based on the ‘extent’ (‘full’ and ‘partial’ translation), the ‘levels’ (‘total’ and ‘restricted’ translation), and the ‘ranks’ (‘rank-bound’ and ‘unbound’ translation). With respect to the extent, it is that whether the whole text or parts of the text are to be translated, resulting in full translation and partial translation, respectively. As for the levels, this concerns total translation and restricted translation. Total translation refers to the translation in which all levels of the SL text – grammar, lexis, phonology¹¹, and graphology¹² – are

¹⁰ The terminology used varies from scholars to scholars. Translations methods in the sense that refers to the two main ways for translating – literal and free – are termed as the following examples: methods of translation (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 30), types of categories of translation (Catford, 1980, p. 21), kinds of translation (Larson, 1984, p. 15), and translation methods (Newmark, 1988, p. 45).

¹¹ Phonology is the formal units which are manifested by the phonic substance, which is the vocal sounds (Catford, 1980, p. 4).

¹² Graphology is the formal units which are manifested by the graphic substance, in other words the visible marks (Catford, 1980, p. 4).

replaced by the TL material. However, the replacement of the SL grammar and lexis by the TL grammar and lexis is the replacement of non-equivalent SL phonology/graphology. In other words, the sound and the writing form of the SL text become different from the TL text. Another translation type based on the levels is restricted translation. Restricted translation is the “replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL textual material, at only one level” (Catford, 1980, p. 22). The one level can be the phonological, graphological, grammar, or lexis level. The last category with respect to ranks is the closest to the literal and free translation. Malmkjær (2005, p. 25) explains the term ‘ranks’ used by Catford (1980) in that “the ranks are those of the Hallidayan (1961) rank-scale for grammar, going from the lowest rank, morpheme, through the ranks of word, group and clause up to the highest rank, sentence.” This type of translation is the total translation with the TL equivalents being confined to one or a few low ranks in the rank scale, for example, word rank or morpheme rank. This translation type is then termed rank-bound translation due to its restrictiveness nature. Unlike rank-bound translation which may have word-for-word equivalences, unbounded translation is not confined to one or a few ranks, but it is the total translation that equivalences can move freely up and down the rank scale (Catford, 1980, p. 25).

Catford (1980, p. 25) also mentions the terms regarding translation methods in his book – ‘word-for-word,’ ‘literal,’ and ‘free’ translation. He states that word-for-word translation is rank-bound at word-rank, and free translation is unbound translation where the lexis is adapted to the TL idiomatic nature. Literal translation is between rank-bound and unbound. That is to say, the lexis remains towards word-for-word translation, but the grammar conforms to the TL grammatical rules.

Nida (1964, p. 159) also splits translation into two poles; yet, he looks at it in terms of equivalence. Thus, he states that there are two types of equivalence: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence can be typified by a “gloss translation.” The translator tries to produce the translation that keeps the content and form of the ST as much as possible. Therefore, this type of translation tries to avoid translating some language elements such as idioms, and tends to require footnotes for explanation (Nida, 1964, pp. 159, 165-166). On the opposite side of the pole, dynamic

equivalence refers to the translation which has “the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message” (Nida, 1964, p. 166). Dynamic equivalence also aims at the naturalness of the translated expression and the equivalent response; therefore, the TL language, culture, context, audience are included in the consideration rather than the SL form.

Between Catford (1980) and Nida (1964), there are similarities between rank-bound translation and formal equivalence, and unbound translation and dynamic equivalence. However, it is not necessary for translation to fall into either one method of translation. Nida (1964, p. 160) states that between the formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence, “there are a number of intervening grades, representing various acceptable standards of literary translating.” This is also mirrored in Catford’s (1980, p. 25) literal translation which lies between the two poles.

The other scholars in Table 3 – Newmark (1988), Larson (1984), and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) – present their translation methods in a continuum, showing that there are other ways to translating between the extreme literal and free translation. Nevertheless, they view and elaborate the translation methods differently.

The concepts of the main translation methods of Newmark (1988) and Larson (1984) are similar in terms of the continuum. That is, they divide the main translation methods into various methods. However, Newmark (1988, p. 81) identifies that his classification of the translation methods relates to “whole texts,” while “translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language.” The concept of ‘translation procedures’ will be discussed later. As for Larson (1984, p. 16) who focuses on meaning, he states that translations are frequently a blend of literal and idiomatic translation. The following section will elaborate briefly on Newmark’s and Larson’s translation methods, and then the comparison will be explained.

Newmark (1988, pp. 45-48) incorporates the other factors i.e. “the purpose of the translation, the nature of the readership, the type of text” into categorizing eight translation methods. The two sides are SL emphasis and TL emphasis. The translation methods range from SL emphasis [1) word-for-word translation, 2) literal translation, 3) faithful translation, 4) semantic translation] to TL emphasis [5) communicative

translation, 6) idiomatic translation, 7) free translation, 8) adaptation.] The actual Newmark's (1988, p. 45) methods are put in the format of a flatten V diagram in which four pairs of translation methods of SL and TL emphasis are on the same level. Thus, the most extreme SL emphasis's word-for-word translation is on the same level as TL emphasis's adaptation, and SL emphasis's semantic translation is level with TL emphasis's communicative translation.

Larson (1984, pp. 15-18) focuses mainly on meaning when translating from one language to another. His translation methods are from 1) very literal, 2) literal, 3) modified literal, 4) inconsistent mixture, 5) near idiomatic, 6) idiomatic, and 7) unduly free translation.

Although the terms used by different scholars differ and/or overlap, the essence is similar. The translator's goal or the methods recommended for translation by Newmark (1988) are SL emphasis's semantic translation and TL emphasis's communicative translation. As for Larson (1984), it is idiomatic translation¹³. These translation methods aim at producing a translation which retains the meaning of the original text while utilizing the natural TT grammatical constructions and lexical choices. It should be noted that although idiomatic translation is the translator's goal based on Larson (1984), it is not necessary for a translation to be restricted only to idiomatic translation because a translation may comprise literal forms and TL natural forms.

Another difference between the two scholars' methods may lie in Newmark's (1988) semantic translation and communicative translation with regard to the text types. Newmark (1988, pp. 39-42) adopts Bühler's three main functions of language and proposes three text types based on them, which comprises 'expressive,' 'informative,' and 'vocative' texts. He recommends semantic translation to be used for expressive texts since it renders the aesthetic value of the ST, while communicative translation – which emphasizes more on the TL – should be used with informative and vocative texts.

¹³ Newmark (1988, p. 47) also uses the term 'idiomatic translation;' however, the meaning is dissimilar. Newmark's (1988) idiomatic translation is located towards TL emphasis. Thus, it may change the meaning slightly by adding TL elements such as idioms that are not present in the ST.

Other main translation methods mentioned by Newmark (1988) and Larson (1984) are similar. For example, Newmark's word-for-word translation may equate to Larson's very literal or literal translation because the translation method is on word level and the benefit of this method is for studying the linguistic components of that language. On the other hand, Newmark's literal translation seems to match with Larson's modified literal since the method represents the use of ST grammatical constructions with lexical words are literally following SL texts. The last key similarity is Newmark's adaptation and Larson's unduly free translation. Newmark's (1988, p. 46) adaptation is used for "plays (comedies) and poetry;" the culture of the SL is changed to that of the TL, and the text is rewritten and keeps only the themes, characters, and plots. Larson's (1984, p. 17) unduly free translation is when the meaning or information of the ST is changed excessively. Its objective may be for humor or particular responses of the TT audience.

The last category of translation methods to be discussed belongs to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). They broadly divide the translation methods like others which are direct (or literal translation) and oblique translation. However, there are some differences in the details. The two methods of Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, pp. 31-42) are separated into seven procedures as follows.

- (i) Direct translation methods – consist of 1) Borrowing, 2) Calque, 3) Literal translation
- (ii) Oblique translation methods – consist of 1) Transposition, 2) Modulation, 3) Equivalence¹⁴, 4) Adaptation

What differentiates Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) translation methods from other aforementioned scholars' is that they fall into methods of translating as well as translator 'procedures' – the term used by Vinay and Darbelnet. These suggest the possible solutions of how translators should translate the ST. That is, translators may start from procedures in the direct translation methods and move to more oblique translation methods if the previous ones are not suitable for translating.

¹⁴ Pym (2010, p. 13) translated Vinay and Darbelnet's '*équivalence*' in the French version with the term 'correspondence.'

To start with direct translation, borrowing and calque are the procedures of loan words and expression forms. Literal translation, or word for word translation, is the one closest to the acceptable literal translation of other scholars, i.e. the literal translation which follows the grammatical rules of the ST and is idiomatic to a certain extent. However, it still possesses some characteristics of literal translation; thus, it does not fully reflect the naturalness of the receptor language.

Turning to oblique translation when literal translation is not suitable (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, pp. 34-36), the fourth procedure is transposition which is the replacement of word classes or grammatical categories of the same meaning such as from a verb to a noun, or from an adjective to a nominal expression. Next, modulation is “a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change of the point of view” (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, pp. 36-37), for instance, from a negative expression in the ST to a positive expression in the TT. This procedure is adopted when the ST is literally translated or transposed and it results in grammatical TT, but “it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL” (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 36). The sixth procedure is equivalence which is the replacement of the TT expression of the same meaning as the ST expression. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 38) states that “most equivalences are fixed, and belong to a phraseological repertoire of idioms, clichés, proverbs, nominal or adjectival phrases, etc.” The last procedure of oblique translation methods and all seven procedures is adaptation. Adaptation is used when the cultural elements or situations presented in the ST do not exist in the TL culture. Therefore, adaptation needs to be carried out to create a situational equivalence. In addition, adaptations are common in book and film titles translation (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 39).

The table below summarizes the main translation methods and the terms discussed earlier.

Table 4. Comparison of translation methods and the terms used by different scholars

Translation methods	Catford (1980)	Nida (1964)	Newmark (1988)	Larson (1984)	Vinay and Darbelnet (1995)
Literal 'word-for-word' translation	Word-for-word translation	Gloss	Word-for-word translation	- Very literal translation - Literal translation	-
In-between	Literal translation	-	Literal translation	Modified literal translation	Literal translation (word for word translation)
	-	-	- Semantic translation - Communicative translation	Idiomatic translation	-
Free 'sense-for-sense' translation	Free translation	-	Adaptation	Unduly free translation	Adaptation

Based on the table above, it is to be noted that not all translation methods are included in this comparison table. This is because the three rows of the table identify the most extreme translation methods on the opposite poles – the most literal translation and the most free translation – and the 'in-between' for the two most accepted groups of methods for normal translation. Therefore, other strategies that may fall between each row were excluded.

The translation methods in the most left column of the table are divided according to the two main poles – literal or 'word-for-word' translation and free or

‘sense-for-sense’ translation – with the addition of in-between translation methods. The in-between category is divided into two roles. The first role represents the more literal methods which render a translation complying with TT grammatical construction but inclining to opt for literal translation of lexical items; the second role are the translation methods deemed optimal methods.

From the details in the above section on translation methods, Catford (1980) and Nida (1964) elaborate on the translation methods in general, while Larson (1984) specifies that a variety of translation methods on the continuum can be mixed to produce a translation product. As for Newmark (1988), he specifically argues that translation methods are for deciding how to translate the entire text, and translation procedures are for smaller units. It is this point - translation procedures - made by Newmark (1988) that connects with Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) translation procedures. That is, these procedures identify how elements or parts in a text should be translated. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 31) state that each of these procedures can be use singly or in combination with others. They also argue “It is obvious that several of these methods can used within the same sentence, and that some translations come under a whole complex of methods so that it is difficult to distinguish them” (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 40). The methods they mentioned are the seven procedures under the direct and oblique translations. This concept leads to the next topic of the translation theories – the translation strategies.

2.1.1.2 Translation strategies

‘Translation strategy’ is a relatively broad term. Hatim and Munday (2004, p. 10) use this term to refer to translation methods in the same sense as in the preceding section. However, translation strategies to be discussed in this section follow the term ‘strategy’ defined by Chesterman (1997). He states that “a strategy offers a solution to a problem” and “the translation process too starts with problems” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 89). Therefore, these translation strategies are, what Chesterman (1997, p. 90) refers to as, “local strategies” which cope with the translation problems at a specific level such as items, ideas, or structures. This goes in line with Newmark’s (1988, p.

81) ‘translation procedures¹⁵,’ which “are used for sentences and the smaller units of language.” In addition, Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) seven translation procedures serve the same purpose which is to translate texts even at small units. Pym (2010, p. 12) refers to Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) translation procedures by commenting that “since the things they classified were actually the textual *results* of the problem-solving process, here I shall call them “translation solutions”.” This confirms the belief that these so-called ‘procedures’ are ‘problem-centered,’ and they are ‘translation strategies’ used to solve each translation problem. Thus, the term ‘translation strategies’ in this sense will be used throughout this research.

The following section will elaborate briefly on Newmark’s (1988) translation strategies, and Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies will be discussed in detail later.

Newmark (1988, p. 81) illustrates the translation strategies, including literal translation and other strategies – in which the latter requires the consideration of many contextual factors. He describes the translation strategies with occasional reference to Catford, and Vinay and Darbelnet. Some main translation strategies suggested by Newmark (1988) are literal translation, transference (or loan words), cultural equivalent; these strategies are for the word unit. With regard to higher units, for example, clauses or sentences, some of the strategies are literal translation, shifts or transpositions, and modulation.

Based on Newmark (1988, p. 69), literal translation can range from one word to one word, group to group, collocation to collocation, clause to clause, sentence to sentence. He clearly states that literal translation is suitable and remarks “literal translation above the word level is the only correct procedure if the SL and TL meaning correspond, or correspond more closely than any alternatives” (Newmark, 1988, pp. 69-70). In addition, the referent and pragmatic effect of the translation must be equivalent to the ST. Shifts or transpositions are the strategies Newmark (1988, p.

¹⁵ The term ‘translation procedures,’ which is used by Newmark (1988) and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) to refer to translation solutions, is employed in a different sense by some other scholars, for example, Larson (1984) and Nida (1964). The latter definition concerns the steps taken in order to carry out the translation process such as analyzing the ST, making a draft, and revising the manuscript. Landers (2001) adopts the direct term ‘stages of translation.’

85) states with reference to Catford's 'shift,' and Vinay and Darbelnet's 'transposition.' Newmark uses both terms to refer to a grammatical change from a ST to a TT. As for modulation, Newmark follows Vinay and Darbelnet's modulation with some further discussion. Apart from strategies mentioned above, Newmark (1988, p. 91) also includes the terms for the circumstances when more than one strategy is used: 'couplets,' 'triplets,' and 'quadruplets' for the combination of two, three, or four strategies, respectively, to cope with one particular problem. The common usage is to deal with cultural words.

Chesterman (1997, p. 89) points out that 'strategies' are the "forms of explicitly *textual* manipulation. They are directly observable from the translation product itself, in comparison with the source text." That is, strategies are the operations that a translator uses when forming the TT. He establishes the framework of translation strategies based on practical application with 'problems' when translating as the starting point. He argues that the proposed strategies are 'production strategies,' which are a linguistic classification, not 'comprehension strategies' since the strategies deal with the production of the TT, not the text comprehension process. Basically, the core of overall classification is to "change something" when the translator is dissatisfied with the translation with regard to any reason because it suggests translation problems (Chesterman, 1997, p. 92). In constructing his own translation strategies classification, Chesterman (1997, pp. 92-93) based his classification on "Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Catford (1965), Nida (1964), Malone (1988), and Leuven-Zwart (1989/1990)."

Chesterman's (1997, p. 93) translation strategies can be broken down into three main groups of strategies: mainly syntactic/grammatical (G), mainly semantic (S), and mainly pragmatic (Pr). The three groups sometimes overlap. Combination of strategies can also occur. The lists of strategies are provided in the table below, followed by the explanation of each strategy.

Table 5. Chesterman's (1997, pp. 94-112) translation strategies

Syntactic strategies	Semantic strategies	Pragmatic strategies
G1: Literal translation	S1: Synonymy	Pr1: Cultural filtering
G2: Loan, calque	S2: Antonymy	Pr2: Explicitness change
G3: Transposition	S3: Hyponymy	Pr3: Information change
G4: Unit shift	S4: Converses	Pr4: Interpersonal change
G5: Phrase structure change	S5: Abstraction change	Pr5: Illocutionary change
G6: Clause structure change	S6: Distribution change	Pr6: Coherence change
G7: Sentence structure change	S7: Emphasis change	Pr7: Partial translation
G8: Cohesion change	S8: Paraphrase	Pr8: Visibility change
G9: Level shift	S9: Trope change	Pr9: Transediting
G10: Scheme change	S10: Other semantic changes	Pr10: Other pragmatic changes

(i) Syntactic/Grammatical strategies

These syntactic strategies mainly change the form. Higher strategies are inclined to include the earlier ones.

- G1: Literal translation

This strategy is to translate closely to the SL form as much as possible, while maintain the correct grammaticality.

- G2: Loan, calque

These strategies refer to both the borrowing of ST words and the borrowing of syntagma.

- G3: Transposition

With the term from Vinay and Darbelnet, transposition is the alteration in word class, for example, from a noun to a verb. This strategy normally includes structural changes.

- G4: Unit shift

The term is from Catford (1965 cited in Chesterman, 1997, p. 95), and the units mentioned are “morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 95). Unit shift is when a ST unit is translated as a different TT unit, for example, a word into a phrase, a sentence into a phrase, or a clause into a sentence.

- G5: Phrase structure change

This strategy copes with phrase translation with changes in the internal structure. The ST phrases may be translated into TL phrases, but there are changes at the level of phrase which includes “number, definiteness and modification in the noun phrase, and person, tense and mood in the verb phrase” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 96). For example, the mood may be changed from indicative to imperative.

- G6: Clause structure change

This strategy deals with the structure of the clause with respect to the constituent phrases. To exemplify, there may be changes in the constituent order (subject, verb, object, complement, adverbial), changes between active and passive voice, transitive and intransitive, and finite and non-finite structure (Chesterman, 1997, pp. 96-97).

- G7: Sentence structure change

This involves the structure of sentence-unit in terms of the changes, for example, between the status of a main clause and a sub-clause, or the changes of sub-clause types.

- G8: Cohesion change

Cohesion change “affects intra-textual reference, ellipsis, substitution, pronominalization and repetition, or the use of connectors of various kinds” (Chesterman, 1997, pp. 98-99). For instance, a connector in the form of a demonstrative may be added in the ST, while there is no overt connector in the ST.

- G9: Level shift

According to Chesterman (1997, p. 99), levels refer to phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexis. In this strategy, the ST items or expressions are shifted from one level to another in the TT.

- G10: Scheme change

This strategy relates to the changes regarding rhetorical schemes such as alliteration or parallelism that are included in the translation.

(ii) Semantic strategies

This group of strategy alters meanings. Some of the strategies deal mainly with lexical semantics. Chesterman (1997, p. 101) identifies that many of these semantic strategies are from Vinay and Darbelnet’s concept of modulation.

- S1: Synonymy

The synonym or near-synonym is used under this strategy instead of the direct equivalent term.

- S2: Antonymy

This strategy adopts an antonym and incorporates a negation element.

- S3: Hyponymy

This strategy involves the “shifts within the hyponymy relation” (Chesterman, 1997, pp. 96-97). That is, from ST to TT, the available direction is

between the hypernym and hyponym, or from ST hyponym to TT hyponym of the same hypernym.

- S4: Converses

Converses are pairs of verbal structures which state the same situation from the opposite perspective such as ‘buy’ and ‘sell.’

- S5: Abstraction change

This strategy deals with the abstraction level, whether the changes of ST to TT are from concrete to more abstract, or from abstract to more concrete.

- S6: Distribution change

This strategy is the “change in the distribution of the “same” semantic components over more items (expansion) or fewer items (compression)” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 104).

- S7: Emphasis change

This strategy relates to clause meaning, unlike other previous strategies that focus mainly on lexical meaning. Emphasis change, as suggested by the name, “adds to, reduces or alters the emphasis or thematic focus, for one reason or another” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 104).

- S8: Paraphrase

This strategy aims at the pragmatic meanings of the higher units, such as an entire clause. Therefore, the translation tends to be free or undertranslated. The STs such as idioms use this type of strategy when there are no corresponding TT expressions.

- S9: Trope change

For this strategy, tropes are the rhetorical tropes, in other words, figurative expressions. The changes from ST to TT are that if the tropes are maintained in the TT or if they are added or dropped in the TT.

- S10: Other semantic changes

This includes “other modulations of various kinds, such as change of (physical) sense or of deictic direction” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 107).

(iii) Pragmatic strategies

This group of strategies relates to the information of the TT which translators select to translate based on their knowledge of the prospective TT readership. Thus, pragmatic strategies “manipulate the message itself;” they “are often the result of a translator’s global decisions concerning the appropriate way to translate the text as a whole” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 107). Therefore, since pragmatic changes are concerned with broad changes, they usually involve syntactic and/or semantic changes.

- Pr1: Cultural filtering

This strategy translates the ST items with the TT cultural or functional equivalent terms. This strategy is also known as “naturalization, domestication or adaptation” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 108).

- Pr2: Explicitness change

This strategy is the change “towards more explicitness (explicitation) or more implicitness (implication)” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 109). That is, the information in the ST becomes more explicit or implicit in the TT. For the implication, it is carried out in this fashion due to the fact that the readers can infer the information from the text.

- Pr3: Information change

Information change deals with the addition and omission of information as well. However, the addition is for new, non-inferable information that is considered to be related to the TT receptors. On the other hand, the omission occurs when the ST information is deemed irrelevant, for example, a summary.

- Pr4: Interpersonal change

This strategy makes changes in the relationship between the text/author and the reader. That is, the overall style is affected, for example, the formality, the technical words, the degree of emotiveness and involvement (Chesterman, 1997, p. 110). For instance, the TT should retain the same level of formality of the ST.

- Pr5: Illocutionary change

This strategy is changes of speech act, for example, the change from statement to request. This normally affects other strategies; for instance, the syntactic structure is altered when statement changes to request because the indicative verb needs to be changed to the imperative verb.

- Pr6: Coherence change

Coherence change deals with the ideational level because it rearranges the information presentation in the text.

- Pr7: Partial translation

Under this translation strategy, it includes all kinds of partial translation, for instance, summary translation or transcription.

- Pr8: Visibility change

This strategy is when the presence of the translator appears explicitly in the translation product and changes the status of the authorial presence. For example, readers notice the presence of the translator from the “translator’s footnotes, bracketed comments (such as explanations of puns) or added glosses” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 112).

- Pr9: Transediting

Adopted the term from Stetting (1989 cited in Chesterman, 1997, p. 112), Chesterman (1997, p. 112) refers to the situation when the ST is badly written and the translator needs to re-edit the text by re-ordering and re-writing it to a great extent.

- Pr10: Other pragmatic changes

This covers other pragmatic strategies such as the selection of the dialect, American or British, based on other factors, for example, the policy of the company who owns the translation product.

The above section elaborates on the translation strategies proposed as a practical framework for translators to cope with translation problems. These strategies suggest the changes performing with the texts; they lead to the next related topic which is the ‘translation adjustment.’

2.1.1.3 Translation Adjustment

Like translation methods that have an overlap with translation strategies, translation strategies also possess some overlapping parts in the translation adjustment. Based on *Macmillan English dictionary for advanced learners* ("Adjustment," 2007, p. 19), the definition of ‘adjustment’ is “a change in something that makes it better, more accurate, or more effective.” Thus, the core of the term is the ‘change,’ which is similar to the heart of Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies which is ‘to change something,’ signifying that there are some problems in translating. Larson (1984, pp. 17-20) refers to his proposed idiomatic translation that many ‘adjustments’ in form are needed. Those adjustments are, for example, the replacement of verbs instead of nouns in some language pairs, the word order, or the passive construction. The adjustments mentioned here correspond with some translation strategies elaborated in the above section. This section will describe the adjustments depicted by Nida (1964, pp. 226-240) and Saibua (2007, pp. 63-78).

Nida (1964, p. 226) refers to the modification in the translation process as ‘techniques of adjustment,’ which for this research will be referred to as ‘translation adjustment.’ The techniques of adjustment by Nida (1964) fall into three groups: ‘additions,’ ‘subtractions,’ and ‘alterations.’ These actions are what translators carry out to gain the equivalents in the TL. That is, these techniques “are designed to

produce correct equivalents” not to intervene in the ST content. In other words, they do not change the content of the texts, whether by adding, subtracting, or altering; the form may be changed, but the content remains the same. Nida (1964, p. 226) identifies four purposes of these techniques as follows. Firstly, it allows the adjustment of the ST form to comply with the TL structure. Next, it produces equivalent structures in terms of meaning. It provides “equivalent stylistic,” and lastly, it carries “an equivalent communication load” (Nida, 1964, p. 226). Nida’s (1964, pp. 226-240) three groups of techniques – additions, subtractions, and alterations – will be described below. The following table comprises the translation types under each adjustment technique.

Table 6. Nida’s (1964, pp. 226-240) Techniques of adjustment

Additions	Subtractions	Alterations
a. Filling out elliptical expressions	a. Repetitions	a. Sounds
b. Obligatory specification	b. Specification of reference	b. Categories
c. Additions required by grammatical restructuring	c. Conjunctions	c. Word classes
d. Amplification from implicit to explicit status	d. Transitionals	d. Order of elements
e. Answers to rhetorical questions	e. Categories	e. Clauses and sentence structures
f. Classifiers	f. Vocatives	f. Semantic problems involving single words
g. Connectives	g. Formulae	g. Semantic problems involving exocentric expressions
h. Categories of the receptor language		
i. Doublets		

(i) Additions

The sub-types of additions and their detail are examined as follows.

a. Filling out elliptical expressions

Since ellipsis, the omitted words or expressions, may vary from languages to languages, in translating it is sometimes necessary to add the omitted elements. For languages with structural parallelism, it might be an addition of words; however, if the structures are non-parallel, the additions might add more elements than a few words. For example, subject and verb elements may be required when a prepositional phrase is extended into a sentence.

b. Obligatory specification

This type of addition is for the clarification of the translated text. Based on Nida (1964, p. 228), two reasons for obligatory specification are “(1) ambiguity in the receptor language formations, and (2) the fact that greater specificity may be required so as to avoid misleading reference.” For example, in Mazatec, the sentence “the people there told Jesus about the woman” is a more suitable translation than the literal translation “they tell him of her” (Nida, 1964, p. 228).

c. Additions required by grammatical restructuring

The restructuring when rendering from one language into another results in lexical additions. The main ones are the shifts of voice, the change from indirect to direct discourse, and the change of word classes. For instance, the circumstances, such as the modification from a passive voice into an active voice, or the shift of word classes from a noun into a verb, require the addition of the participants.

d. Amplification from implicit to explicit status

This type of addition differs from ‘obligatory specification’ in that the implicit meaning lies within the SL. That is, without the amplification or the ST being made more explicit, the TT audience may not understand the translation. An example is a phrase “queen of the south” which is amplified into “woman who was ruling the south country” (Nida, 1964, p. 229).

e. Answers to rhetorical questions

Some languages do not allow the rhetorical questions without providing the answers. Thus, the ST translation needs to add the answers to those questions.

f. Classifiers

This addition is the classifiers added to identify borrowed terms or proper names, such as “jewel ruby,” “city Jerusalem” (Nida, 1964, p. 230). Addition of these classifiers where needed assists readers’ comprehension.

g. Connectives

These are the additions which repeat a part of the earlier text without adding more information. It only serves to indicate “the sequences of events and the precise relationships between events” (Nida, 1964, p. 230).

h. Categories of the receptor language

Occasionally, a TL has some categories that the SL does not have; thus, additions are needed depending on the fact that those categories are compulsory or optional. An example is a SL with the category of benefaction when there is no this category in the TL.

i. Doublets

Some languages adopt semantic doublets which are “two semantically supplementary expressions in place of one”, for example, “answering, said” or “he said... said he” (Nida, 1964, p. 230). Translators must be aware of this aspect and translating by adding suitable expressions in the receptor language.

(ii) Subtractions

The techniques of subtractions are also divided into several sub-types. These subtractions comprise structural losses, but they are necessary due to the ST’s “grammatical and semantic patterns” (Nida, 1964, p. 231).

a. Repetitions

Repetitions that need elimination are, for example, the semantic doublets or emphasis. It is to be noted that the subtraction is to be carried out when the translation appears to be unusual in the TL. For instance, “I will kill him with my weapon, I will slay him with my sword” may be replaced by “I will certainly kill him with my sword” (Nida, 1964, p. 231) to avoid repetition.

b. Specification of reference

This is when the reference, which is made explicit in the ST whether by the use of repetition or the word class, has to be made less explicit. This results in the subtraction of repeated words or words as a part of the change in the word class.

c. Conjunctions

This type of adjustment is the subtraction of conjunctions which may be connectors in a sentence or group of words. For instance, “God and Father” is changed to “God, Father” (Nida, 1964, p. 232).

d. Transitionals

These are words identifying the transition from one unit to another unit. Nida (1964, p. 232) exemplified a Greek form ‘egeneto’ used in the New Testament. He mentions that, in various contexts, this transitional is omitted.

e. Categories

Since categories among languages are not the same. When the TL does not have the SL’s categories, the translator might omit them or replace them with the grammatical structures of the TL. For example, the past tense of the verb might be replaced with an adverbial expression identifying the time (Nida, 1964, p. 232).

f. Vocatives

The way to call to people is different among languages. Sometimes, in some languages, calling people directly may not indicate politeness. Thus, if omission

of those vocatives does not affect the content too greatly, it might be necessary to do so.

g. Formulae

Occasionally, formulae in the SL are meaningless in the TL; thus, they are required to be omitted. For instance, “in the name of the Lord” might be replaced by simply “by the Lord” (Nida, 1964, p. 233).

(iii) Alterations

Apart from additions and subtractions performed on the text, alterations are another technique. There are main classes as follows.

a. Sounds

When transliterating words from one language to another, the TL form may refer to other referents. Therefore, it requires the alteration of the form in order to refer to the SL referent accurately.

b. Categories

This technique refers to the alteration regarding categories such as the change between a singular and a plural, tenses, active and passive voices.

c. Word classes

This technique is mainly the shift of word classes, for example, a noun to a verb, a preposition to a verb. For instance, “from death to life” can be altered to “leave death and come to life” (Nida, 1964, p. 234).

d. Order

The change of words or expressions is normal in order to make the translation idiomatic. That is, the adjustments of order must be carried out based on the TL.

e. Clause and sentence structure

This type of change affects the clause and sentence structure when the differences between languages are in terms of, for example, the sentence structure formations – hypocoristic and paratactic, questions into statements, and indirect or direct discourse.

f. Semantic problems involving single words

This refers to the situation when there are semantic problems in translating SL words. It might involve the differences in hierarchical status or cultures. SL words in the lower level may be translated with TL words in the higher level together with a qualifier, for instance, a “wolf” being translated into a “hunting dog” (Nida, 1964, p. 237). Another example of a word that does not have a lexical equivalent in the TL is rendered via a descriptive equivalent. For example, “desire what another man has” is the descriptive equivalent in Maya for the word “covetousness” (Nida, 1964, p. 237).

g. Semantic problems involving exocentric expressions

The exocentric expressions, in other words, exocentric idioms, are the translation dealing with the SL idioms. It is important for translators to be able to identify these embedded idiomatic expressions so that they are not literally translated. The solution is to render them with the ready, corresponding TL idioms. However, slight adjustments can be made to the SL idioms if they facilitate the acceptable TL idiomatic expressions.

Apart from the aforementioned techniques of adjustment, Nida (1964, p. 238) also mentions the use of footnotes. If literal translation is to be maintained, the adjustments are provided in the footnotes instead. The two functions of footnotes in translated texts are to correct linguistic and cultural differences, and to provide more information regarding the cultural or historical background which aids comprehension.

Based on the descriptions of all Nida’s (1964) techniques of translation, it seems that each technique is not a separate unit. That is, sometimes the combination of techniques is to be used together. For example, when there is a shift of word class

(alteration), it usually includes the addition or subtraction of words relating to the altered structure.

Saibua (2007, pp. 63-78) also presents the translation adjustment; however, the categorization is different from Nida (1964). She explains that the adjustment is needed, whether the translation is literal or free, and it can be carried out at two levels: lexical and structural levels. Each level can be divided into sub-types.

(i) Lexical level

This refers to the adjustment when there is no corresponding translation to the SL lexical items or expressions, which could be concerned with linguistic or cultural aspects. The translation problems can be solved by five methods.

1. Additions of explanation

This refers to both in-text addition and footnotes. The added explanations can be in the forms of qualifiers – provided with the borrowed SL words – or short explanations. It must be certain that these additions are of necessary so that they do not affect the flow of content. Footnotes should be inserted when the point in question is required for readers' comprehension. These words are normally culture-bound, and the explanations are too long to be incorporated into the text.

2. Replacement of a word by a phrase or a sentence

When there is no equivalent word in the TL, a descriptive phrase or sentence may be used instead.

3. Replacement of a specific word by a general word

This is concerned with the hierarchical status of words. The words in a higher level or the words with broader meaning are adopted in the place of the words in a lower level which have more specific meaning.

4. Additions of connectors between units

This change also involves language structures. When SL structures that do not exist in TL are used to show the relationship between units of thought, for example, a phrase or a sentence, translators need to find other means to render the meaning. One of the solutions is to add connectors. For example, the English present participial phrase is translated into Thai with the addition of the subordinator.

5. Deletion of words or expressions

If the SL words or expressions are unknown to the TL culture and there are no equivalents, or they are used repeatedly for a sole meaning, it might be possible to delete those items. This is to be carried out only under the condition that the deleted parts must be minimal. In addition, the deletion must not affect the main idea and the aesthetic, although slight semantic alteration might occur.

(ii) Structural level

The adjustment in the structural level is carried out so that the TL is idiomatic and appropriate with the context. There are four sub-levels: sounds, lexical structure, sentential structure, and discourse levels.

1. Sounds level

This is concerned with the transliteration of borrowed proper names, which results in loan words.

2. Lexical structure level

The lexical structure involves both its formation and functions. Different languages constitute words differently. Thus, the translation must conform to the TL lexical structure. For instance, a noun with plural morpheme in English may be translated as a phrase in Thai because the Thai language does not indicate the number through the plural morpheme.

3. Sentential structure level

The adjustment in sentential structures is also common. It is carried out to solve the problem when the SL structure is unfamiliar to the TL readers, and to create an idiomatic translation. This adjustment of this level comprises several structures: the re-arrangement of word order in a phrase or a sentence, the change between a phrase and a sentence, the adjustment of a negative expression, the adjustment between an active and a passive voice, and the addition or deletion of words in a sentence due to the structural differences.

4. Discourse level

This is the adjustment of the unit higher than sentences which is the discourse level. It is often found in translated texts towards free translation when content is more significant than form. The discourse level adjustment copes with the adjustment of the ideas in a unit of at least two sentences, which could be a paragraph or multiple paragraphs. The ideas or the paragraphs may be rearranged and/or combined. Thus, the style or the presentation of ideas is adjusted so that the translation can express the accurate content or create the same effect on the TL readers as on the SL readers.

With regard to Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment, it can be inferred that many of the adjustments are similar to Nida's (1964) techniques of adjustment. The categorization may be different and not as comprehensive as Nida's, but the levels Saibua classified elaborates clearly on each level that receives adjustments and sub-levels of adjustment methods.

To summarize the translation theories regarding translation methods, translation strategies, and translation adjustment, it can be seen that each part overlaps to a certain extent. Even though many translation scholars, for example, Catford (1980), Nida (1964), Newmark (1988), and Larson (1984), propose 'translation methods' in two main poles – literal and free – there are also scholars who also include in the translation methods, or via different terms, the actual means to tackle each translation problem, such as Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). Thus, this leads to the examination into the translation strategies by Newmark (1988), who uses the term

‘translation procedures,’ and Chesterman (1997). Those translation strategies that deal with translation problems also resemble ‘translation adjustment’ or in Nida’s (1964) term ‘techniques of adjustment.’

In conclusion, this study will treat the translation methods based on Newmark’s (1988) definition to refer to the translation of the entire text. As for the translation strategies, they refer to the solutions to each translation problem, including the translation of RCs in this study. The translation adjustment suggested by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) are incorporated as a support to the translation strategies.

2.2 Relative clauses in English and Thai

2.2.1 English relative clauses

This section focuses on English relative clauses (ERCs). First, basic characteristics of ERCs will be presented (2.2.1.1), followed by various syntactic structures of ERCs (2.2.1.2), and types of ERCs (2.2.1.3). Lastly, this section will end with the grammatical functions of ERCs and relative pronouns in ERCs (2.2.1.4), and appositive clauses (2.2.1.5).

2.2.1.1 Basic characteristics of ERCs

RCs are finite subordinate clauses which postmodify, identify, or give extra information – depending on the functions of the RCs – about their antecedents which are noun phrases (Ballard, 2007, p. 137; Hurford, 1995, p. 213; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1239; Swan, 2005, p. 477). This construction is called a ‘relative clause (RC),’ or an ‘adnominal RC’ (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1244), because typically it is headed by a relative pronoun – for example, ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ ‘that’ – which relates or refers back to the preceding noun phrase or the ‘antecedent’ in the main clause (Ballard, 2007, p. 138; Radford, 2004, p. 223). This relation between a relative pronoun and the antecedent is called ‘anaphora’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 183). Another term for RCs is ‘adjectival clauses’ (Biber et al., 1999, p. 194).

Another characteristic of RCs is that there is the missing constituent in the RC which semantically links with the head noun. “The structural location of this missing constituent is referred to as the ‘gap’” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 608). The example of a sentence with an RC is as follows.

(14) *Last week I saw that film **which** won all the Oscars.*

(Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 298)

From the example above, the antecedent is the ‘film’ modified by the RC which is headed by the relative pronoun ‘which.’ The missing constituent in the RC or the gap, which corresponds semantically to the antecedent ‘film,’ occurs in the subject position of the RC.

That is to say, an RC is derived from combining two sentences which share a noun phrase. Thus, using a relative pronoun avoids the repetition of the noun phrase (Yule, 2006, p. 173), as in the examples provided below:

(15) a. *That man bought his shirt in C&A*

b. *I saw that man*

(Ballard, 2007, p. 138)

The derived sentences which contain an RC are:

c. *That man who/whom I saw bought his shirt in C&A*

d. *I saw that man who bought his shirt in C&A*

(Ballard, 2007, p. 138)

Both (15c) and (15d) have the same head noun ‘man,’ the antecedent, which is modified by the RCs ‘who/whom I saw’ and ‘who bought his shirt in C&A,’ respectively.

Another example of a sentence with an RC is:

(16) *The couple **who live next to us** have sixteen grandchildren.*

(Hewings, 2003, p. 140)

Sentence 16 above has the RC ‘who live next to us’ modifying the head noun ‘couple.’ Thus, the relative pronoun ‘who’ refers or relates back to its antecedent ‘couple.’ The possible sentences, which form Sentence 16, could be ‘The couple live next to us’ and ‘The couple have sixteen grandchildren.’

Normally, RCs are placed immediately after the modified noun phrase; however, it is possible to insert a prepositional phrase or other modifiers after the noun phrase before the RC (Yule, 2006, p. 173). For example, in (17), the prepositional phrase ‘on a ship’ is put between the noun phrase ‘a person’ and the RC ‘who attacks and steals from other ships.’

(17) *A pirate is a person on a ship **who** attacks and steals from other ships.*

(Yule, 2006, p. 173)

Apart from the main relative pronouns ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that,’ RCs can be introduced by other relativizers, i.e. a relative determiner, relative adverb, and nominal pronoun. Details of relative expressions will be discussed later in this section. Nevertheless, RCs can occur with or without relative pronouns which can be categorized into various constructions (Ballard, 2007, p. 139; Hewings, 2003, p. 140; Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 184; LeTourneau, 2001, p. 338 cited in Pingkarawat, 2009, p. 3; Radford, 2004, p. 224).

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2.2.1.2 Various syntactic structures of ERCs

ERCs have many syntactic structures. The structures to be included in this review are in six forms: RCs with a relative pronoun or other relativizers, bare RCs, reduced RCs, sentential RCs, nominal RCs, and cleft RCs.

1. RCs with a relative pronoun or other relativizers

RCs with a relative pronoun, in other words, ‘adnominal RCs’ (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1244-1245), are the most common type of RCs. The structure comprises the head noun phrase and the RC introduced by a relative pronoun or a relative word. The noun phrase which is modified or given additional information by the RC is the

antecedent to the relativizer. How relative words are categorized differs from texts to texts. One of the most general terms is ‘relativizers.’ According to *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999, p. 608), there are eight relativizers which can be used to form RCs, i.e. ‘which,’ ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘whose,’ ‘that’¹⁶, ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why.’ Four relativizers – ‘which,’ ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ and ‘that’ – are explicitly labeled as relative pronouns by many scholars and texts, while three – ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why’ – are identified as relative adverbs due to their adverbial references. However, the relativizer ‘whose’ seems to be most controversial among the wh-words. Some refer to it as a relative pronoun or a possessive relative pronoun (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 303; Swan, 2005, p. 479) or possessive determiner (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1239). In this work, relative pronouns will refer to only the four main ones: ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’

The following section will elaborate on relative pronouns, prepositions and relative pronouns, and other relative subordinators.

1.1 Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are pronouns used at the beginning of an RC. A relative pronoun is usually placed right after the head noun of the modified noun phrase (Hurford, 1995, p. 217).

One important characteristic of RCs, in case where there is an overt relative pronoun, is the anaphoric link between the relative pronoun and its antecedent from which it receives its interpretation (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 183). That is, the selection of a relative pronoun depends on what type of the head noun the RC modifies. Therefore, this leads to two concepts: (i) the concord between the relative pronoun and its antecedent and (ii) the function of the relative pronoun in the RC

¹⁶ According to Huddleston, Pullum, and Peterson (2002, p. 1034), ‘that’ is treated as a clause subordinator, not a relative pronoun. It is considered the same as ‘that’ marker in content clause (2.2.1.5 Appositive clauses). Similarly, Radford (2004, pp. 228-229) also regards ‘that’ as a relative clause complementiser rather than being a relative pronoun due to the lack of many characteristics of other regular relative pronouns.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245). The two concepts are interrelated and can be overlapping as discussed below.

(i) the concord between the relative pronoun and its antecedent

The noun phrase or the antecedent selects the relative pronoun. The relative pronouns used in English include ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ Their references are summarized from Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1245) and Yule (1998, p. 253; 2006, p. 173) and presented in Table 7. The RCs with a wh-relative pronoun are also called ‘wh relatives’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 184). For ‘non-wh relatives,’ the RCs with an omitted relative word are ‘bare RCs’ (see 2. Bare RCs), and those with a relative word ‘that’ are also known as ‘that relatives’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 184; Radford, 2004, p. 228).

Table 7. Relative pronouns and the references

Relative pronoun	References of the modified head noun
who	humans, human-like (e.g. pet animals and angels)
whom (accusative form of who)	humans, human-like (e.g. pet animals and angels)
which	things, animals, collective nouns (e.g. team)
that	humans, human-like, things, animals, and collective nouns

From the table above, ‘who’ and ‘whom’ refer to the antecedent which is a human or human-like such as beings in the supernatural world, robots, or pet animals (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 190; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245). Typically, ‘who’ is used when the relative pronoun is the subject of the RC, while ‘whom’ functions as the object. However, ‘who’ can also be used instead of ‘whom’ in an informal style. The functions of relative pronouns will be discussed further in (ii) below. The relative

pronoun ‘which’ is used with nonpersonal¹⁷ head noun. As for ‘that,’ it can be used instead of all the above relative pronouns. Nevertheless, when there are other postmodifiers, e.g. a prepositional phrase, locating between the antecedent and the RC, ‘who’ and ‘which’ are preferable to ‘that’ or a zero relative pronoun because they mark clearer connection between the RC and the antecedent (Yule, 1998, p. 253). Therefore, the example as (18) would prefer the relative pronoun ‘which’ to ‘that’ in order to link the head noun ‘problems’ with the RC ‘which really bother me.’

- (18) I wanted to talk about *problems* in my class and in the office generally *which really bother me*.

(Yule, 1998, p. 253)

Examples of sentences with a relative pronoun (19) – (21) are adapted from Hurford (1995, pp. 217-218):

- (19) *This is the man who/that met me.*

- (20) *This is the man whom/that I met.*

- (21) *This is the bike which/that I took.*

In other words, the aforementioned explanation illustrates the ‘gender’ concord between the relative pronoun and its antecedent. The gender system in the English language can be categorized into ‘personal’ or ‘nonpersonal’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 190; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245), and this system can only be applied to wh-words. That is, typically, the relative pronoun ‘who’ and its accusative form ‘whom’ are personal in order to correspond with the antecedent which possesses personality, for example, humans or human-like beings. On the other hand, ‘which’ is nonpersonal because the antecedent does not have personality such as things. As for

¹⁷ The gender system’s terms ‘personal and nonpersonal’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 190; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245) are also referred to as ‘animate and non-animate’ head nouns (Biber et al., 1999, p. 609).

‘that,’ including a zero relative pronoun, the gender is neutral (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245), as in the following examples.

- (22) a. She must be *the nicest person that* ever lived.
 b. That must be *the nicest thing that* ever happened.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1246)

However, there are some exceptions. Essentially, ‘who’ and ‘whom’ are used with personal antecedents; however, pet animals may be treated as personal by their owners – exemplified in Example 23 – when wild animals are considered nonpersonal (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 190; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245).

- (23) *She was stroking the cat, who was looking extremely contented.*

(Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 190)

On the other hand, humans are personal and the relative pronouns that are employed are ‘who’ and ‘whom,’ but some people consider ‘human babies’ not yet possessing personality. As a result, the relative pronoun used should be nonpersonal ‘which’ as in the example below.

- (24) This is the baby *which* needs inoculation.

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245)

Regarding collective nouns, they are regarded as nonpersonal when they have singular concord, and as personal when they have plural concord, especially in the British English (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1246). The examples are provided as follows, nonpersonal and personal, respectively.

- (25) a. The committee *which* was responsible for this decision ...
 b. The committee *who* were responsible for this decision ...

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1246)

Lastly, ‘which’ normally takes a nonpersonal noun as the antecedent, but it can have a personal antecedent when the head noun – in other words, the relative

pronoun – is a complement with the semantic role of characterization (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 367, 1246).

- (26) a. They accused him of being a traitor, *which he was*.
 b. *They accused him of being a traitor, *who he was*.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 367)

- (27) a. He imagined himself to be an artist, *which he was not*.
 b. *He imagined himself to be an artist, *who he was not*.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1246)

Examples 26 and 27 show that the relative pronoun ‘who’ is not used in these particular instances.

The manner of style also influences the choice of relative pronoun. Mostly, all relative pronouns can be used in any style; yet, there are some preferences. The relative pronoun ‘whom’ is preferable in a formal style. On the other hand, ‘who’ – used instead of ‘whom’ – and ‘that’ – used instead of ‘who,’ ‘whom’ or ‘which’ – tend to be used in an informal style (Ballard, 2007, p. 138; Hurford, 1995, p. 218; Swan, 2005, p. 477; Yule, 1998, p. 253; 2006, p. 173).

(ii) the function of the relative pronoun in the RC

Since a relative pronoun is used instead of a repeated noun phrase, it has its function within the RC. That is, the relative pronoun can function as “subject, object, complement, and adverbial (or complement in a prepositional phrase functioning as adverbial) in the RC” (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1248-1249, 1257-1258). Examples are as follows:

- (28) Subject: They are delighted with the person *who/that* has been appointed.
- (29) Object: They are delighted with the book *which/that* she has written.
- (30) Complement: This is not the type of modern house *which* my own is.
- (31) Adverbial: I make cakes the way *in which/that* my mother made them.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1248-1249)

The details on grammatical functions of relative pronouns in ERCs will be discussed further in 2.2.1.4 Grammatical functions of ERCs and relative pronouns in ERCs.

1.2 Prepositions and relative pronouns

In cases where a preposition is used with a relative pronoun, its position relates to formality (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 298; Radford, 2004, p. 223; Swan, 2005, p. 483). Preposing the entire prepositional phrase, in other words ‘preposition + wh-pronouns,’ results in formal style. That is, the preposition is pied-piped with the relative pronoun. On the other hand, preposition stranding is when the preposition is placed at the end of relative clauses, which produces less formal style. The examples are provided, accordingly.

- (32) a. *This system provides a case **in which** the contact lenses can be kept.*
- b. *Have you seen the little case **that/which** I keep my contact lenses **in**?*

(Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299)

With the relative pronoun ‘who,’ after a preposition, it always takes the accusative form of ‘whom’ (Yule, 2006, p. 179), which as well reflects the formal style.

- (33) a. *He was respected by the people **with whom**/***with who** he worked.*

(adapted from Swan, 2005, p. 483)

b. *The people to whom/*to who this report is addressed will have to consider carefully the consequences of the proposed cuts.*

(adapted from Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299)

In addition, the relativizer ‘that’ cannot be preposed by a preposition (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299; Swan, 2005, p. 483).

(34) **This system provides a case in that the contact lenses can be kept.*

(adapted from Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299)

The relative pronoun ‘which’ with prepositions is explained below in the following section.

1.3 Other relative subordinators

Apart from the relative pronouns mentioned above, there are other subordinators which can introduce an RC: a relative determiner, a relative adverb, and a nominal pronoun. The use of these subordinators is summarized from Ballard (2007, p. 138), and Foley and Hall (2004, p. 300) and provided in Table 8.

Table 8. Other subordinators and the references

Subordinator	References of the modified head noun
Relative determiner	
whose	humans and things (in terms of relationships or possessions)
Relative adverbs	
where	places
when	times
why	reasons
Nominal pronoun	
what	things, ideas

‘Whose’ is a ‘relative determiner,’ or ‘possessive determiner’ or ‘possessive relative pronoun,’ which is used as a determiner before personal and nonpersonal nouns as same as ‘his,’ ‘her,’ ‘its,’ ‘their;’ that is to show the possession or association between something with its antecedent. The structure of an RC with ‘whose’ is ‘whose + noun,’ and it can be used as a subject, an object of a verb, or an object of a preposition (Hewings, 2003, p. 144; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1249; Swan, 2005, pp. 479-480).

(35) The woman *whose daughter* you met is Mrs. Brown.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1249)

Relative adverbs include ‘where,’ ‘when,’ ‘why’ and they modify the antecedent of places, times, and reasons, respectively, as examples below:

(36) *Do you know a shop **where** I can find sandals?*

(37) *I’ll never forget the day **when** I first met you.*

(38) *Do you know the reason **why** she doesn’t like me?*

(Swan, 2005, p. 479)

Apart from nouns referring to places, the relative adverb ‘where’ can be used with other antecedents such as ‘stage,’ ‘point,’ ‘situation,’ ‘activity,’ ‘case,’ ‘example’ (Yule, 2006, p. 180).

(39) a. *We have reached a stage **where** we now have more people applying than we have space for.*

b. *Women are better in situations **where** strategy is more important than strength.*

(Yule, 2006, p. 180)

In addition, the relative pronoun ‘that’ can substitute the relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ ‘why,’ which results in a more informal style (Ballard, 2007, p. 138). Moreover, ‘preposition + which’ is usually used instead of the three relative adverbs

in a formal style (Hewings, 2003, p. 144; Yule, 2006, p. 173). Thus, the relative adverbs in Examples 36 - 38 may be substituted as follows:

- (40) *Do you know a shop **at which** I can find sandals?*
- (41) *I'll never forget the day **on which** I first met you.*
- (42) *Do you know the reason **for which** she doesn't like me?*

(adapted from Swan, 2005, p. 479)

Relative adverbs, meanings and their variations are summarized from Foley and Hall (2004, p. 300), Swan (2005, p. 479), and Yule (2006, p. 180) and provided in Table 9.

Table 9. Relative adverbs

Relative adverbs	References of the modified head noun	Variations	
		Relative pronoun	Preposition + which
where	places	that	at which, in which, etc.
when	times	that	at which, during which, on which, etc.
why	reasons	that	for which

That is, 'where,' when,' 'why' can be used instead of a noun with the relative pronoun: 'where' for 'the place where;' 'when' for 'the time when;' and 'why' for 'the reason why' (Yule, 2006, p. 180). The examples are provided below.

- (43) a. *He pointed to **where** he used to live.*
- b. *He pointed to **the place where** he used to live.*
- (44) a. *They were talking about **when** they were children.*
- b. *They were talking about **the time when** they were children.*

- (45) a. *She never told anyone **why** she had to leave.*
 b. *She never told anyone **the reason why** she had to leave.*

(adapted from Yule, 2006, p. 180)

Along the same lines to the use of the relative word ‘that’ and the preposition with the relative word ‘which,’ there are other substitutions for the relative determiner ‘whose’ in the less formal context. The most common structures are ‘noun + of which,’ ‘that ... of,’ and ‘of which ... + noun’ (Swan, 2005, p. 497), as exemplified below.

- (46) a. *He’s written a book **whose name** I’ve forgotten.*
 b. *He’s written a book **the name of which** I’ve forgotten.*
 c. *He’s written a book **that** I’ve forgotten **the name of**.*
 d. *He’s written a book **of which** I’ve forgotten **the name**.*

(Swan, 2005, p. 481)

It can be noticed that ‘whose name’ in (46a) refers back to the antecedent ‘book’ to show the connection: ‘the name of the book.’ Thus, the structures used in (46b) to (46d) are the alternatives to (46a).

The last item of the relative subordinators discussed in this section is ‘what.’ This is relatively a reverse dimension of RCs since the nominal pronoun ‘what’ means ‘the thing(s) which/that;’ thus, it does not refer back to any antecedent. Clauses which start with ‘what’ can function as a subject, an object, or a complement (Swan, 2005, p. 481; Yule, 2006, p. 180).

- (47) *I hope you’re going to give me **what I need**.*

(Swan, 2005, p. 481)

From (47), the meaning is the same as ‘I hope you’re going to give me the thing(s) which/that I need.’

This structure will be discussed further in 5. Nominal RCs.

2. Bare RCs

The above section discussed RCs with a relative pronoun or other relative subordinators. This section investigates bare RCs, or ‘bare relatives,’ which are the RCs that do not have an overt relative pronoun or a relativized element (Ballard, 2007, p. 139; Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 184; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1034; Radford, 2004, p. 224). That is, the relative pronouns and other relative expressions can be omitted from the RCs; in other words, the clause contains a ‘zero relative pronoun¹⁸’ (Ballard, 2007, p. 139; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1034). Although there is no overt form of the relative element, the anaphoric link holds (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 184). Bare RCs are common in an informal style (Swan, 2005, p. 480; Yule, 2006, p. 173).

However, not all RCs can omit the relative pronouns. Usually, this occurs in an informal style (Swan, 2005, p. 480; Yule, 2006, p. 173). The restrictions can be grouped into two points (Hewings, 2003, p. 140; Swan, 2005, p. 480):

- (i) the relative pronoun is the object of the RC, and
- (ii) the non-restrictive RC cannot omit a relative pronoun.

For (i), in order that a relative pronoun can be omitted, the relative pronoun must function as an object within that RC, for example:

- (48) This is something (*which/that*) I will treasure.

(adapted from Radford, 2004, p. 224)

Regarding (ii), while the restrictive RC as in (48) can leave out the relative pronoun, the non-restrictive RC cannot, as shown in (49). (Details on restrictive and non-restrictive RCs will be discussed in 2.2.1.3 on Types of ERCs.)

¹⁸ According to Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1034), the formal RC types are *wh* relatives, non-*wh* relative: *that* relative, and non-*wh*: bare relative. For non-*wh* relatives, including both *that* and bare relatives, the covert anaphoric element or the covert relative word is referred to as ‘a gap.’ This term used by Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1034) is different from ‘the gap’ used by Biber et al. (1999, p. 608), which in the latter case refers to the missing element in an RC that corresponds in meaning with the head noun.

(49) **She met my brother, she later married.*

(adapted from Swan, 2005, p. 480)

Sentence 49 above is ungrammatical since it omitted the relative pronoun which should be present: “*She met my brother, whom she later married.*” (Swan, 2005, p. 480).

3. Reduced RCs

Reduced RCs, or ‘participle clauses’ as considered by some grammar books, postmodify the preceding noun phrase the same way typical RCs do. Yet, the structure is different. That it is called ‘reduced RCs’ or ‘participle clauses’ is because the structure contains either the ‘present participle (-ing)’ or the ‘past participle (-ed),’ which some linguists consider this nonfinite clause as the reduced form of the full RCs (Ballard, 2007, p. 139; Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Yule, 2006, p. 176). So, a participle is used instead of a relative pronoun ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that’ with a finite verb (Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Swan, 2005, p. 484). Both types of the reduced RCs are normally used instead of a restrictive RC (Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1265).

Examples are provided below. (50a) and (51a) are sentences with an RC, and (50b) and (51b) are reduced RCs with a present participle and a past participle, respectively.

(50) a. There are two students who are waiting outside.

b. *There are two students waiting outside.*

(51) a. The strawberries which had been dipped in chocolate were really delicious!

b. *The strawberries dipped in chocolate were really delicious!*

(Yule, 2006, p. 176)

A present participle, (50b), is used when the verb is active. On the other hand, as for a past participle, (51b) is adopted when the verb is passive (Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Yule, 2006, p. 176).

With regard to the types of RCs, not only can reduced RCs be used with RRCs, but they can also be used with non-restrictive RCs, normally in descriptive writings and narratives (Vince, 2008, p. 159; Yule, 2006, p. 176). The structure is identical to reduced RCs of RRCs, but the added element is the punctuations to mark the reduced RCs as in (52a) with a present participle and (52b) with a past participle.

(52) a. *The old car, **trailing black smoke**, drove off towards town.*

b. *Robert Ball, **nicknamed 'Big Bob'**, was my favourite teacher.*

(Yule, 2006, p. 176)

Participles can be used to refer to verbs in various tenses (past, present, future) and aspects (simple, perfect, progressive). Into detail, reduced RCs with a present participle and those with a past participle are elaborated below.

3.1 Reduced RCs with a present participle

As stated above, a present participle clause is used when the verb of the RC is active. Also, the relative pronoun must function as the subject of the RC (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1263). That is, for example, in (50a), the relative pronoun 'who,' modifying its antecedent noun phrase 'two students', is the subject of the lower clause performing the action 'are waiting outside.' Since participles can refer to verbs in many tenses and aspects, a present participle in a reduced RC can be derived from sentences with various tense and aspect combinations. The examples are provided below.

(53) The person *writing reports* is my colleague.

(54) a. The person *who will write reports* is my colleague.

b. The person *who will be writing reports* is my colleague.

- c. The person *who writes reports* is my colleague.
- d. The person *who is writing reports* is my colleague.
- e. The person *who wrote reports* is my colleague.
- f. The person *who was writing reports* is my colleague.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1263)

Sentence 53 can be derived from one sentence from (54a) to (54f), and usually the context plays a role in assigning the meaning.

Nevertheless, there are some exceptions in forming a reduced RC. First, to keep in mind, a present participle is not always the abbreviation of a progressive verb; for example, stative verbs cannot be in a progressive form as a finite verb (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1263). Thus, Sentence 55 can be derived from (56a), but not (56b).

- (55) It was a mixture *consisting* of oil and vinegar.
- (56) a. It was a mixture *that consisted of* oil and vinegar.
- b. *It was a mixture *that was consisting of* oil and vinegar.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1263)

Another point is to reaffirm and exemplify the relative pronoun as being a subject of the RC. Therefore, having a noun phrase between the relative pronoun and the verb in restrictive RCs specifies that the particular noun phrase is the subject of the subordinate clause, so a present participle cannot be adopted.

- (57) a. The man **who Tim is meeting** for lunch is from Taiwan.
- b. *The man Tim meeting for lunch is from Taiwan.

(adapted from Hewings, 2003, p. 148)

3.2 Reduced RCs with a past participle

Unlike a present participle, reduced RCs with a past participle deals with a passive verb. As in (51b) ‘The strawberries dipped in chocolate were really delicious!’, the head noun phrase came from ‘The strawberries which had been dipped in chocolate’ and it underwent passivization. Thus, as same as a nonfinite clause of a present participle, a past participle can be interpreted from sentences with various verb tenses and aspects as examples shown below:

- (58) a. The book **published last week** is his first written for children.
 b. The book that was published last week is his first written for children.
- (59) a. The boys **being chosen for the team** are under 9.
 b. The boys who are being chosen for the team are under 9.

(adapted from Hewings, 2003, p. 148)

From (58) and (59), sentences (a) contain reduced RCs with a past participle which can be derived from a past tense (58b) or a present tense (59b). Therefore, nonfinite clauses in this case include the structure of ‘being + past participle’ indicating the progressive aspect.

However, since intransitive verbs do not allow passivization, a past participle of an intransitive verb is not truly grammatical as in (60b).

- (60) a. The train *which has arrived at platform 1* is from York.
 b. ?*The train *arrived at platform 1* is from York.
 c. The train *recently arrived at platform 1* is from York.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1265)

Example 60c is grammatical due to the exception of having an adverb between the preceding noun phrase and the past participle. There are some certain adverbs, if positing in between, which will yield grammatical sentences of a reduced RC with an intransitive verb (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1265).

4. Sentential RCs

Unlike the aforementioned types of RCs, sentential RCs do not postmodify the preceding noun, but they modify the whole previous clause (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1244-1245; Swan, 2005, p. 479). That is, the antecedent is not a noun phrase but a clausal. The relative pronoun used in sentential RCs is ‘which’ (Swan, 2005, p. 479), and this type of RCs is always NRRCs (Biber et al., 1999, p. 195). The example in (61a) shows the sentential RC.

(61) a. They are fond of snakes and lizards, *which surprises me*.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1244)

The italicized RC ‘which surprises me’ postmodifies the entire previous clause ‘They are fond of snakes and lizards.’ The verb in the RC also reflects the clausal modification since a singular verb ‘surprises’ is used although the RC follows a plural noun. In addition, sentential RCs function similar to coordinate clauses as (61a) can also be interpreted as in (61b):

(61) b. They are fond of snakes and lizards, *and that surprises me*.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1245)

The nominal pronoun ‘what’ cannot be used instead of the relative pronoun ‘which’ in this case (Swan, 2005, p. 479). Therefore, Sentence 61c is ungrammatical.

(61) c. *They are fond of snakes and lizards, *what surprises me*.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1244)

5. Nominal RCs

A nominal RC or ‘fused relative construction’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 191) is similar to both nominal clauses and RCs (Ballard, 2007, p. 142). This construction begins with a wh-word, including those which end in ‘-ever.’ The two groups of relative words are: 1) ‘who, whom, what, which, where, when’ and 2)

‘whoever, whomever, whatever, whichever, wherever, whenever’ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 191). Nominal RCs are close to nominal clauses in terms of their occurrence in a noun position, for example, a subject position, an object position, or a complement position. With regard to RCs, nominal RCs share the same feature of having the wh-words; however, the difference is that the antecedent is fused with the relativized element. The examples of nominal RCs are illustrated below:

(62) a. Whoever said that was trying to mislead you.

b. I’ve eaten what you gave me.

(Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 191)

c. The impersonator became whoever they wanted him to be

(Ballard, 2007, p. 142)

Examples 62a to 62c present the nominal RCs in different positions which are the subject, the object, and the complement, respectively. Since the antecedents are fused with the relative elements, examples in (62) can probably be formulated as:

(63) a. The person who said that was trying to mislead you.

b. I’ve eaten that which you gave me.

(adapted from Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 191)

c. The impersonator became the characters which they wanted him to be.

(adapted from Ballard, 2007, p. 142)

As for the wh-word ‘what,’ mentioned earlier under the topic of *Relative pronouns* in the section *1. RCs with a relative pronoun or other relativizers*, apart from being a nominal pronoun, it is also a determinative (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 192). That is, it can be placed as a determiner before a noun, which results in a noun phrase. The example is provided below.

(64) What mistakes she made were very minor.

(Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 192)

6. Cleft RCs

Another type of RCs is called ‘cleft RCs.’ According to Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1035), a cleft RC is “the clause that occurs after the foregrounded element in an *it*-cleft construction.” That is, in an *it*-cleft construction there are two parts: the foregrounded element, which receives the emphasis, and the backgrounded element (Yule, 2006, p. 217). This construction can be illustrated as ‘it + be + the foregrounded element + the backgrounded element (an RC).’ The relativized element used here can be ‘that,’ ‘who,’ or a zero relative pronoun; ‘which’ can also be used instead of ‘that.’ In informal English, ‘when’ and ‘where’ are acceptable; however, ‘that’ cannot be replaced by ‘how’ or ‘why’ (Hewings, 2003, p. 236; Yule, 2006, p. 217).

The followings are examples of cleft RCs.

(65) a. Someone said Ali phoned earlier. (Ali didn’t phone. Alex phoned.)

b. *No, it wasn’t Ali who phoned. It was Alex.*

(66) a. I’m not interested in anyone else. (I love you!)

b. *It’s you that I love!*

(67) a. Don’t you like vegetables? – No, I like most of them. (I hate onions.)

b. *It’s onions I hate.*

(adapted from Yule, 2006, p. 217)

The sentences (a) of (65) – (67) are the statements leading to (b) – *it*-cleft constructions. The relative pronouns employed above varies from ‘who,’ ‘that,’ to a zero relative pronoun. The words which are the foregrounded elements are ‘Ali,’ ‘you,’ ‘onions,’ and the backgrounded elements are ‘phoned,’ ‘I love,’ and ‘I hate,’ respectively.

2.2.1.3 Types of ERCs

RCs can be divided into two types based on their functions: restrictive relative clauses (RRCs) and non-restrictive relative clauses (NRRCs) (Biber et al., 1999, p. 602; Pingkarawat, 2009, pp. 3-4). The following section describes each type of RCs with regard to three interrelated aspects – meaning, syntax, and prosody and punctuation (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058).

1. RRCs

RRCs are also known by other names, for example, ‘identifying’ or ‘defining’ RCs (Swan, 2005, p. 479; Yule, 1998, p. 248). Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1058) refer to this type of RC as ‘integrated relative clauses’ due to the fact that it is “integrated into the matrix constructions in terms of prosody, syntax, and meaning.”

1.1 Meaning

As suggested by the names – ‘restrictive,’ ‘identifying,’ ‘defining,’ this type of RCs restricts or identifies the references of the antecedents or the head noun phases using the information in the RC (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 303; Swan, 2005, p. 479; Yule, 1998, p. 248). The antecedents of RRCs tend to be general. That is, the RCs do not refer to all members of the class of the antecedent; they specify some of them (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 304; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1239). So, RRCs identify specific references of the head noun and may add new information to it (Biber et al., 1999, p. 602) as in the example below.

(68) *People **who take physical exercise** live longer.*

(Swan, 2005, p. 479)

RRCs are significant part of the sentence in terms of the meaning. Omitting the RC can alter the entire meaning, as illustrated in Example 69.

(69) *They interviewed every student who had lent money to the victim.*

(Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058)

Without the RRC ‘who had lent money to the victim,’ the sentence would be ‘They interview every student,’ which would mean all the students with and without lending the money to the victim.

Apart from the typical usage and meaning of RRCs, they can also convey conditional relationship if the antecedents are general (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1241) as in the examples below.

(70) a. Students *who work hard* pass their exams.

b. If students work hard, they pass their exams.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1241)

1.2 Syntax

As suggested by Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1058), RRCs or integrated RCs become a part of the preceding noun phrase with the function of postmodifying it. That is, “head noun phrases are followed by a subordinate clause” (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 314). The RC together with the postmodified head noun becomes a noun phrase and forms a nominal constituent (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 306; Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008, p. 5) as can be seen from Examples 71a and 71b.

(71) a. *The student who won the debating tournament* attend Brown University.

b. *They* attend Brown University.

(LeTourneau, 2001, p. 306)

The head noun phrase and the RC in (71a) make up a constituent and are inseparable since this whole noun phrase can be substituted by the pronoun ‘They.’

With regard to relative words to be used with RRCs, there are *wh*-relatives, ‘that,’ and a zero relative pronoun (yielding bare RCs) (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1059; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1248).

1.3 Prosody and punctuation

In speaking, RRCs usually follow the antecedent without pauses; the intonation contour is the same between the head noun and the RCs (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; Swan, 2005, p. 479). This goes in accordance with the semantic aspect as the information of the RRCs is important to the comprehension of the antecedent. As for written language, there are no separation markers such as commas, dashes, or parentheses to mark the RCs. Nevertheless, separation markers are not always reliable. RCs without a separation marker might, considered from the syntax and/or meaning, be NRRCs or supplementary RCs (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058).

2. NRRCs

As the counterpart of RRCs, NRRCs can also be called by other names such as ‘non-identifying’ or ‘non-defining’ RCs (Swan, 2005, p. 479; Yule, 1998, p. 248) or ‘appositive RCs¹⁹’ (Radford, 2004, p. 233). In contrast to ‘integrated relative clauses,’ NRRCs are termed ‘supplementary relative clauses’ by Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1058) since they are not totally integrated into the main construction and do not combine with the head noun phrase. NRRCs are more common in formal and written language and less common in informal speech (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299; Hewings, 2003, p. 142; Swan, 2005, p. 479).

2.1 Meaning

NRRCs function differently from RRCs as NRRCs do not define or restrict the references of the antecedents. This type of RC supplies additional information as a separate unit of the antecedent that is already identified (Huddleston et al., 2002, pp. 1058-1059; LeTourneau, 2001, pp. 304, 324; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1239; Swan, 2005, p. 479; Yule, 1998, p. 173).

¹⁹ According to an example provided by Radford (2004, p. 233), appositive RCs also include sentential RCs.

- (72) Professor Johnson, **who(m)** I have long admired, is to visit the university next week.

(Hewings, 2003, p. 142)

Unlike RRCs, omitting NRRCs does not affect the meaning of the main clause (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1059).

Since the information in NRRCs is extra, the head nouns that are postmodified by NRRCs may come from three types of head nouns: proper nouns, generic common nouns, and definite common nouns (LeTourneau, 2001, pp. 324-326).

Proper nouns identify specific references; therefore, normally the RCs provide supplementary detail. The example is in (72). However, proper nouns may be followed by an RRC in case where there is more than one entity sharing the names (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 325; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1241). For example, if two noun phrases share the same name, the proper noun will be treated as a common noun and will take the article ‘the’:

- (73) The John Smith of whom I am speaking is my colleague at Purdue, not the keynote speaker for this conference.

(LeTourneau, 2001, p. 325)

Regarding generic common nouns and definite common nouns, these two types of head nouns in fact can take both NRRCs and RRCs. Generic common nouns are nouns which refer to all the member of a class and have generic meaning. If they are not postmodified by RRCs, the NRRCs only supply the additional information due to the fact that the generic common noun itself includes all members of that class. Sentences 74a and 74b exemplify the generic common nouns as the antecedent with the RRC and the NRRC, respectively.

- (74) a. English professors who write poetry are underpaid.
b. English professors, who write poetry, are underpaid.

(Thomas and Kintgen, 1974 cited in LeTourneau, 2001, p. 325)

The two sentences above have the same generic common noun ‘English professors.’ With the RRC in (74a), the sentence specifies that only English professors who write poetry are those who are underpaid. On the contrary, (74b) contains the NRRC which only adds an extra information to ‘English professors.’ That is, from Sentence 74b, writing poetry is what all English professors do, and they all are underpaid.

Another example of a noun with generic reference:

- (75) The giant panda, *which is to be found in the remote parts of China*, lives exclusively on bamboo shoots.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1240)

The last type is definite common nouns, which can also take RRCs. A common noun becomes definite with the addition of a definite determiner, for example, ‘the.’ For this type of head noun can adopt both types of RC, the context is necessary to help justify which type of RC to use. Example 76a below is the RRC when the definite common noun needs identification, while (76b) the definite common noun is known, and the RC is only for extra information.

- (76) a. The students who took first place in the debate tournament are from Brown University.
 b. The students, who took first place in the debate tournament, are from Brown University.

(LeTourneau, 2001, p. 326)

Similar to RRCs, NRRCs can also express other meanings. Since NRRCs supply extra information, NRRCs can, sometimes, be paraphrased to take adverbial functions in order to show contrast or cause (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1240-1241, 1258). Examples 77b – 77d are variations of adverbial clauses and an adverbial prepositional phrase of Sentence 77a which contains an NRRC of which the content is compulsory to the main clause due to the word ‘still.’

- (77) a. My brother, *who has lived in America for over 30 years*, can still speak Italian.
- b. My brother can still speak Italian, *although he has lived in America for over 30 years*.
- c. *Although he has lived in America for over 30 years*, my brother can still speak Italian.
- d. *After over 30 years in America*, my brother can still speak Italian.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1240)

The above examples show the contrast between the two parts of the sentence. Examples 78b and 78c demonstrate an adverbial function of cause from NRRCs in (78a).

- (78) a. Ann thanked her teacher, *who had been very helpful*.
- b. Ann thanked her teacher *because he had been very helpful*.
- c. Ann thanked her teacher *for being very helpful*.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1241)

In addition, NRRCs can be used to express consecutive actions (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299) and coordination with or without a conjunction, as presented in Examples 79 and 80.

- (79) *Heskey passed the ball to Owen, who scored a magnificent goal.*

(Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299)

- (80) a. Then he met Mary, *who* invited him to a party.
- b. Then he met Mary, *and she* invited him to a party.
- c. Then he met Mary; she invited *him* to a party.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1258)

2.2 Syntax

Unlike general terms for types of RCs, Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1058) use the term *supplementary RCs* to identify that they are “related only loosely to the surrounding structures” and “loosely incorporated into the sentence.” What separated the NRRCs from their antecedents are the punctuation marks – which will be discussed later in following section – that keep them from forming a noun phrase (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; LeTourneau, 2001, p. 327) and “create more linguistic distance between the antecedent and the relative clause” (Yule, 1998, p. 249).

(81) *The necklace, which her mother gave to her, is in the safe.*

(Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058)

From the example above, ‘The necklace’ constitutes a noun phrase by itself, and the NRRC ‘which her mother gave to her’ does not combine with its preceding noun phrase. A constituency test of pronoun substitution justifies that NRRCs are separate constituents from the antecedent (LeTourneau, 2001, pp. 327-328).

(82) Mayor Corradini, who visited Nagano earlier this year, was impressed by much of what she saw there. Nevertheless, she believes that, with proper preparation, Salt Lake can be an even better venue.

(LeTourneau, 2001, p. 327)

Based on the constituency test, the pronoun ‘she’ in the second sentence refers back only to ‘Mayor Corradini,’ but not ‘Mayor Corradini, who visited Nagano earlier this year,’; this proves that the NRRC is a separate constituent from its antecedent – the preceding noun phrase.

Regarding the relative words that can be used with NRRCs, they differ from RRCs in that for NRRCs only wh-relatives ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ ‘whose’ are typical (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1248). On the other hand, the use of the relative word ‘that’ is rare and questionably grammatical, and the zero relative pronoun, i.e. bare

RCs, is not allowed for NRRCs (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 184; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1258; Yule, 2006, p. 174). Examples are illustrated below.

- (83) a. I spoke to Dr Spolsky, *who* was unwilling to give further details.
 b. *I spoke to Dr Spolsky, *that* was unwilling to give further details.
 c. *I spoke to Dr Spolsky, \emptyset was unwilling to give further details.

(adapted from Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1257)

2.3 Prosody and punctuation

Since NRRCs are separate units from antecedents and the content is additional, the RCs have boundary in speaking and writing. The intonation contour usually matches with the preceding unit, including the antecedent, of the RC (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1258). There is a slight pause before the RC, when the preceding clause is the main clause, and after it – in case where the RC is not at the end of the sentence (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1258; Swan, 2005, p. 496). The examples are provided below with () representing a pause.

- (84) a. *We were given a lovely double room (), which had a sea view.*
 b. *I first met Harry Gardiner (), who eventually became my father-in-law (), at a Law Society meeting.*

(Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 299)

However, sometimes the prosody does not assure the types of RCs whether they are NRRCs or RRCs (Biber et al., 1999, p. 602).

For written language, distinguishing NRRCs from main clauses is less complicated, though not always definite. NRRCs are typically separated from their surroundings by separation markers: commas, dashes, and parentheses; the last two

are less common (Biber et al., 1999, p. 602; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; Yule, 1998, p. 248).

- (85) a. My neighbor, who is an English teacher, plays very loud music.
 b. The man – whose name is Johnny Jensen – also likes to have weekend parties.
 c. These parties (which are very rowdy) seem to go on all night.

(Yule, 1998, p. 248)

As mentioned earlier, punctuation markers are not entirely reliable. RCs without punctuations may turn out to be NRRCs considering their meaning (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058).

2.2.1.4 Grammatical functions of ERCs and relative pronouns in ERCs

This section discusses the grammatical functions of ERCs in a sentence, which functions similar to normal noun phrases, and relative pronouns in ERCs.

1. Grammatical functions of ERCs

LeTourneau (2001, pp. 308-309, 328) identifies seven grammatical functions of RRCs when considering together with the nominal antecedent, while none for NRRCs on the basis that NRRCs do not form a constituent with the antecedent. Therefore, it is unable to define the functions of NRRCs in a sentence. Seven grammatical functions of RRCs are as follows with corresponding examples provided by LeTourneau (2001, pp. 308-309, 328). The square brackets are added to specify the head noun with the RC.

1. Subjects

- (86) [The students who won the debating tournament] attend Brown University.

In (86), the RC postmodifies the head noun ‘student,’ and the whole NP functions as the subject of the main clause performing the verb ‘attend.’

2. Direct objects

- (87) The coach introduced [the team that won the debating tournament] to the press.

In (87), the NP, which comprises the noun phrase ‘the team’ postmodified by the RC, is the direct object of the verb ‘introduce.’

3. Indirect objects

- (88) The judges awarded [the student who won the spelling bee] a check for \$200.

The noun phrase with the RC, i.e. ‘the student who won the spelling bee,’ functions as the indirect object in (88). In other words, the sentence can be rearranged to ‘The judge awarded a check for \$200 to the student who won the spelling bee.’ The ‘check’ is the direct object in this sentence.

4. Objects of a preposition

- (89) The judges received a letter from [the student who won the spelling bee].

In (89), the head noun ‘student’ is modified by the RC ‘who won the spelling bee.’ This NP in the brackets functions as the object of the preposition ‘from.’

5. Predicate nominatives

- (90) Dr. Jones is [the candidate whose qualifications best fit our needs].

In (90), the head noun ‘the candidate’ with the RC ‘whose qualifications best fit our needs’ constitutes a noun phrase which functions as a predicate nominative²⁰ to complete the copulative verb ‘be.’

6. Object complements

- (91) The committee judges Dr. Jones [the candidate who is most qualified for the position].

The noun phrase ‘the candidate’ modified by the RC functions as the object complement of the direct object ‘Dr. Jones.’ That is, the noun phrase ‘the candidate who is most qualified for the position’ describes ‘Dr. Jones.’

7. Direct objects of an object complement

- (92) The search committee considers [candidates who are qualified] unavailable.

In (92), the head noun ‘candidates’ postmodified by the RC ‘who are qualified’ constitutes a noun phrase. This whole noun phrase acts as the direct object of the verb ‘consider,’ and is followed by the adjective ‘unavailable,’ which is the object complement describing the candidates.

2. Grammatical functions of relative pronouns in ERCs

Many scholars present grammatical functions of relative pronouns in RCs. Most fundamental ones are labeled identically, i.e. subject and object. Other functions are categorized differently. In other word, functions of relative pronouns reflect elements in RCs that can be relativized (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1044). Thus, sometimes these functions are referred to as the grammatical functions of the missing

²⁰ A predicate nominative is a noun phrase “that functions as a complement to a linking verb” (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 554).

element in the RC or the relativized element or the gap. Relative pronouns mentioned in this section include the relativizer ‘that’ and the zero relative pronoun when RRCs apply. As mentioned earlier under the topic of *Relative pronouns*, Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 1248-1249) identify four functions of relative pronouns in RCs for both RRCs and NRRCs, i.e. subject, object, complement, and adverbial (or complement in a prepositional phrase which functions as adverbial). While Quirk et al. presented relatively concise groups of function, yet inclusive, they did not explicitly mention the relative word ‘whose.’ Its function is separated into another category in others’ works. Yule (1998, pp. 241-244) groups the functions of relative pronouns into four: subject, object, after-preposition, and possessive relatives. After-prepositive relatives in this case mirror the adverbial function. As for possessive relatives, it is the RC beginning with ‘whose.’

LeTourneau (2001, pp. 310-313) and Huddleston et al. (2002, pp. 1044-1046) divide functions of relative pronouns in RCs rather comprehensively – seven functions each – although the functions are called differently. The functions are elaborated in Table 10 below.

Table 10. Grammatical functions of relative pronouns in RCs adapted from LeTourneau (2001, pp. 310-313) and Huddleston et al. (2002, pp. 1044-1046)

LeTourneau	Huddleston et al.
<p>Subjects The session <i>which</i> begins at 10.00 will be in Ballroom C.</p>	<p>Subject</p>
<p>Direct objects The candidate <i>whom</i> we hired for this position received her Ph.D. from Cornell.</p>	<p>Object</p>
<p>Indirect objects²¹ The poet <i>whom</i> the committee had awarded first prize declined the honor.</p>	<p>- *The student <i>whom</i> he showed the exam paper informed the police.</p>

²¹ Although LeTourneau identifies the function of indirect objects, Huddleston and Pullum states that it is unusual to apply relativization to indirect objects.

LeTourneau	Huddleston et al.
Objects of a preposition	Complement of preposition
The penknife <i>that</i> he was trying to cut it with was blunt.	
The penknife <i>with which</i> he was trying to cut it was blunt.	
Direct objects of an object complement	-
The person <i>whom</i> we considered most qualified for the position accepted a job elsewhere.	
Predicate nominative	Predicative complement
The unfeeling person <i>that</i> Antonia has become appalls her family.	
Possessor	Genitive subject-determiner
One cannot tailor a suit for a client <i>whose</i> measurements remain unknown.	
-	Adjuncts and associated complements
	They want to go to the <i>place where</i> they went last year.
-	Complement of auxiliary verb, and related constructions (Supplementary relatives only)
	He told me to <i>design it myself, which</i> I simply can't.

The examples in Table 10 are cited and adapted from either LeTourneau (2001, pp. 310-313) or Huddleston et al. (2002, pp. 1044-1046).

The most different functions between the two may probably be the last two functions identified by Huddleston and Pullum, i.e. adjuncts and associated complements, and complement of auxiliary verb, and related constructions. The function of adjunct and associated complements includes wider scope of the noun

phrase than that of the complement of a preposition. Thus, other relativizers are involved such as ‘when’ and ‘where.’ For the latter one, when relative pronouns function as a complement of auxiliary verbs, this crosses the modification of a noun phrase to a complement of a verb, which as stated above is for supplementary relatives only. To exemplify, from the example, what is being relativized is the complement ‘design it myself.’ In other words, this belongs to the structure of sentential RCs.

2.2.1.5 Appositive clauses

Another structure of noun-phrase postmodifiers which is superficially similar to RCs with the relativizer ‘that’ is ‘appositive clauses²²’ (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1244). It is also called ‘content clauses’ (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1038), ‘complement clauses’ or to be more specific as ‘noun complement clauses’ or ‘that-clauses’ (Biber et al., 1999, p. 644), or ‘appositional noun clauses’ (LeTourneau, 2001, p. 314). An example of an appositive clause and an RC are provided in (83) and (84), respectively.

(93) The news *that the team had won* calls for a celebration.

(94) The news *that appeared in the papers this morning* was well received.

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1244)

For the structures of the examples above, on the surface level, they look similar. However, what distinguishes an appositive clause from an RC is that in appositive clauses there is no anaphoric link in the subordinate clause which corresponds with the antecedent, while RCs contain this gap (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 644-645; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1038). Therefore, Example 93 of the appositive clause does not contain any gap; the clause presents the content of the antecedent

²² Appositive clauses in English and noun complement clauses in Thai (see 2.2.2.5 Noun complement clauses) resemble ERCs and TRCs on a superficial level. That is, they all are noun-phrase postmodifiers. Nonetheless, the main difference lies in that ERCs and TRCs contain a missing element, but appositive clauses in English and noun complement clauses in Thai do not. These topics were reviewed and included in this chapter to clarify their dissimilarities from RCs. Appositive clauses in English and noun complement clauses in Thai were beyond the scope of this study and were excluded from the analysis.

which is the head noun (Biber et al., 1999, p. 645). That is, ‘The news’ mentioned in the main clause is about ‘the team had won.’ On the contrary, as for Example 94 with an RC, there is a gap in the RC which functions as the subject of this subordinate clause and anaphorically links to the antecedent ‘The news.’ In other words, the meaning of the RC in (94) is ‘The news appeared in the papers this morning.’

According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1260), appositive clauses and RCs are different in three aspects.

(i) In appositive clauses, the particle ‘that²³’ is not an element in the clause structure. That is, it does not have any function such as the subject or the object as in RCs²⁴ as can be seen from Examples 83 and 84. Therefore, ‘that’ in appositive clauses functions as a conjunction. In addition, ‘that’ cannot be omitted in appositive clauses, unlike RCs (Biber et al., 1999, p. 645).

(ii) Non-restrictive and restrictive appositive clauses begin the clause with ‘that.’

An example of a non-restrictive appositive clause is provided in (95).

(95) She rejected *their excuses*, even this last one, *that* investigations had taken several weeks.

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(iii) The head noun phrase of an appositive clause must be a general abstract noun, for example, ‘answer,’ ‘fact,’ ‘remark,’ ‘idea.’

(96) We discussed *the fact that* he had been absent a lot.

(Yule, 2006, p. 164)

These nouns which are often used in appositive clauses were compiled in the corpus study of Biber et al. (1999, pp. 648-649). The occurrence of words more than twice and ten times per million words in selected registers of the corpus reveals a set

²³ The particle ‘that’ is also referred to as a complementizer ‘that’ (Biber et al., 1999, p. 645).

²⁴ According to Huddleston et al. (2002, p. 1034) and Radford (2004, pp. 228-229), ‘that’ is not considered as a relative pronoun, but a clause subordinator or a relative complementiser, respectively. Thus, the particle ‘that’ will function differently from normal relative pronouns. As a result, the analysis cannot be applied with Quirk et al.’s (i) (1985, p. 1260).

of nouns. The most common head nouns can be divided into two main kinds of stance information: (i) an assessment of the certainty and (ii) an indication of the source of the knowledge (Biber et al., 1999, p. 648).

(i) The nouns which show an assessment of the certainty are, for example, ‘assumption,’ ‘fact,’ ‘claim,’ ‘possibility,’ ‘hypothesis,’ ‘rumor.’

(ii) The nouns which indicate the source of the knowledge in the appositive clauses can be categorized into three sources: linguistic communication (for example, ‘claim,’ ‘report,’ ‘proposal,’ ‘remark,’ ‘suggestion’); cognitive reasoning (such as ‘assumption,’ ‘idea,’ ‘hypothesis,’ ‘observation’); and personal belief (such as ‘belief,’ ‘hope,’ ‘opinion,’ ‘doubt’).

Other nouns which are common in appositive clauses are, for example, ‘conclusion,’ ‘view,’ ‘fear,’ ‘knowledge,’ ‘news,’ and ‘thought.’

Many of these nouns are nominalized from verbs or adjectives (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 648-649; Yule, 2006, p. 164). Examples are provided below.

- (97) a. *There seems to be an automatic [assumption] that a single division on a scale represents a single unit of some kind.*
 b. *She had always idly [assumed] that there was some system.*
- (98) a. *But there remains a [possibility] that gregarious Desert Locusts might become less viable.*
 b. *It is [possible] that she has just decided to leave the area.*

(Biber et al., 1999, p. 649)

Examples 97a and 98a contain a noun which is nominalized from a verb in (97b) and an adjective in (98b), respectively. Other nouns with corresponding verbs are, for example, ‘hope,’ ‘suggestion,’ ‘belief,’ ‘claim,’ ‘conclusion,’ ‘report,’ ‘hypothesis,’ ‘thought.’ The only common noun nominalized from an adjective is ‘possibility.’

Although appositive clauses and RCs are superficially similar, the actual use based on the corpus study in Biber et al. (1999, p. 650) shows that the nouns that are common with an appositive clause rarely take a relativizer ‘that’ of an RC.

With regard to the functions of appositive clauses, similar to RCs, appositive clauses can also be used in non-restrictive functions (Biber et al., 1999, p. 646). They are used to supply additional information or function as a reminder. Apart from commas, other punctuation marks, i.e. dashes or brackets, can be used (Yule, 2006, p. 164) as illustrated in Examples 99 – 101.

(99) *It was a pleasing thought, **that I might soon be moving in more exalted circles.***

(Biber et al., 1999, p. 646)

(100) *One idea – **that Elvis is still alive** – keeps coming up in interviews with fans.*

(101) *They were questioning her about her first explanation (**that there had been a burglar**) when she suddenly changed her story completely.*

(Yule, 2006, p. 164)

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2.2.2 Thai relative clauses

This section elaborates the basic characteristics of TRCs (2.2.2.1), different syntactic structures (2.2.2.2) and types of TRCs (2.2.2.3). Then, the grammatical functions of TRCs and relativizers (2.2.2.4) will be presented. The section ends with the description of noun complement clauses (2.2.2.5).

2.2.2.1 Basic characteristics of TRCs

Like ERCs, TRCs are subordinate clauses which modify nouns or pronouns in the main clause (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 266). Thus, the structure of TRCs is an incomplete

sentence which contains a missing argument or a personal pronoun that is a co-referent to the head noun modified by the RC (Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20; Panthumetha, 2010, p. 219). Similar to English, TRCs come after the head noun (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Panthumetha, 2010, p. 152). The typical structure of TRCs is with a relative word: ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sũŋ/’ or ‘/?an/’ which locates after the nominal antecedent (Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 267). In other words, the TRCs are headed by a relative word (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Panthumetha, 2010, pp. 152, 216). An example of a TRC is presented below.

(102) หนังสือ ที่คุณให้ Ø ฉัน อ่านสนุกดี

(adapted from Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20)

That is, ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsũ/ (‘book’) is the head noun or the antecedent which is modified by the RC ‘ที่คุณให้ฉัน’ /tʰi: kʰun hâj cʰǎn/ (‘that you gave me’) introduced by the relative word ‘/tʰi:/.’ The missing argument is signified by the null symbol (Ø), and it is a co-referent to the modified noun phrase ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsũ/ (‘book’).

Upakitsilapasarn (2005, p. 267) states that the relative word must be located immediately after the nouns or pronouns. However, practically there can be an intervention between the antecedent and the RC. First, a classifier may be added between the antecedent and the relative word to emphasize or identify that particular noun phrase (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 43; Panthumetha, 2010, pp. 152, 217). An example of a TRC with a classifier is presented below.

(103) เด็กคนที่ฉันเคยช่วยเหลือตายเสียแล้ว

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 152)

Example 103 shows that the classifier ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘person’) emphasizes and helps identify the head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’). The missing argument – which refers to the antecedent ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) – is in the object position of the RC ‘ฉันเคย

ช่วยเหลือ(เด็ก)’ /c^hǎn k^hə:j c^hû:aj lǔ:a (dèk)/ (‘I used to help (the child)’). Another example illustrates the missing argument in the subject position of the RC.

(104) ผู้ชายคนที่มาหาเค้าเป็นน้องชายของเค้าเอง

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 43)

Initially, the subordinate clause is ‘ผู้ชายมาหาเค้า’ /p^hû: c^ha:j ma: hǎ: k^hǎw/ (‘the man came to see her’). When forming an RC, the classifier ‘คน’ /k^hon/ (‘person’) stresses one specific man. Therefore, it may be translated as “That man – the one who came to see her – is her younger brother” (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 43).

Apart from one classifier, a demonstrative may be added after the classifier to specify the head noun as illustrated in (105).

(105) ผู้หญิงคนนั้นที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษ

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 44)

The demonstrative ‘นั้น’ /nán/ (‘that’) together with the classifier ‘คน’ /k^hon/ (‘person’) helps clarify which woman is being mentioned.

Thus, the aforementioned structures can be summarized in Table 11 below. The structures and examples were adapted from Higbie and Thinsan (2003, pp. 27, 43-44) and Panthumetha (2010, p. 152).

Table 11. Various structures of a TRC (adapted from Higbie and Thinsan (2003, pp. 27, 43-44) and Panthumetha (2010, p. 152))

TRC structure	Noun	Classifier	Demonstrative	Relative word	Sentence/Clause
A typical TRC	เด็ก	-	-	ที่	ฉันเคยช่วยเหลือ
A TRC with a classifier	เด็ก	คน	-	ที่	ฉันเคยช่วยเหลือ
A TRC with a classifier and a demonstrative	เด็ก	คน	นั้น	ที่	ฉันเคยช่วยเหลือ

Sometimes, when the noun occurs with a classifier, the noun becomes optional (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 27).

(106) นี่เป็น(รองเท้า)คู่ที่ผมชอบ

(107) นั่นไม่ใช่(หนังสือ)เล่มที่ฉันซื้อ

(Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 27)

From the examples above, the nouns ‘รองเท้า’ /rɔːŋ tʰáw/ (‘shoes’) and ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsǔː/ (‘book’) become optional with the presence of the classifiers ‘คู่’ /kʰùː/ (‘pair’) and ‘เล่ม’ /lêːm/ (‘the one’).

2.2.2.2 Various syntactic structures of TRCs

Although not as varied as ERCs, there are still multiple syntactic structures of TRCs: RCs with a relativizer, bare RCs, and sentential RCs.

1. RCs with a relativizer

The structure that typifies TRCs is the RC with a relativizer. Three main relativizers of TRCs are ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ and ‘/?an/.’ That is, in a sentence with a TRC, the head noun is postmodified by an RC beginning with a relativizer. Examples 108a – 108c illustrate sentences with the three different relativizers ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ and ‘/?an/,’ respectively.

(108) a. แม่ อยาก ให้ ฉัน เรียน ใน โรงเรียน

mê: jà:k hâj²⁵ cʰǎn ri:an naj ro:ŋ ri:an

Mom want CAUS me study in school

ที่ _____ มี _____ ผู้หญิง _____ ล้วนๆ

tʰi: mi: pʰû: jǐŋ lú:an lú:an

REL have girl only

‘Mom wants me to study in an all-girls school.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 26)

b. ผม มอง ออกไป ที่ รถ ซึ่ง _____ จอด

pʰǒm mo:ŋ ?ò:k paj tʰi: rôt sûŋ cò:t

I look out at car REL park

แอบ _____ อยู่ ริมทาง

?è:p jù: rim tʰa:ŋ

discreetly ASP roadside

‘I look out at the car which parked discreetly by the roadside.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 18)

²⁵ CAUS refers to ‘causative.’

c. ฉัน	จะ	เก็บ	ทุก	โมงยาม	ราว	สมบัติ
c ^h ǎn	cà?	kèp	t ^h úk	mo:ŋ ja:m	ra:w	sǒmbàt
I	CM ²⁶	keep	every	hour	like	treasure
ฉัน	จะ	เก็บ	ทุก	โมงยาม	ราว	สมบัติ

?an lám k^hâ:

REL precious

‘I will keep every hour like treasure that is precious.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 15)

The sentences above exemplify the RCs with a relativizer. Examples 108a to 108c contain the head nouns – i.e. ‘โรงเรียน’ /ro:ŋ ri:an/ (‘school’), ‘รถ’ /rót/ (‘car’) and ‘สมบัติ’ /sǒmbàt/ (‘treasure’) – which are followed by a relative clause.

Relativizers are originally termed as ‘relative pronouns,’ and the term has been used until the present day. While Upakitsilapasarn (2005, p. 266) – a Thai grammarian – uses the term ‘relative pronoun,’ other grammarians suggest another term. Panthumetha (2010, pp. 101, 111) adopts the term ‘linking word²⁷’ to refer to a word or a phrase that shows the relationship among words, phrases or sentences. That is, according to semantics, ‘/t^hî:/’ is a linker to show reference, and ‘/sûŋ/’ and ‘/?an/’ are used for elaboration. Along the same lines, when categorized based on the functions, these linkers are used to connect nouns and their modifiers. Panthumetha (2010, pp. 219-220) also explains that occasionally when the missing argument in the RC is replaced by a personal pronoun, the sentence may be accepted as a grammatical sentence although it may sound unidiomatic. Examples are presented below.

²⁶ CM refers to ‘challengeable marker.’

²⁷ Direct translation from the Thai term ‘คำเชื่อม’ /kham chûam/ (‘linker’) used by Panthumetha (2010).

- (109) a. *น้อยพบเด็กที่นิดเคยพูดถึงเด็ก
 b. เด็กที่แกมาหาฉันเมื่อเช้านี้เป็นหลานของอาจารย์ใหญ่
 c. น้อยพบเด็กที่นิดเคยพูดถึงแก

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 220)

In other words, this is the case where a resumptive pronoun is present in the RC. Normally, RCs are incomplete sentences indicating that the noun phrase which refers back to the antecedent is missing in the RC. While Sentence 109a is ungrammatical due to the occurrence of the noun phrase ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) in the RC which repeats the head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) in the main clause, Sentences 109b and 109c which adopt the personal pronoun ‘แก’ /kɛ:/ (‘she/her’) may be considered well-formed. That is, according to Panthumetha (2010, p. 220), if this construction is accepted as grammatically correct, the relative words ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sûn/’ and ‘/?an/’ would be considered ‘linking words’ instead of ‘relative pronouns’ due to the reason that they do not perform the function of a pronoun in the subordinate clause.

In the study of RC constructions, Kullavanijaya (2010, pp. 41-44) also analyzed the RC constructions with a personal pronoun. The results went in line with the observation of Panthumetha (2010). Kullavanijaya (2010, pp. 41-44) mentioned that the use of a personal pronoun instead of a noun in the subordinate clause rarely occurred based on the data of Thai written works. The findings showed that the use of a resumptive pronoun in the RC might be found in the spoken language and in three certain conditions as follows.

(i) The noun phrase must be in the subject position of the main clause.

(ii) The noun in the RC with the anaphoric link to the head noun, in other words the resumptive pronoun, must function as the subject or the object – either direct or indirect object – in the RC.

(iii) The RC must be a restrictive RC, which according to this study (Kullavanijaya, 2010), refers to the RC with the relative word ‘/tʰɨː/.’

Based on these restrictions, Examples 110 to 112 illustrate the language use. The sentence (a) is without the resumptive pronoun and the sentence (b) with the resumptive pronoun.

(110) a. งานที่ออกหน้าตาที่สุดก็คืองานออกร้านวัดเบญจมบพิตร

b. งานที่มันออกหน้าออกตาที่สุดก็คืองานออกร้านวัดเบญจมบพิตร

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 43)

This example follows the three conditions with the personal pronoun ‘มัน’ /man/ (‘it’) locating in the subject position of the RC.

(111) a. คนที่พลอยได้พบปะมากกว่าพี่น้องของตนเองก็คือพี่เนือง

b. คนที่พลอยได้พบปะเขามากกว่าพี่น้องของตนเองก็คือพี่เนือง

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 43)

Example 111 differs from Example 110 in the resumptive pronoun ‘เขา’ /kʰǎw/ (‘him’), which is in the object position.

On the other hand, the constructions which are ill-formed are the NRRCs and the RCs with the head noun referring to time or place.

(112) a. นักเรียนห้องนี้ซึ่งตั้งใจเรียนมาก คงจะสอบได้ยกชั้น

b. *นักเรียนห้องนี้ซึ่งเขาตั้งใจเรียนมาก คงจะสอบได้ยกชั้น

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 44)

Example 112 contains an NRRC. Therefore, although the sentence complies with the conditions (i) and (ii), it violates the condition (iii). The insertion of the personal pronoun ‘เขา’ /kʰǎw/ (‘they’) is then not allowed.

- (113) a. วันที่เขามา ฉันไม่อยู่บ้านพอดี
 b. *วันที่เขามา^{มัน} ฉันไม่อยู่บ้านพอดี
- (114) a. บ้านที่ฉันเคยอยู่ถูกรื้อถอนไปแล้ว
 b. *บ้านที่ฉันเคยอยู่^{มัน} ถูกรื้อถอนไปแล้ว

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 42)

Examples 113 and 114 employ the head nouns which refer to time and place, respectively. Thus, adding the personal pronoun ‘มัน’ /man/ (‘it’) in the RCs as in (113b) and (114b) yields the ungrammatical and unidiomatic sentences.

Due to the fact that the noun phrase in TRCs can be replaced by a personal pronoun, even though only under certain circumstances, it differentiates TRCs from ERCs. For ERCs, the noun phrase in the RC is substituted by a relative pronoun. Therefore, with the presence of the personal pronoun in TRCs, it can be inferred that the relative word ‘/tʰiː/’ or ‘/sûŋ/’ functions as a linking word, not a relative pronoun, in order to connect the RCs with the head noun. As for English, the relative pronouns themselves link the RCs with the head noun. According to the study by Kullavanijaya (2010, p. 326), the term used to refer to this linking word is ‘relativizers.’

Therefore, in this current study, the term ‘relativizers’ were used throughout instead of the term ‘relative pronouns’ in the Thai context.

1.1 Relativizers

There are many relativizers in Thai, for example ‘/tʰiː/,’ ‘/pʰûː tʰiː/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/pʰûː sûŋ/,’ and ‘/?an/’ (Suktrakul, 1975, p. 103; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, pp. 79, 266). The major ones are ‘/tʰiː/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/?an/.’ The most common relativizer in Thai is ‘/tʰiː/,’ and it is used in various styles of discourse (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, pp. 243, 246; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 79). The second most used relativizer is ‘/sûŋ/,’ and it is normally used in more formal style, both written work and speech.

As for ‘/?an/,’ it is the least common among the three relativizers and is relatively archaic. The relativizer ‘/?an/’ is used in formal manner, literary texts, formal speech, or some common phrases (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 27; Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, pp. 243, 246; Sornhiran, 1981, p. 55). The following examples clarify the formality of the three relativizers.

(115) a. เด็กที่ฉันเลี้ยง(มัน)มา

b. เด็กซึ่งฉันเลี้ยง(มัน)มา

(116) a. สงครามที่ทุกคนประณาม

b. สงครามซึ่งทุกคนประณาม

c. สงครามอันทุกคนประณาม

(adapted from Sornhiran, 1981, p. 55)

Sornhiran (1981, p. 55) states that from the examples above, (115) is informal; therefore, the relativizer ‘/?an/’ cannot be used. On the other hand, (116) is formal; the three relativizers are then acceptable under this condition.

With respect to the other two relativizers – ‘/p^hû: t^hî:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sūŋ/,’ they refer to people head noun and are used in written language only (Suktrakul, 1975, p. 104).

The relativizers ‘/t^hî:/,’ ‘/sūŋ/,’ ‘/?an/’ differ from the English relativizers in that these three Thai relativizers do not reflect the gender concord as in English. Thus, the gender system – personal and nonpersonal – of the antecedent does not affect the choice of the relativizer (Sornhiran, 1978, p. 116; 1981, pp. 54-55). However, only some relative words comply with the gender system; for example, ‘/p^hû: t^hî:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sūŋ/’ are used with personal antecedents that are human beings. Nevertheless, not all three Thai relativizers can be used interchangeably as they are associated with the functions of each relativizer and the restrictiveness of the RCs. This topic will be discussed further in 2.2.2.3 Types of TRCs.

2. Bare RCs

Bare RCs are the RCs without the relativizer. That is, the relativizers are omitted. This is one of the Thai structures which is still controversial because the modifiers after the head noun might be considered an RC or the head noun with the modifier might be considered the compound noun. This section will first discuss the bare RCs with regard to the possible omission of the relativizers, and then will elaborate on the bare RCs concerning the compound noun.

Kullavanijaya (2010), Kuno and Wongkhomthong (1981), and Yaowapat and Prasithratsint (2006 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 42) regard this structure as the bare RCs²⁸. Kullavanijaya (2010, pp. 44-48) suggests the RC structures that can and cannot omit the relativizer based mainly on the grammatical functions of the head noun and the relativizer (in other words, the position of the relativized element in the RC.) The details are summarized and adapted in the table as follows.

Table 12. Bare RCs (adapted from Kullavanijaya (2010, pp. 44-48))

Type	Allow the deletion of the relativizer	Grammatical function		Remark
		Head noun	Relativizer	
(i)	Allow	Object	Non-object	(e.g. subject)
(ii)	Not allow	Subject	Subject	-
(iii)	Not allow	Subject	Object	For RRCs (the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’)
(iv)	Allow	Subject	Object	For NRRCs (the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’)

The details of each type in the table above will be exemplified below.

²⁸ According to Yaowapat and Prasithratsint (2006 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 42), the term for this RC construction is ‘reduced relative clauses.’ However, in this study, the term ‘bare RCs’ was employed so that it corresponded with the English bare RCs. Additionally, the term is differentiated from the English reduced RCs that concern the use of morpheme which does not exist in the Thai language. As for Kuno and Wongkhomthong (1981), they use the term ‘thi-less relative clause construction.’

(i) The bare RC is possible when the head noun functions as the object of the main clause and the relativized element in the RC is not an object.

- (117) a. เกษตรกรมีรายได้ที่แน่นอน
 b. เกษตรกรมีรายได้แน่นอน
- (118) a. เขายังไปตีหมาที่เด็ก ๆ ชอบแก๊งเสียอีก
 b. *เขายังไปตีหมาเด็ก ๆ ชอบแก๊งเสียอีก

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, pp. 46-47)

Both Examples 117 and 118 have the object head noun; however, (117a) can omit the relativizer because it functions as the subject in the RC. As for (118b), the relativizer functions as the object, yielding an ill-formed sentence.

(ii) The bare RC is not possible when the head noun and the relativizer act as the subject.

- (119) a. *ครัวเรือนที่มีรายได้ต่อเดือนต่ำกว่า 1,000 บาท มีค่าใช้จ่ายเฉลี่ยเดือนละ 92.33 บาท*
 b. *ครัวเรือนมีรายได้ต่อเดือนต่ำกว่า 1,000 บาท มีค่าใช้จ่ายเฉลี่ยเดือนละ 92.33 บาท*

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, pp. 44-45)

Omitting the relativizer in (119b) changes the meaning of (119a). In some circumstances, the omission leads to ungrammaticality.

(iii) The bare RC is not allowed when the head noun is the subject in the main clause and the relativizer functions as the object in the RC if the RC is restrictive. According to Kullavanijaya (2010), the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ is considered as signifying RRCs, and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ for NRRCs. That is, if the subject RC defines a

specific event, the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ cannot be omitted (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 249).

(120) a. เสื้อที่เขาซื้อมาจากภูเก็ตสวยดี

b. ? เสื้อเขาซื้อมาจากภูเก็ตสวยดี

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 47)

Therefore, (120a) has the head noun functioning as the subject of the main clause and the relativized element as the object, so the omission of the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ is not allowed.

(iv) On the contrary to (iii), if the RC is non-restrictive, the bare RC with the omitted relativizer ‘/sũŋ/’ is possible as illustrated in (120b) above.

With respect to (120), Kullavanijaya (2010, p. 47) made a reference to Kuno and Wongkhomthong (1981) on the difference between the two sentences. Kuno and Wongkhomthong (1981) discuss ‘/tʰi:/-less relative clause construction’ and distinguish the constructions between the compound nouns and the RCs. In a nutshell, the /tʰi:/-less RCs refer to “a set of objects” that exists in one particular culture and are perceived by people in general (Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 217). That is, the referents are not restricted to an individual person. On the contrary, the /tʰi:/ RCs suggest the speaker’s personal opinions or sets of objects. The examples are adapted from Kuno and Wongkhomthong (1981, p. 221) and provided as follows.

(121) a. phǒm mây chô:b khon **thî:** sù:b buri:.

b. phǒm mây chô:b khon sù:b buri:.

(adapted from Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 221)

Both (121a) and (121b) are possible structures with different implication. Sentence 121a refers to the speaker’s set of people who smoke, while in (121b) ‘คนสูบบุหรี่’

บุหรี' /khon sù:b buri:/ ('smokers') refers to smokers in general. The next example will help clarify the specific set which does not allow the bare RC.

(122) a. phǒm mây chō:b khon **thī**: sù:b buri: nay khanà thī: a:ca:n kamlaj sǎ:n.

b. *phǒm mây chō:b khon sù:b buri: nay khanà thī: a:ca:n kamlaj sǎ:n.

(adapted from Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 221)

Example 122a is an acceptable set because the head noun with the RC refers to a specific set of people that the speaker intends to mention. Sentence 122b with a bare RC is not allowed since ‘คนสูบบุหรี่ในขณะที่อาจารย์กำลังสอน’ /khon sù:b buri: nay khanà thī: a:ca:n kamlaj sǎ:n/, i.e. “people who smoke while teachers are teaching” (Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 221), is not a set which is deemed a general set in the TL culture.

The superficial structure of the bare RCs leads to the discussion with regard to compound nouns. Along the same lines, Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, p. 249) suggest that the relativizer ‘/thī:/’ might be omitted from the subject RC that provides general information about the head noun.

(123) เอกเป็นเด็ก(ที่)เรียนเก่ง

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 250)

Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, p. 250) regard this structure as a compound noun. This is because ‘เด็กเรียนเก่ง’ /dèk rian kèŋ/ ('bright kid') is the formation of the head noun and the RC to describe a category.

While Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom's (2009, pp. 249-250) compound nouns seem more similar to Kuno and Wongkhomthong's (1981) /thī:/-less RCs, Kuno and Wongkhomthong clearly describe the /thī:/-less expressions as compound nouns.

(124) a. khon [thî: khàb ród]

b. khon khàb ród

(Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 197)

The examples above show that the meanings are different between (124a) and (124b). Sentence 124a might refer to “a person who drives a car, who drove a car, who is driving a car, etc.,” while (124b) refers to “a chauffeur” (Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 197). One example of the features that differentiates the compound nouns from the RCs is that the compound nouns do not allow their nominal constituents to be modified by quantifiers or demonstratives. For example, the noun phrase “this truck-driver” refers to ‘this + truck-driver,’ not ‘this truck + -driver’ (Kuno & Wongkhomthong, 1981, p. 198).

3. Sentential RCs

Similar to the English language, Thai also has sentential RCs. That is, the RC is employed to modify the entire preceding sentence. In other words, the RC does not postmodify any particular head noun, but the general concept of the sentence. The relativizers adopted in this structure are ‘/sûm/’ and ‘/?an/’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, pp. 247-248; Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 51; Panthumetha, 2010, p. 223).

(125) หัวหน้าภาควิชาฯ ได้รับรางวัลนักวิจัยดีเด่นแห่งชาติ ซึ่งทุกคนในภาควิชาดีใจมาก

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 51)

(126) เขาต้องประสบความหายนะเพราะความโลภ อันเป็นเรื่องชวนสลดใจ

(127) เขาต้องประสบความหายนะเพราะความโลภ ที่เป็นเรื่องชวนสลดใจ

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 223)

Examples 125 and 126 show that the sentential RCs headed by the relativizers ‘/sûm/’ and ‘/?an/’ modify the whole concept of the preceding sentence. As for

Example 127, the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ cannot be used as the speaker does not refer to the known information (Panthumetha, 2010, p. 223).

2.2.2.3 Types of TRCs

Although in some circumstances, it seems the relativizers ‘/tʰiː/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/ʔan/’ can be used interchangeably without affecting the meaning. Otherwise, it is considered the stylistic manner or the formality that comes into play (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 27; Sornhiran, 1978, p. 116; 1981, p. 56). However, the choice of the relativizer not only is the result of the style and the formality of the language, but the functions of the relativizer and the restrictiveness of the RC also play a part.

Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, pp. 246-247) state the functions of the relativizers ‘/tʰiː/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ that ‘/tʰiː/’ is “to identify the head noun, or to specify a referent by separating it from other similar referents.” This resembles the RRCs in English. With regard to the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/,’ Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, pp. 246-247) express its function to be related to adding information “to a concept that has just been introduced” which mainly refers to the sentential RCs aforementioned in the previous section.

Along the same lines with Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, pp. 246-247) regarding the differences of the relativizers, Kullavanijaya²⁹ (2010, pp. 49-51) and Panthumetha (2010, pp. 216-219) posit that there are some certain cases that the three relativizers – ‘/tʰiː/,’ ‘/sûŋ/’ and ‘/ʔan/’ – are not interchangeable.

- (128) a. เขามองหาลูกชายที่^๓ยืนอยู่^๔ห่างทาง^๕ซ้ายมือ
- b. เขามองหาลูกชายซึ่ง^๓ยืนอยู่^๔ห่างทาง^๕ซ้ายมือ

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 219)

²⁹ Kullavanijaya (2010, p. 49) did not mention the relativizer ‘/ʔan/’ under the topic of the differences between the RCs with the relativizers ‘/tʰiː/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ due to the reason that the study was carried out only with the most frequently used relativizers in Thai which are ‘/tʰiː/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’.

The examples above illustrate two types of RCs: restrictive and non-restrictive RCs, respectively. The relativizer ‘/thî:/’ in Example 128a restricts the meaning of the head noun ‘ลูกชาย’ /lûuk chaay/ (‘son’) that he is that one particular son among other sons. Thus, the RC is restrictive and cannot be omitted without affecting the meaning of the sentence. On the other hand, the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ in (128b) adds additional information to the sentence that his son stands on the left and that probably be his only son. This is an NRRC and can be omitted without influencing the meaning of the sentence. Regarding ‘/?an/,’ if it is inserted in Example 129:

(129) c. *เขามองหาลูกชายอันยืนอยู่ห่างทางซ้ายมือ

(adapted from Panthumetha, 2010, p. 219)

The sentence will be ungrammatical. Although the relativizer ‘/?an/’ is used to add extra information as ‘/sûŋ/,’ the relativizer ‘/?an/’ is not normally used with the antecedent being people (Panthumetha, 2010, p. 218).

Occasionally, ‘/sûŋ/’ and ‘/?an/’ can be used interchangeably as in the following examples.

(130) a. ท่านผู้นี้ภายหลังได้รับพระราชทานบรรดาศักดิ์เป็นเจ้าพระยา ซึ่งเป็นบรรดาศักดิ์สูงสุดในระบบขุนนางของไทย อันพระเจ้าแผ่นดินอาจพระราชทานแก่ชาวต่างประเทศได้

b. ท่านผู้นี้ภายหลังได้รับพระราชทานบรรดาศักดิ์เป็นเจ้าพระยาอันเป็นบรรดาศักดิ์สูงสุดในระบบขุนนางของไทย ซึ่งพระเจ้าแผ่นดินอาจพระราชทานแก่ชาวต่างประเทศได้

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 218)

As mentioned earlier that ‘/thî:/’ is used with RRCs, therefore, in the following sentences ‘/thî:/’ cannot be replaced by ‘/sûŋ/’ or ‘/?an/.’

- (131) a. หมวกใบที่คุณสวมอยู่สวยมาก
 b. *หมวกใบซึ่งคุณสวมอยู่สวยมาก
 c. *หมวกใบอันคุณสวมอยู่สวยมาก
- (132) a. ใครที่ต้องการจะไปยกมือขึ้น
 b. *ใครซึ่งต้องการจะไปยกมือขึ้น
 c. *ใครอันต้องการจะไปยกมือขึ้น

(Panthumetha, 2010, pp. 216-217)

Example 131 contains the classifier ‘ใบ’ /bay/. So, it specifies the head noun ‘หมวก’ /mùak/ (‘hat’); the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ is allowable. As for (132), the indefinite pronoun ‘ใคร’ /kraj/ (‘who’) or ‘someone’ accepts only the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ to define the pronoun. As a result, both relativizers ‘/sûŋ/’ and ‘/?an/’ are not permissible in Examples 131b, 131c and 132b, 132c.

The interchangeable use between the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ is when the modified head noun refers to one known entity and the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ cannot further modify the specific head noun, then the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ can also be substituted.

- (133) a. อาจารย์กาญจนาที่ใครๆ รู้จัก เป็นครูที่เก่งคนหนึ่ง
 b. อาจารย์กาญจนาซึ่งใครๆ รู้จัก เป็นครูที่เก่งคนหนึ่ง

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 50)

Since ‘อาจารย์กาญจนา’ /ʔa:ca:n ka:ncaʔna:/ (‘teacher Kanjana’) is a specific head noun, using either the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ or ‘/sûŋ/’ does not alter its meaning. In

this instance, the restrictiveness of the RC does not affect the meaning and the two relativizers become interchangeable (Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 50).

Although some Thai grammarians suggest the types of restrictiveness of the TRCs, there are some instances where the relativizers ‘/tʰî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ can be used interchangeably or one relativizer is preferred to the other. Sornhira (1981, p. 56) notes that it is not definite about the usage of the two relativizers ‘/tʰî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/.’ The usage difference may be in terms of the style rather than the syntactic rules (Sornhira, 1981, p. 56). Example 133 above also illustrates that in Thai the background knowledge of the head noun is crucial for the interpretation. That is, the relativizers ‘/tʰî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ can be used interchangeably in this example because the relativizer ‘/tʰî:/’ cannot further specify the head noun. As a result, purely observing the relative words may not be able to identify the RC types in Thai because the context also determines the restrictiveness of the RCs.

2.2.2.4 Grammatical functions of TRCs and relativizers in TRCs

1. Grammatical functions of TRCs

Based on Suktrakul (1975, pp. 95-102), who cited Chumilokasant (1968), and Kullavanijaya (2010, p. 37), there are four grammatical functions of TRCs as follows. The square brackets were added to the adapted example sentences to identify the head noun with the RC.

1. Modifying a subject

- (134) [kʰru: tʰî: sǎ:n lê:k kʰaʔnit] kamləŋ cè:k dɪnsǎ: nákrɪ:an
 [teacher who teach Arithmetic] be giving pencil student
 ‘[The teacher, who teaches arithmetic,] is giving students pencils.’

(adapted from Suktrakul, 1975, p. 98)

2. Modifying a direct object

- (135) kàʔsè:ttàʔkɔ:n mi: [ra:j dâj thî: nê: nɔ:n]
 farmer have [income which constant]
 ‘Farmers have [income which is constant].’

(adapted from Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 37)

3. Modifying an indirect object

- (136) kʰru: càʔ cè:k ra:nwan [nákri:an thî: ri:an di:]
 teacher will give reward [student who study well]
 ‘The teacher will give a reward to [the student who the student who studies well].’

(adapted from Suktrakul, 1975, p. 101)

4. Modifying an object of a preposition

- (137) kʰun paj pʰák thî: [bâ:n thî: cʰăn kʰə:j jù:] rǔ:
 you go stay at [house which I used to stay] QP³⁰
 ‘Did you go to stay at [the house which I used to stay]?’

(adapted from Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 37)

2. Grammatical functions of relativizers in TRCs

Since relativizers show the anaphoric link between the relativizers and the head nouns, the grammatical functions³¹ of the relativizers mirror the relativized

³⁰ ‘QP’ stands for ‘question particle.’

³¹ Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, p. 243) refer to the grammatical functions of the relativizers in Thai as ‘types of relative clause.’

elements in the RCs. According to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, pp. 243-245), there are four grammatical functions of relativizers in TRCs, i.e. subject, object, oblique, and location. Sornhiran (1978 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 33) mentions three functions: subject, direct object, and indirect object. The examples are presented below.

1. Subject

(138) [nákri:an tʰî: ma: sǎ:j] pen lû:k cʰa:j kʰǎ:ŋ cʰǎn
 [student who come late] be son my

‘[The student who came late] is my son.’

(adapted from Sornhiran, 1978 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 33)

2. Direct object

(139) [nákri:an tʰî: cʰǎn cʰô:p] ma: sǎ:j
 [student whom I like] come late

‘[The student whom I like] came late.’

(adapted from Sornhiran, 1978 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 33)

3. Indirect object

(140) [nákri:an tʰî: cʰǎn hâj dɪnsǎ:] jím kwâ:ŋ
 [student whom I give pencil] smile broad

‘[The student whom I gave the pencil to] smiled broadly.’

(adapted from Sornhiran, 1978 cited in Phoocharoensil, 2009, p. 33)

4. Oblique

- (141) lé:w [wan thî: kə:d p^hèn din wǎj] kǝʔ wan jùt p^hə: di:
 and [day when happen earthquake] LP³² holiday just
 ‘And [the day when the earthquake occurred] was a holiday
 fortunately.’

(adapted from Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 244)

5. Location

- (142) prǝʔ wâ: jà:ŋ [tùk thî: k^hə:j jù: mú:a kò:n]
 because like [building where used to stay before]
 mi: tɛ: prǝʔ kan ...
 have but insurance ...
 ‘Because [the building where I used to stay] had only (basic)
 insurance...’

(adapted from Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 245)

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2.2.2.5 Noun complement clauses

Also known as ‘appositive clauses’ in English, in the Thai language ‘noun complement clauses³³’ are one of the clauses that modifies nouns. On the surface structure, noun complement clauses appear to be similar to relative clauses. According to Kullavanijaya (2010, pp. 58-60), noun complement clauses and RCs share two characteristics. That is, both types of clauses are a noun-modifying clause which locates after the modified noun. In addition, there is a relativizer connecting the

³² LP refers to ‘linking particle.’

³³ The term ‘noun complement clauses’ in this study is adopted following Kullavanijaya (2010).

noun-modifying clause to the modified noun. The examples of an RC and a noun complement clause are as follows.

(143) รายได้ที่พนักงานต้องการ

(144) เรื่องที่คุณเถียงกับหัวหน้า

(adapted from Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 59)

From Examples 143 and 144, they have the noun-modifying clauses ‘ที่พนักงานต้องการ’ /tʰi: pʰaʔnákɰa:n tɔŋ ka:n/ (‘that the staff wants’) and ‘ที่คุณเถียงกับหัวหน้า’ /tʰi: kʰun tʰi:əŋ kàp hǔ:anâ:/ (‘that you argue with your boss’) after the modified nouns ‘รายได้’ /ra:j dâj/ (‘salary’) and ‘เรื่อง’ /rû:əŋ/ (‘issue’). Both sentences contain the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/.’ However, the difference between the two types of clauses is that, while RCs have the gap or the missing constituent in the RC, noun complement clauses do not have gaps and are complete sentences (Kullavanijaya, 2010, pp. 52-62; Panthumetha, 2010, p. 220). That is, in (143), there is a gap in the position of object in the RC to specify what it is that the staff wants. As for (144), the noun complement clause ‘คุณเถียงกับหัวหน้า’ /kʰun tʰi:əŋ kàp hǔ:anâ:/ (‘you argue with your boss’) is a complete sentence with no gap, and the clause specifies ‘เรื่อง’ /rû:əŋ/ (‘issue’) to clarify what it is about.

In addition, Kullavanijaya (2010, p. 52) states that noun complement clauses are necessary to the modified nouns. This relates to the fact that the modified nouns are usually nouns in general sense; for example, the common ones are ‘การ’ /ka:n/ (‘fact³⁴’), ‘เรื่อง’ /rû:əŋ/ (‘story’), ‘ข่าว’ /kʰà:w/ (‘news’), ‘เวลา’ /we:la:/ (‘time’). Thus, the addition of noun complement clauses specifies and clarifies the modified nouns. The specification of the head noun results in the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/,’ which identifies the head noun.

³⁴ The noun ‘fact’ is used as in ‘the fact that...’

2.2.3 Comparisons between English relative clauses and Thai relative clauses

Based on the above sections of ERCs (2.2.1) and TRCs (2.2.2), this section presents brief comparisons between ERCs and TRCs with respect to their fundamental characteristics, syntactic structures, and RC types.

Table 13. Comparison between ERCs and TRCs

	ERCs	TRCs
Adnominal RCs: a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer	✓	✓
Relativizers	✓	✓
An RC with ‘preposition + wh-pronouns’	✓	-
An RC with a resumptive pronoun	-	✓
Other syntactic structures of RCs		
Bare RCs	✓	✓
Reduced RCs (with participle clauses)	✓	-
Sentential RCs	✓	✓
Nominal RCs	✓	-
Cleft RCs	✓	-
RC types		
RRCs	✓	✓
NRRCs	✓	✓

Table 13 summarizes the general characteristics between ERCs and TRCs. Many aspects are in common. Firstly, adnominal RCs, or the RCs with a relativizer, are present in both English and Thai. Both languages have relativizers. Eight relativizers that can be used to form RCs in Standard English include ‘which,’ ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘whose,’ ‘that,’ ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why’ (Biber et al., 1999, p. 608). As for Thai, the common relativizers are ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/?an/’ (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 266). However, there are also other Thai relativizers such as ‘/pʰû:/,’ ‘/pʰû: tʰi:/,’ ‘/pʰû: sûŋ/,’ which may be less common. The difference between English and Thai relativizers is the animacy of the head noun,

which affects the selection of the English relative pronoun ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ On the other hand, in Thai, the main relativizers ‘/tʰi:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/?an/’ are not influenced by the animacy of the head noun, but they are employed based more on formality or the usage style. Only the relativizers with the word ‘/pʰû:/’ corresponds with animate head nouns. The sentences below exemplify an ERC and a TRC, respectively.

(145) a. *What’s the name of the tall man **who** just came in?*

(Swan, 2005, p. 477)

b. คนที่ดูแลนี้เป็นอาจารย์หรือ

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243)

In (145a) and (145b), both contain a head noun and an RC. In (145a), the head noun ‘man’ is an animate antecedent; thus, the relativizer ‘who’ reflects the animacy concord. As for Thai, although ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘person’) is an animate head noun, the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ can be used.

Next, while English allows preposing prepositions before wh-pronouns, Thai does not have this structure. To elaborate, in English ‘preposition + which’ can be used in a formal style, for example, in (146). In contrast, TRCs allow resumptive pronouns which are not present in English (Foley & Hall, 2004, p. 298; Swan, 2005, p. 478). The examples are provided as follows.

(146) *Do you know a shop **at which** I can find sandals?*

(adapted from Swan, 2005, p. 479)

(147) a. เด็กที่แกมาหาฉันเมื่อเช้านี้เป็นหลานของอาจารย์ใหญ่

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 220)

b. **He’s got a new girlfriend **who she** works in a garage.*

(adapted from Swan, 2005, p. 478)

In (147a), the pronoun ‘เธอ’ /ke:/ (‘she’) is in the subject position in the TRC. This construction of resumptive pronouns is allowed in Thai. On the contrary, in (147b) the pronoun ‘she’ in the subject position in the ERC makes this sentence ungrammatical in English.

With regard to other syntactic structures of RCs other than the adnominal RCs, Table 13 shows that, while English has bare RCs, reduced RCs, sentential RCs, nominal RCs, and cleft RCs, Thai only has bare RCs and sentential RCs. The reason behind the lack of reduced RCs, nominal RCs, and clefts RCs in Thai can be inferred from the fact that the types of language between Thai and English are different. Since Thai is an isolating language and English is an inflected language (Pongpaibroj & Mallikamas, 2004, p. 91), the inflectional morphemes such as ‘-ed’ and ‘-ing’ do not exist in Thai; thus, Thai does not have reduced RCs like in English, which adopts participle clauses. As for nominal RCs and cleft RCs, dissimilar language structures between the two languages result in the lack of those structures in Thai.

Nevertheless, English and Thai share some RC structures. This includes bare RCs and sentential RCs, and the examples in English and Thai are provided below, respectively.

(148) He showed me the *rocks he had brought back* from Australia.

(adapted from Hewings, 2003, p. 140)

(149) เกษตรกรมีรายได้แน่นอน

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 46)

The sentences in (148) and (149) contain a bare RC with a zero relative pronoun at the beginning of the RC.

(150) *He got married again a year later, which surprised everybody.*

(Swan, 2005, p. 479)

(151) หัวหน้าภาควิชาฯ ได้รับรางวัลนักวิจัยดีเด่นแห่งชาติ ซึ่งทุกคนในภาควิชาดีใจมาก

(Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 51)

In (150) and (151), the sentential RCs modify the general idea of the main clause.

According to Table 13, regarding RC types, English and Thai have RRCs and NRRCs. However, there are some similarities and differences between the two languages. The following section elaborates the RC types in English and Thai in relation to the RC structures in more detail.

The function of each RC type of English and Thai is identical. That is, RRCs restrict the references of the head noun, and this piece of information is necessary for the context. On the other hand, NRRCs add some additional information to the head noun. Therefore, omitting the additional details does not affect the main content of the text.

In written English, there are two structures of RCs which can indicate the RC restrictiveness, i.e. adnominal RCs – in other words, the typical RCs with a relativizer – and reduced RCs. For adnominal RCs, the restrictiveness of the RC is usually indicated by the presence of punctuations, i.e. commas, dashes, or parentheses (Biber et al., 1999, p. 602; Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 1058; Yule, 1998, p. 248). RRCs are not marked by these separation markers, while NRRCs are. The examples of an RRC and NRRC are as follows, respectively.

(152) a. My friend who's Japanese is coming.

b. My friend, who's Japanese, is coming.

(Yule, 1998, p. 248)

Example 152a uses the RRC 'who's Japanese' to specify which friend is being referred to. Example 152b only adds the extra information of the friend's nationality.

Reduced RCs are the other RC structure which can indicate the restrictiveness. This structure employs either a present participle (for an active verb) and a past participle (for a passive verb) as an adjective to define the head noun (Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Vince, 2008, p. 159). The reduced RCs, both with a present participle and a past participle, are usually restrictive (Hewings, 2003, p. 148; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1265). However, they can also be non-restrictive, which is common in descriptive writings and narratives (Vince, 2008, p. 159; Yule, 2006, p. 176). The absence of the commas signifies the restrictive reduced RCs, and the presence of the commas indicates the non-restrictive reduced RCs. The following sentences exemplify the restrictive reduced RCs and the non-restrictive reduced RCs with both the present participle and the past participle, respectively.

(153) a. *The man **driving the bus** is my brother.*

b. *The book **published last week** is his first written for children.*

(Hewings, 2003, p. 148)

(154) a. *The old car, **trailing black smoke**, drove off towards town.*

b. *Robert Ball, **nicknamed 'Big Bob'**, was my favourite teacher.*

(Yule, 2006, p. 176)

The examples above differentiate the two types of RC, restrictive and non-restrictive, respectively. Example 153 has the reduced RCs specifying the head nouns. On the other hand, the commas in Example 154 separate the additional information from the head nouns.

As for the Thai language, the types of RC in relation to the restrictiveness are not as definite as in English. Many scholars (e.g. Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009; Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010) suggest that the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ is for RRCs, and many (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010) propose that the relativizer ‘/sūŋ/’ is for NRRCs. That is, in Thai, the RC structure which evidently specifies the RC types is the RC with a relativizer. The examples of the RRC and the NRRC in Thai are provided below.

(155) a. เขามองหาลูกชายที่ยืนอยู่ห่างทางซ้ายมือ

b. เขามองหาลูกชายซึ่งยืนอยู่ห่างทางซ้ายมือ

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 219)

Example 155a adopts the RRC with the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ which specifies which son is being mentioned. As for (155b), the NRRC with the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ merely adds the extra information on where the son is standing.

The restrictiveness of TRCs varies from ERCs in that TRCs do not mark the restrictiveness by any punctuations. Instead, in general instances based on the aforementioned Thai grammarians, the relative words identify the types of RC. That is, the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ marks RRCs, and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ marks NRRCs. This is similar to the relativizer ‘that’ in English which is normally adopted in RRCs.

To conclude, both English and Thai have the RC types which indicate the restrictiveness. In English, the restrictiveness can be expressed via two main structures, namely adnominal RCs and reduced RCs. As for Thai, adnominal RCs with the relativizers ‘/thî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ are the sole structure that can be adopted to indicate the restrictiveness. In other words, both RRCs and NRRCs can be formed by adnominal RCs and reduced RCs in English and adnominal RCs in Thai. The examples are as presented below.

(156) a. He is looking for **his son** who is standing there on the left hand side.

b. He is looking for **his son** standing there on the left hand side.

c. เขามองหาลูกชายที่ยืนอยู่ห่างทางซ้ายมือ

(157) a. He is looking for **his son**, who is standing there on the left hand side.

b. He is looking for **his son**, standing there on the left hand side.

c. เขามองหาลูกชายซึ่งยืนอยู่ห่างทางซ้ายมือ

(adapted from Panthumetha, 2010, p. 219)

In (156), all sentences contain an RRC. The English sentences use an adnominal RC and a reduced RRC with a present participle. The Thai sentence in (156c) employs the relativizer ‘/thî:/,’ which signifies the restrictiveness of the RC. As for (157), this exemplifies the NRRCs. The English sentences (a) and (b) include the commas placed before the RCs. In (c), the TRC uses the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ to indicate the NRRC.

2.3 Summary

This chapter presents the literature review on two main areas, namely translation and RCs in English and Thai. The translation topics which were reviewed are translation theories in relation to translation methods, translation strategies, and translation adjustment. Firstly, the literature review describes translation methods based on many scholars, i.e. Catford (1980), Nida (1964), Newmark (1988), Larson (1984), and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). The translation methods are mainly divided into two broad methods: towards literal (word-for-word) translation, and towards free (sense-for-sense) translation. Secondly, the reviewed translation strategies are based mainly on Newmark’s (1988) and Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies which refer to the strategies used to cope with translation problems. Lastly, translation adjustments by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) with various adjustment types were reviewed. Another topic in the review of literature is RCs in English and Thai. Many aspects were covered, namely basic characteristics of RCs, various syntactic structures of RCs, types of RCs, grammatical functions of RCs and relativizers, including appositive clauses in English and noun complement clauses in Thai. It was found that English and Thai share several aspects of RCs, for example, the typical RC structure – a head noun postmodified by an RC preceded by a relativizer, some syntactic structures of RCs, and the RC types.

In the next chapter on ‘Research methodology,’ the contents elaborate on the data, the reasons for the inclusion of English-Thai and Thai-English translation, the populations and samples, data extraction and analysis, and the implications of the pilot study.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology. It starts with the reasons behind the inclusion of both English-Thai and Thai-English translation (3.1), the populations and samples (3.2), the data collection (3.3) as well as the data analysis (3.4). The chapter ends with the implications of the pilot study (3.5) and the chapter summary (3.6).

3.1 The inclusion of both English-Thai and Thai-English translation

As mentioned earlier in Section 1.5 Scope of the study, this research includes both English-Thai and Thai-English translation with three reasons, namely the uniqueness of each language direction in translation, the translation strategies found from each language direction, and the fact that there is hardly any research or textbooks on RCs between the two languages. The sections below illustrate each point.

First, both language directions have their own uniqueness and challenges in the RC translation. The fact that ERCs and TRCs are similar in the structure, i.e. the RC preceded by a relativizer and located after the head noun (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243), makes the structure worth examining in terms of translation. That is because, when some structures between two languages are similar, the literal translation may be adopted. However, the literal translation may not always be the optimal translation strategy. According to Wimonchalao (2000, p. 52), the two main causes of translation problems for translation learners are as follows: 1) the learners do not understand the ST, or 2) they understand the ST but cannot translate the text idiomatically. These two translation problems can also be applied to the RC translation of English-Thai and Thai-English as illustrated below.

With respect to the English-Thai translation, the RC structure can be complicated due to its position which is embedded in the main clause. Pinmanee (2009, pp. 82-83) states that modifiers, including the RCs, are what translators should

pay attention to. That is, if the translator misunderstands what the modifier modifies, the translation might change the actual content. Therefore, for RCs, translators must know what the head noun of the RC is in order to translate correctly. Jitaree (2005, p. 258) argues that the literal translation of the RC parallel structure can lead to incorrect translation.

- (158) Efforts to capture and relocate a lost killer whale on Canada's Pacific Coast were suspended temporarily on Friday following objections from **native Indians** who say the animal may be the spirit of a dead chief and who want it to stay where it is.

(adapted from Jitaree, 2005, p. 255)

The underlined part in (158) is the parallel structure of the two RCs which postmodify the head noun phrase 'native Indians.' Jitaree (2005, p. 258) identifies that, if the translator misunderstood that the second RC 'who want it to stay where it is' postmodified 'a dead chief,' instead of 'native Indians,' the translation could be as in (159).

- (159) ...การคัดค้านจากชนเผ่าอินเดียนแดงพื้นเมืองผู้ที่กล่าวว่าปลาวาฬนี้อาจเป็นดวงวิญญาณ
หัวหน้าเผ่าที่ตายไปแล้ว และเป็นผู้ที่ต้องการให้ปลาวาฬในที่ที่มันอยู่ขณะนี้.

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(Jitaree, 2005, p. 258)

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This translation is incorrect because it actually is the 'native Indians' who wanted the whale to remain in the location.

Another translation challenge which makes the English-Thai translation worth examining is the fact that the RC structure between English and Thai is similar; therefore, sometimes the literal translation can cause unidiomatic translation in Thai. Many textbooks on practical translation (e.g. Dinnaratra, 2000; Somchob, 1999; Surasith, 2001, 2006; U-tantada, 2006) suggest translating the ERCs with the TRCs preceded by a relativizer, for example, '/p^hû:/,' '/p^hû: t^hî:/,' '/t^hî:/,' '/sûŋ/,' or '/ʔan/.' That is, the suggested translation strategy is the literal translation. Thus, it is possible to assume that the TRCs found in translations are the result of the literal translation of

the ERCs. What makes the literal translation unidiomatic in Thai involves partly the repetitive use of the word ‘/tʰiː/’ as can be seen from Wiwatsorn’s (2005) comment in the following examples.

- (160) a. เด็กๆ รีบตรงไปที่กระท่อม **ที่**ยังมีแสงสว่างลอดผ่านหน้าต่างออกมา **เมื่อ**ยืนอยู่**ที่**หน้าประตู
ก็ส่งเสียงร้องเรียกฟิลิปเบาๆ
- b. เด็กๆ รีบตรงไปที่กระท่อม**ซึ่ง**ยังมีแสงสว่างลอดผ่านหน้าต่างออกมา **เมื่อ**ยืนอยู่หน้าประตู
ก็ส่งเสียงร้องเรียกฟิลิปเบาๆ

(Wiwatsorn, 2005)

Example 160a employs the word ‘/tʰiː/’ in three positions. The repetitive use of the same word in Thai results in unidiomatic texts (Wiwatsorn, 2005). Wiwatsorn (2005) then edited (160a) into (160b) which retained only one word of ‘/tʰiː/’ in the first position functioning as a preposition. In addition, the change of the second ‘/tʰiː/’ in (160a) into ‘/sûŋ/’ in (160b) confirms that this word functions as a relativizer. Therefore, the two relativizers are syntactically interchangeable in this case. As for the third ‘/tʰiː/,’ it was omitted. This type of unidiomatic translation is clearly referred to by Chantasingh (1986, p. 57). She mentions that the subordinate clause is a complicated structure which needs structural reordering or word insertion. The example of the English ST with an RC and the adjusted Thai translation are as follows.

- (161) a. The dog that was old could still learn new tricks.
b. หมาแกตัวนั้นยังสามารถแสดงกลใหม่ๆ ได้

(Chantasingh, 1986, p. 57)

The RC in the ST was adjusted to an adjective in the translation. Apart from Wiwatsorn (2005) and Chantasingh (1986), who apparently suggest the adjustment to this type of clause, Pinitpouwadol (1999, p. 186) and Jitaree (2005) provide the RC translation examples which were adjusted. However, they do not directly specify that the translation strategies used are the proper way to translate the ERCs. This might be

inferred that the adjustment is natural in the translation of the ERCs into Thai. Another example is the suggested translation of Example 158 above. The suggested Thai translation for the excerpt is provided as follows.

- (162) ...เสียงคัดค้านจากชาวอินเดียนแดงพื้นเมืองที่บอกว่าปลาวาฬตัวนี้อาจเป็นดวงวิญญาณของ
หัวหน้าเผ่าคนหนึ่ง จึงไม่ต้องการให้เคลื่อนย้ายไปไหน

(adapted from Jitaree, 2005, p. 256)

The second RC was translated into the subordinate clause ‘จึงไม่ต้องการให้เคลื่อนย้ายไปไหน’ /cuŋ mâj tɔŋka:n hâj k^hlû:an já:j paj nǎj/ (‘so (they) do not want it to be relocated’).

To conclude, the English-Thai translation is worth the examination due to the complicated structure of the ERCs, which may affect the accuracy of the translation, and the way to translate the ERCs idiomatically when both the literal translation and the translation adjustment are possible. The translation adjustment is particularly crucial since there has been evidence of the adjustment in translation. To further underline the necessity of translation adjustment, Pongpairroj and Mallikamas (2004) drew attention to the influence of the English language on Thai translation. Their study specified that faithful Thai translation of the English STs could cause an unidiomatic translation and translation adjustment was needed.

As for the other language direction – the Thai-English translation, there are also two translation challenges based on Wimonchalo (2000), i.e. the misunderstanding of the TRC structure and the inability to render an idiomatic translation. Even though the TRCs and the ERCs are similar in structure, there are other differences between the two languages. There are two main differences in relation to the TRC translation. First, Thai has resumptive pronouns, while Standard English does not (Songwittaya, 2015, p. 60). The literal translation results in an ill-formed English translation as exemplified in Example 163 below. Second, Wimonchalo (2000, p. 55) specifies the relative word ‘/sũŋ/’ as one of the keywords which causes translation problems from Thai into English. Although the surface

structure of the TRCs looks similar to the ERCs, there are some TRCs that follow the Thai structure and do not allow the literal translation into English. The example is provided in (164).

- (163) a. เขาเชื่อในอุดมการณ์ ซึ่งบางครั้งนั้น มันไม่อาจจะใช้กับชีวิตจริงได้
 b. *He believes in ideology which sometimes **it** cannot be applied in real life.

(adapted from Wimonchalao, 2000, p. 175)

- (164) a. เพลิงซึ่งยังไม่ทราบสาเหตุนั้น เผาผลาญร้านค้าและบ้านเรือนไปสิบกว่าหลัง
 b. *The fire which does not know the cause yet, gutted more than ten shops and houses.

(adapted from Wimonchalao, 2000, p. 156)

Example 163 shows that the resumptive pronoun ‘it’ in the English translation is literally translated from the Thai ST ‘มัน’ /man/ (‘it’), and this is ungrammatical in English. As for (164), in Thai it is an acceptable form since the readers know that ‘the fire’ is not the subject of the RC. The RC refers to the cause of the fire. Therefore, the literal translation into English is semantically incorrect as ‘the fire’ cannot be the actor to perform the verb ‘know.’ Wimonchalao (2000, p. 157) suggests the appropriate translation as “The fire of which the cause is not known yet, gutted more than ten shops and houses.”

Another challenge for the Thai-English translation is how to translate the TRCs as natural as possible. Since the differences between the TRCs and the ERCs are not as much as other language structures or elements, such as articles or tenses, many translation textbooks on Thai into English do not specifically mention the translation of TRCs. To the best of my knowledge, Songwittaya (2015, p. 24) clearly includes the translation of the adjective clause under the topic of complex sentences. She mentions the literal translation with a relative pronoun with the remark for translators to select the appropriate relative pronouns to correspond with the gender

system – animate or inanimate – of the head noun. In addition, she also mentions that the RC can be translated as participial phrases in English as in the example below.

(165) a. ผู้ฟังที่นั่งด้านหลังเห็นข้อความบนจอไม่ชัด

b. The audience sitting at the back couldn't clearly see the message on the screen.

(Songwittaya, 2015, p. 24)

The use of participial phrases mentioned in Songwittaya (2015, p. 24) suggests that TRCs can be translated via other structures. Another example in (166) is from Chantasingh (1986, p. 120). However, this is only the instance of the possible translation of a TRC into English; Chantasingh (1986, p. 120) used this example under the topic of adjective order. The example, nevertheless, confirms that the TRCs can be translated using various structures.

(166) a. คุณรู้จักสาวน้อยคนสวยที่ใส่ชุดสีฟ้าอันใหม่

b. Do you know the name of that pretty little girl in blue?

(Chantasingh, 1986, p. 120)

The TRC in (166) was translated into the prepositional phrase 'in blue.'

In conclusion, the Thai-English translation has various interesting aspects – both the structural differences between Thai and English and the way to translate the TRCs into English idiomatically. Although these aspects are mentioned in translation textbooks, they have not been examined as much as other grammatical aspects of the Thai language. The study into the translation of the TRCs into English can lead to the correct and idiomatic English translation.

The first reason mentioned above leads to the second reason to include both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. That is, exploring the RC translation strategies of one language direction can be interesting because it is the examination into the linguistic realization from one ST into the other TT. Nevertheless, for English and Thai, which have comparable RC structures, the inclusion of both English-Thai

and Thai-English translation allows the comparison of the translation strategies used in translating the RCs between the two languages. The translation strategies found, whether the same or different, are also expected to reveal how the differences between English and Thai language structures affect the translation. For example, according to Pongpairoj and Mallikamas (2004, p. 91), English is an inflected language and Thai is an isolating language. The inflections in English are represented by words or the context in Thai. This difference might affect the translation strategies, and the examination of both English-Thai and Thai-English translation might shed light on this aspect.

The third reason to include both translations in the study is because, to the best of my knowledge, currently there have been no other research studies or translation textbooks that specifically explain both the ERC translation into Thai and the TRC translation into English. One study on RC translation was conducted by Leenakitti (2012) but only with the English-Thai translation and the relative pronouns selected for the study were limited to two relative pronouns – ‘which’ and ‘that.’ The research investigated the RC translation; however, there were some gaps to fill in. Therefore, in the current study, not only will the expansion to the wider range of the relative pronouns for the English-Thai translation be included, the translation of Thai-English will also be explored. As mentioned in the first and the second reasons above, the similarities between ERCs and TRCs may bring about the similar RC translation. Still, the language structures belong in each language may influence how the TT should be rendered idiomatically. In addition, the differences between languages may result in various translation strategies. Also, to my knowledge, there have not been any translation textbooks that clearly describe the translation of RCs of both translations. Some translation scholars who included both English-Thai and Thai-English translation in their books are Wimonchalao (2000), Chantasingh (1986), and Thep-Ackrapong (2008). Although they included both translations, Chanthasingh and Thep-Ackrapong mentioned the RC translation in the English-Thai translation, while Wimonchalao mentioned it in the Thai-English translation. Thus, it is anticipated that the inclusion of both translations in the current study would fill in this gap and that the

translation of RCs between the two languages can be examined more comprehensively.

3.2 Populations and samples

The section elaborates on the populations and the samples of the study, the reasons supporting the selection of novels and the genre of fiction as the source of the data (3.2.1), the criteria used for selecting the English and Thai STs along with the translations (3.2.2), followed by the description of the selected English and Thai novels and the translations (3.2.3). Then, this section ends with the selected RC structures for the analysis (3.2.4), and the sampling method of the ST sentences and the translations (3.2.5).

With novels as the source of data, the populations of this study are English and Thai sentences which contain RCs in their original texts and the corresponding translated texts. The samples are the selected sentences containing the RCs within the scope of the study from two English novels and two Thai novels and their translations. These samples are to be examined in the analysis stage. Novels belong to the genre of fiction, and the reasons for selecting novels and the genre of fiction are explained in the section below.



3.2.1 Reasons supporting the selection of novels and the genre of fiction

This genre was selected among other genres based on four reasons: the language function of the genre of fiction, the characteristics of fiction, the availability of the STs and the translated versions, and the use of RCs in the texts.

(1) The language function of the genre of fiction

Different genres such as academic textbooks, short stories, or advertisements possess different text functions. According to Bühler (cited in Munday, 2016, p. 115; Newmark, 1988, pp. 39-42; Reiss, 2000, p. 25), there are three main functions of

language which are informative function³⁵, expressive function, and appellative function³⁶. Reiss (2000, p. 25) and Newmark (1988, p. 42), who adopted Bühler's functions of language, suggest otherwise that the three functions do not serve equally in a piece of text. However, there may be one function which is the most prominent among other overlapping functions.

Thus, these functions identify different text types. Each text type, in turn, suggests its appropriate translation method. Based on the language functions defined by Bühler, Newmark (1988, pp. 39-42), and Reiss (1977/1989, pp. 108-109 cited in Munday, 2016, p. 115; 2000, pp. 24-43), they can be summarized in the table below.

Table 14. The three text types and the functions of language

Function of language	Informative	Expressive	Vocative
Text type	Informative	Expressive	Vocative
Text focus	Content-focused	Form-focused	Appeal-focused

Since novels fall in the genre of fiction which belongs to the expressive text type with expressive function, they require translation methods that reflect the ST and can express the aesthetic value, styles, and author's intention. Therefore, it is expected that selecting novels as the data for this study will reveal various translation strategies in order to transfer the RCs between English and Thai.

³⁵ The terms vary from scholars to scholars. According to Newmark (1988, p. 39) and Reiss (2000, p. 25), Bühler's three main functions of language are to represent, express, and appeal. These three functions are the informative function, expressive function, and appellative function, respectively. Bühler suggests that language "serves simultaneously" (Reiss, 2000, p. 25) all the three functions. Newmark (1988, p. 39), based on Bühler's language functions, uses the terms: the informative, expressive, and vocative function. Reiss (1977/1989 cited in Munday, 2016, p. 115) uses Bühler's language function to link with text types, which results in three main text types, i.e. informative text type, expressive text type, and operative text type.

³⁶ It seems that the term 'appellative function' is the one given many alternative terms. According to Newmark (1988, p. 41), other terms include "'cognitive' (denoting effort), 'instrumental', 'operative' and 'pragmatic' (in the sense of used to produce a certain effect on the readership)."

(2) The characteristics of fiction

According to Biber et al. (1999), fiction is one of the four main registers in the Longman Spoken and Written English Corpus (the LSWE Corpus). The other three registers are conversation, news, and academic prose. One of the situational characteristics of fiction, which differs from other registers, is the mode (Biber et al., 1999, p. 16). Although fiction books contain written texts, they also include written conversational dialogue between the fictional characters. In addition, fiction can be varied in other contexts such as the language formality, the topics of the story, or the time in which the stories occur. All these varieties provide the opportunities for the different contexts that RCs can be situated. Thus, this should result in various RC translation patterns from STs to TTs.

(3) The availability of the STs and the translated versions

To collect the data, the availability of the STs and the translations also plays an important role. Although the structure of RC is ubiquitous in texts written in the first language, not every text type has the translations. For example, articles in a newspaper or a piece of advertisement in a magazine may not be translated or may be translated with adaptation. Not only does the factor of text type affect the selection of the source of data, the language directions pose challenges. The translation from foreign languages, especially English into Thai, is common in Thailand. On the other hand, the translation works from Thai into English are in low number. Thus, the availability of texts with their translations is important. Novels satisfy the criteria of text types which have suitable translated texts for the study, and there are STs and translations between the English and Thai language pair.

(4) The use of RCs in the texts

The structure of RC is one of the structures often used in many languages as many studies suggested. However, it must be certain that the texts chosen for the study must include sufficient occurrences of RCs. According to *Longman Grammar*

of *Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al., 1999, p. 606), not only are RCs the most common non-prepositional postmodifiers among the four main registers – conversation, fiction, news, and academic prose, but RCs are also most frequent in the register of fiction and comprise around 70 percent of the register.

Based on the four reasons above, novels under the genre of fiction were selected as the source of the data. The expressive language function of fiction texts and the characteristics of fiction are expected to provide a variety of translation methods of RCs. The availability of the STs and the translations is the factor that is unavoidable due to the limited translation works between the two languages. Lastly, the fact that fiction contains many RCs expresses the frequent usage of the structure and the amount of the possible data for the analysis.

The next section outlines the criteria used for selecting the English and Thai STs along with the translations.

3.2.2 Selection criteria for the English and Thai source texts and the translations

There are five selection criteria for the English and Thai novels and their translations, which are the quality of the STs, the publication year of the source and target texts, nationality of the authors and the dialects used in the STs, the quantity of sentences with the selected RC structures in the STs, and the quality of the translations.

(1) Quality of the source texts

It is considered based on two factors which are the authors and the merit of novels. The authors ought to be recognized through their literary works since it can be interpreted that they master not only their writing proficiency, but the content expressed in the novels. Another factor is the merit. The books selected for the study are expected to possess quality reflecting their values in some areas as this may infer good writing style and content.

(2) Publication year of the source and target texts.

This factor must also be taken into consideration since it might affect the language used in the novels and the translations. Contemporary literature is sometimes defined as literary products of which the same social values are shared with the current situations and audience, although the novels might be written in the past (Singkaew, 2014, p. 142). The time of writing and translation also influences the language used in the texts since some language elements change with time such as the archaic language or slang. The fashion of old translation works may involve rewriting as a method of translation. This results in more text adaptation or omission than modern translation which tends to be more faithful to the identity of the STs. Thus, the novels and the translations selected in the current study should not be too old and should use the everyday language of the present time with the translated versions that were not altered by the rewriting method.

(3) Nationality of the authors and the dialects used in the source texts

Since this study aims at standard English and Thai, both the nationality of the authors and the dialects used in the STs are expected to reflect the standard English and Thai dialects. Therefore, only two groups of nationalities – American and those belonging to people of the United Kingdom³⁷ – are taken into consideration. Regarding the languages used in the story, the selected novels should mainly employ the main dialects. That is, standard English in this study includes American English and British English, and standard Thai refers only to Central Thai.

(4) Quantity of sentences with the selected RC structures in the source texts

The ST sentences that contain the RC structures with the relativizers aimed for the examination are the fundamental part of this study. Therefore, it must be made

³⁷ The people of the United Kingdom, which include the British, the Scot, the Welsh, the Irish, are regarded as the representation of the British dialect.

certain that there are sufficient number of those sentences in the novels. The whole texts must be scanned to attest the usability of the data.

(5) Quality of the translations

The last criterion is the quality of the translation versions of the selected STs. Not only should the STs possess good quality, the quality of the translations cannot be overlooked. The factors involved are the translators and the publishing house together with the editing teams. In order to produce good translation, the aforementioned factors play an important role. Nida (1964, p. 164) mentions the four basic requirements of a translation including making sense, expressing the identity of the original work, possessing idiomatic expressions, and creating the similar effects to the target audience. To achieve good translation, translators should have four main traits as suggested by Saibua (2007, pp. 14-19), i.e. language proficiency of the source and target texts, background knowledge of ST content, the ability to transfer author's identity, and writing skill. In this research, it is considered that qualified translators with the above traits who can produce good translation works may be guaranteed by their translation works published to general audience. Therefore, they should be accepted as professional translators. Another factor which adds up to the quality of the translations is the publishing house and the editing teams. The recognized publishing houses indirectly suggest the quality of books and those who are associated with the production.

Based on the stated criteria, two English novels and two Thai novels were selected, and the description is elaborated in the next section.

3.2.3 Selected English and Thai novels and the translations

Since there are countless English books translated into Thai and some Thai books translated into English, it is reasonable that only a few books would be selected as the samples for this study. To reduce the subjectivity of the writing and translation styles and to explore various possible translation strategies of RCs, two books were

selected from each source language. With the reasons supporting the selection of novels, the genre of fiction, and the sub-genre of novels, together with the selection criteria for the English and Thai STs and the translations, the novels were chosen by the method of purposive sampling. This sampling technique is defined as the method when “the researchers select a sample according to a specific goal or purpose of the study, rather than at random” (Passer, 2014, p. 208). That is, the novels selected for this study were purposively chosen based on the selection criteria.

Purposive sampling is one of the main non-probability sampling methods (Passer, 2014, p. 208; Plowright, 2011, pp. 42-43). Non-probability sampling does not rely on the random selection (Plowright, 2011, p. 42; Rasinger, 2008, p. 51) and does not employ the “statistical theory” (Passer, 2014, p. 206) in selecting the samples. That is, the sample selection follows some criteria to ensure that the need or aims of the research are achieved although the samples may not represent the whole population (Plowright, 2011, p. 42).

Two English novels and two Thai novels and their translations which were selected as the source of the data are as follows.

Table 15. List of source texts and their translations

English source texts					
Title	Author	Year of publication	Translation title	Translator(s)	Year of publication
<i>Blood Work</i>	Michael	2015	ภารกิจเลือด	Sumet	2004
	Connelly	(2558)	/p ^h a:raʔkit lû:at/	Chaochuti	(2547)
<i>Black and Blue</i>	Ian Rankin	2012	สี่ป๋อน มาตกรเงา	Nantawan	2007
		(2555)	/sù:p sǎ:n k ^h â:ttaʔkɔ:n ŋaw/	Termsangsirirak	(2550)
Thai source texts					

Title	Author	Year of publication	Translation title	Translator(s)	Year of publication
เวลาในขวดแก้ว <i>/we:la: naj k^hu:at kê:w/</i>	Praphatsorn Seiwikun	2015 (2558)	<i>Time in a Bottle</i>	Marcel Barang and Phongdeit Jiangphatthana- kit	2009 (2552)
ปูนปิดทอง <i>/pu:n pít t^hว:η/</i>	Krisna Asoksin	2015 (2558)	<i>Poon Pid Thong: Gold- Pasted Cement</i>	Wasana Kenman	2014 (2557)

There are two sub-genres of the novels used in this study, including crime fiction for English novels and social issues fiction for Thai novels. The two main reasons for selecting different sub-genres are the availability of the STs and the translations, and the same function of language. As Thai STs being translated into English are more difficult to find than English STs, choosing Thai STs became the starting point. Therefore, the purposive sampling method was used in order to find the novels with the data corresponding to the research objectives. Most of Thai STs which were translated into English are mainly social issues fiction. On the contrary, social issues English fiction translated into Thai are less in number or faced with some constraints such as the nationality of the authors which is not American or British or the publication year that was many decades ago. Crime or mystery fiction is one of the sub-genres which has been translated from English into Thai. Since this sub-genre and social issues fiction are both expressive texts and chiefly aim at adult readers; the language use can be comparable. Thus, social issues novels were selected as the Thai STs, while for English STs, crime novels were selected.

The following section elaborates on each ST novel along with its translation.

(1) *Blood Work* is a crime fiction by American writer Michael Connelly. It was first published in 1998. Connelly is a writer of crime and thriller fiction with a variety of works, for example, novels, short stories, including being an editor of short stories. According to www.michaelconnelly.com, his novel work started in 1992 and

has continued until present with twenty-nine titles in twenty-five years. More than sixty million copies of his books reached readers around the world and were translated into thirty-nine foreign languages. Among many novels, his famous ones are, for example, *The Black Echo*, *The Lincoln Lawyer*, including *Blood Work*. The novel *Blood Work* won many awards, i.e. Barry Award for Best Novel (1999), Macavity Award for Best Mystery Novel (1999), Anthony Award for Best Novel (1999), and Grand Prix de Littérature Policière - Roman étranger (1999). In addition, it was nominated for Edgar Awards for Best Novel in 1999. The novel was also adapted into movie under the same title in 2002.

The Thai translation of *Blood Work* was entitled *ภารกิจเลือด* /p^ha:ra?kít lú:at/ published in 2004 by Amarin Printing and Publishing PLC. The book had been reprinted five times in the same year. The translator is Sumet Chaochuti. He is a recognized translator who renders English novels into Thai in various genres such as science fiction and crime fiction. He has many translation works, including other titles written by Michael Connelly which are *The Black Echo*, *The Lincoln Lawyer*, and *The Poet*. The translation work by Chaochuti can be traced back to 1985. His 30 years in translation career granted him Surindharacha Award for an Outstanding Translator in 2016.

(2) First published in 1997, *Black and Blue* is a crime novel by a Scottish writer Ian Rankin. Rankin writes crime fiction using his real name and his pseudonym 'Jack Harvey.' Based on www.ianrankin.net, since 1986 when his first novel was published, Rankin has written almost 40 novels. His fame and works are of the international level. Rankin received many awards and honors, for example, an Order of the British Empire (OBE) award for services to literature (2002), America's Edgar Award for *Resurrection Men* (2004), and France's Grand Prix de Littérature Policière for *Set in Darkness* (2005). His Rebus novel series is among his acclaimed literary products; the series has been rendered into twenty-two languages, including Thai. *Black and Blue* is the eighth of the Rebus novels. It won Crime Writers' Association (CWA) Gold Dagger for Fiction in 1997, and was shortlisted for Edgar Awards for Best Novel in 1998. The Rebus novels were adapted into the detective TV series aired

in the United Kingdom; moreover, *Black and Blue* was the first of the Rebus novels selected as the first episode of the initial television series (Rankin, 2007).

In 2007, *Black and Blue* was rendered into Thai by Matichon Publishing House with the title สืบข้อัน ฆาตกรรมเงา /sù:p sǒ:n kʰâ:ttáʔkɔ:n ɲaw/. The translation work was carried out by Nantawan Termsangsirirak. Termsangsirirak is a translator from English into Thai. She translated more than ten novels with multiple publishers such as Matichon Publishing House, Bliss Publishing, and Nampu. Apart from translating *Black and Blue*, she also translated another Ian Rankin's work *Knots & Crosses*. In addition, other translation works of hers are crime novels written by famous writers, for example, Tess Gerritsen – an American author and retired physician whose novels have been bestsellers in the United States and other countries - and Jo Nesbø – a Norwegian writer of the *Harry Hole* series.

(3) The Thai novel เวลาในขวดแก้ว /we:la: naj kʰu:at kɛ:w/ was first written in 1985 by a well-known author Praphatsorn Seiwikun. Seiwikun was a professional writer of novels, short stories, and poems. He started writing novels in 1982 and up until 2015 he had written 60 novels, 150 short stories, and approximately 200 pieces of poem (Seiwikun, 2015). Many of his novels received awards throughout 30 years of his writing career. He also served as the Secretary General of the Writers' Association of Thailand in 1982, and served as the President of the Association for two successive terms during 2001-2005. He also received the prestigious title 'National Artist' of Thailand in the discipline of Literature in 2011. Although เวลาในขวดแก้ว /we:la: naj kʰu:at kɛ:w/ did not received formal literary prizes, it has been widely recommended as a must-read book. In addition, the popularity and the contemporariness of the story have not faded through time. The story was adapted into a movie under the same title in 1991, and a television drama in 1992. The book has many reprints; the current reprint edition is the 40th edition published in 2015 by Nanmeebooks Publications Co., Ltd.

The English version of this book was given title, *Time in a Bottle*. The first publication was in 1996 in a book format by Thai Modern Classics. The book became

available in the Internet eBook edition in 2009. The work was the collaboration of two translators: Marcel Barang and Phongdeit Jiangphatthana-kit. Starting out as a French journalist in Thailand, Barang has lived in Thailand since 1978³⁸. He is best known as a language specialist and literary translator who translates from the Thai language into English and French. As a part of the initiation of Thai Modern Classics (TMC) project, in which 20-30 best novels of Thailand were selected to be translated from Thai into English, *Time in a Bottle* was also selected. With passion and dedication in translating more than 20 Thai novels into English, he has brought Thai novels to the wider international public, and his merit granted him, being the only foreigner among Thai award recipients of that year, Surindharacha Award for an Outstanding Translator in 2007. Another translator is Jiangphatthana-kit. Based on his translation works, they suggested that Jiangphatthana-kit has worked closely with Barang. Apart from *Time in a Bottle*, Jiangphatthana-kit was the co-translator with Barang in translating the 1982 S.E.A Write Award novel *The judgement* by Chart Korbjitti from Thai into English in 2001. In addition, Jiangphatthana-kit was the sole translator of *The circus of life* by Arkartdamkeung Rapheephat, first published in Thai in 1929, into English in 1994 with the editing and revision by Barang.

(4) Another Thai novel selected for this study is *ปูนปิดทอง* /*pu:n pìt tʰɔːŋ*/ by Sukanya Cholsuk under the pseudonym ‘Krisna Asoksin.’ The story was first published in Sakulthai Magazine during 1980-1981 (Asoksin, 2015), and was compiled into a book in 1982. The latest reprint is the 12th edition published in 2015. Cholsuk is one of the well-known Thai novelists. Her stories cover love and social issues. Started writing literary works at the age of fifteen, Cholsuk has written approximately 90 novels over the period of more than 50 years³⁹. Many of her works were adapted into TV drama and movies. In addition, she also received Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO) awards for her two novels: *Rya Manus: The Human Ship* and *Tawan Tok Din: Sunset*. As for *ปูนปิดทอง* /*pu:n pìt tʰɔːŋ*/, the novel won the S.E.A. Award for the year 1985.

³⁸ The information is summarized from Jitdee (2007) and Wentworth (2009).

³⁹ The information is summarized from Praphansarn’s web page and Asoksin (2014).

With the merit of the book, Praphansarn Publishing Co., Ltd. decided to publish the novel in the English version entitled *Poon Pid Thong: Gold-Pasted Cement* in 2014. The translator who worked behind the scenes is Professor Wasana Cholasueks Kenman, the younger sister of the author (Asoksin, 2014). Kenman⁴⁰ received the Fulbright scholarship and pursued her master's degree in the English language in the United States. As a language specialist, she – adopting the pen name 'Ajarn Wanda' – wrote columns and texts on English language learning. Additionally, she is an author of Thai crime novels under the nom de plume of 'Naya.' This English version of *Poon Pid Thong: Gold-Pasted Cement* also has an English Editor – Ezra Erker.

3.2.4 Selected RC structures for the analysis

The RC structures which were selected for the analysis are the RCs in sentences. They must contain a head noun which is postmodified by an RC. There could be determiners or premodifiers before the head noun, or other postmodifiers locating between the head noun and the RC. The English relativizers included 'who,' 'which,' and 'that,' excluding 'whom.' The relativizer 'that' might be used interchangeably with the other two relativizers for RRCs. The Thai relativizers that were collected are '/tʰi:/ and '/sûŋ/, excluding '/ʔan/.' For convenience, Figure 1 is repeated here as Figure 2 to show the criteria for the RC structures to be collected:

Determiners, Premodifiers (optional)	The head noun	Postmodifiers (optional)	+	RC	
				Relativizers	Other elements of the RC
				(English) who, which, that (Thai) /tʰi:/, /sûŋ/	

Figure 2: The structure of RCs to be collected and analyzed

⁴⁰ The information is summarized from Bavornteeart (2013) and Banmuang's web page.

The examples of English and Thai STs containing the RC under the scope of investigation are as follows.

(167) She had on a **loose summer dress** that came to mid-thigh.

(*Blood Work*, p. 1)

(168) ผม ชวน พลอง ยก มือ ขึ้น เสย เส้นผม ที่
 p^hǒm c^hu:an pla:ŋ jók muu: k^húm sǎ:j sên p^hǒm t^hi:
 I ask while raise hand up sweep hair REL
 ตก ลง มา ปก หน้าผาก
 tòk loŋ ma: pròk nâ:p^hà:k
 fall down come cover forehead

‘I ask while raising my hand to sweep the hair that hung over my forehead.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 16)

The ST sentences contain the head noun ‘dress’ in the head noun phrase ‘a loose summer dress’ and ‘เส้นผม’ /sên p^hǒm/ (‘hair’) as the antecedents of the RCs ‘that came to mid-thigh’ and ‘ที่ตกลงมาปกหน้าผาก’ /t^hi: tòk loŋ ma: pròk nâ:p^hà:k/ (‘which hung over my forehead’). The relative words are ‘that’ and ‘/t^hi:./’

The excluded RC structures are elaborated as follows.

(i) Since this study aimed at studying the RCs embedded in a sentence, the RCs which stood alone as an individual unit were excluded from the data collection. One of the characteristics of novels is that occasionally the writers insert fragments or phrases into the texts. The example is as follows.

- (169) **Dark almond-shaped eyes that seemed both sad and understanding of some secret at the same time.**

(*Blood Work*, p. 5)

Example 169 is a noun phrase, whose the head noun phrase ‘dark almond-shaped eyes’ is modified by an RC.

(ii) The relativizers ‘whom’ in English and ‘/?an/’ in Thai were excluded from the study due to the reason that they are less common in use than the other relativizers in English and Thai, i.e. ‘who,’ ‘which,’ ‘that,’ and ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/.’ Therefore, they might not constitute substantial samples for the analysis. The examples of the RCs with ‘whom’ and ‘/?an/’ are provided below.

- (170) **That partner, whom Kenyon had refused to identify, remained unidentified as well by the bureau, according to this last report.**

(*Blood Work*, p. 269)

(171)	สิ่ง	ที่	เพิ่มเติม	ขึ้นมา	เห็นจะ	เป็น
	sɨŋ	tʰi:	pʰɔ̃:m tɔ̃:m	kʰúm ma:	hěn cà?	pen
	thing	REL	add	up	appear	COP ⁴¹
	ตึก	หลัง	กะทัดรัด	รูปทรง	ทันสมัย	
	tùk	lǎŋ	kà?tátrát	rú:p sɔŋ	tʰan sa?mǎj	
	building	CLF ⁴²	compact	shape	modern	
	ซึ่ง	ตั้งอยู่	ตรง	บริเวณ	ที่	เคย เป็น
	súŋ	tâŋ jù:	trɔŋ	bɔ?ri?we:n	tʰi:	kʰɔ̃:j pen
	REL	locate at	location	REL	used to COP	

⁴¹ COP refers to ‘copula.’

⁴² CLF refers to ‘classifier.’

สนามหญ้า อัน เขียว ชุ่ม

saʔnǎ:m jā: ʔan kʰi:aw cʰaʔʔùm

lawn REL green lush

‘The thing that was added up appeared to be a compact building in modern shape which was located on what used to be a lush green lawn.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 132)

(iii) Other types of ERCs, apart from the adnominal RCs, were excluded from the study. There are six excluded ERC structures: RCs with other subordinators, RCs with a preposition and a relative pronoun, bare RCs, reduced RCs, sentential RCs, and nominal RCs.

- RCs with other subordinators

These subordinators include the relative determiner ‘whose,’ the relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why,’ and the nominal pronoun ‘what.’ These RCs were excluded from the study due to the reason that they employed relative words other than the relative pronouns ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ under the scope of the study. The examples of each RC structure are provided below, respectively.

- Relative determiner ‘whose’

(172) He looked back over his shoulder at **Arrango**, whose face had turned dark with anger.

(*Blood Work*, p. 167)

- Relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why’

(173) a. There was nothing in the bathroom, just **holes** where the fittings had been.

(*Black and Blue*, p. 20)

b. **A few days later, when nothing was happening and we were hitting the wall,** I put out another press release with the Cherokee in it.

(*Blood Work*, p. 136)

c. Give me **another reason why a man would let himself go.**

(*Black and Blue*, p. 84)

- Nominal pronoun ‘what’

(174) Okay, James, **what I want you to do** is take the remote and move the picture.

(*Blood Work*, p. 178)

- RCs with a preposition and a relative pronoun

In accordance with the first excluded ERC structure, i.e. RCs with other subordinators, the RCs which employ a preposition with a relative pronoun instead of the relative determiner ‘whose,’ or the relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why,’ were excluded from the study. This included the preposed prepositions and the preposition stranding. The examples of each subordinator are presented, respectively.

- Equivalent to the relative determiner ‘whose’

(175) So they walked back out into the wind, crossing the grazing land and coming to the low wall around what had been **a good-sized stone-built house, only the shell of which remained.**

(*Black and Blue*, p. 423)

- Equivalent to the relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why’

(176) a. During the three months for which McCaleb had statements, Cordell had made an ATM withdrawal on every payday at **the same bank branch at which he was eventually killed.**

(*Blood Work*, p. 284)

b. **A month-long gap, during which the first two murders had been connected** – Angie Riddell not only raped and strangled, but missing a distinctive necklace, a row of two-inch metal crosses, bought in Cockburn Street – then a third killing, this time in Glasgow.

(*Black and Blue*, p. 50)

c. Do you know **the reason for which she doesn't like me?**

(Swan, 2005, p. 479)

- Bare RCs

This type of RC was not included because of the covert form of the relativizers.

(177) Look, I do know **a couple of private investigators I can recommend.**

(*Blood Work*, p. 3)

- Reduced RCs

Both reduced RCs with a present participle and a past participle were excluded from the study. Since this type of RC is sometimes regarded as participle clauses and does not possess the relative words, the reduced RC structure was excluded from the study.

- Reduced RC with a present participle

(178) First there had been **Bible John, terrorising Glasgow in the late 1960s.**

(*Black and Blue*, p. 7)

- Reduced RC with a past participle

(179) Arrango opened a drawer in one of **the desks crammed into the squad room** and took out a videotape.

(*Blood Work*, p. 42)

- Sentential RCs

The sentential RCs are not in the scope of the study since they modify the main idea of the entire preceding clause, not the preceding head noun.

(180) He was about to impersonate a police officer, **which was a crime**, even if that officer was Eddie Arrango.

(*Blood Work*, p. 354)

- Nominal RCs

This type of RCs is the fused relative construction. That is, the antecedent is fused with the relativized element. Therefore, it was excluded from the study.

(181) **Whoever had packed it** had just stuffed everything in, clean and dirty.

(*Black and Blue*, p. 289)

(iv) Other types of TRCs, except the adnominal RCs, were excluded from this study. Due to structural differences between English and Thai, there are two excluded TRC structures which are bare RCs and sentential RCs.

- Bare RCs

Bare RCs in Thai omit the relativizer; thus, they are not in the scope of the study.

(182) ด้วย มาตรการ เฉียบขาด ทำ ให้ แม่

dû:aj mâ:ttra?ka:n cʰi:ap kʰà:t tʰam hâj mê:
with measure drastic make CAUS Mom

สามารถ หา เงิน ที่ ขาดไป คืน ได้

să:mâ:t hă: ɲəŋ tʰi: kʰà:t paj kʰu:n dâj
can find money REL missing return get

จน ครบ จำนวน

con k^{hr}óp camnu:an

until full amount

‘With a drastic measure, it made Mom able to retrieve the money, which was missing, in full.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 191)

- Sentential RCs

The sentential RCs in Thai also modify the overall idea of the main clause. Therefore, this structure was excluded from the study.

(183) อมร รัก แม่ และ น้องสาว เป็นพิเศษ ซึ่ง
 ʔamɔn rak mɛː léʔ nóːŋ sǎ:w pen p^hiʔsè:t **sŭŋ**
 Amorn love mother and sister in particular REL

ทำ ให้ เกิด ความขุ่นเคือง ขึ้น ใน
 t^ham hâj kè:t k^hwa:m k^hùn k^hu:an k^hùn naj
 do CAUS cause resentment up in

หัวใจ หลอน หลายต่อหลายหน

hŭ:a caj lòn lǎ:j tò: lǎ:j hǒn
 heart her many times

‘Amorn loved his mother and sister in particular, which caused resentment in her heart many times.’

(*Poon Pid Thong*, p. 178)

(v) For the Thai source texts, the sentences which contained a classifier between the head noun and the RC were excluded from the study. To elaborate, in the Thai language, a classifier might be inserted between the head noun and the RC to stress or specify the head noun (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 43; Panthumetha, 2010, pp. 152, 217). However, the classifier cannot be combined with the head noun to constitute a noun phrase like postmodifiers, which are in the scope of the study as the optional elements. Examples 184 and 185 illustrate the excluded and included sentence structures, respectively.

(184)	ทราบ	ไหม	ครับ	ว่า	ผู้หญิง	คน	ที่
	sâ:p	māj	k ^{hr} áp	wâ:	p ^h û: jǐŋ	k ^h on	t ^h i:
	know	QP	SLP ⁴³	COMP ⁴⁴	woman	CLF	REL
	อยู่	กับ	ธนิต	ชื่อ	อะไร		
	jù:	kàp	t ^h a?nít	c ^h û:	?à?raj		
	stay	with	Thanit	name	what		

‘Do you know the name of the woman who stays with Thanit?’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 260)

(185)	บางที่	ผม	อาจ	เป็น	เด็ก	ใน	นิทาน	เรื่อง
	ba:ŋ t ^h i:	p ^h ôm	?à:t	pen	dèk	naj	nít ^h a:n	rû:aŋ
	perhaps	I	may	be	child	in	story	CLF
	นี้	ที่	เฝ้ารอคอย	ความสุข	บอบบาง	ที่		
	ní:	t ^h i:	fâw rɔ: k ^h ɔ:j	kwa:m sùk	bò:pba:ŋ	t ^h i:		
	this	REL	wait	happiness	flimsy	REL		

⁴³ SLP refers to ‘speech level particle.’

⁴⁴ COMP refers to ‘complementizer.’

ลวงตา อยู่ ทุก ค่ำคืน

lu:an ta: jù: tʰúk kʰâm kʰu:n

illusory ASP every night

‘Perhaps I may be the child in this story who is waiting for flimsy happiness which is illusory every night.’

(*Time in a Bottle*, p. 30)

Example 184 shows the excluded sentence structure. It contains the classifier ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘person’), which is added before the relativizer to emphasize the head noun ‘ผู้หญิง’ /pʰû: jǎŋ/ (‘woman’). Nevertheless, the classifier cannot be combined with the head noun to form a noun phrase *‘ผู้หญิงคน’ /pʰû: jǎŋ kʰon/ (‘woman person’) as a single unit. This results in an incomprehensible phrase.

Unlike (184), Example 185 which is considered to be in the scope of the study has an optional postmodifier after the head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’), i.e. the prepositional phrase ‘ในนิทานเรื่องนี้’ /naj níʰa:n rû:an ní:/ (‘in this story’). This postmodifier is merged with the head noun to form the noun phrase ‘เด็กในนิทานเรื่องนี้’ /dèk naj níʰa:n rû:an ní:/ (‘child in this story’).

(vi) In Thai, the RCs can be formed with the gap strategy and the pronoun retention strategy (Yaowapat, 2005; Yaowapat & Prasithratsint, 2008). As this study aims at the RCs with the gap strategy – which has the missing argument in the RC, the RCs formed with the pronoun retention strategy, i.e. the RC with the resumptive pronoun that coreferences with the head noun, were excluded from the study. The example of the RC with the pronoun retention strategy is as follows.

(186) เด็กที่แกมาหาฉันเมื่อเช้านี้เป็นหลานของอาจารย์ใหญ่

(Panthumetha, 2010, p. 220)

The example above contains the resumptive pronoun ‘แก’ /kɛ:/ (‘she/he’) in the subject position in the RC. This pronoun is coreferential with the preceding head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’).

3.2.5 The sampling method of the ST sentences and the translations

The above section on the selected English and Thai novels and the translations (3.2.3) refers to the purposive sampling method employed to select the novels. This section will discuss the sampling method used to select the sample of the study which is the ST sentences and their corresponding translations. Since the aim of the research is to analyze the RC translation between English and Thai to explore the translation strategies used, the phenomenon in real usage is satisfactory for the current study. Therefore, the generalizability of the data is not the ultimate goal. This leads to the selection of convenience sampling as the sampling method used to collect the ST sentences and their translations. Convenience sampling is one of the non-probability sampling methods; it refers to the method where “members of a population are selected nonrandomly for inclusion in a sample, on the basis of convenience” (Passer, 2014, p. 206).

After the novels had been selected, convenience sampling was adopted to collect the ST sentences and the translations in the following fashion. The initial observation of the four ST novels – two in English and the other two in Thai – suggested that *Black and Blue* contained the least number of sentences with the RCs. That is, the total number of sentences with the RCs from all thirty-six chapters in *Black and Blue* was 173. This quantity of sentences proved sufficient RC usage within a published book. Thus, based on convenience sampling, this number of sentences with the RCs in *Black and Blue* was used as the criterion to collect the comparable number of sentences from the other three novels. The sentences within the scope of

the study were collected from the first chapter until the chapter where the accumulated number of sentences was closest to the number of sentences of 173.

3.3 Data collection

The data of the study are the sentence pairs of English and Thai STs and their translations. The data collection was in the stages as follows.

1. Both the STs and the translations were prepared in the electronic form, in the Microsoft Word files, from online resources or paper sources.
2. The relativizers of the STs were used as the keywords to search for sentences that contained an RC.
3. With convenience sampling, the ST sentences containing the RCs within the scope of the study were selected, copied and pasted on the Microsoft Excel sheets.
4. The prepared Microsoft Word files of the parallel translations were searched manually for the corresponding sentences to the selected ST sentences.
5. The corresponding TT sentences were copied and pasted next to the STs in the same Microsoft Excel sheets to create a parallel corpus, and the data were ready to be explored.

With the full awareness of the practicality of concordance programs, for example, the concordance lines, the keyword search, or the collocations, which are available online and in the market for studies involving a corpus method, there are two main reasons why concordance programs were not utilized as the research instrument in the current research.

First of all, while the English language is compatible with general concordance programs, Thai is not always the case. A useful program such as AntConc does not support the Thai language. A concordance program that can process Thai, for example, ParaConc, also has many constraints. To begin with, in order to prepare the texts for ParaConc, the sentences of the entire STs and the

translations must first be aligned, sentence-to-sentence, before being loaded into the program. This process is time-consuming and labor-intensive. In addition, it might not be worth the attempt because the RCs – which are the subject of this study – occur merely in some sentences throughout the texts. Aligning every sentence for ParaConc is considered unnecessary in this instance.

Secondly, the relativizers selected for the study possess other functions apart from a relativizer. For example, the word ‘that’ also is a complementizer, and the word ‘/tʰi:/’ has several functions in Thai such as a noun or a preposition. Thus, the concordance program will give all the results regardless of the functions of the words, and the manual selection needs to be carried out.

On the other hand, even though using a Microsoft Word program requires the manual search for the sentences, the search can be carried out in a shorter time without the need to pre-align the entire texts. Moreover, searching through the files with the relativizers as the starting point and incorporating the Microsoft Word’s simple feature to find the words and replace them with the same words of different colors make the words stand out. Then, browsing through the texts with the focus only on the colored words simplifies the search and it can quickly retrieve only the sentences in the scope of the study. The self-constructed parallel corpora of the STs and the translations are later created in the Microsoft Excel sheets.

3.3.1 Research instruments

The software which was utilized in the current study included Microsoft Word 2016 and Microsoft Excel 2016. Microsoft Word 2016 was used for detecting the keywords, in other words, the relativizers in English and Thai, so that the sentences containing the RC could be retrieved. Microsoft Excel 2016 was beneficial in storing the ST sentences adjacent to the corresponding translated texts, constructing the parallel corpora. That is, the sentence pairs were prepared and ready for the investigation.

3.4 Data analysis

This section includes two parts: the translation strategies framework for the analysis and the stages of the analysis.

3.4.1 Translation strategies framework for the analysis

This study follows Newmark's (1988, p. 81) definitions of terms where 'translation methods' refer to the whole text and 'translation procedures' are used for sentences and other smaller units of language. In addition, Newmark's (1988) 'translation procedures' have the same functions as Chesterman's (1997) 'translation strategies.' Due to the comprehensiveness of Chesterman's (1997) categorization, the term 'translation strategies' is adopted throughout this research, and his translation strategies are used as the main framework for the analysis. Since his classification of strategies involves 'literal translation' and other strategies, those strategies that are concerned with changes are referred to as 'translation adjustment.' The term 'adjustment' is borrowed from Nida's (1964) techniques of adjustment, which together with Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment will be incorporated to support Chesterman's strategies.

Therefore, the two main translation strategies of this current study are the literal translation and the translation adjustment. The overall framework for the analysis is presented in Figure 3.

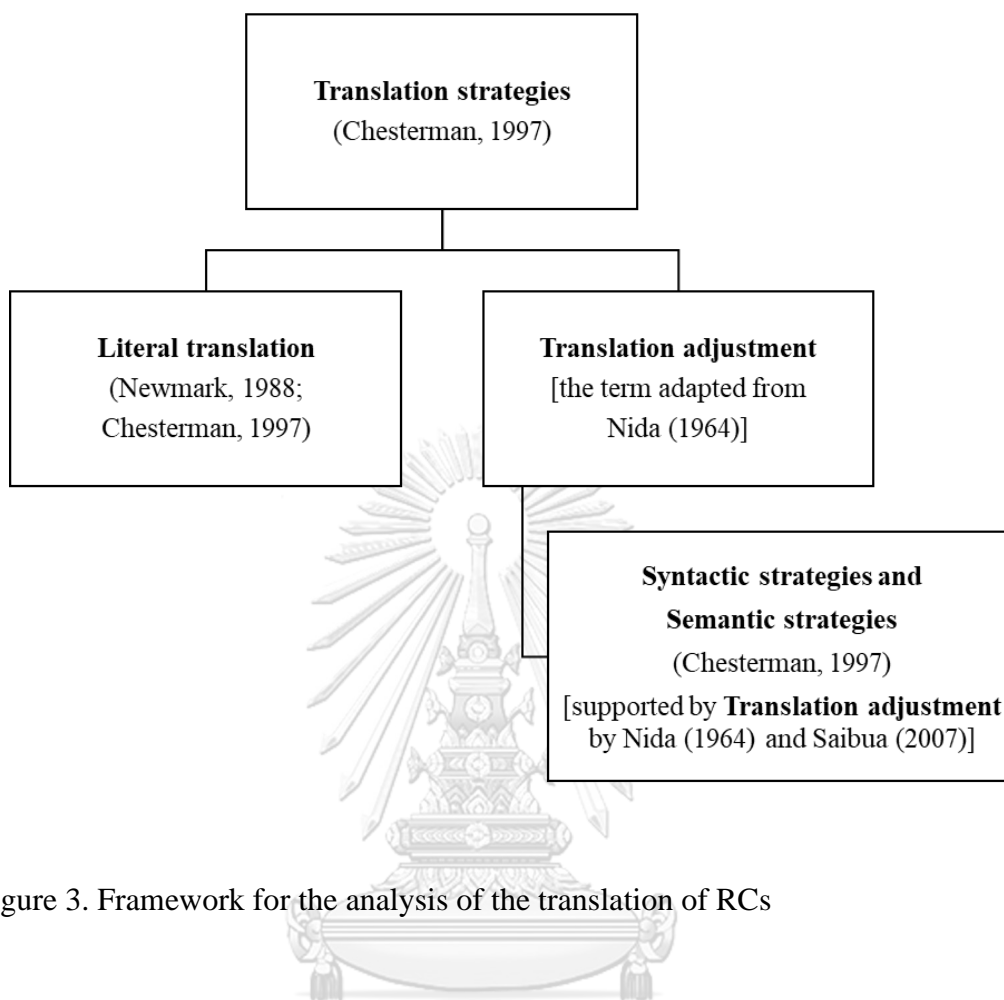


Figure 3. Framework for the analysis of the translation of RCs

(1) **Literal translation**

Literal translation for this study follows the concept by Chesterman (1997) and Newmark (1988), and it mainly refers to the circumstance when the form is close to the SL, but the TL translation is grammatical and contains the intended meaning of the original. Thus, the literal translation strategy in the context of this research refers to and focuses on the fundamental syntactic structures between English and Thai. Since the two languages share the similar characteristics of RCs, i.e. the head noun preceding the RC, and the RC with a relativizer at the initial position of the clause, the TTs will be analyzed as using the literal translation strategy when the structures can be matched in the following structure: ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer.’ Examples are provided in Tables 16 and 17 below.

Table 16. The RC structure with literal translation

Text	Head noun	Relative clause	
		Relativizer	Elements of the RC
ST	additional information	that	may lead to the ID of a suspect.
TT	ข้อมูลเพิ่มเติม	ที่	อาจนำไปสู่การระบุตัวผู้ต้องสงสัย

(*Blood Work*, pp. 99, 101)

Table 17. The RC structure, containing a modifier, with literal translation

Text	Head noun	Relative clause	
		Relativizer	Elements of the RC
ST	อาจารย์ใหญ่คนเก่า	ซึ่ง	ชอบทานอาหารกลางวันร่วมกับครูและนักเรียนใน โรงอาหาร
TT	the former principal,	who	liked to have lunch with teachers and students in the canteen,

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 44, 42)

Table 16 shows that the ST and the TT consist of the head nouns followed by the RCs with the relativizers. This parallel structure is considered literal translation in this study. It is to be noted that both English and Thai STs might contain premodifiers before the head noun or postmodifiers between the head noun and the RC (see Figure 1 or Figure 2). This is exemplified in Table 17 where the head noun ‘อาจารย์ใหญ่’ /ʔa:ca:n jàj/ (‘principal’) is postmodified by the classifier ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘person’) and the adjective ‘เก่า’ /kàw/ (‘former’). In spite of other modifiers, the focus is on the core structure of an RC with a head noun, i.e. ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer.’ Provided that the translation follows this structure, the analysis will be the literal translation strategy.

In addition, based on this structure: ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer,’ there might be other adjustments carried out with the head noun or within the RC to comply with the TL syntactic structures, for instance, the rearrangement of the word order or changes of linguistic units; for example, a prepositional phrase is adapted into a verb phrase. In other words, apart from the main structure of RCs, other elements may receive adjustments to create qualified translation products. The example of the literal translation analysis is as follows.

(187) ST: He’s waiting on a heart **that isn’t coming**.

TT:	เฝ้ารอ	หัวใจ	ซึ่ง	ไม่	มี	วัน	ที่
fâw rɔ:		hǔ:acaj	sûŋ	mâj	mi:	wan	tʰi:
wait		heart	REL	NEG ⁴⁵	have	day	REL
	จะ	มา	ถึง				
cà?	ma:	tʰǔŋ					
will	come	arrive					

‘waiting on a heart that there will be no day that (it) will come.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 18, 24)

The example above shows the head noun of the ST which is ‘heart’ and the RC ‘that isn’t coming.’ The TT also had the same head noun ‘หัวใจ’ /hǔ:acaj/ (‘heart’) with the RC ‘ซึ่งไม่มีวันที่จะมาถึง’ /sûŋ mâj mi: wan tʰi: cà? ma: tʰǔŋ/ (‘that there will be no day that (it) will come’). Although there is some adjustment within the TRC from ‘that isn’t coming’ in English into ‘that there will be no day that (it) will come’ in Thai, the core structure of the literal translation which is ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer’ remains. Therefore, this sentence pair is considered using the literal translation strategy.

⁴⁵ NEG refers to ‘negative marker.’

To conclude, if the translation complies with the structure of ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer,’ the translation strategy is determined the literal translation strategy. Any sentence pairs that do not follow this structure or change the contents of the head nouns or the RCs beyond the scope of the TL syntactic structures will be analyzed as using the translation adjustment strategies.

(2) Translation adjustment

The translation adjustment is termed following Nida’s (1964) ‘techniques of adjustment,’ in this case to refer to the other main translation strategy. Essentially, the translation adjustment is the umbrella term comprising many translation strategies which adopt changes in translation. The framework derived mainly from Chesterman’s (1997) syntactic strategies and some from semantic strategies. In addition, it is supported by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustments, which will be discussed below. Due to the fact that this research aims at examining the RC construction, only the strategies with respect to syntax or the language structure are selected. As for the two semantic strategies – S7: Emphasis change and S8: Paraphrase, they are included in the framework because the two strategies involve clause meaning. Therefore, they also interact with the change in syntactic structures. According to Chesterman’s translation strategies, the related strategies to be used as the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment are illustrated in the table below.

Table 18. Framework for the analysis of translation adjustment based on Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies

Syntactic strategies	G3: Transposition G4: Unit shift G5: Phrase structure change G6: Clause structure change G7: Sentence structure change G8: Cohesion change G9: Level shift G10: Scheme change
Semantic strategies	S7: Emphasis change S8: Paraphrase
Couplet	(Combination of two strategies)

The example of the sentence analysis of the RC with a translation adjustment strategy is provided as follows.

(188) ST: หนึ่ง คว่ำ นาฬิกาทราย ที่ วาง ไว้

 nĭŋ k^hwá: na:li?ka: sa:j t^hi: wa:ŋ wáj

 Ning grab sandglass REL place at

 หัวเตียง ขึ้น มา ดู

 hŭ:ati:ŋ k^hŭm ma: du:

 head of a bed up come look

 ‘Ning grabs the sandglass which was placed at the head of the bed to look at it.

TT: Ning grabs **the sandglass** at the head of the bed and looks at it.

(*Time in a bottle*, pp. 41, 39)

The ST of Example 188 has the head noun ‘นาฬิกาทราย’ /na:liʔka: sa:j/ (‘sandglass’) and the RC ‘ที่วางไว้หัวเตียง’ /tʰi: wa:ŋ wáj hǔ:a ti:aŋ/ (‘which was placed at the head of the bed’). In the English translation, the TRC was translated as the prepositional phrase ‘at the head of the head.’ This exemplifies the adjustment from an RC into a prepositional phrase. Based on the framework above, this example can be analyzed as employing G4: Unit shift, which changes the unit between the ST and the TT. In Example 188, the unit was altered from a clause into a phrase.

To summarize, when there is a translation adjustment on the ST RC structure, it is regarded as the translation adjustment with the employment of translation adjustment strategies. It should be noted that there might be an overlap of translation strategies. In addition, the adjustment of the translation may differ in degrees; the changes might be at the major or minor level.

With respect to the translation adjustments by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007), these adjustment strategies can be adopted to support the framework for the analysis of the translation adjustment based on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies in the two following aspects. First, it concerns the adjustments that Chesterman, Nida, and Saibua have in common. The second aspect relates to the strategies that are not mentioned in Chesterman’s, but they can be drawn from Nida’s and Saibua’s translation adjustment.

To begin with, Nida’s (1964, p. 226) techniques of adjustment can be divided into three groups: additions, subtractions, and alterations. Each group has its own translation types. The total translation types in Nida’s techniques of adjustment are presented in Table 19. As for Saibua’s translation adjustment, it can be carried out in two levels: the lexical level and the structural level. Each level also contains several sub-types as shown in Table 20. Since the current research focuses only on the RCs, the adjustment on the syntactic structures is examined. Table 21 compiles the translation adjustment strategies that Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) have in common with the adjustment strategies based on Chesterman’s (1997) and the adjustment strategies that are not included in Chesterman’s.

Table 19. Nida's (1964, pp. 226-240) Techniques of adjustment

Additions	Subtractions	Alterations
a. Filling out elliptical expressions	a. Repetitions	a. Sounds
b. Obligatory specification	b. Specification of reference	b. Categories
c. Additions required by grammatical restructuring	c. Conjunctions	c. Word classes
d. Amplification from implicit to explicit status	d. Transitionals	d. Order of elements
e. Answers to rhetorical questions	e. Categories	e. Clauses and sentence structures
f. Classifiers	f. Vocatives	f. Semantic problems involving single words
g. Connectives	g. Formulae	g. Semantic problems involving exocentric expressions
h. Categories of the receptor language		
i. Doublets		

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Table 20. Saibua's (2007, pp. 63-78) translation adjustment

Lexical level	Structural level
1. Additions of explanation	1. Sounds level
2. Replacement of a word by a phrase or a sentence	2. Lexical structure level
3. Replacement of a specific word by a general word	3. Sentential structure level
4. Additions of connectors between units of thoughts	4. Discourse level
5. Deletion of words or expressions	

Table 21. Framework for the analysis of translation adjustment supported by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007)

	Chesterman (1997)	Nida (1964)	Saibua (2007)	
Syntactic strategies	G3: Transposition	c. Additions required by grammatical restructuring (Add ⁴⁶) b. Specification of reference (Sub) c. Word classes (Alt)	-	
	G4: Unit shift	-	3. Sentential structure level (Str)	
	G5: Phrase structure change	-	2. Lexical structure level (Str)	
	G6: Clause structure change	c. Additions required by grammatical restructuring (Add)	3. Sentential structure level (Str)	
	G7: Sentence structure change	-	-	
	G8: Cohesion change	a. Filling out elliptical expressions (Add) b. Obligatory specification (Add) b. Specification of reference (Sub) d. Transitionals (Sub)	4. Additions of connectors between units of thoughts (Lex) 3. Sentential structure level (Str)	
	G9: Level shift	-	-	
	G10: Scheme change	-	-	
	Semantic	S7: Emphasis change	a. Repetitions (Sub)	-

⁴⁶ The abbreviations in the parentheses are used to identify Nida's (1964) three main techniques of adjustment: 'Add' for additions, 'Sub' for subtractions, and 'Alt' for alterations, and to identify Saibua's (2007) two levels of adjustment: 'Lex' for the lexical level and 'Str' for the structural level.

	Chesterman (1997)	Nida (1964)	Saibua (2007)
strategies	S8: Paraphrase	-	-
Couplet	(Combination of two of the above strategies)	-	-
		d. Amplification from implicit to explicit status (Add) g. Connectives (Add)	2. Replacement of a word by a phrase or a sentence (Lex)
		a. Repetitions (Sub)	5. Deletion of words or expressions (Lex)
		d. Order of elements (Alt)	3. Sentential structure level (Str)

From Table 21 above, it can be observed that there are some strategies which Chesterman (1997), Nida (1964), and Saibua (2007) have in common although the titles are different. To illustrate, for Chesterman's 'G3: Transposition' which is the change of word classes, this can be supported by Nida's strategies in additions, subtractions, and alterations. This is because the alteration of word classes could involve the 'additions required by grammatical restructuring' or the subtraction 'specification of reference' depending on the word class alteration. For example, if the change is from a noun to a verb, it requires the addition of words to include the participants (Nida, 1964, p. 232). On the other hand, the change from a verb to a noun subtracts the participants. All these processes are a part of the transposition.

For 'G4: Unit shift,' it is the change of units between the ST and the TT, for example, a word to a phrase, or a clause to a sentence. Saibua (2007, pp. 72-73) also mentions the change in the sentence structure level with the examples of the change between a phrase and a sentence. Basically, the underlying process is the same – the change between units.

Regarding ‘G5: Phrase structure change,’ this strategy mainly focuses on the change at the phrase level. That is, a ST phrase may remain a phrase in the translation, and the change is carried out in the phrases’ internal structure. This includes definiteness, number, change in noun phrases; as for verb phrases, the change is on tense and mood. This strategy of Chesterman (1997) corresponds with Saibua’s (2007) ‘lexical structure level’, which is categorized in the structural level. This strategy refers to the adjustment on the plurality of nouns and the corresponding verbs, gender, number, or tense.

As for ‘G6: Clause structure change’ in Chesterman’s (1997), this relates to the constituent phrases – the subject, verb, object, complement, and adverbial – in the clause, the active and passive voices, transitive and intransitive, or finite and non-finite structures. Some aspects can be supported by Nida’s (1964) ‘additions required by grammatical restructuring’ which concerns the shift between the active and passive voices. Also, Chesterman’s ‘G6: Clause structure change’ can be supported by the change in the ‘sentential structure level’ in Saibua’s (2007) with one sub-topic being on the adjustment of the active and passive voice between English and Thai (Saibua, 2007, p. 74).

Another strategy in Chesterman’s (1997) syntactic strategies that Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) share some similar strategies is ‘G8: Cohesion change.’ Cohesion change is the change concerning, for example, the ellipsis, the repetition, the reference within the text, the use of various connectors. Nida also refers to this type of change, both in additions and subtractions. That is, the additions can be the ‘filling out elliptical expressions’ or the ‘obligatory specification.’ One reason for the ‘obligatory specification’ is to provide more information in order to avoid a reference that can be misleading without the specification. As for Nida’s subtractions, there are two strategies relating to the cohesion change which are ‘specification of reference’ and ‘transitionals.’ For the ‘specification of reference,’ if there are too many words repeating the same reference, some can be omitted or changed to pronouns. The word repetition can be “stylistically inappropriate and syntactically confusing in some languages (Nida, 1964, p. 232). As for the subtractions of ‘transitionals,’ they are sometimes normal when the TT does not require these transitional words. Saibua

mentions this change of cohesion in both the lexical level and the structural level. Due to the differences between language structures, sometimes the ‘additions of connectors between units of thoughts’ and ‘the addition and subtraction of words in a sentence’ as a part of the ‘sentential structure level’ are needed for the TT to be structurally complete.

The last strategy which Nida (1964) has in common with Chesterman (1997) is ‘S7: Emphasis change.’ This belongs to the semantic strategies in Chesterman’s. It changes the emphasis or thematic focus, which includes the increase and decrease of the emphasis. Nida mentions a similar concept in the adjustment on subtractions, i.e. ‘repetitions.’ The repeated words for emphasis might be omitted or altered by using other words.

While there are some translation adjustment strategies, i.e. ‘G7: Sentence structure change,’ ‘G9: Level shift,’ ‘G10: Scheme change,’ ‘S8: Paraphrase,’ that Chesterman (1997) mentions but Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) do not, there are some strategies regarding the syntactic structure which are present in Nida’s or Saibua’s but not in Chesterman’s. This is to be noted that the shared strategies or the absence in some strategies might be the result of the difference in categorizing the translation strategies. The last three rows of Nida’s and Saibua’s strategies in the table above show the strategies which are not included in Chesterman’s strategies. This is the second aspect how Nida’s and Saibua’s translation adjustment is used to support the framework based on Chesterman. What Chesterman did not include in the syntactic and semantic strategies which relate to the structural change is complemented by translation adjustment strategies suggested by Nida and Saibua. In other words, if there are instances of translation adjustment in the data that cannot be analyzed according to Chesterman’s two main strategies, they will instead be analyzed based on Nida’s and Saibua’s translation adjustment strategies which are considered as additional translation adjustment strategies. These additional strategies are presented in the following table.

Table 22. Additional translation adjustment strategies based on Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007)

Translation adjustment strategies	Nida (1964)	Saibua (2007)
Additions	d. Amplification from implicit to explicit status g. Connectives	2. Replacement of a word by a phrase or a sentence (Lexical level)
Subtractions	a. Repetitions	5. Deletion of words or expressions (Lexical level)
Alterations	d. Order of elements	3. Sentential structure level (Structural level)

The three main groups, summarized from Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007), comprise Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. That is, for Additions, there could be ‘Amplification from implicit to explicit status,’ or ‘Connectives’ from Nida’s additions. Also, the addition strategy could be from Saibua’s ‘Replacement of a word by a phrase or a sentence.’ As for the second group – Subtractions – the strategies could be Nida’s deletion of ‘Repetitions,’ or the strategy could be from Saibua’s ‘Deletion of words or expression.’ The last group is Alterations of the word or expression order as mentioned in Nida’s ‘Order of elements’ and Saibua’s change of word order in the ‘Sentential structure level.’

What makes the categorization of strategies challenging and complicated is the differences in the way each scholar categorizes their translation strategies or the adjustment strategies. Thus, Chesterman’s (1997) strategies – which were selected as the core of the framework – can be supported by various strategies by Nida (1964) or Saibua (2007) because basically they all refer to the same types of adjustment strategies. Nevertheless, there are still some strategies that Chesterman did not mention in the syntactic and semantic strategies. The strategies that Nida and Saibua mention may overlap with some pragmatic strategies by Chesterman. His pragmatic strategies deal mainly with the manipulation of the message, and they tend to “typically incorporate syntactic and/or semantic changes as well” (Chesterman, 1997,

p. 107). Thus, in order to not complicate this study of RC translation that the primary purpose is on the language structure, Chesterman's pragmatic strategies were then excluded. The strategies that related to the structural changes from Nida and Saibua were incorporated to supplement selected Chesterman's syntactic and semantic strategies. In conclusion, based on Chesterman's selected translation strategies supplemented by Nida's and Saibua's translation adjustment strategies, the complete framework for the analysis of translation adjustment for the current study is presented in Table 23 below.

Table 23. Framework for the analysis of translation adjustment

Syntactic strategies (Chesterman, 1997)	G3: Transposition G4: Unit shift G5: Phrase structure change G6: Clause structure change G7: Sentence structure change G8: Cohesion change G9: Level shift G10: Scheme change
Semantic strategies (Chesterman, 1997)	S7: Emphasis change S8: Paraphrase
Couplet (Newmark, 1988)	(Combination of two strategies)
Additional strategies (Nida, 1964; Saibua, 2007)	Additions ⁴⁷ Subtractions Alterations

⁴⁷ With respect to additional strategies, the terms 'Additions,' 'Subtractions,' and 'Alterations' were borrowed from Nida's (1964) 'techniques of adjustment.' For the analysis in the current study, it included the adjustment strategies mentioned by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007), which were categorized into these three additional strategies.

3.4.2 Stages of the analysis

First, the data of both English and Thai STs and their translations were identified of the relativizers of the STs, the translation strategies used based on two broad translation strategies: the literal translation and the translation adjustment, and the restrictiveness of the RCs – RRCs or NRRCs – for the English STs. Then, the translations which fell into the adjustment category were analyzed according to the translation strategies framework. The frequency count and percentage calculation of the occurrences of each relativizer and translation strategies were performed. It is to be noted that, the analysis of the RC translation strategies did not include the interviews of the translators. The reason for this is that this study aims at analyzing the translation strategies based on the translation theories. That is, the analysis was to investigate the actual translation strategies used in the RC translation as presented in the translated texts. Next, to examine if the types of RCs – the independent variable – in the English STs affected the translation strategy into Thai in terms of relativizer selection, a chi-square test was carried out.

The chi-square test for this research was the chi-square test of independence which concerned nominal data and two variables (Reid, 2014, p. 161). This type of statistical test examines if one variable is dependent or independent of the other. In other words, the chi-square test “is used to determine whether the counts of two nominal variables are associated with each other” (Roever & Phakiti, 2018, p. 182). For this study, the two variables to be tested for association were the RC types in English and relativizers in Thai. Two categories of the RC types were restrictive RCs (RRCs) and non-restrictive RCs (NRRCs), and two categories of Thai relativizers were the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/.’ These two Thai relativizers were selected because Thai grammarians (e.g. Kullavanijaya (2010) and Panthumetha (2010)), suggested that the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ in Thai corresponded with RRCs and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ with NRRCs.

This study adopted the SPSS software program to perform the chi-square test in order to obtain the chi-square value and the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05, this indicates that the result is statistically significant and there is an association between the two variables when the ERCs are translated into Thai.

3.5 Implications of the pilot study

Before the main analysis was carried out, a pilot study on examining RC translation strategies was conducted to assess the practicality of the data and the analysis framework. The pilot study was in two directions: from English into Thai and from Thai into English. The data were the sentence pairs from four selected novels – two English novels and two Thai novels – and their translations. These included *Blood Work* (2015), *Black and Blue* (2012), *เวลาในขวดแก้ว* /we:la: naj k^hu:at kê:w/ (2015), and *ปูนปิดทอง* /pu:n pít t^ho:ŋ/ (2015). The ST sentences contained the RCs under the scope of the study. The sample size for each language direction was one hundred sentence pairs; fifty sentences were collected from each novel. The data collection for the pilot study started from the collection of the ST sentences. After the STs were prepared in the electronic file in the format of Microsoft Word, the relative words were used as the keywords to search for the sentences with an RC. The selected sentences were copied and pasted onto the Microsoft Excel sheet, along with the corresponding translated sentences. Then, the sentence pairs were analyzed based on the translation framework adapted mainly from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, Nida's (1964) techniques of adjustment, and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment. The two main translation strategies found were the literal translation with a relativizer and the translation adjustment. The findings could be presented by the frequency count and percentages.

The pilot study paved the way to the data collection and the analysis of the main study in the following aspects. The pilot study showed that the STs and the translations, the method used to collect the sentence pairs, and the framework for the analysis were appropriate for this study. To elaborate, the STs and their translations provided the sentence pairs that illustrated various RC translation strategies. For the data collection, using relative words as keywords was effective in extracting the sentences within the study scope. In addition, the analysis framework was able to categorize the RC translation strategies, including the sub-strategies for adjusted translation. Nevertheless, some adjustments were adopted in the main study. First, the number of sentence pairs and the data collection were different between the pilot

study and the main study. In the pilot study, the data were the first fifty sentences from each ST and their translations. In the main study, the number of sentences and the data collection were derived via convenience sampling (see 3.2.5 The sampling method of the ST sentences and the translations). Second, the findings of the pilot study signified that the two broad translation strategies, i.e. the literal translation with a relativizer and the translation adjustment, were inadequate to explain the RC translation. Translation adjustment could be carried out either on the head noun or the RC, or both. This led to the analysis of the RC translation into sub-types with regard to the degree of adjustment.

To conclude, conducting the pilot study confirmed the practicality of the data and the translation analysis framework. It also suggested how the data could be further analyzed for the main study.

3.6 Summary

This chapter begins by describing the reason behind the inclusion of both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. With both language directions, it is possible to explore the uniqueness of RC translation of each language direction along with the translation strategies adopted. Including both English-Thai and Thai-English translation enables the analysis for similarities and differences in the RC translation between the two language directions. This chapter also elaborates on the populations and samples of this study. The selection criteria for the STs and the translations are explained, including the RC structures for the analysis and the sampling methods for the sentence pairs. Then, the chapter delineates the data collection and data analysis. The translation analysis framework based mainly on Chesterman's (1997), supported by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies, is presented. Lastly, the implications of the pilot study are included, which links to the main study.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, is the findings and discussion about the translation of the ERCs into Thai. They answer the first research question of the study: 'What are the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs with the relativizers 'who,' 'which,' and 'that' into Thai?'

CHAPTER 4

TRANSLATION OF ERCS INTO THAI

This chapter explores the translation of the ERCS into Thai to answer the first research question of this study: ‘What are the translation strategies used in translating the ERCS with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai?’ The findings are presented together with discussion throughout each section. The chapter is introduced with the data of the study and some introduction on the translation strategies. Then, all findings and discussion are presented under the main heading ‘Translation strategies used to translate ERCS into Thai’ (4.1). The contents are separated into four subsections based on the type of the translation strategy: Literal Translation (4.1.1), Antecedent Adjustment (4.1.2), RC Adjustment (4.1.3), and Complete Adjustment (4.1.4). This chapter ends with the summary of the chapter (4.2).

The sentence pairs played a crucial role in this study because they were the data to the RC translation strategies. Among the four selected novels used as the data source, *Black and Blue* (2012) has the least number of sentences with the RCs in the scope of the study. Consequently, its number of sentences was used as a criterion for collecting sentences from the other books. The sentence pair collection was carried out and the number of sentences, along with the chapters, from the four novels is shown in the following table.

Table 24. The number of sentence pairs from four selected novels

Novel	Chapters	Number of sentences
<u>English source texts</u>		
<i>Blood Work</i>	1-20	175
<i>Black and Blue</i>	1-36 (the entire book)	173
<u>Total</u>		<u>348</u>
<u>Thai source texts</u>		
เวลาในขวดแก้ว /we:la: naj k ^h u:at k ^ê :w/	1-8	183
ปูนปิดทอง /pu:n pít t ^h ɔ:ŋ/	1-8	183
<u>Total</u>		<u>366</u>

After carrying out the pilot study and the preliminary analysis, it was found that two broad translation strategies – the literal translation and translation adjustment – were not sufficient to illustrate the translation nature of the RCs. That is, in the translation of RCs, the adjustment was not made only on the RCs but also the head nouns. Thus, this analysis was divided into four types of translation strategy as presented in the following table.

Table 25. The four types of translation strategy

Type	Antecedent	RC
Literal	Literal	Literal
Antecedent Adjustment	Adjustment	Literal
RC Adjustment	Literal	Adjustment
Complete Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment

The types of strategy were based on the notion that the translation can be considered as using strategies along the continuum of the level of translation adjustment: from the very literal translation to the major adjustment. Four types of translation strategy could be illustrated on the continuum as in Figure 4.

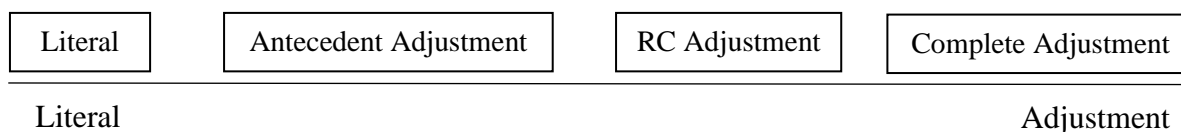


Figure 4. Translation strategy continuum

The literal translation is the strategy that the TTs adopt the literal translation both in the antecedents and the RCs. As for Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment, the levels of adjustment are from the least to the highest. That is to say, Antecedent Adjustment makes changes to the head noun while there is no syntactic adjustment to the RC. RC Adjustment is the translation adjustment strategy which is anticipated to be the most common with the literally translated head nouns and the adjusted RCs. The last type, Complete Adjustment, employs the most adjustment, which concerns both the head nouns and the RCs.

4.1 Translation strategies used to translate ERCs into Thai

From the two English STs, i.e. *Blood Work* (2015) by Michael Connelly and *Black and Blue* (2012) by Ian Rankin, the total number of the selected sentences containing the RCs were 348 sentences. The data could be categorized broadly into two groups: literal translation and translation adjustment, as presented in Table 26.

Table 26. Frequency of the occurrences in connection with the translation strategies used to translate the ERCs into Thai (Literal translation and translation adjustment)

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literal translation	175	50.29
Translation adjustment	173	49.71
<u>Total</u>	<u>348</u>	<u>100</u>

The table above illustrates that the literal translation and translation adjustment strategies were adopted in approximately equal proportion of around 50%. Categorized into four types of translation strategy, the data are presented in Table 27.

Table 27. Frequency of the occurrences in connection with the translation strategies used to translate the ERCs into Thai (Four types of translation strategy)

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literal translation	175	50.29
Antecedent Adjustment	21	6.03
RC Adjustment	111	31.90
Complete Adjustment	41	11.78
<u>Total</u>	<u>348</u>	<u>100</u>

The data show that the most common translation strategy in this study was the literal translation strategy: 50.29%. For the adjustment strategies, RC Adjustment was employed the most which comprised 31.90%. Nevertheless, when focusing solely on the adjustment strategies, Table 28 presents a deeper examination of each type of translation adjustment.

Table 28. Frequency of the occurrences in connection with the translation adjustment strategies used to translate the ERCs into Thai

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Antecedent Adjustment	21	12.14
RC Adjustment	111	64.16
Complete Adjustment	41	23.70
<u>Total</u>	<u>173</u>	<u>100</u>

According to the table above, the first most used adjustment strategy is RC Adjustment (64.16%), followed by Complete Adjustment (23.70%) and Antecedent Adjustment (12.14%), respectively. This demonstrates that RC Adjustment was the most preferable strategy among the three adjustment strategies.

The following section elaborates on each type of translation strategy with the sentence examples provided.

4.1.1 Literal Translation

The translation preserves the ST structure with the head nouns followed by the RCs. The data show that there were various Thai relativizers used. Those which were found are presented in Table 29.

Table 29. Frequency of the Thai relativizers in the translation

Literal translation strategy with a relativizer	Frequency	Percentage (%)
/t ^h i:/	91	52
/sûŋ/	70	40
/p ^h û:/	11	6.29
/p ^h û: sûŋ/	3	1.71
Total	175	100

Table 29 reveals that the relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ was used the most, comprising approximately half of the Literal Translation occurrences. The second most used relativizer was ‘/sûŋ/.’ The other relativizers, ‘/p^hû:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/,’ were also found but only less than 10% altogether. The following are some examples of the sentences with the ERCs that were literally translated into Thai.

(189) ST: But look at **the item that** was taken.

TT: แต่ ถ้า มองดู ของ ที่ ถูก เอาไป
 tè: t^hâ: mɔŋ du: k^hǎ:ŋ t^hi: t^hǔ:k ʔaw paj
 but if look item REL PASS⁴⁸ taken

‘But if you look at the item that was taken.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 206, 204)

In (189), the translation strategy adopted is the literal translation strategy. By analyzing the head noun phrase and the RC, the ST head noun ‘item’ in the head noun

⁴⁸ PASS refers to ‘passive.’

phrase ‘the item’ and the RC ‘that was taken’ were literally rendered into ‘ของที่ถูกเอาไป’ /k^hǒ:ŋ t^hî: t^hũ:k ʔaw paj/ (‘item that was taken’) in Thai. The English relativizer ‘that’ was translated into the Thai relativizer ‘ที่’ /t^hî:/. The structure of ‘a head noun + an RC preceded by a relativizer’ was maintained; therefore, this parallel structure suggested the literal translation strategy.

One aspect to be noted is that English head noun phrases usually include articles. According to Pongpairoj (2015, p. 33), Thai does not have articles, and definiteness of referents are determined through contexts. Due to this linguistic difference between English and Thai, it is considered a literal translation even though the English noun phrases contain an article and the Thai noun phrases do not.

- (190) ST: So who is **the friend** who talked you into this?
- TT: แล้ว นี้ เพื่อน คน ไหน กัน หรือ
- lé:w ní: p^hũ:an k^hon nǎj kan rǔ:
- so this friend CLF which REC⁴⁹ QP
- ที่ กล่อม ให้ คุณ จับ เรื่อง นี้
- t^hî: klòm hâj k^hun càp rǔ:an ní:
- REL persuade CAUS you take issue this
- มา ทำ ได้ นะ
- ma: t^ham dâj nà?
- come do can PP⁵⁰

‘So, which friend was it that persuaded you to deal with this issue?’

⁴⁹ REC refers to ‘reciprocal.’

⁵⁰ PP refers to ‘pragmatic particle.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 72, 76)

The sentence pair in (190) adopted the literal translation strategy. The head noun ‘friend’ was translated into ‘เพื่อน’ /p^hû:an/ (‘friend’) and the ERC was translated into the TRC from ‘who talked you into this’ to ‘ที่กล่อมให้คุณจับเรื่องนี้มาทำได้นะ’ /t^hi: klòm hâj k^hun càp rû:an ní: ma: t^ham dâj nà?/ (‘that persuaded you to deal with this issue’). For this example, the Thai translation contained a phrase between the head noun and the RC, which is ‘คนไหนกันหรือ’ /k^hon năj kan rû:/ (‘which (friend) was it’). This is the translation of the ST ‘who is.’ This translated phrase is the result of the different syntactic structures of the interrogative between English and Thai. Nonetheless, with the literal translation of the head nouns and the RCs, this study regards this type of translation as using the literal translation.

(191) ST: Scott Munroe looked to **Rebus**, who stuck out a hand.

TT: สกอต มั่นโร มอง รีบัส ซึ่ง ยื่น มือ ข้าง

saʔkó:t manró: mɔ:ŋ ri:bút súŋ jû:n mu: k^hâ:ŋ

Scott Munroe look Rebus REL stick hand CLF

หนึ่ง ออก มา

nùŋ ʔò:k ma:

one out come

‘Scott Munroe looked at Rebus, who stuck out a hand.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 420, 508)

The example above also adopted the literal translation strategy. The head noun was the proper noun ‘Rebus,’ which was literally translated into the proper noun ‘รีบัส’ /ri:bút/ (‘Rebus’) in Thai. The ERC ‘who stuck out a hand’ was also literally

translated into the TRC ‘ซึ่งยื่นมือข้างหนึ่งออกมา’ /sûŋ jû:n mu: kʰâ:ŋ nùŋ ʔò:k ma:/ (‘who stuck out a hand’). The relativizers were ‘who’ in the ST and ‘/sûŋ/’ in the TT.

(192) ST: Graciela turned to **the boy, who was standing shyly behind her**
at the stern.

TT:	กราเซียล่า	หัน	ไป	ทาง	เด็กชาย	ผู้
	kra:si:alâ:	hǎn	paj	tʰa:ŋ	dèk cha:j	phû:
	Graciela	turn	to	side	boy	REL
	ยื่น	กระมัดกระเมียน	อยู่	ข้างหลัง	เธอ	
	<u>jû:n</u>	<u>kraʔmít kraʔmí:an</u>	<u>jù:</u>	<u>kʰâ:ŋ lǎŋ</u>	<u>tʰo:</u>	
	stand	shyly	ASP	behind	her	
	ทาง	ด้าน	ท้ายเรือ			
	<u>tʰa:ŋ</u>	<u>dâ:n</u>	<u>tʰá:j ruu:a</u>			
	side	side	stern			

‘Graciela turned to the boy who was standing shyly behind her
at the stern.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 116, 117)

The sentence pair in (192) also employed the literal translation strategy with the head noun and the RC literally translated. The English relativizer ‘who’ was translated into the Thai relativizer ‘/phûu/.’

(193) ST: He straightened up and looked at **the young detective who had approached the counter from a nearby desk.**

TT: เขา ยืดตัว ขึ้น ตรง และ มอง ไป

k^hǎw jǔ:t tu:a k^hún troŋ léʔ mɔ:ŋ paj
he straighten up straight and look go

ที่ ตำรวจสืบสวน หน้าตา เด็กๆ นาย หนึ่ง

t^hi: tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an nâ:ta: dèkdèk na:j nùŋ

REL detective face young CLF one

ผู้ซึ่ง ลุก จาก โต๊ะ ที่ อยู่ ใกล้ๆ

p^hù: sǔŋ lúk cà:k tóʔ t^hi: jù: klâjklâj

REL get up from desk REL be nearby

นั้น เดิน มา ยัง เคาน์เตอร์

nán dɔ:n ma: jaŋ k^háwtô:

there walk come to counter

‘He straightened up and looked at the young-looking detective who got up from the desk which was nearby and walked to the counter.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 32, 37)

Example 193 is another example of the literal translation. The head noun phrase ‘the young detective’ was translated into the Thai noun phrase ‘ตำรวจสืบสวน หน้าตาเด็กๆ นายหนึ่ง’ /tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an nâ:ta: dèkdèk na:j nùŋ/ (‘the young-looking detective’). The ERC was literally rendered in to the TRC, and the relativizer ‘who’ in English was translated into the relativizer ‘/p^hù: sǔŋ/’ in Thai.

According to the data of the literal translation strategy, there are two main points to be discussed, including 1) the use of Thai relativizers and their animacy concord with the antecedents, and 2) the location of the TRCs.

Firstly, the findings on the translation of the ERCs into the TRCs went in line with the suggestion by many grammarians (e.g. Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 245; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 79) that the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ is the most common relativizer in Thai. That is, Table 29 shows that among four relativizers found in the study, namely ‘/t^hî:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/p^hû:/,’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/,’ the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ comprised 52%. In addition, with the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ accounting for 40%, this confirms that the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ appeared to be the two most frequently used Thai relativizers (Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 49). With regard to the relativizer ‘/?an/,’ as it is merely used in literary and formal texts, formal speech, or some particular phrases (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Sornhiran, 1981, p. 55), the data in the current study did not show any occurrences of the relativizer ‘/?an/.’

Since the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ do not reflect the animacy of the antecedents (Sornhiran, 1981, p. 54), the inanimate and animate antecedents in (189) - (191) allowed the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/.’ However, the findings as shown in Table 29 indicated that there were two other relativizers found in the data which were ‘/p^hû:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/.’ The occurrence of the relativizer ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/’ (1.71%) went in line with Suktrakul’s (1975, p. 104) description on the relativizers ‘/p^hû: t^hî:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/’ that they refer to people head noun and are employed only in written language. Example 193 with the relativizer ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/’ had the person head noun ‘detective.’ As for the relativizer ‘/p^hû:/,’ which accounted for 6.29% of the literal translation strategy, the relativizer ‘/p^hû:/’ suggested an animate head noun in accordance with the relativizers ‘/p^hû: t^hî:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/.’ The sentence pair in (192) exemplified the relativizer ‘/p^hû:/’ with the person head noun ‘boy.’

Secondly, with respect to the location of TRCs, many studies (e.g. Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 243; Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20) clearly state that TRCs are placed after the head nouns. Upakitsilapasarn (2005, p. 267) mentions that the relativizers must immediately follow the preceding nouns or pronouns. The findings

supported the notion that the TRCs are located after the antecedents; however, there could be other intervening elements between the antecedents and the TRCs. The example is in (190) where the interrogative between English and Thai resulted in the different structures, and the interrogative phrase ‘คนไหนกันหรือ’ /k^hon nǎj kan rū:/ (‘which (friend) was it’) was placed between the head noun and the TRC.

The occurrences of the literal translation of RCs went in line with other previous studies (e.g. Anshori, 2007; Dwijati et al., 2016; Leenakitti, 2012; Nau, 2011). The employment of relativizers or relative pronouns in the target languages was also evidenced. For example, Anshori (2007) reported that 89.01% of the data of English embedded clause with relative pronouns was translated into BI relative pronoun ‘yang.’ Regarding the English-Thai translation, Leenakitti (2012) found that the literal translation with the relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ was adopted for 52.54% of the data and the literal translation with the relativizer ‘/s^uŋ/’ for 16.98%. Considering the literal translation with all relativizers, the current study showed the lower percentage than that in the study by Leenakitti, i.e. 50.29% and 69.52%, respectively. However, the findings confirmed that the literal translation is a significant strategy in translating the ERCs into Thai, and the relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ is the most common relativizer. The percentage gap between the two studies could be influenced by other various factors, for instance, the scope of the English relativizers of the STs, the different data sources, the translators, or the editors.

Apart from the two common Thai relativizers ‘/t^hi:/’ and ‘/s^uŋ/,’ this study also found other Thai relativizers, namely ‘/p^hu:/’ and ‘/p^hu: s^uŋ/’ in the literal translation. This mirrors the animacy of the head nouns and the relativizer ‘who,’ which is one of the relativizers in the data scope. The occurrences of the relativizers ‘/p^hu:/’ and ‘/p^hu: s^uŋ/’ illustrated the animacy of the antecedents. Since Leenakitti (2012) aimed at the ST RCs with ‘which’ and ‘that’ relativizers, the relativizers ‘/p^hu:/’ and ‘/p^hu: s^uŋ/’ were not found in her findings. This clearly explained the fact that animacy of the head nouns could affect the translation choices.

To conclude, the literal translation with a relativizer plays a key role in the ERC translation into Thai. The relativizer ‘/t^hi:/’ is the most common Thai relativizer,

followed by the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/.’ These two relative words do not select the animacy of the antecedents. On the contrary, the relativizers ‘/p^hû:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/’ reflect the animate head nouns. However, they are not as common as the first two relativizers. It could also be inferred that the relativizer ‘/p^hû:/’ is more common than ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/,’ as evidenced by the higher frequency of the former than the latter. Lastly, in Thai, the TRCs are placed after the head nouns like in English, and there could be other elements between the head nouns and the TRCs, depending on the Thai sentence structures.

4.1.2 Antecedent Adjustment

Among the four types of translation strategy, the findings showed that Antecedent Adjustment was found the least (6.03%). This translation strategy makes change to the head nouns or the head noun phrases, whereas the translated RCs remain RCs with a relativizer. Antecedent Adjustment is closest to the literal translation on the continuum of the level of translation adjustment (Figure 4). This is because the alteration is made on the head nouns, which tends to be relatively common for all translation that generally requires adjustment to a certain level. As for the RCs, the fact that the ST RCs remain structurally unchanged in the translation could be considered that the level of adjustment is merely minimal.

However, there is a variety of adjustments as a result of many possible factors such as the difference in the syntactic structures between English and Thai or the decisions of translators or editors to adjust, add or omit some parts of the texts. Some adjustments that were common include omission, new head nouns, and rearranged head nouns. The examples are provided as follows.

(194) ST: He was staring at Harley, trying to see him as ‘Mr H.’, **the person who had ordered Allan Mitchison’s execution.**

TT: มอง จ้อง ฮาร์ลีย์ พร้อมกัน พยายาม
 mɔːŋ cɔːŋ ha: lí: prɔːm kàp pʰaʔja:ja:m
 look stare Harley along with try to
 นึกภาพ เขา เป็น ‘นายเฮช.’ ผู้ สั่ง
 núk pʰá:p kʰăw pen ‘na:j ʔét’ pʰû: sàŋ
 imagine him be ‘Mr H’ REL order
ฆ่า อัลลัน มิทชีสัน

kʰâ: ʔanlan mítʰíʔsán

kill Allan Mitchison

‘staring at Harley along with trying to imagine him being ‘Mr H.’ who order to kill Allan Mitchison’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 422, 511)

The English head noun phrase ‘the person’ of the ERC in (194) is the repeated reference to ‘Mr H.’ Therefore, in the translation, the head noun phrase ‘the person’ was omitted, and the RC was literally translated and postmodified the head noun ‘นายเฮช’ /na:j ʔét/ (‘Mr H’). As for the ERC, it was translated into the TRC. Thus, the change was made only on the head noun, not the RC.

(195) ST: There were **dedicated teams** – detectives and uniforms – **who** operated the system, typing in data, checking and cross-referencing.

TT: ทีมค้นหา โหมงานหนัก ตำรวจสืบสวน และ

tʰi:m kʰón hǎ: hǒ:m ɲa:n nàk tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an léʔ

search team work hard detective and

เจ้าหน้าที่ ผู้ดูแลระบบ ต่าง

cáwnâ:tʰi: pʰú: du:lɛ: raʔbòp tà:ŋ

uniform REL operate system each

ตั้งหน้าตั้งตา ป้อน ข้อมูล ลง คอมพิวเตอร์ เพื่อ

tâŋnâ: tâŋta: pǒ:n kʰó:mu:n loŋ kʰompíwtǎ: pʰú:a

concentrate type in data down computer for

ตรวจสอบ และ ค้นหา

trù:atsò:p léʔ kʰónhǎ:

check and search

‘The search team worked hard. Detectives and uniforms, who operated the system, each concentrated on typing in data for checking and searching.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 68, 94)

The example above shows that the ERC was translated literally into the TRC; however, the head noun was adjusted. The head noun phrase in English is ‘dedicated teams,’ followed by the appositive ‘detectives and uniforms’ to describe the noun ‘teams.’ The ERC ‘who operated the system’ modified the head noun ‘teams.’ However, in Thai the ST sentence was separated into two sentences: ‘ทีมค้นหาโหมงานหนัก’ /tʰi:m kʰón hǎ: hǒ:m ɲa:n nàk/ (‘the search team worked hard’) and ‘ตำรวจสืบสวน

และเจ้าหน้าที่ผู้ดูแลระบบต่างตั้งหน้าตั้งตาบั่นข้อมุลลงคอมพิวเตอร์เพื่อตรวจสอบและค้นหา’ /tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an léʔ cǎwnâ:tʰi: pʰû: du:lɛ: raʔbòp tà:ŋ tâŋnâ: tâŋta: pǔ:n khǔ:mu:n loŋ khǔmpíwtâ: pʰû:a trù:atsò:p léʔ khónhǎ:/ (‘detectives and uniforms, who operated the system, each concentrated on typing in data for checking and searching’). The main clause ‘there were dedicated teams’ in English was translated into the sentence ‘ทีมค้นหาโหมงานหนัก’ /tʰi:m khón hǎ: hǒ:m ŋa:n nàk/ (‘the search team worked hard’) in Thai. The remainder after the main clause in English became the second sentence in Thai. As a result, the Thai translation took the appositive noun phrase ‘detectives and uniforms’ as the subject of the new sentence and as the head noun phrase of the TRC ‘ผู้ดูแลระบบ’ /pʰû: du:lɛ: raʔbòp/ (‘who operated the system’) instead of the noun phrase ‘dedicated teams’ as in English.

Another point that needs to be mentioned for this sentence pair is the location of the TRC ‘ผู้ดูแลระบบ’ /pʰû: du:lɛ: raʔbòp/ (‘who operated the system’). Since it was placed after the noun ‘เจ้าหน้าที่’ /cǎwnâ:tʰi:/ (‘uniforms’), the sentence was very likely to be interpreted that there were two noun phrases, namely ‘ตำรวจสืบสวน’ /tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an/ (‘detectives’) and ‘เจ้าหน้าที่ผู้ดูแลระบบ’ /cǎwnâ:tʰi: pʰû: du:lɛ: raʔbòp/ (‘uniforms who operated the system’). That is, the TRC ‘ผู้ดูแลระบบ’ /pʰû: du:lɛ: raʔbòp/ (‘who operated the system’) postmodified only the second noun ‘เจ้าหน้าที่’ /cǎwnâ:tʰi:/ (‘uniforms’), which was closer to the TRC. Nevertheless, if the interpretation included only the noun ‘เจ้าหน้าที่’ /cǎwnâ:tʰi:/ (‘uniforms’), it would still be the case where the TRC selected a new head noun instead of the ST head noun ‘dedicated teams’ which the ERC modified.

(196) ST: It means they look at you from the left and engage **the side of the brain that is less critical and judgmental.**

TT: นั้น หมายถึง ว่า เขา จะ ต้อง
nân mǎ:j tʰǎ:ŋ wâ: kʰǎw cà? tɔŋ
that mean COMP they CM have to
มอง คุณ จาก ทาง ด้าน ซ้าย และ ใช้
mɔ:ŋ kʰun cà:k tʰa:ŋ dâ:n sá:j lé? cʰáj
look you from side side left and use
สมอง ด้าน ซึ่ง ไม่ ค่อย จะ จู้จี้
sa?mǔ:ŋ dâ:n sûŋ mâj kʰǔj cà? cú:cí:
brain CLF REL NEG so CM fussy
พิถีพิถัน และ ตัดสิน คน ง่าย นัก
pi?tʰi:pi?tʰǎn lé? tâtsǐn kʰon ŋâ:j nák
meticulous and judge people easily too

‘That means that they would have to look at you from the left and use the side of the brain that was not so fussy, meticulous, and judgmental.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 35, 40)

With the literal translation of the RCs, the example above shows the rearrangement of the head nouns. The ST has the head noun phrase ‘the side of the brain’ with the head noun ‘side,’ signifying the clause ‘the side that is less critical and judgmental.’ The prepositional phrase ‘of the brain’ postmodified the noun ‘side.’ In Thai, the head noun was rearranged. That is, the noun ‘สมอง’ /sa?mǔ:ŋ/ (‘brain’) became the object of the verb ‘ใช้’ /cʰáj/ (‘use’). Then, the noun ‘สมอง’ /sa?mǔ:ŋ/

(‘brain’) was modified by the classifier ‘ด้าน’ /dâ:n/ (‘side’) with the TRC ‘ซึ่งไม่ค่อยจะ
 จู้จี้พิถีพิถันและตัดสินใจง่ายนัก’ /sûŋ mâj khôj cà? cû:cî: pi?t^hi:pi?t^hăn lé? tăt^sin k^hon ñâ:j
 nâk/ (‘that was not so fussy, meticulous, and judgmental’). Thus, the head noun
 phrase ‘the side of the brain’ in English was rearranged and rendered as the noun
 ‘สมอง’ /sa?mǎ:ŋ/ (‘brain’) postmodified by the classifier ‘ด้าน’ /dâ:n/ (‘side’) with the
 TRC in Thai.

The classifier ‘ด้าน’ /dâ:n/ (‘side’) in (196) is different from the classifiers mentioned in Section 2.2.2.1 Basic characteristics of TRCs. The classifiers in that section aim at emphasizing the head noun and are optional. In contrast, the classifiers as in (196) belong to a different category. According to Panthumetha (2010, pp. 37-38), classifiers are words that divide nouns or verbs into groups. Classifiers describe the characteristics of the preceded nouns or verbs or identify the aspects towards them. The following are the examples.

(197) a. ด้ายเส้นนี้เหนียวดี

b. ด้ายใจนี้เหนียวดี

c. ด้ายกลุ่มนี้เหนียวดี

CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY (Panthumetha, 2010, p. 38)

Examples 197a - 197c contain different classifiers, i.e. ‘เส้น’ /sên/ (‘strand’), ‘ใจ’ /caj/ (‘skein’), ‘กลุ่ม’ /klùm/ (‘ball’), to describe the noun ‘ด้าย’ /dâ:j/ (‘thread’). In addition, this type of classifier cannot stand alone; there must be other modifiers to co-occur with the classifiers (Panthumetha, 2010, p. 38). For example, in (197a) - (197c), the demonstrative ‘นี้’ /ní:/ (‘this’) co-occurs with the classifiers. Without other modifiers, the sentence is ungrammatical as in (198).

(198) *ด้ายเส้นเหนียวดี

Therefore, in (196) without the TRC, the sentence will be incomplete and incomprehensible as presented in (199). Additionally, the omission of the classifier ‘ด้าน’ /dâ:n/ (‘side’) would render a different meaning as in (200) even though the sentence is grammatical.

(199)	*นั้น	หมายถึง	ว่า	เขา	จะ	ต้อง	มอง	คุณ
	nân	mă:j t ^h ũ:ŋ	wâ:	k ^h ăw	cà?	tôŋ	mɔ:ŋ	k ^h un
	that	mean	COMP	they	CM	have to	look	you
	จาก	ทาง	ด้าน	ซ้าย	และ	ใช้	สมอง	ด้าน
	cà:k	t ^h a:ŋ	dâ:n	sá:j	lé?	c ^h áj	sa?mɔ̃:ŋ	dâ:n
	from	side	side	left	and	use	brain	CLF

In (199), the phrase ‘สมองด้าน’ /sa?mɔ̃:ŋ dâ:n/ (‘brain side/CLF’) does not convey the complete meaning of the brain. A modifier is required to identify which side of the brain is being mentioned.

(200)	นั้น	หมายถึง	ว่า	เขา	จะ	ต้อง	มอง	คุณ
	nân	mă:j t ^h ũ:ŋ	wâ:	k ^h ăw	cà?	tôŋ	mɔ:ŋ	k ^h un
	that	mean	COMP	they	CM	have to	look	you
	จาก	ทาง	ด้าน	ซ้าย	และ	ใช้	สมอง	<u>ซึ่ง</u> <u>ไม่</u>
	cà:k	t ^h a:ŋ	dâ:n	sá:j	lé?	c ^h áj	sa?mɔ̃:ŋ	<u>sũŋ</u> <u>mâi</u>
	from	side	side	left	and	use	brain	REL NEG

ค่อย จะ จู้จี้ พิถีพิถัน และ ตัดสิน คน ง่าย นึก
 k^hɔj càʔ cù:cí: piʔt^hi:piʔt^hǎn léʔ tət̚sɪn k^hon ŋâ:j nək̚
 so CM fussy meticulous and judge people easily too

In (200), without the classifier ‘ด้าน’ /dâ:n/ (‘side’), the noun ‘สมอง’ /saʔmɔ̃:ŋ/ (‘brain’) became the head noun postmodified by the TRC. This would mean that the whole brain, not one side of the brain, possesses these characteristics.

(201) ST: If we worried about **every detail that didn’t fit**, we’d still be working our first case.

TT: ถ้า เรา ไป มัวพะวง กับ รายละเอียด
 thâ: raw paj mu:a p^haʔwɔŋ kəp ra:ʔlaʔʔi:at
 if we go worry with detail
 หยุ่มหยุิม ที่ ไม่ ลงตัว ทุกอัน
 j̥um̥j̥im t^hi: māj loŋ tu:a t^húk ʔan
 trivial that NEG fit every
 ปานนี้ น่ากลัว เรา คง ยัง ทำ
 pà:n ní: nâ: klu:a raw k^hoŋ jaŋ t^ham
 thus far scary we may still do
 คดี แรก ของ เรา อยู่ ละ มั้ง
 k^haʔdi: rē:k k^hǎ:ŋ raw jù: làʔ māj
 case first of we ASP PP perhaps

‘If we worried about every trivial detail that didn’t fit, we’d still be doing our first case, perhaps.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 113, 115)

The sentence pair in (201) is another example of the rearranged head noun. It suggests that occasionally the translated head noun phrase could be split into two parts with the RC in between. That is, the English head noun phrase ‘every detail’ was translated into the Thai noun phrase ‘รายละเอียดหยาบหยาบทุกอัน’ /ra:jlaʔʔi:at jũmjĩm tʰúk ʔan/ (‘every trivial detail’) with the literally translated TRC ‘ที่ไม่ลงตัว’ /tʰî: mâj loŋ tu:a/ (‘that (did) not fit’) inserted after the main head noun phrase ‘รายละเอียดหยาบหยาบ’ /ra:jlaʔʔi:at jũmjĩm/ (‘trivial detail’) to identify this ‘detail.’ To elaborate, the structure of the quantifier ‘every’ and the noun ‘detail’ was translated according to the Thai structure into the noun phrase ‘รายละเอียดหยาบหยาบ’ /ra:jlaʔʔi:at jũmjĩm/ (‘trivial detail’) and the adjective phrase ‘ทุกอัน’ /tʰúk ʔan/ (‘every’). The separation between the head noun phrase in Thai indicates the rearrangement of the head noun to comply with the grammar of the target language. With the RC literally translated and the adjusted head noun, the translation strategy adopted in (201) is Antecedent Adjustment.

In conclusion, Antecedent Adjustment has the least level of adjustment on the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4). The head nouns are adjusted, while the ERCs are literally translated into the TRCs. The adjustment is also varied, for example, omission within the head nouns, change or rearrangement of the head nouns, or addition for clarification. The findings of English-Thai translation showed that almost all sentence pairs which adopted Antecedent Adjustment had their full head nouns placed before the TRCs. There was only one occurrence, i.e. Example 201, which separated the head noun into two parts encompassing the TRC. This suggests that the different syntactic structures between English and Thai affect the formation of noun phrases. Despite the degrees of adjustment to the head nouns, the core meanings of the sentences are maintained.

4.1.3 RC Adjustment

This adjustment strategy alters the structure of RCs in the TTs. The head noun phrases are still present in the translation. Among the three adjustment strategies, RC Adjustment could be anticipated to be the most common type due to the assumption that when translated, the head nouns may remain unadjusted and the adjustment would be made on the RCs. The data supported this notion. Among the three adjustment types, RC Adjustment had the highest percentage of usage, accounting for 64.16%. These 111 occurrences were analyzed further into sub-strategies based on the framework for the translation analysis adapted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies (see Figure 3 and Table 23).

Table 30 below illustrates the sub-strategies found in RC Adjustment. The coding of '[F]' signifies that a particular word class or a structure of those corresponding strategies was 'found' as part of Couplet – the combination of two strategies.

Table 30. RC Adjustment's translation adjustment strategies used in translating the ERCs into Thai

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift			
1. Word			
a. Adjective	-		[F] 1
b. Adverb	-		[F] 1
<u>Total</u>	<u>0</u>		<u>2</u>
2. Phrase			
a. Noun phrase	5		[F] 3
b. Prepositional phrase	6		[F] 2
c. Verb phrase	29		[F] 4
<u>Total</u>	<u>40</u>		<u>9</u>
3. Sentence	<u>9</u>		- -
Subtotal	49	44.14	11
G6: Clause structure change			
1. Active and passive voice	1		- -
Subtotal	1	0.90	-

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G7: Sentence structure change			
1. Adverbial clause	5		- -
2. Bare RC	13		[F] 1
3. Main clause	-		[F] 8
4. Noun clause	-		[F] 1
5. Sentential RC	-		[F] 2
Subtotal	18	16.23	12
G8: Cohesion change	3	2.70	[F] 19
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	[F] 21
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	[F] 7
Couplet	36	32.43	
Additions	3	2.70	[F] 2
Alterations	1	0.90	- -
Total	111	100	72

The findings in Table 30 showed that not all the ten strategies from Chesterman's (1997) selected syntactic and semantic strategies presented in Table 23 were employed. Only four main strategies were adopted independently; these included G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, and G8: Cohesion change. In addition to the main strategies, Couplet was adopted, including Additions and Alterations. With Couplet, it incorporated any two strategies which were marked with '[F]' coding in Table 30. The data revealed that there were six strategies found as part of the couplets, namely G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions.

The findings showed that G4: Unit shift was the first most frequently used adjustment strategy with 44.14%. The other two most used strategies were Couplet (32.43%) and G7: Sentence structure change (16.23%). The remaining strategies were those with a few occurrences, i.e. G8: Cohesion change (2.70%), Additions (2.70%), G6: Clause structure change (0.90%), and Alterations (0.90%).

It is worth noting that, in Table 30, some strategies (i.e. G6: Clause structure change and Alterations) and some structures (i.e. an adjective and an adverb in G4:

Unit shift and a bare RC and a noun clause in G7: Sentence structure change) were adopted in a single occurrence, either as a sole translation adjustment strategy or as part of a couplet. In addition, some strategies and structures (e.g. G8: Cohesion change, Additions, prepositional phrases in G4: Unit shift) were employed in a relatively low frequency. Even though these occurrences might not be generalizable, they indicated the actual usage of various translation strategies, which could be used in RC translation.

The following section elaborates on each sub-strategy in Table 30 with examples provided.

- **G4: Unit Shift**

Table 31. G4: Unit shift (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift			
1. Word			
a. Adjective	-		[F] 1
b. Adverb	-		[F] 1
<u>Total</u>	<u>0</u>		<u>2</u>
2. Phrase			
a. Noun phrase	5		[F] 3
b. Prepositional phrase	6		[F] 2
c. Verb phrase	29		[F] 4
<u>Total</u>	<u>40</u>		<u>9</u>
3. Sentence	<u>9</u>		- -
Subtotal	49	44.14	11

Accounting for 44.14% of RC Adjustment, G4: Unit shift was the first most used adjustment strategy. This strategy is the change of units between STs and TTs.

The units are, for example, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Based on the analysis, it was found that there were three units in Thai that the ERCs were translated into, namely the word, phrase, and sentence units.

1. Word Unit

The smallest unit is the word unit. Two occurrences, i.e. with an adjective and an adverb, were found in the couplet strategy.

2. Phrase unit

Among the three units – word, phrase, sentence – most occurrences were phrases. The phrase unit was adopted in 40 out of the total 49 sentences. It can be categorized further into three types of phrases which are noun phrase, prepositional phrase, and verb phrase. The verb phrase was adopted the most. Examples of each phrase type are provided below.

a. Noun phrase

(202) ST: T-Bird Oil got its name from **Thom Bird, who had been**
co-founder with ‘Major’ Randall Weir.

TT: ที-เบิร์ด ออยล์ ตั้งชื่อ ตาม นาย ทอม เบิร์ด
 tʰi:bô:t ʔɔ:j tâŋ cʰhû: ta:m na:j tɔm bô:t
 T-Bird Oil name after Mr. Thom Bird
 หนึ่งใน ผู้ก่อตั้ง บริษัท ร่วมกับ
 nùŋ naj pʰhû: kò: tâŋ bɔ:riʔsàt rû:am kàp
 one of founder company together with
 ‘พันตรี’ แรนดอล เวียร์
 pʰantri: rɛ:ndón wi:a
 ‘Major’ Randall Weir

‘T-Bird Oil was named after Mr. Thom Bird, one of the founders together with ‘Major’ Randall Weir.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 110, 145)

Example 202 shows that, while the head noun ‘Thom Bird’ in the English ST was maintained with slight addition of the title ‘Mr.’ in the translation, the ERC was altered and translated as the noun phrase in Thai: ‘หนึ่งในผู้ก่อตั้งบริษัทร่วมกับ ‘พันตรี’ แรนดอล เวย์ลีย์’ /nùŋ naj p^hû: kò: tâŋ bə:riʔsàt rû:am kàp p^hantri: rə:ndôn wi:a/ (‘one of the founders together with ‘Major’ Randall Weir’).

b. Prepositional phrase

(203) ST: In return, whenever McCaleb was in DC, Carruthers and his wife, Marie, had let him bunk in **the room that had belonged to their son**. He had died years earlier of leukemia when he was twelve.

TT: ในทางกลับกัน เมื่อใด ที่ แม็กเคเล็บ มา ที่
 naj t^ha:ŋ klàp kan mû:a t^hî: mékk^he:lêp ma: t^hî:
 On the other hand when that McCaleb come to
 ตี.ซี. แครร์ริธเชอร์ส กับ มารี่ ผู้ ภรรยา จะ
 di:si: k^hé:rútt^hə: kàp ma:ri: p^hû: p^hanlaʔja: càʔ
 DC Carruthers and Marie REL wife CM
 ให้ เขา ไป นอน ใน ห้อง ของ ลูกชาย
 háj k^hăw paj nɔ:n naj hŏŋ k^hă:ŋ lû:k c^ha:j
 CAUS him go sleep in room of son

ผู้ เสียชีวิต ไป เมื่อ หลาย ปี ก่อน

p^hu: sǐ:a c^hi:wít paj mû:a lǎ:j pi: kò:n
REL die ASP when many year ago

ขณะ อายุ ได้ สิบสอง ปี ด้วย

k^ha?nà? ?a:jú? dáj sǐp sǎ:ŋ pi: dû:aj
while age ASP twelve year from

โรคมะเร็ง ใน เม็ดเลือด

rô:k má? rɛŋ naj mét lû:at
cancer in blood cell

‘On the other hand, when McCaleb came to DC, Carruthers and Marie, his wife, would let him sleep in the room of their son who died from leukemia many years ago when he was twelve.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 130, 130)

In (203), the ERC ‘that had belonged to their son’ was translated into the prepositional phrase ‘ของลูกชาย’ /k^hǎ:ŋ lû:k c^ha:j/ (‘of (their) son’) in Thai. Thus, the unit was adjusted from a clause to a phrase.

c. Verb phrase

(204) ST: She had **blond hair** that was straight and kept midlength.

TT: เรือนผม สีทอง เขี่ยตรง และ ไว้
ru:a p^hǒm sǐ: t^ho:ŋ jì:at tron lé? wáj
hair gold color straight and keep

ยาว พอประมาณ

ja:w p^ho: prà? ma:n

long to some length

‘Blond hair was straight and kept long to a certain length.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 80, 84)

Example 204 presents the change of unit from the clause unit of the ERC to the phrase unit in the TT. While this head noun was retained in the Thai translation, the ERC was rendered with the verb phrase ‘เหยียดตรงและไว้ยาวพอสมควร’ /jì:at troŋ lé? wáj ja:w p^hɔ: prà? ma:n/ (‘was straight and kept long to a certain length’). The object head noun ‘blond hair’ in the ST became the subject of the sentence in the TT.

3. Sentence unit

As for the sentence unit, 9 sentence pairs adopted this structure. It is to be noted that the sentence unit in G4: Unit shift refers to the sentences which were separated as a new sentence.

(205) ST: The comms officer turned to **Rebus**, who nodded.

TT: เจ้าหน้าที่ประกาศไมค์ หัน มาหา รีบัส
 cāwnā:t^hi: pra?kà:t maj hǎn ma: hǎ: ri:bút
 the comms officer turn to Rebus
 เขา พยักหน้า ตอบ

k^hǎw pha?jǎk nâ: tò:p
 he nod reply

‘The comms officer turned to Rebus. He nodded in reply.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 471, 571)

Another unit that the ERCs were translated into is the sentence unit. The sentence pair in (205) exemplifies the shift from the clause unit in the ERC to a sentence unit in the Thai translation. The ERC ‘who nodded’ was translated as the

new sentence ‘เขาพยักหน้าตอบ’ /kʰǎw pʰaʔjǎk nâ: tò:p/ (‘he nodded in reply’) in the Thai translation.

- **G6: Clause structure change**

Table 32. G6: Clause structure change (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G6: Clause structure change			
1. Active and passive voice	1		- -
Subtotal	1	0.90	-

G6: Clause structure change relates to the internal clause structure such as the order of constituents and active and passive voices. Nevertheless, the findings showed that only one occurrence was found to use this strategy as its main strategy, and the structure change related to the active and passive voice. Although there was only one occurrence which adopted this strategy and this structure, the sentence pair below exemplified the case where an ERC could be translated into a TRC with the adjustment in relation to the voices.

1. Active and passive voice

The sentence pair with the change of voice in the RCs is presented below.

(206) ST: He saw **a wooden chair** which had once been padded.

TT: เขา เห็น เก้าอี้ ไม้ ตัว หนึ่ง ซึ่ง
 kʰǎw hěn kʰáwʔi: máj tu:a nùŋ sùŋ
 he see chair wood CLF one REL
 เบาะนอน หลุดออกไป
 bò: nu:am lùt ʔɔ:k paj
 chair pad come off

‘He saw a wooden chair whose chair pad came off.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 17, 37)

Although the ERC in (206) was translated into the TRC, it was adjusted in terms of the voice from the passive voice to the active voice. That is to say, the internal structure of the ST clause ‘a chair had once been padded’ was re-ordered, which resulted in the active voice structure ‘the chair pad came off’ in the translation.

- **G7: Sentence structure change**

Table 33. G7: Sentence structure change (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G7: Sentence structure change			
1. Adverbial clause	5		- -
2. Bare RC	13		[F] 1
3. Main clause	-		[F] 8
4. Noun clause	-		[F] 1
5. Sentential RC	-		[F] 2
Subtotal	18	16.23	12

According to the findings, G7: Sentence structure change was the third most used sub-strategy in RC Adjustment; it accounted for 16.23%. This strategy involves the structure of the sentence unit with regard to its clauses. This concerns the changes made to the status of main clauses and sub-clauses, including the sub-clause types.

The findings showed that there were five groups under this strategy, namely adverbial clauses, bare RCs, main clauses, noun clauses, and sentential RCs. Only adverbial clauses and bare RCs were found when G7: Sentence structure change was used as an independent strategy. The other three structures, which are main clauses, noun clauses, and sentential RCs, were adopted as part of the couplet strategy as indicated by the [F] coding. Thus, they will be discussed further in the section on

Couplet. The following sentence pairs exemplify the ERCs translated into an adverbial clause and a bare RC in Thai.

1. Adverbial clause

(207) ST: It wasn't **dockside**, which was where he'd expected it to be.

TT: สถานที่ตั้ง บริษัท ไม่ได้ อยู่
 saʔthǎ:ntʰí: tâŋ bo:riʔsàt mâj dâj jù:
 location company NEG be
 บริเวณ ท่าเรือ อย่าง ที่ คาด ไว้
 boʔriʔwe:n thǎ: ru:a jà:ŋ thǎ: kâ:t wáj
 area dock like COMP expect ASP

'The location of the company was not in the dockside like (he) expected.'

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 478, 579)

Example 207 exemplifies the change of the sub-clause type from an RC in the ST to an adverbial clause in the translation. The subject 'he' in the translation was omitted, and the clause 'อย่าง ที่ คาดไว้' /jà:ŋ thǎ: kâ:t wáj/ ('like (he) expected') modified the verb 'อยู่' /jù:/ ('be') of the main clause.

2. Bare RC

(208) ST: Maybe Fletcher was **the type** who liked to hang out with gangsters – some people were like that.

TT: หรือ ไม่แน่ เฟล็ตเชอร์ อาจ เป็น ประเภท
 rú: mâj nê: flét sô: ʔà:t pen praʔpê:t

or maybe Fletcher may COP type

ชอบ สังสรรค์ กับ นักเลง เพราะ

c^hǝ:p sǎŋsǎn kǎp nákle:ŋ prǝ?

like hang out with gangsters because

คนบางคน ก็ มี รสนิยม แบบ นั้น

k^hon ba:ŋ k^hon kǝ? mi: rǝtní?jom bè:b nán

some people LP have preference like that

‘Or maybe Fletcher might be the type (that) liked to hang out with gangsters because some people have that preference.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 460, 559)

Example 208 illustrates the case where the ERC was translated into a bare RC. To illustrate, the noun phrase ‘ประเภทชอบสังสรรค์กับนักเลง’ /pra?pê:t c^hǝ:p sǎŋsǎn kǎp nákle:ŋ/ (‘the type (that) liked to hang out with gangsters’) in the Thai translation seemed to have the covert relativizer ‘ที่’ /t^hi:/ (‘that’) between the head noun ‘type’ and the verb phrase ‘liked to hang out with gangsters.’ That is, the full noun phrase in Thai could be ‘ประเภทที่ชอบสังสรรค์กับนักเลง’ /pra?pê:t t^hi: c^hǝ:p sǎŋsǎn kǎp nákle:ŋ/ (‘the type that liked to hang out with gangsters’). This suggested that there was an adjustment of the sentence structure with regard to the sub-clause type from the typical RC in the ST to the bare RC in the TT.

- **G8: Cohesion change**

Table 34. G8: Cohesion change (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G8: Cohesion change	3	2.70	[F] 19

This strategy concerns the references within the texts, for example, connectors, repetition, ellipsis, substitution, pronominalization. Although G8: Cohesion change was found to be used independently for only 2.70% in RC Adjustment, it was the second most frequent strategy in Couplet. The example below illustrates how cohesion change was adopted in the RC translation as a single strategy.

- (209) ST: Inside, McCaleb talked to **James Cordell's supervisor, who** gave him the names and numbers of some of the aqueduct maintenance supervisors Cordell would have been working with in early January.

TT:	ใน	บ้าน	แม็กเคเล็บ	ได้	พูด	กับ	หัวหน้า
	naj	bâ:n	mékk ^h e:lêp	dâj	p ^h û:t	kàp	hǔ:anâ:
	in	house	McCaleb	got to	talk	to	supervisor
	ของ	คอร์ดเดิ้ล	ซึ่ง	ฝ่ายหลัง	ได้	ให้	
	k ^h ǎ:ŋ	k ^h o:de:n	sûŋ	fà:j lǎŋ	dâj	hâj	
	of	Cordell	REL	the latter	got to	give	
	ชื่อ	และ	หมายเลข	โทรศัพท์	ของ	หัวหน้า	
	c ^h ûi:	lé?	mǎ:jlé:k	t ^h o:raʔsàp	k ^h ǎ:ŋ	hǔ:a nâ:	
	name	and	number	phone	of	supervisor	
	งานบำรุง	ท่อลำเลียงน้ำ	บางคน	ซึ่ง			
	ŋa:nbamruŋ	t ^h ô:lamlí:anám	ba:ŋ k ^h on	sûŋ			
	maintenance	aqueduct	some people	REL			
	คอร์ดเดิ้ล	เคย	ทำงาน	ด้วย	ใน		
	k ^h o:de:n	k ^h o:j	t ^h amŋa:n	dû:aj	naj		
	Cordell	used to	work	with	in		

ช่วง _____ ต้น _____ เดือนมกราคม

c^hû:an̩ _____ t̩n̩ du:anmáʔkaʔra:k^hom

period _____ early January

‘In the house, McCaleb talked to Cordell’s supervisor who (the latter) gave him the name and phone numbers of some aqueduct maintenance supervisors whom Cordell used to work with in the early January.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 223, 220)

(209) shows that the head noun phrase ‘James Cordell’s supervisor’ in the ST was translated into the head noun phrase ‘หัวหน้าของคอร์ดลล์’ /hǔ:anâ: k^hǎ:ŋ k^hɔ:de:n/ (‘Cordell’s supervisor’), which could be considered the literal translation. Also, the ERC was rendered into the TRC; nevertheless, there was an addition of the intra-textual reference in the form of the noun phrase ‘ฝ่ายหลัง’ /fâ:j lǎŋ/ (‘the latter’) after the relativizer ‘ซึ่ง’ /sǔŋ/ (‘who’) in Thai. This noun phrase is in the subject position within the TRC. This insertion of the NPs resembles that of the resumptive pronouns mentioned by Panthumetha (2010) and Kullavanijaya (2010) in that the noun phrases found in this study and the resumptive pronouns fill the gap, in other words, the missing argument, in the TRCs. While English does not allow this construction because the relativizer itself acts as the pronoun which coreferences to the antecedent, the Thai language considers this to be well-formed in certain contexts. Example 199 suggests that the addition of the noun phrase ‘ฝ่ายหลัง’ /fâ:j lǎŋ/ (‘the latter’) in the Thai translation assisted in clarifying and identifying the reference ‘หัวหน้าของคอร์ดลล์’ /hǔ:anâ: k^hǎ:ŋ k^hɔ:de:n/ (‘Cordell’s supervisor’).

- **Couplet**

Couplet is the strategy which combines any two strategies in the framework. Based on the findings, Couplet accounted for 32.43%. and it was the second most

used strategy in RC Adjustment. The data show that there were seven couplets used in the ERC translation into Thai as illustrated in Table 35.

Table 35. The Couplets used in translating the ERCs into Thai

Couplet	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1. G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change	4	11.11
2. G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase	5	13.88
3. G4: Unit shift + Additions	2	5.56
4. G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change	6	16.67
5. G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change	4	11.11
6. G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase	2	5.56
7. G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change	13	36.11
<u>Total</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>100</u>

From the data, there were six strategies which were found as part of the couplets. These included G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions. The most common couplet was ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ which accounted for 36.11% of the couplet occurrences. The second and third most used Couplets were ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change’ (16.67%) and ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ (13.88%), respectively. The following section provides the explanation and examples to each couplet presented in Table 35.

1. G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change

As mentioned earlier in the section on G4: Unit shift, the unit shift is the change of units between the ST and the TT. With regard to S7: Emphasis change, this strategy belongs to the group of semantic strategies based on Chesterman (1997). As the name suggested, S7: Emphasis change adjusts the emphasis or thematic focus in the text. Thus, this couplet combines the two strategies with the change of unit and emphasis.

(210) ST: A body had been hauled out of the water, clothes sodden, and laid on **the wooden slats** that constituted the jetty.

TT: ศพ ถูก ลาก จาก น้ำ ขึ้น มา วาง
 sòp thǎ:k lá:k cà:k ná:m khǔm ma: wa:ŋ
 body PASS haul off water up come place
 บน พื้น ท่า ซึ่ง ประกอบขึ้น จาก
 bon phú:n thâ: sǔŋ praʔkò:p khǔm cà:k
 on surface jetty REL constitute from
 แผ่นไม้กระดาน เสื้อผ้า เปื่อย
 phèn máj kraʔda:n sǔ:a phâ: pù:aj
 wooden slat clothes decay

‘The body was hauled off the water and placed on the jetty that was constituted by the wooden slats. The clothes decayed.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 128, 166)

The example above shows that the head noun phrase ‘the wooden slats’ in the ST was literally translated into the noun phrase ‘แผ่นไม้กระดาน’ /phèn máj kraʔda:n/ (‘the wooden slats’) in the translation. However, the ERC was adjusted and incorporated into the new TRC. To illustrate, the ERC, which was the clause unit, was changed into the noun phrase containing the TRC: ‘พื้นที่ซึ่งประกอบขึ้นจากแผ่นไม้กระดาน’ /phú:n thâ: sǔŋ praʔkò:p khǔm cà:k phèn máj kraʔda:n/ (‘the jetty that was constituted by the wooden slats’). This noun phrase also included the ST’s head noun phrase ‘the wooden slats.’ Thus, regarding G4: Unit shift, the unit was changed from the clause unit of the ST RC ‘that constituted the jetty’ to the phrase unit ‘พื้นที่ซึ่งประกอบขึ้นจากแผ่นไม้กระดาน’ /phú:n thâ: sǔŋ praʔkò:p khǔm cà:k phèn máj kraʔda:n/ (‘the jetty that was constituted by the wooden slats’) in the TT.

As for S7: Emphasis change, the ERC ‘that constituted the jetty’ modified the head noun phrase ‘the wooden slats’ in the ST. On the contrary, in the translation, ‘the jetty’ became the head noun phrase and received slight addition of the word ‘พื้น’ /pʰú:n/ (‘surface’) to identify the surface of the jetty. Together, the new head noun phrase was ‘พื้นที่’ /pʰú:n tʰâ:/ (‘jetty’) which was modified by the TRC ‘ซึ่งประกอบขึ้นจากแผ่นไม้กระดาน’ /sûŋ praʔkò:p kʰûn cà:k pʰèn máj kraʔda:n/ (‘that was constituted by the wooden slats’). As a result, the head noun that received the modification from the RC was changed, from ‘the wooden slats’ in the ST to ‘พื้นที่’ /pʰú:n tʰâ:/ (‘jetty’) in the TT. In this study, it is considered that the emphasis was changed because the RC modified the different head noun in the translation. The reason for the adjustment could be due to the different perspective of the location that the author and the translator wished to present.

2. G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase

This couplet combines G4: Unit shift and S8: Paraphrase. S8: Paraphrase is another semantic strategy grouped in Chesterman (1997), which was adopted in the translation framework of this study. S8: Paraphrase focuses on the pragmatic meanings; thus, the translation could be undertranslated or free. In the analysis process, the translations which kept the core meaning of the text without preserving the ST structure were analyzed as using S8: Paraphrase adjustment strategy.

(211) ST: On Union Terrace a low stone wall separated him from **the gardens, which were in a gully below.**

TT:	เขา	เดิน	ผ่าน	ด้านข้าง	สวน	ยูเนียนเทอร์เรส
	kʰăw	də:n	pʰà:n	dâ:n kʰâ:ŋ	sũ:an	ju:ní:antʰə:rét
	he	walk	pass	side	garden	Union Terrace
	กำแพง	หิน	เตี้ย ๆ	กั้น	เขา	

kamp^hɛ:ŋ hǐn tí:a tí:a kân k^hǎw

wall stone low separate him

ออก จาก เนิน ลาด ลง ไป ยัง สวน

ʔɔ:k cà:k nɔ:n lâ:t loŋ paj jaŋ sǔ:an

out from hill slope down go to garden

‘He walked pass the side of Union Terrace garden. A low, stone wall separated him from the hill which sloped down to the garden’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 233, 286)

In (211), the head noun phrase ‘the gardens’ was literally translated into the noun ‘สวน’ /sǔ:an/ (‘garden’). Nonetheless, the ERC was adjusted in terms of the unit into the noun phrase ‘เนินลาดลงไปยังสวน’ /nɔ:n lâ:t loŋ paj jaŋ sǔ:an/ (‘the hill which sloped down to the garden’) in the translation. Thus, for G4: Unit shift, the unit was changed from the clause unit to the phrase unit. In relation to S8: Paraphrase, the TT paraphrased the ST noun phrase ‘the garden, which were in a gully below’ into the noun phrase ‘เนินลาดลงไปยังสวน’ /nɔ:n lâ:t loŋ paj jaŋ sǔ:an/ (‘the hill which sloped down to the garden’). The overall meaning of the ST was maintained via paraphrasing the ST head noun and the ERC.

3. G4: Unit shift + Additions

This third couplet also employs G4: Unit shift. The co-occurred adjustment strategy is Additions. Additions is one of the three additional strategies, i.e. Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations, based on Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment strategies. These additional strategies are employed to assist the main strategies adopted from Chesterman (1997). The Additions strategy concerns, for example, the addition to make what is semantically implicit in the ST more explicit in

the translated texts, or the addition of transitionals. The following example illustrates the sentence pair which adopted this couplet as the translation strategy.

- (212) ST: He used to box middleweight amateur, southpaw, leaving him one ear which hung lower than the other and a nose **which covered half his face**.

TT:	เป็น	คน	หมัด	ซ้าย	หนัก	และ	เคย	ชกมวย											
	pen	k ^h on	màt	sá:j	nàk	lé?	k ^h ə:j	c ^h ók mu:aj											
	be	person	fist	left	heavy	and	used to box												
	สมัครเล่น	รุ่น	มิดเดิลเวจต์	ซึ่ง	เป็น	สาเหตุ													
	sa?màklên	rûn	mítđônwè:t	sûŋ	pen	să:hè:t													
	amateur	class	middleweight	REL	COP	cause													
	ให้	หู	ข้าง	หนึ่ง	ห้อยย้อย	ลง	มา												
	hâj	hũ:	k ^h â:ŋ	nùŋ	hŏj jŏ:j	loŋ	ma:												
	CAUS	ear	side	one	hang	down	come												
	ต่ำ	กว่า	อีก	ข้าง	และ	จมูก	โต	กิน											
	tàm	kwà:	ʔi:k	k ^h â:ŋ	lé?	cà?mù:k	to:	kin											
	low	than	other	side	and	nose	big	eat											
	เนื้อที่	ถึง	ครึ่ง	ใบหน้า															
	nú:at ^h i:	thũŋ	k ^h rũŋ	baj nâ:															
	area	to	half	face															

‘He was a southpaw and used to box middleweight amateur, which was the cause that made one ear hang lower than the other and a nose big, covering half his face.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 22, 42)

Example 212 has the literal translation of the head nouns ‘nose’ and ‘จมูก’ /càʔmù:k/ (‘nose’). The ERC was translated into the verb phrase ‘โตกินเนื้อที่ถึงครึ่งใบหน้า’ /to: kin nú:atʰî: tʰũŋ kʰrũŋ baj nâ:/ (‘big, covering half his face’). That is, for G4: Unit shift, the unit was changed from the clause unit to the phrase unit. It is to be noted that, in Thai, some adjectives can also be considered intransitive verbs (Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, pp. 84, 87-88). Thus, the adjective ‘โต’ /to:/ (‘big’) in (212) was considered the intransitive verb of the subject ‘จมูก’ /càʔmù:k/ (‘nose’). The word ‘โต’ /to:/ (‘big’) was the added element to explain the size of the nose that ‘covered half his face.’ This could be analyzed based on Additions with respect to Nida’s (1964, pp. 228-229) “amplification from implicit to explicit status” which concerns implicit semantic elements in the STs that require explicit clarification in order to avoid ambiguous or misleading translation.

4. G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change

Among the 36 occurrences of the sentences with the couplet strategy, this couplet ranks as the second most frequently used couplet with 16.67%. It combines G7: Sentence structure change and G8: Cohesion change.

(213) ST: Rebus took the telephone and explained the situation to **the guard’s supervisor, who** asked to speak to the guard again.

TT:	รับ	รับ	หู	โทรศัพท์	มา	พูด	อธิบาย
	ri:bút	ráp	hũ:	tʰo:raʔsàp	ma:	pʰù:t	ʔaʔtíba:j
	Rebus	take	handset	telephone	come	speak	explain
	สถานการณ์		ให้	หัวหน้า	ยาม	ฟัง	
	saʔtʰă:nnaʔka:n		hâj	hũ:anâ:	ja:m	fan	
	situation		CAUS	supervisor	guard	listen	

จากนั้น	ตัว	หัวหน้า	ขอ	คุย	กับ
<u>cà:k nán</u>	<u>tu:a</u>	<u>hǔ:anâ:</u>	<u>kʰǎ:</u>	<u>kʰuj</u>	<u>kàp</u>
then	himself	supervisor	ask	speak	to
ลูกน้อง	ของ	เขา	อีกที่		
<u>lû:k nó:ŋ</u>	<u>kʰǎ:ŋ</u>	<u>kʰǎw</u>	<u>ʔi:k thi:</u>		
subordinate	of	him	again		

‘Rebus took the telephone and explained the situation to the guard’s supervisor; then, the supervisor himself asked to speak to his subordinate again.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 479, 580)

In (213), G7: Sentence structure change occurred when there was a change in the sub-clause types. To illustrate, the ERC ‘who asked to speak to the guard again’ was changed to the main clause ‘จากนั้นตัวหัวหน้าขอคุยกับลูกน้องของเขาอีกที่’ /cà:k nán tu:a hǔ:anâ: kʰǎ: kʰuj kàp lû:k nó:ŋ kʰǎ:ŋ kʰǎw ʔi:k thi:/ (‘then, the supervisor himself asked to speak to his subordinate again’) in the translation. As part of G8: Cohesion change, the repetition of ‘ตัวหัวหน้า’ /tu:a hǔ:anâ:/ (‘the supervisor himself’) which referred back to ‘หัวหน้ายาม’ /hǔ:anâ: ja:m/ (‘the guard’s supervisor’) was inserted in the subject position of the TRC. With the adjustment of the sub-clause type, from the RC to the main clause, the subject was required in the new clause. Therefore, the addition of the noun phrase ‘ตัวหัวหน้า’ /tu:a hǔ:anâ:/ (‘the supervisor himself’) was to clarify that ‘the guard’s supervisor’ was the person who ‘asked to speak to the guard again.’ Without this repeated reference ‘ตัวหัวหน้า’ /tu:a hǔ:anâ:/ (‘the supervisor himself’), the translation could be misinterpreted that ‘Rebus’ was the agent in this new clause.

5. G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change

This couplet integrates G7: Sentence structure change with S7: Emphasis change. That is, there is adjustment in the sentence structure in the translation, and the emphasis is altered in some respects.

(214) ST: He was found by **a night janitor, who was credited with saving the agent's life.**

TT:	ภารโรง	กะ	กลางคืน	เป็น	ผู้	พบตัว
	p^ha:nro:ŋ	kà?	kla:ŋk^hu:n	pen	p ^h û:	p ^h óp tu:a
	janitor	shift	night	COP	person	find
	เขา	ได้	ทัน่วงที	ซึ่ง	เท่ากับ	เป็น
	k ^h ăw	dáj	than t ^h û:aj t ^h i:	sûŋ	t ^h âw kàp	pen
	him	POT ⁵¹	just in time	REL	equal	COP
	การ	ช่วย	ชีวิต	เขา	เอาไว้	โดยปริยาย
	ka:n	c ^h û:aj	chi:wít k ^h ăw	?aw wáj	do:j pa?ri?ja:j	
	PFX ⁵²	save	life	him	ASP	indirectly

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‘A night janitor was the person who found him just in time, which equalled saving his life indirectly.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 26, 31)

Example 214 shows that the head noun phrase ‘a night janitor’ was literally translated into the noun phrase ‘ภารโรงกะกลางคืน’ /p^ha:nro:ŋ kà? kla:ŋk^hu:n/ (‘a night janitor’) in the Thai translation. However, while this noun phrase ‘a night janitor’ was the object of the preposition ‘by’ and was modified by the ERC, the noun phrase ‘ภารโรงกะกลางคืน’ /p^ha:nro:ŋ kà? kla:ŋk^hu:n/ (‘a night janitor’) became the subject of the

⁵¹ POT refers to ‘potential.’

⁵² PFX refers to ‘prefix.’

main clause in the translation and was not modified by the TRC. Although the TRC resembled the ERC in terms of the structure, i.e. the relativizer preceding the RC, the meaning was not totally equivalent. In English, the ERC ‘who was credited with saving the agent’s life’ modified the head noun ‘janitor.’ The relativizer ‘who’ shows the gender concord, identifying that the head noun is a person. On the other hand, the TRC ‘ซึ่งเท่ากับเป็นการช่วยชีวิตเขาเอาไว้โดยปริยาย’ /súnŋ t^háw kàp pen ka:n c^hú:aj chi:wít k^háw ʔaw wáj do:j paʔriʔja:j/ (‘which equalled saving his life indirectly’) did not modify the noun phrase ‘ภารโรงกะกลางคืน’ /p^ha:nro:ŋ kàʔ kla:ŋk^hu:n/ (‘a night janitor’); it modified the overall meaning of its preceding clause ‘ภารโรงกะกลางคืนเป็นผู้พบตัวเขาได้ทันท่วงที’ /p^ha:nro:ŋ kàʔ kla:ŋk^hu:n pen p^hú: p^hóp tu:a k^háw dáj t^han t^hú:anŋ t^hi:/ (‘a night janitor was the person who found him just in time’). Thus, the meaning was ‘the fact that the night janitor found him just in time saved his (the agent’s) life.’ Therefore, the TRC was the sentential RC in Thai, modifying the whole preceding clause’s idea. To conclude, for G7: Sentence structure change, the sub-clause type was changed from the typical RC in the ST to the sentential RC in the TT. As for S7: Emphasis change, the emphasis was shifted from the head noun in English to the core meaning of the main clause in Thai.

6. G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase

This sixth couplet combines G7: Sentence structure change and S8: Paraphrase. The data show that there were two occurrences which adopted this couplet. One example is presented below.

(215) ST: They wore **suits** **that** said ‘management’: the banshees’ bosses.

TT: สวม **สูท** บอก ราศี ‘ผู้บริหาร’

sù:am **sù:t** bò:k ra:sǐ: p^hú: bəʔriʔhǎ:n

wear suit say aura manager

‘(They) wore suits (which/that) said an aura of managers.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 80, 109)

Whereas the head noun ‘suits’ was literally translated, the ERC in (215) was adjusted. With respect to G7: Sentence structure change, the ERC was rendered into Thai with the bare RC ‘บอกราศีผู้บริหาร’ /bò:k ra:sí: pʰû: bəʔriʔhǎ:n/ (‘said an aura of managers’). To illustrate, the noun phrase ‘สูท(ที่/ซึ่ง)บอกราศีผู้บริหาร’ /sù:t (tʰí:/sûŋ) bò:k ra:sí: pʰû: bəʔriʔhǎ:n/ (‘suits (which/that) said an aura of managers’) in Thai could be analyzed as having the covert relativizer ‘/tʰí:/’ or ‘/sûŋ/’ between the head noun ‘สูท’ /sù:t/ (‘suits’) and the verb phrase ‘บอกราศีผู้บริหาร’ /bò:k ra:sí: pʰû: bəʔriʔhǎ:n/ (‘said an aura of managers’). As for S8: Paraphrase, the content of the ERC was also paraphrased with the subtraction of the content ‘the banshees’ bosses.’ According to Saibua (2007, p. 69), the deletion of words or phrases that do not exist in the TL culture can be implemented under the condition that it would not affect the main content or ruin the aesthetic element of the ST. Therefore, in (215), the translator might decide that only the word ‘management’ was sufficient for the context. As for ‘the banshees’ bosses,’ ‘banshees⁵³’ may not be familiar to general Thai audience, so the translator omitted that phrase in the translation.

7. G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change

Accounting for 36.11%, this couplet of ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ ranked as the first most used couplet among the seven couplets employed in the ERC translation into Thai. A sentence pair that adopted this couplet is exemplified as follows.

⁵³ According to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (Hornby, 2000, p. 90), a ‘banshee’ is a female spirit in Irish legend, whose wailing warns a family of an upcoming death of a family member.

(216) ST: I'm a friend of the family of **the woman who** was killed in Canoga Park.

TT: ผม เป็น เพื่อน กับ ทาง
 p^hǒm pen p^hũ:an kàp t^ha:ŋ
 I am friend with side
 ครอบครัว ของ ผู้หญิง คน ที่
 k^hrô:p k^hru:a k^hǎ:ŋ p^hũ: jǐŋ k^hon t^hi:
 family of woman CLF who
 ถูกฆ่าตายใน คาน็อก้าปาร์ค
 t^hù:k k^hâ: ta:j naj k^ha: no: kâ: pá:k
 PASS kill die in Canoga Park

'I'm a friend of the family of the woman (the one) who was killed in Canoga Park.'

(*Blood Work*, pp. 216, 214)

Example 216 above combined G8: Cohesion change and S7: Emphasis change in the following aspects. On the surface, the ST and the TT of this sentence pair seem similar due to the literal translation in Thai with the antecedent and the RC. However, adding the classifier 'คน' /k^hon/ ('the one') changed the translation from the typical RC to the adoption of G8: Cohesion change. To illustrate, the classifier was added as an intra-textual reference to the head noun 'ผู้หญิง' /p^hũ: jǐŋ/ ('woman'). This addition led to S7: Emphasis change because the inserted classifier intensified the specification of the head noun 'ผู้หญิง' /p^hũ: jǐŋ/ ('woman'). This language feature supports the notion that in the Thai language, a classifier could be inserted between the antecedent and the relativizer to identify or emphasize the modified head noun (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003; Panthumetha, 2010).

The findings above on Couplet indicated that this translation adjustment strategy accounted for 32.43% and was the second most used strategy in RC Adjustment. The fact that Couplet was adopted in a relatively high percentage supported what Chesterman (1997) mentioned: “Strategies of different types often co-occur” (p. 93). Based on the findings as shown in Table 35, couplets could be constituted from six adjustment strategies, i.e. G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions. The two most used couplets were ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ (36.11%) and ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change’ (16.67%). According to Table 30 on RC Adjustment’s translation adjustment strategies used in translating the ERCs into Thai, the following table summarized the frequency of RC Adjustment’s translation adjustment strategies found to be used as sole strategies and couplets.

Table 36. RC Adjustment’s translation adjustment strategies found as sole strategies and couplets (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Couplet Frequency of [F]	
G4: Unit shift	49	44.14	[F]	11
G6: Clause structure change	1	0.90	-	-
G7: Sentence structure change	18	16.23	[F]	12
G8: Cohesion change	3	2.70	[F]	19
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	[F]	21
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	[F]	7
Couplet	36	32.43		
Additions	3	2.70	[F]	2
Alterations	1	0.90	-	-
<u>Total</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>100</u>		<u>72</u>

According to Table 36, it can be interpreted that S7: Emphasis change and G8: Cohesion change ranked as the top two adjustment strategies used in Couplet with the occurrences of 21 and 19, respectively. This corresponded with the findings that ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ was the first most used couplet.

Regarding the analysis into detail of the couplets with S7: Emphasis change, there were three couplets with this strategy. These included ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ (36.11%), ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ (11.11%), and ‘G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change’ (11.11%). The sentence pairs that adopted each couplet provided some explanation to the linguistic patterns.

Firstly, regarding ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change,’ the emphasis change was the result of the addition of classifiers in the Thai translation as part of G8: Cohesion change. For example, the classifier ‘คน’ /kʰon/ ‘the one’ in (206) underscored the head noun of the RC. The high frequency of this couplet implies that the addition of classifiers is common in the ERC translation into Thai. Secondly, as for ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change,’ it appears that when the ERCs, which are the clause unit, were translated into other units, the translated segments changed the degree of the emphasis on the head nouns. The data show that this couplet seemed to be influenced to a certain degree by the choices the translators made. The example can be seen in (210) with the change of both the unit and the head noun postmodified by the RC. The third couplet with S7: Emphasis change is ‘G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change.’ The data suggested that the translation with G7: Sentence structure change affected the clause units within a sentence. Therefore, when the ERCs in the ST were translated into other clause types, the emphasis on the head nouns was adjusted accordingly. In (214), the adjustment from the ERC to the sentential RC in the Thai translation shifted the emphasis from the ST head noun to the core message of the main clause.

G8: Cohesion change was another adjustment strategy that occurred frequently in Couplet. It was found in two couplets, i.e. ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ (36.11%) and ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change’ (16.67%). Since ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ contained S7:

Emphasis change, this couplet has been mentioned in the above section. With respect to ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change,’ the data show that the ERCs were translated into main clauses in Thai, which was concerned with G7: Sentence structure change. G8: Cohesion change played a role in that, all occurrences with this couplet had the addition of the intra-textual references or repetitions as exemplified in (213). This suggests that G8: Cohesion change, e.g. the addition of classifiers or references within the text, is one of the common strategies in the ERC translation into Thai.

Regarding other adjustment strategies that constitute couplets, namely G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions, they all illustrate various adjustment strategies that could co-occur with one other strategy as a couplet. An observation that can be made from the six strategies constructing couplets is that only S7: Emphasis change and S8: Paraphrase, which are the only two semantic strategies in the analysis framework, were not found to be adopted as a single strategy. They always co-occurred with another syntactic/grammatical (G) strategy. The reason could be that the adjustment of the syntactic structure and meaning usually affects each other.

- **Additions**

Table 37. Additions (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
Additions	3	2.70	[F] 2

To supplement the main translation strategies adopted from Chesterman (1997), three other translation adjustment strategies based on Nida’s (1964) and Saibua (2007) were included, i.e. Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. Therefore, Addition is one of these three strategies which are used to analyze the RC translation. Addition relates to the addition of texts or transitionals. The purpose could be to make

implicit texts more explicit. This strategy is different from G8: Cohesion change in that, while Addition adds texts for clarification or repeat the preceding texts, G8: Cohesion change concerns the reference within the texts and the use of connectors.

According to the findings, Addition was not frequently adopted in the RC translation in the current study. Only 2.70% was found when Additions was used as an independent strategy. In addition, this strategy only occurred in Couplet with G4: Unit shift for two occurrences. An example of the sentence pair which adopted Additions as a sole adjustment strategy is provided below.

(217) ST: They shook hands and Winston led McCaleb to **a conference room that had an oval table surrounded by six chairs.**

TT:	คน	ทั้งสอง	จับมือ	กัน	จากนั้น				
	k ^h on	tháŋ sǎ:ŋ	càp muu:	kan	cà:k nán				
	people	both	shake hands	REC	then				
	วินสตัน	ก็	เดิน	นำ	แม็กเคเล็บ	ไป	ที่		
	winsaʔtán	kôʔ	də:n	nam	mékke:lép	paj	thí:		
	Winston	LP	walk	lead	McCaleb	go	to		
	ห้องประชุม	ซึ่ง	ข้างใน	มี	โต๊ะ				
	<u>hŋ praʔchum</u>	<u>sŋ</u>	<u>k^hâ:ŋ naj</u>	<u>mi:</u>	<u>tóʔ</u>				
	conference room	REL	inside	have	table				
	ทรงกลมรี	รายล้อม	ด้วย	เก้าอี้	หก	ตัว			
	<u>soŋ klom ri:</u>	<u>ra:j ló:m</u>	<u>dú:aj</u>	<u>kâwʔi: hòk</u>	<u>tu:a</u>				
	oval-shaped	surrounded	with	chair	six	CLF			

‘The two people shook hands. Then, Winston led McCaleb to a conference room that (the inside) had an oval-shaped table surrounded by six chairs.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 80, 84)

The sentence pair in (217) has the same head noun phrases ‘a conference room’ and ‘ห้องประชุม’ /hông praʔcʰum/ (‘conference room’) in both the ST and the TT, followed by the RCs. Nonetheless, in the Thai translation there is the noun phrase ‘ข้างใน’ /kʰâ:naj/ (‘the inside’) in the subject position of the TRC. This noun phrase is considered Additions, and it could be analyzed as related to Nida’s (1964) “Amplification from implicit to explicit status,” which requires the explicit elaboration in the translation. The addition of the noun phrase ‘ข้างใน’ /kʰâ:naj/ (‘the inside’) helps clearer identify the location of the table inside the conference room.

- **Alterations**

Table 38. Alterations (English-Thai translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
Alterations	1	0.90	- -

The last strategy in RC Adjustment is Alterations. This strategy mainly concerns the adjustment in the order of words or ideas in the text so that the translation becomes idiomatic. According to the findings, it was found that only one occurrence (0.90%) adopted Alterations as its sole strategy to translate the ERC into Thai. This suggested that, even though Alterations might not be common, this adjustment strategy could be used when the translation required word or idea reordering. The sentence pair is as follows.

(218) ST: She already was dealing with **a captain who**, after the hypnosis and Bolotov fiascos, probably thought she was being controlled too easily by an outsider.

TT: นับแต่ ความล้มเหลว สูดอภัยยศ ใน เรื่อง
 náp tè: kwa:m lómlě:w sùt ?àppà?jót naj rû:an
 after failure humiliating in issue
 การสะกดจิต และ โบโลตอฟ แล้ว เธอ ต้อง
 ka:n sa?kòtcit lé? bo:lo:tóp lé:w thò: tǒŋ
 hypnosis and Bolotov ASP she must
 รับหน้า กับ ผู้บังคับบัญชา ซึ่ง อาจ คิด
 ráp nâ: káp pʰú:banḵhápbanḵha: sǔŋ ?à:t kʰít
 face with captain REL may think
 ว่า เธอ ยอมปล่อยให้ คนนอก เป็น
 wâ: thò: jw:m plòj háj kʰon nò:k pen
 COMP she let CAUS outsider be
 คนคุมเกม ง่าย เกินไป
 kʰon kʰum ke:m nâ:j kə:n paj
 controller easy too

‘After the humiliating failure in the hypnosis and Bolotov, she had to face the captain who might think that she let an outsider be the controller too easily.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 211, 209)

The sentence pair above illustrates Alterations with regard to the content presentation. In the ST, the prepositional phrase ‘after the hypnosis and Bolotov

fiascos’ was embedded in the ERC. In the Thai translation, this translated prepositional phrase ‘นับแต่ความล้มเหลวสุดอัปยศในเรื่องการสะกดจิตและโบลotovแล้ว’ /náp tɛː kwa:m lómleːw sùt ʔàppàʔjót naj rúːaŋ ka:n saʔkòtcìt léʔ boːloːtóp léːw/ (‘after the humiliating failure in the hypnosis and Bolotov’) was relocated to the beginning of the main clause. The purpose could be to facilitate the interpretation of the head noun ‘a captain’ and the modifying RC by adjusting the position of the intervening prepositional phrase. With the TRC immediately following the head noun, it was clear that the RC modified the closest, preceding noun, i.e. ‘ผู้บังคับบัญชา’ /pʰûːbaŋkʰápbaŋcʰaː/ (‘captain’).

Among the four types of translation strategy – Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment – found in this study, RC Adjustment was the second most used strategy with 31.90% and the first most used strategy with 64.16% when considered among the three adjustment strategies. Based on the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4), RC Adjustment was located closer to the right end which receives relatively high level of adjustment. This strategy focuses on the adjustment of the RC; thus, it receives deep analysis with the framework based on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment strategies. Adopted either as an independent strategy and/or as couplets, nine adjustment strategies were found. These included G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, Couplet, Additions, and Alterations. That is, not all strategies in Table 23. Framework for the analysis of translation adjustment were discovered. The strategies which were not found to be used in translating the ERCs into Thai in this study were G3: Transposition, G5: Phrase structure change, G9: Level shift, G10: Scheme change, and Subtractions.

With respect to the strategies found to be used in the ERC translation into Thai, the two most used strategies under RC Adjustment were G4: Unit shift (44.14%) and Couplet (32.43%).

Regarding G4: Unit shift, the most common unit that the ERCs were translated into was the phrase unit. The main phrase type was the verb phrase. The findings showed that the RC translation could also be the result of other changes within the sentence. For instance, the translation of the ERCs into verb phrases was the effect of the syntactic adjustment to the noun phrases which contained the RCs. In (204), the ST object 'blond hair' became the TT subject; this brought about the adjustment of the ERC to the verb phrase in the translation. As for the unit shift to other phrase types or other units, it could be assumed that various factors could contribute to the changes, for example, the translators' or editors' decisions. As for Couplet, being the second most used strategy in RC Adjustment confirms that it is common for translation to combine various strategies. The findings in Table 35 showed seven combinations of strategies used in the ERC translation into Thai. With the data suggesting that the use of S7: Emphasis change and G8: Cohesion change was frequent in Couplet, it also reflects some characteristics of the Thai language. To illustrate, Thai has classifiers, which can be inserted between the head noun and the relativizers to underline or identify that noun (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003, p. 43; Panthumetha, 2010, pp. 152, 217). Therefore, many occurrences with classifiers in the findings of English-Thai RC translation confirmed the actual usage of classifiers in this structure. In addition, the addition of classifiers also influences the emphasis or identification of reference in the text.

Apart from G4: Unit shift and Couplet, which were the common RC Adjustment strategies, there were other strategies presented in Table 30 that were used in translating the ERCs into Thai. They suggested multiple ways to render ERCs into the Thai language. Although the structures may change, the core meanings of the text were maintained.

4.1.4 Complete Adjustment

Among the three adjustment strategies, Complete Adjustment is the second most used strategy (23.70%). It is on the farthest end on the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4). That is, the degree of adjustment is highest. Unlike Antecedent

Adjustment and RC Adjustment which involve the literal translation either on the antecedent or the RC, Complete Adjustment makes adjustment to both the antecedent and the RC. In some occurrences, the translation adjustment strategy resembles paraphrasing. Since Complete Adjustment comprises various adjustments, the categorization that seems most appropriate based on the data is in two aspects: the retention of the head nouns and the retention of the RC structure.

For the retention of the head nouns, the data could be divided into two groups: 1) the translation with some retention of the ST head noun or a part of the head noun, and 2) the translation without any retention of the ST head noun. It is to be noted that, for the first group, the parts of the ST head nouns that appear in the translation might be in any phrase type such as noun phrases or verb phrases. The findings with the retention of ST head nouns are presented in Table 39.

Table 39. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the ST head noun (English-Thai translation)

ST head noun retention	Frequency	Percentage (%)
With some retention	30	73.17
Without any retention	11	26.83
Total	41	100

The findings showed that 73.17% of the English-Thai data maintained some elements of the ST head noun in the translation. Only 26.83% of the data did not retain any parts of the ST head noun when translating the ERCs into Thai. To illustrate each group of Complete Adjustment, the examples are presented below.

(219) ST: Bible John had **one tooth which** overlapped another, according to the eye-witness.

TT: ไบเบิล จอห์น มี ฟัน สอง ซี่ เกย กัน
 bajbôn cɔ:n mi: fan sǎ:n sî: kə:j kan
 Bible John have tooth two CLF overlap REC

อยู่ ตาม คำให้การ ของ ประจักษ์พยาน

jù: ta:m k^ham hâjka:n k^hǎ:ŋ pràʔcàk p^haʔja:n

ASP according to statement of eye-witness

‘Bible John had two teeth overlapping according to the statement of the eye-witness.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 460, 558)

The sentence pair above is the example of when there was a retention of the ST head noun in the translation. The head noun ‘tooth’ in English was present through the literal translation into the noun ‘ฟัน’ /fan/ (‘tooth’) in Thai.

With Complete Adjustment, (219) shows that the adjustment was made to both the head noun and the RC; the syntactic structure in the ST was altered when being rendered into the TT. The head noun phrase ‘one tooth’ and the pronoun ‘another’ were combined and translated into the noun phrase ‘ฟันสองซี่’ /fan sǎ:ŋ sǐ:/ (‘two teeth’) in Thai. In addition, the action verb ‘overlap’ became the verb phrase ‘เกยกันอยู่’ /kə:j kan jù:/ (‘overlapping’) in the translation.

(220) ST: All we’re saying is, there are **questions that have to be asked.**

TT: ผม ก็ ต้อง ถาม ไป ตาม หน้าที่

p^hǒm kǎʔ tǔŋ t^hǎ:m paj ta:m nâ:t^hî:

I LP must ask ASP follow duty

‘I must ask as part of the duty.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 270, 325)

Example 220 illustrates the RC translation when the ST head noun was not retained in the translation. That is, the head noun ‘questions’ in English was not present in the Thai translation.

In (220), the entire ST sentence received relatively major adjustment. The head noun and the RC were also adjusted, so the strategy used was Complete Adjustment. In the ST, the head noun was ‘questions,’ which was omitted in the translation. However, it seems that the ‘questions’ were merged into the ERC ‘that have to be asked’ when this noun phrase was translated into Thai. The translation of the ST head noun and the ERC, including the whole sentence, showed that paraphrasing seemed to be adopted, which resulted in the verb phrase ‘ถามไปตามหน้าที่’ /tʰǎ:m paj ta:m nâ:tʰî:/ (‘ask as part of the duty’) for the ST head noun and the ERC, and the shorter sentence in the Thai translation.

Another aspect to be discussed is the retention of the RC structure. The data can be categorized into two groups: 1) the translation with the retention of the RC structure, and 2) the translation without the retention of the RC structure. The findings are shown in the table below.

Table 40. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the RC structure (English-Thai translation)

RC structure retention	Frequency	Percentage (%)
With retention	3	7.32
Without retention	38	92.68
<u>Total</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>100</u>

Based on the data, 92.68% of Complete Adjustment did not retain the RC structure in the translation of the ERCs into Thai. In this group, the STs were adjusted in a considerable degree, and the structures within the sentence were altered, as illustrated in (219) and (220) above. As for the group that kept the RC structure, there were only three occurrences or 7.32%. That is to say, the ERCs in the ST were translated into the TRCs in Thai. However, in all three occurrences, the TRCs were adjusted to some degree from the ERCs. The adjustments related to meaning, which also affected the internal structure of the TRCs. Thus, with the adjustment on the RCs,

the three occurrences were classified as Complete Adjustment. An example of the translation with the retention of the RC structure is provided below.

- (221) ST: It was true that many gun thefts went unreported because **the people who lost the weapons** shouldn't have had them in the first place.

TT:	จริง	อยู่	ที่	ผู้	เป็น	เจ้าของ	ปืน
	ciŋ	ju:	thi:	phū:	pen	câwk ^h ǎ:ŋ	pu:n
	true	ASP	that	who	COP	owner	gun
	ซึ่ง	ถูก	โจรกรรม	มัก	จะ	ไม่ค่อย	ได้
	sûŋ	thù:k	co:ra ^h kam	mák	cà?	mâj khôj	dâj
	REL	PASS	steal	often	CM	not really	get
	แจ้งความ	ทั้งนี้เพราะ	ตัวเอง		ไม่	สมควร	
	cê:ŋ kwa:m	tháŋ ní:p ^h ró?	tu:a ʔe:ŋ	mâj	sǒmk ^h u:an		
	report	because	oneself	NEG	appropriate		
	หรือ	ไม่	มี สิทธิ	ที่	จะ	เป็น	เจ้าของ
	rū:	mâj	mi: sít	thi:	cà?	pen	câwk ^h ǎ:ŋ
	or	NEG	have right	that	CM	COP	owner
	อาวุธ	ดังกล่าว	ตั้งแต่	แรก			
	ʔa:wút	daŋ klá:w	tâŋtè:	rê:k			
	weapon	such	since	first			

'It was true that owners of the guns which were stolen did not often report because they should not own or did not have the right to own such weapons in the first place.

(*Blood Work*, pp. 96, 99)

Example 221 adopted Complete Adjustment. The ST head noun phrase ‘the people’ was modified by the ERC ‘who lost the weapons.’ In the translated text, although the key meaning of the sentence was maintained, there were many adjustments. Firstly, the ST head noun phrase ‘the people’ seemed to be translated into the noun phrase ‘ผู้เป็นเจ้าของปืน’ /p^hu: pen câwk^hǎ:ŋ pu:n/ (‘owners of the guns’). However, the head noun that the TRC modified was the noun ‘ปืน’ /pu:n/ (‘gun’). Therefore, the ST head noun was adjusted. Secondly, the ERC ‘who lost the weapons,’ which modified the head noun ‘people,’ was paraphrased. The TRC ‘ซึ่งถูกโจรกรรม’ /sûŋ t^hù:k co:raʔkam/ (‘which were stolen’) appeared to base its translation on the meaning of the ERC ‘who lost the weapons’ and the preceding noun phrase ‘many gun thefts.’ Thus, the ERC was also modified. Regarding the retention of the RC structure, the TT in (221) contained the RC structure in the translation, but the adjustment was carried out as explained above.

All in all, among the three adjustment strategies, Complete Adjustment is the second most used strategy with 23.70%. Since it receives the highest degree of change compared with the other three types of translation strategy, Complete Adjustment is located on the farthest right on the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4). Both the head nouns and the ERCs are adjusted in the translation process. According to the data, some translations contained the trace of the ST head nouns, whereas some resembled paraphrases and did not retain the ST head nouns. In addition, almost all of the occurrences in Complete Adjustment did not keep the RC structure in the translation. For a few sentence pairs that retained the RC structure in the Thai translation, the TRCs received some adjustments in relation to both meaning and structures.

4.2 Summary

According to the findings on English-Thai RC translation above, the translation strategies of the ERCs into Thai could be analyzed using the translation framework based on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies supported by Nida’s

(1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. The findings answered the first research question of this study: 'What are the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs with the relativizers 'who,' 'which,' and 'that' into Thai?' It was found that the translation strategies used were in four types, i.e. Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. The fact that the ERC translation strategies into Thai included both literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment went in line with other previous research studies such as Anshori (2007), Dwijati et al. (2016), Leenakitti (2012), and Nau (2011), on the RC translation that the ST RCs could be translated into the RC structure of the target languages or be adjusted to other forms. The main translation strategy in many studies appeared to be the RC structure.

As mentioned above, apart from the literal translation, the analysis showed that there were more to the general adjustment strategies. For this study, Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies supplemented by the translation adjustment by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) were found to be appropriate for analyzing the ERCs into Thai. The findings underscored that, in translating the RCs, the adjustment could affect both the RCs and the antecedents or the head noun phrases. This led to the three types of adjustment found in this study, i.e. Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment, based on the degree of adjustment.

The adjustments in RC translation were also evidenced in other previous studies, for example, the studies by Dwijati et al. (2016) and Leenakitti (2012). Nonetheless, different frameworks and categorization could lead to different data interpretation. Dwijati *et al.* employed the translation procedures by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000). Thus, the procedures discovered from the data were literal translation, modulation, and adaptation. As for Leenakitti, the adjustment strategies were divided into two groups: 1) the adjustments with the relativizers '/thî:/ and '/sûŋ/, and 2) the adjustments without the relativizers '/thî:/ and '/sûŋ/. Some sub-strategies under RC Adjustment and Complete Adjustment of the current study were similar to those reported by Leenakitti; however, the different analysis framework yielded the different and additional sub-strategies. Nevertheless, the similarity in the ERC translation into Thai in this current research and the study by Leenakitti

confirmed the syntactic structures that translators usually used when rendering the ERC structure into Thai. In addition, the various types of adjustments found in this study supported the notion that, when rendering complicated English structures such as subordinate clauses, some translation adjustments might be necessary in order that the Thai translation becomes idiomatic (Chantasingh, 1986, p. 57).

To conclude, the findings showed that the translation strategies used to translate the ERCs into Thai can be categorized into four types including the literal translation with a relativizer, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. These translation types varied as a result of the degree of translation adjustment carried out on the antecedents and the RCs. The RC analysis was implemented based on the analysis framework adapted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies supported by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. The results revealed that the literal translation was adopted at 50.29%. This signified that half of the data employed the literal translation while the other half adopted the translation adjustment. Thus, this level of frequency suggested that, for the ERC translation into Thai, the literal strategy was extensively employed, and the relativizers may include '/thî:/,' '/sûŋ/,' '/p^hû:/,' and '/p^hû: sûŋ/.' The literal translation underscores the parallel structure between the ERCs and the TRCs. The other three adjustment strategies accounted for 49.71% of the data, ranging from RC Adjustment, Complete Adjustment, and Antecedent Adjustment, respectively. This can be inferred that the translation of the ERCs can affect the head nouns, the RCs, or the entire clauses. Various translation strategies found in the findings of this research suggested a wide range of translation possibilities that translators could adopt. The literal translation can be one of the choices, and the translation adjustment can also be used when appropriate to create natural Thai translation.

The next chapter will present the results and discussion of the TRC translation into English in order to answer the second research question of this study, which is 'What are the translation strategies used in translating the TRCs with the relativizers '/thî:/' and '/sûŋ/' into English?'

CHAPTER 5

TRANSLATION OF TRCS INTO ENGLISH

Continued from Chapter 4 on translation of ERCs into Thai, this chapter presents the findings and discussion on TRCs translation into English to answer the second research question: ‘What are the translation strategies used in translating the TRCs with the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ into English?’ The chapter begins with some background of the data, followed by the findings and discussion under the main heading ‘Translation strategies used to translate TRCs into Thai’ (5.1). The findings together with discussion are divided into four sub-sections, namely Literal Translation (5.1.1), Antecedent Adjustment (5.1.2), RC Adjustment (5.1.3), and Complete Adjustment (5.1.4). The last section of the chapter presents the chapter summary (5.2).

As presented in Chapter 4, the number of sentence pairs from each source novel was based on the number of sentence pairs from *Black and Blue*, which was used as the criterion to collect the data. In the analysis process, the RC translation strategies were categorized according to the four types of translation strategy (see Table 25 in Chapter 4) based on the degrees of adjustment, i.e. Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. These strategies were determined from the adjustment made on the head noun and the RC. Literal Translation refers to the translation without adjustment to the head noun and the RC. In other words, the translation strategy adopted is the literal translation strategy. Antecedent Adjustment is the translation with adjustment only to the head noun, not the RC. RC Adjustment makes changes to the RC, while the head noun is literally translated. Lastly, Complete Adjustment has both the head noun and the RC adjusted.

5.1 Translation strategies used to translate TRCs into English

With respect to the data for the analysis of Thai-English translation, 366 sentence pairs, which contain the TRCs under the scope of the study, were retrieved

from the two Thai source novels: *เวลาในขวดแก้ว* /we:la: naj kʰu:at kɛ:w/ (2015) by Praphatsorn Seiwikun and *ปูนปิดทอง* /pu:n pít tʰɔ:ŋ/ (2015) by Krisna Asoksin. Initially, the data were divided into two main translation strategies, which were literal translation and translation adjustment as presented in Table 41.

Table 41. Frequency of occurrences in connection with the translation strategies used to translate TRCs into English (Literal translation and translation adjustment)

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literal translation	63	17.21
Translation adjustment	303	82.79
<u>Total</u>	<u>366</u>	<u>100</u>

Table 41 shows that, in translating TRCs into English, translation adjustment was preferred to literal translation with the percentages of 82.79 versus 17.21. With adjustment strategies being further analyzed, the data are presented in Table 42.

Table 42. Frequency of occurrences in connection with the translation strategies used to translate TRCs into English (Four types of translation strategy)

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literal Translation	63	17.21
Antecedent Adjustment	11	3.01
RC Adjustment	204	55.74
Complete Adjustment	88	24.04
<u>Total</u>	<u>366</u>	<u>100</u>

The table above illustrates TRC translation with the four types of translation strategy. This shows that the three most common strategies adopted in TRC translation into English are RC Adjustment (55.74%), Complete Adjustment (24.04%) and Literal Translation (17.21%), respectively. The next table specifically presents translation adjustment strategies.

Table 43. Frequency of the occurrences in connection with the translation adjustment strategies used to translate the TRCs into English

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Antecedent Adjustment	11	3.63
RC Adjustment	204	67.33
Complete Adjustment	88	29.04
<u>Total</u>	<u>303</u>	<u>100</u>

The data from Table 43 show that, among the three adjustment strategies, the first most frequently used strategy is RC Adjustment, which constitutes 67.33% of the occurrences with translation adjustment. The second most preferred strategy is Complete Adjustment, comprising 29.04%. As for Antecedent Adjustment, the data indicate that only 3.63% of the sentence pairs adopted this translation strategy.

The section below presents the four types of translation strategy with examples.

5.1.1 Literal Translation

This translation strategy is on the leftmost position of the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4). The position suggests the literal translation of both the head noun and the RC. Thus, Thai relativizers are translated with English relativizers. There were four English relativizers found in Thai-English translation as presented in Table 44.

Table 44. Frequency of the English relativizers in the translation

Literal translation strategy with a relativizer	Frequency	Percentage (%)
who	32	50.79
whom	2	3.18
which	14	22.22
that	15	23.81
<u>Total</u>	<u>63</u>	<u>100</u>

According to the table above, the relativizer ‘who’ was adopted the most in Literal Translation; it accounted for 50.79%. The relativizers ‘that’ and ‘which’ were used in approximately the same proportions: 23.81% and 22.22%, respectively. In addition, the relativizer ‘whom’ was also found, but with only 3.18% of occurrences⁵⁴. These findings from Table 44 suggested that at least a half of the data of the TRCs which adopted the literal translation strategy contained animate head nouns, and it was common to literally translate Thai relativizers in such sentences with the relativizer ‘who.’ The following section exemplifies some sentence pairs that adopted the literal translation strategy to translate TRCs into English.

(222) ST:	“ลุงแมน”	เด็กสาว	ร้องเรียก	คนขับรถ
	luŋ mé:n	dèk sǎ:w	ró:ŋ rí:ak	kʰon kʰàp rôt
	Uncle Maen	young girl	call out	driver
	ที่	นั่ง	คอย	อยู่ บน เก้าอี้ยาว
	<u>thí:</u>	<u>nâŋ</u>	<u>kʰɔ:j</u>	<u>jù: bon kâwʔi: ja:w</u>
	REL	sit	wait ASP	on bench
	หน้า	ห้องดนตรี		
	<u>nâ:</u>	<u>hôn dontri:</u>		
	in front of	music room		
	‘Uncle Maen’ the young girl calls out to the driver who sits waiting on the bench in front of the music room.’			
TT:	‘Uncle Maen!’ the young girl calls out to the driver, who sits waiting on the bench in front of the music room.			

⁵⁴ With respect to the literal translation strategy with a relativizer, this study found merely a few occurrences of the English translations with the relativizer ‘whom.’ According to *Collins Free Online Dictionary and Thesaurus* (“whom,” n.d.), the recorded usage of the word ‘whom’ shows that, from 1908 to 2008, the usage has gradually decreased over time. Therefore, a few findings of the relativizer ‘whom’ in this study went in line with the word usage trends.

(*Time in a Bottle*⁵⁵, pp. 17, 6)

Example 222 adopted the literal translation strategy. Therefore, the head noun ‘คนขับรถ’ /k^hon k^hàp rôt/ (‘driver’) in the Thai ST was translated into the head noun ‘driver’ in the English translation. The TRC ‘ที่นั่งคอยอยู่บนเก้าอี้ยาวหน้าห้องดนตรี’ /t^hî: nâŋ k^ho:j jù: bon kâw ʔi: ja:w nâ: hôŋ dontri:/ (‘who sits waiting on the bench in front of the music room’) was also literally rendered into the ERC ‘who sits waiting on the bench in front of the music room’ with the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ translated into the relativizer ‘who.’

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 4, the Thai language does not have articles, while English does. Thus, it was common that articles were added in the English translations. For instance, in (222), the noun ‘คนขับรถ’ /k^hon k^hàp rôt/ (‘driver’) was translated into the noun ‘driver’ in English with the article ‘the.’ This also applied to other determiners in English. The additions or subtractions of such elements relate to Nida’s (1964, pp. 230, 232) notion on categories in that the presence or absence of any category should be appropriately translated with regard to TLs. Therefore, to comply with English language structures, determiners and other determiners attached to nouns are considered literal translation in this study.

(223) ST:	เป็นต้นว่า	ชอบ	รังแก	เพื่อน	ที่	เขา
	pentôn wâ:	ch ^h ô:p	raŋkɛ:	p ^h û:an	t ^h î:	k ^h ăw
	for example	like	bully	friend	REL	he
	คิด	ว่า	พอ	จะ	ข่มขู่	ได้
	k ^h ít	wâ:	p ^h o:	cà?	k ^h òmk ^h ù:	dâj
	think	COMP	enough	CM	threaten	POT

⁵⁵ The title of the English translation is used for sentence examples to refer to both the Thai STs and the English translations.

แต่	ถ้า	ใคร	เอาจริง	สกรรจ์	ก็	จะ
tè:	tʰâ:	kʰraj	ʔaw ciŋ	saʔkan kôʔ	càʔ	
but	if	who	serious	Sakan LP	CM	
หงอ	จน	น่าขัน				
งัว:	con	nâ:kʰǎn				
cow	until	absurdly				

‘For example, he liked to bully friends whom he thought he could threaten, but if anyone was serious, Sakan would be absurdly cowed.’

TT: He also loved to bully **friends** whom he thought he could threaten, but he would be cowed by those who were not afraid of hm.

(Poon Pid Thong⁵⁶, pp. 48, 49)

The sentence pair in (223) is one of the two occurrences which adopted the literal translation strategy with the relativizer ‘whom.’ The head noun ‘เพื่อน’ /pʰû:an/ (‘friend’) was literally rendered into the head noun ‘friends.’ The TRC was also literally translated into the ERC, from ‘ที่เขาคิดว่าพอจะข่มขู่ได้’ /tʰî: kʰǎw kʰít wâ: pʰɔ: càʔ kʰòm kʰù: dâj/ (‘whom he thought he could threaten’) to ‘whom he thought he could threaten.’ The relativizer ‘whom’ is the accusative form of ‘who,’ and it is used only when the relativizer functions as an object in the RC. In this example, the underlying clause is ‘he thought he could threaten friends’ in which the antecedent ‘friends’ is the object of the verb ‘threaten.’

⁵⁶ Poon Pid Thong is shortened from the full title ‘Poon Pid Thong: Gold-Pasted Cement.’

- (224) ST: ผม เคย เห็น หน้า ฝึก 2-3
 phǒm kʰə:j hěn nâ: kúk sǎ:ŋ tʰǎŋ sǎ:m
 I used to see face cook two to three
 ครั้ง เมื่อ เดิน เข้า ไป ใน ห้องน้ำ
 kʰráŋ mû:a dɔ:n kʰâw paj naj **hŋ nám**
 time when walk enter go in toilet
 ที่ อยู่ ใกล้ ครวั
 tʰî: jù: klâj kʰru:a
 REL locate near kitchen

‘I used to see the cook’s face a few times when I walked to the toilet which was near the kitchen.’

- TT: I’ve seen the cook a couple of times when I went to **the toilet, which is near the kitchen.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 31, 25)

Example 224 employed the literal translation strategy with the head noun and the TRC literally translated into English. The relativizer ‘/tʰî:/’ was translated into the relativizer ‘which.’

- (225) ST: บาลี ขับ รถ อ้อม ไป ตาม ถนน
 ba:li: kʰàp rôt ʔô:m paj ta:m tʰaʔnǒn
 Balee drive car detour go follow road
 อีก สาย หนึ่ง ซึ่ง ไม่ ปิดกั้น
 ʔi:k sǎ:j nùŋ sûŋ mǎj pít kân

another line one REL NEG block

‘Balee took a detour along another road that was not blocked.’

TT: Balee drove towards **a road that was not blocked.**

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 61, 63)

The sentence pair in (225) is another example of literal translation of a TRC into English. That is, the head noun phrase ‘ถนนอีกสายหนึ่ง’ /tʰaʔnǒn ʔi:k sǎ:j nùŋ/ (‘another road’) in the Thai ST was translated into the head noun phrase ‘a road.’ The TRC ‘ซึ่งไม่ปิดกั้น’ /sûŋ mâj pìt kân/ (‘that was not blocked’) was translated into the ERC ‘that was not blocked.’ The English relativizer ‘that’ was the translation of the Thai relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’.

According to the findings on Literal Translation, two points to be discussed include 1) the use of English relativizers and their animacy concord, 2) the use of articles and other determiners in the English translations.

With respect to the use of English relativizers, Table 44 shows that the relativizer ‘who’ was the most common English relativizer used in TRC translation into English. It accounted for 50.79% of the occurrences, followed by the relativizer ‘that’ (23.81%) and the relativizer ‘which’ (22.22%). The least frequently used relativizer in Thai-English translation was ‘whom’ (3.18%). The high frequency of the relativizer ‘who’ was in line with the corpus findings in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999). The corpus findings indicate that ‘who’ is “relatively common in fiction” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 611). The low frequency of the relativizer ‘whom’ also corresponded with the corpus findings, which indicate that the relativizer ‘whom’ is substantially less common when compared to the other three more common relativizers, i.e. ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ (Biber et al., 1999, p. 609). Another characteristic of ERCs is the animacy concord. The data on Literal Translation revealed four English relativizers found as the translation of Thai relativizers. Thus, it became noticeable that the English relativizers ‘who’ in (222),

‘whom’ in (223), and ‘which’ in (224) were the translation of the same relativizer ‘/tʰɨː/.’ This underlines the systematic use of English relativizers in terms of the animacy concord with antecedents. The second point is the use of articles and other determiners such as possessives and quantifiers in the English translations. Since Thai does not have these elements but they are obligatory in English, the translators need to add proper determiners to head nouns when translating TRCs into English.

The findings of the literal translation strategy used to translate TRCs into English corresponded with other previous studies relating to RC translation into English (e.g. Dwijati et al., 2016; Nau, 2011). Such studies reveal that among various RC translation strategies found in their data, literal translation would be one of those strategies.

In conclusion, the literal translation strategy is relatively common in TRC translation into English. The most frequently used relativizer is ‘who,’ followed by ‘that’ and ‘which.’ The translation choice of English relativizers concerns the animacy of the head noun. In addition, appropriate determiners are necessary to produce grammatical English translations.

5.1.2 Antecedent Adjustment

The findings showed that, among the four types of translation strategy, Antecedent Adjustment was the least used strategy in translating TRCs into English. Only 11 occurrences, or 3.01%, were found. Antecedent Adjustment adjusts only the head noun or the head noun phrase; TRCs are translated into ERCs with the literal translation strategy. With less degree of change, this strategy locates next to literal translation on the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4).

The analysis of the sentence pairs which employed Antecedent Adjustment showed that there were some adjustment patterns on the head nouns, namely altered head nouns, omissions, and additions to the head noun. The examples are presented below.

- (226) ST: เขา จะ ต้อง พบ ผู้หญิง ที่ เข้าใจ
- kʰăw càʔ tɔŋ pʰóp pʰû: jǐŋ tʰi: kʰâw caj
- he CM must meet woman REL understand
- เขา เพียงพอ และ ไม่ มองดู เขา
- kʰăw pʰi:an pʰɔ: léʔ mâj mɔ:ŋ du: kʰăw
- him enough and NEG look him
- แค่ บ้าน ราคา แปด ล้าน บาท หรือ ธุรกิจ
- kʰê: bâ:n ra:kʰa: pè:t lá:n bà:t rǔ: tʰúʔraʔkit
- only house price eight million baht or business
- อื่น ที่ เขา มี
- ʔù:n tʰi: kʰăw mi:
- other REL he have

‘He would need to meet a woman who understands him enough and is not interested in him only because of his eight-million-baht house or other businesses that he has.’

- TT: He would need to find **someone who** could understand him well and see beyond his eight-million-baht house and his businesses.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 27, 26)

Since (226) adopted Antecedent Adjustment, the TRC was literally translated into an ERC, and only the head noun received adjustment. This sentence pair exemplifies altered head nouns. To illustrate, the ST head nouns are translated into other words which still relate to the original head nouns. In (226), the head noun ‘ผู้หญิง’ /pʰû: jǐŋ/ (‘woman’) was translated into the pronoun ‘someone.’ The adjustment here could be due to the translator’s translation choice.

- (227) ST: บางที ผม อาจ เป็น เด็ก ใน นิทาน
- ba:ŋ tʰi: pʰǒm ʔà:t pen **dèk naj nítʰa:n**
 perhaps I may be child in story
- เรื่อง นี้ ที่ เฝ้ารอคอย ความสุข บอบบาง
- rû:aŋ ní: tʰí: fâw rɔ: kʰɔ:j kwa:m sùk bɔ:pba:ŋ**
 CLF this REL wait happiness flimsy
- ที่ ลวงตา อยู่ ทุก ค่ำคืน
- tʰí: lu:aŋ ta: jù: tʰúk kʰâm kʰu:n**
 REL illusory ASP every night
- ‘Perhaps I may be the child in this story who is waiting for flimsy happiness that is illusory every night.’
- TT: Perhaps I am **the son in the story, who keeps looking forward to a flimsy and illusory happiness night after night.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 30, 24)

The sentence pair in (227) is another example of an altered head noun. The ST head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) in the head noun phrase ‘เด็กในนิทานเรื่องนี้’ /dèk naj nítʰa:n rû:aŋ ní:/ (‘child in this story’) was translated into the head noun ‘son’ in the English translation. To explain this translation choice requires the context of the story. The excerpt from the Thai ST and its translation is provided in (228).

(228) ST:	ผม	นึกถึง	นิทาน	ที่	พ่อ	เล่า	
	p ^h öm	núk t ^h ũŋ	nít ^h a:n	t ^h í:	p ^h ô:	lâw	
	I	think of	tale	REL	Dad	tell	
	ให้	ฟัง	สมัย	ที่	ยัง	เป็น	เด็ก
	hâj	faŋ	sa?mäj	t ^h í:	jaŋ	pen	dèk
	CAUS	listen	time	REL	ADV ⁵⁷	COP	child
	นิทาน	เรื่องราว	ของ	ครอบครัว	พ่อ		
	nít ^h a:n	rû: aŋ ra:w	k ^h ǎ:ŋ	k ^h rô:p	k ^h ru:a	p ^h ô:	
	tale	story	of	family	father		
	แม่	ลูก	ที่	ยากจน	กระทั่ง	ลูก	
	mê:	lû:k	t ^h í:	jâ:k	con	kra?t ^h âŋ	lû:k
	mother	child	REL	poor		until	child
	ไม่	เคย	รู้	รส	ของ	ขนมหวาน	
	mâj	k ^h ə:j	rú:	rót	k ^h ǎ:ŋ	k ^h a?nôm wă:n	
	NEG	ever	know	taste	of	sweets	

‘I thought of a tale which Dad told me when I was a child, the tale of the story of a family: a father, mother, child, which was so poor that the child never knew the taste of sweets.’

TT: I think of a tale Dad told me when I was still a child: the tale of a father, mother and *son* so poor that the son doesn’t know what sweets taste like.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 30, 24)

⁵⁷ ADV refers to ‘adverb.’

The head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) in (227) refers to the son of this family in (228). The Thai ST used the words ‘พ่อ แม่ ลูก’ /pʰô: mê: lû:k/ (‘father, mother, child’) and the translators translated these as ‘father, mother and son.’ That is, the translator decided to pinpoint the gender of the ‘child.’ Consequently, the ST head noun ‘เด็ก’ /dèk/ (‘child’) was rendered into the ‘son’ in the English translation.

(229) ST:	อา	เปิด	ประตู	ห้องนอน	ห้อง	หนึ่ง	
	ʔa:	pʰò:t	praʔtu:	hʰŏŋ nɔ:n	hʰŏŋ	nùŋ	
	aunt	open	door	bedroom	CLF	one	
	ซึ่ง	เป็น	ห้อง	ที่	มี	ลม	ผ่าน
	sûŋ	pen	hʰŏŋ	tʰi:	mi:	lom	pʰà:n kru: kri:aw
	REL	COP	room	REL	have	wind	pass well

‘The aunt opened the door to one of the bedrooms which was the room which was very well ventilated.’

TT: His aunt opened the door to **one of the rooms which was very well ventilated.**

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 49, 49)

Example 229 illustrates the adjusted head noun by omissions. That is, the head noun ‘ห้อง’ /hʰŏŋ/ (‘room’) is a repetition of the preceding noun phrase ‘ห้องนอนห้องหนึ่ง’ /hʰŏŋ nɔ:n hʰŏŋ nùŋ/ (‘one of the bedrooms’). Thus, the translation chose the first noun phrase and omitted the second. This resulted in the noun phrase ‘one of the rooms which was very well ventilated’ instead of the literally translated noun phrase ‘one of the rooms which was the room which was very well ventilated.’

(230) ST:	ฝ่าย	พ่อ	เป็น	ผู้	ลบล้าง	บรรยากาศ
	fà:j	pʰô:	pen	pʰû:	lóp lá:ŋ	banja:kà:t
	side	father	COP	person	ease	atmosphere
	ที่	เริ่ม	จะ	‘รุนแรง’		
	<u>thî:</u>	<u>rô:m</u>	<u>cà?</u>	<u>runre:ŋ</u>		
	REL	start	CM	tense		

‘The father was the one to ease the atmosphere that started to become tense.’

TT: The father broke in to ease **an unpleasant atmosphere** that was likely to get tenser.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 28, 27)

The last example of Antecedent Adjustment is the sentence pair with an addition to the head noun. Example 230 contains the head noun ‘บรรยากาศ’ /banja:kà:t/ (‘atmosphere’), which was translated into ‘atmosphere’ in English. However, the translator also inserted the adjective ‘unpleasant’ to modify the ‘atmosphere’ to clearer convey the message of the ST.

To conclude, although Antecedent Adjustment was employed for merely 3.01%, the data which adopted this strategy presented some translation patterns of adjusted head nouns. The adjustments found were, for example, altered head nouns, omissions of the head noun, and additions to the head noun. Moreover, the findings of Antecedent Adjustment in Thai-English translation suggested that contexts influenced translation.

5.1.3 RC Adjustment

This strategy ranked as the first most used strategy among the four types of translation strategy, accounting for 55.74%. Compared with the three adjustment strategies, RC Adjustment constituted 67.33% of the occurrences. This strategy makes structural changes to the RCs whereas the head nouns remain literally translated. The translation of TRCs under RC Adjustment could be further analyzed based on the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment, which was adapted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies (see Figure 3 and Table 23). This yields the sub-strategies used in translating TRCs into English.

Table 45 shows the sub-strategies in RC Adjustment for Thai-English translation. The coding of '[F]' identifies word classes or structures that constitute Couplet, i.e. the combination of any two strategies.

Table 45. RC Adjustment's translation adjustment strategies used in translating TRCs into English

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift			
1. Word			
a. Adjective	39		[F] 4
b. Adverb	1		- -
c. Determiner	2		[F] 1
d. Noun	4		- -
e. Verb	1		- -
<u>Total</u>	<u>47</u>		<u>5</u>
2. Phrase			
a. Adverb phrase	1		[F] 1
b. Adjective phrase	13		[F] 2
c. Noun phrase	6		[F] 2
e. Prepositional phrase	19		[F] 10
f. Verb phrase	9		[F] 1
<u>Total</u>	<u>48</u>		<u>16</u>
3. Sentence	<u>3</u>		- -
Subtotal	98	48.04	21

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G6: Clause structure change			
1. Whose	7		-
2. Others	3		[F] 1
Subtotal	10	4.90	1
G7: Sentence structure change			
1. Adverbial clause	<u>1</u>		-
2. Bare RC	<u>20</u>		-
3. Infinitive clause	<u>10</u>		-
4. Reduced RC			
a. Past participle	16		[F] 1
b. Present participle	17		-
<u>Total</u>	<u>33</u>		
Subtotal	64	31.37	1
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	[F] 15
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	[F] 9
Couplet	32	15.69	
Additions	-	-	[F] 1
Subtractions	-	-	[F] 14
Alterations	-	-	[F] 2
<u>Total</u>	<u>204</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>64</u>

Table 45 presents the sub-strategies used in RC Adjustment. It was found that in translating TRCs into English, three syntactic strategies from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies were employed as a sole strategy, namely G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, and G7: Sentence structure change. Additionally, Couplet was also used. There were eight strategies which were found as part of the couplet strategy; these included G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations.

The findings revealed that the most common strategy was G4: Unit shift, accounting for 48.04%, followed by G7: Sentence structure change (31.37%). The third most used strategy was Couplet (15.69%). G6: Clause structure change was also found to be used in RC Adjustment, but it was less frequent with 4.90% of occurrences.

According to Table 45, it is to be noted that, either as a single strategy or as a couplet, some structures were found only in one occurrence (e.g. an adverbial clause in G7: Sentence structure change) or a few occurrences (e.g. determiners in G4: Unit shift). Although those occurrences might not be generalizable, they represented the actual usage of words or structures, which were utilized in the TRC translation into English.

The following present each sub-strategy as presented in Table 45. Examples are provided for clarification.

- **G4: Unit shift**

Table 46. G4: Unit shift (Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift			
1. Word			
a. Adjective	39		[F] 4
b. Adverb	1		- -
c. Determiner	2		[F] 1
d. Noun	4		- -
e. Verb	1		- -
<u>Total</u>	<u>47</u>		<u>5</u>
2. Phrase			
a. Adverb phrase	1		[F] 1
b. Adjective phrase	13		[F] 2
c. Noun phrase	6		[F] 2
e. Prepositional phrase	19		[F] 10
f. Verb phrase	9		[F] 1
<u>Total</u>	<u>48</u>		<u>16</u>
3. Sentence	<u>3</u>		- -
Subtotal	98	48.04	21

G4: Unit shift is the first most used strategy in RC Adjustment. It concerns the changes between the ST unit and the TT unit. Accounting for 48.04%, or 98 occurrences, this strategy can be divided into three units, i.e. word, phrase, and sentence units. Most occurrences adopted the phrase unit and the word unit. Regarding the [F] coding which indicates the occurrences of Couplet, the word unit and the phrase unit constituted the couplet strategies. However, the sentence unit was not found as part of Couplet. The combination of strategies will be examined in detail in the section on Couplet. In relation to the words or structures with low frequency (e.g. an adverb and a verb in the word unit, and an adverb phrase in the phrase unit), it is worth mentioning that they exemplified the actual occurrences found in the RC translation.

1. Word unit

The word unit was adopted in 47 out of 98 occurrences. In this G4: Unit shift, the TRCs, which are the clause unit, were translated into the word unit. There were five word classes found in the study, namely adjectives, adverbs, determiners, nouns, and verbs. The most common word class was adjectives, which were used in 39 sentences.

a. Adjective

(231) ST:	เสียงแตร	รถยนต์	ที่	คุ้นหู	ปลุก	ผม
	sǐ:əŋ tɾɛ:	rótjon	tʰí:	kʰún hǔ:	plùk	pʰǒm
	honk	car	REL	familiar	wake	me
	จาก	ภวังค์				
	cà:k	pʰaʔwaŋ				
	from	reverie				
	‘The car honk which is familiar wakes me from reverie.’					
TT:	The <u>familiar</u> car honk startles me out of my reverie.					

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 28, 22)

In (231), the clause unit of the TRC ‘ที่คุ้นหู’ /tʰiː kʰún hǔː/ (‘which is familiar’) in the ST was adjusted into the adjective ‘familiar,’ which is the word unit. This adjective ‘familiar’ exemplifies an attributive adjective, which is placed before the modified noun. Almost all occurrences with TRCs translated into adjectives adopted attributive adjectives. Regarding the ST RC, the TRC constituted the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ and verb phrase ‘คุ้นหู’ /kʰún hǔː/ (‘is familiar’).

(232) ST:	พ่อ	นั่งไป	นิดหนึ่ง	อย่างจะ	หา
	pʰóː	nîŋ paj	nit nùŋ	jàːŋ càʔ	hǎː
	Dad	hold out	for a few minutes	as if	find
	คำ	ที่	เหมาะสม		
	kʰam	tʰiː	mòːsǒm		
	word	REL	appropriate		
	‘Dad holds out for a few minutes as if to find the word which is appropriate.’				
TT:	Dad holds out as if in search of the <u>appropriate word</u> .				

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Unlike (231), the TRC in the ST above consists of the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ and the adjective ‘เหมาะสม’ /mòːsǒm/ (‘appropriate’). That is, the noun phrase, which contains the TRC, is ‘คำที่เหมาะสม’ /kʰam tʰiː mòːsǒm/ (‘the word which is appropriate’). According to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2009, p. 91) and Jenks (2014, p. 336), Thai allows adjectives to function as the predicate in a sentence, without requiring a copula. These adjectives are deemed intransitive verbs (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 91; Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 87). In the TT, the ST TRC was adjusted and translated in terms of the unit from the clause unit into the word unit, i.e. from the RC into the adjective ‘appropriate.’

(233) ST:	อย่างน้อย	ก็	หวัง	ว่า	คง	จะ	ต้อง
	jà:ŋ nɔːj	kʰɔː	wǎŋ	wâ:	kʰoŋ	càː	tɔːŋ
	at least	LP	hope	COMP	may	CM	must
	มี	สิ่ง	<u>ที่</u>	<u>ดี</u>	<u>กว่า</u>	รอคอย	เรา
	mi:	sìŋ	<u>thɨ:</u>	<u>di:</u>	<u>kwà:</u>	rɔ: kʰɔːj	raw
	have	thing	REL	good	more	wait	us
	อยู่	ข้างหน้า					
	ju:	kʰâ:ŋ nâ:					
	ASP	ahead					

‘At least, we can hope that there will be something that is better waiting for us ahead.’

TT: At least, we can always hope there’s **something** better waiting for us ahead.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 34, 30)

Apart from attributive adjectives, (233) shows the employment of a postposed adjective⁵⁸. To illustrate, the TRC ‘ที่ดีกว่า’ /thɨ: di: kwà:/ (‘that is better’) was translated into the adjective ‘better,’ modifying the pronoun ‘something.’

(234) ST:	คู่ต่อสู้	เป็น	ทีม	<u>ที่</u>	<u>แข็งแรง</u>	<u>และ</u>	<u>เคย</u>
	kʰû: tò:sû:	pen	thi:m	<u>thɨ:</u>	<u>kʰǎŋ</u>	<u>léː</u>	<u>kʰɔːj</u>
	opponent	COP	team	REL	strong	and	used to

⁵⁸ A postposed adjective is an adjective that follows a head noun phrase and forms a constituent with it (Biber et al., 1999, p. 519).

เข้า ถึง รอบรองชนะเลิศ เมื่อ ปี ที่แล้ว

k^hâw t^hǎŋ rɔːp rɔːŋ c^haʔnáʔ lɔːt mûːa piː t^hîː léːw
 enter to semifinal when year last

‘The opponent is the team which is strong and used to enter the semifinal last year.’

TT: Our opponent is a strong team, which made it to the semifinals last year.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 46, 45)

Example 234 is another example of the unit shift with adjectives. This sentence pair shows that there are cases where a part of TRCs was adjusted and the other part remained literally translated. That is, in (234) only the adjective ‘แข็ง’ /k^hǎŋ/ (‘strong’) was altered into the attributive adjective ‘strong,’ and the remainder of the TRC ‘เคยเข้าถึงรอบรองชนะเลิศเมื่อปีที่แล้ว’ /k^hɔːj k^hâw t^hǎŋ rɔːp rɔːŋ c^haʔnáʔ lɔːt mûːa piː t^hîː léːw/ (‘used to enter the semifinal last year’) was translated with the literal translation strategy into the ERC ‘which made it to the semifinals last year.’

b. Adverb

(235) ST: มี คน จำนวน มาก เลื่อมใส ถึงขนาด

miː k^hon camnuːan mâːk lûːamsǎj t^hǎŋ k^haʔnáːt
 have people number many worship so much that

เสนอ ตัวเขา รับใช้ ศูนย์ ศาสนา

saʔnáː tuːak^hǎw ráp c^háj sǔːn sàːtsaʔnáː
 offer oneself serve center religion

ที่ _____ แผลไป _____ ยัง _____ ประเทศ _____ ต่าง ๆ

tʰí: pʰè: paj jan praʔtê:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ

REL spread to country other

‘There were many people who worshipped so much that they offered themselves to serve the religion centers which spread to other countries.’

TT: A number of them had such strong belief that they offered to work at **Christian centres** worldwide.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 59, 61)

The clause unit of the TRC ‘ที่แผลไปยังประเทศต่าง ๆ’ /tʰí: pʰè: paj jan praʔtê:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ/ (‘which spread to other countries’) was changed into the word unit with the adverb ‘worldwide.’

c. Determiner

(236) ST:	เขา	จะ	ต้อง	พบ	ผู้หญิง	ที่	เข้าใจ
	kʰăw	càʔ	tôŋ	pʰóp	pʰú: jǐŋ	tʰí:	kʰăw caj
	he	CM	must	meet	woman	REL	understand
	เขา	เพียงพอ	และ	ไม่	มองดู	เขา	
	kʰăw	pʰi: aŋ pʰw:	léʔ	mâj	mw:ŋ du:	kʰăw	
	him	enough	and	NEG	look	him	
	แค่	บ้าน	ราคา	แปด	ล้าน	บาท	หรือ
	kʰê:	bâ:n	ra:kʰa: pè:t	lá:n	bà:t	rú:	tʰúʔraʔkìt
	only	house	price	eight	million	baht	or business

อื่น ที่ เขา มี

ʔù:n tʰi: kʰǎw mi:

other REL he have

‘He would need to meet a woman who understands him enough and is not interested in him only because of his eight-million-baht house or other businesses that he has.’

TT: He would need to find someone who could understand him well and see beyond his eight-million-baht house and his businesses.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 27, 26)

Example 236 shows that the TRC ‘ที่เขามี’ /tʰi: kʰǎw mi:/ (‘that he has’) was adjusted into the determiner ‘his’ as a possessive. Therefore, the unit was adjusted from a clause to a determiner.

d. Noun

(237) ST:	เธอ กลายเป็น คน เศร้าซึม	ครุ่นคิด
	tʰə: kla:j pen kʰon sǎw sɯm	kʰrùn kʰít
	she become person despondent	lost in thought
	ราวกับ สูญเสีย วัยเด็ก	ที่
	ra:w kàp sǔ:n sí:a waj dèk	tʰi:
	as if lose childhood	REL
	ว่าเริงแจ่มใส ไป ใน ชั่วคืน	
	râ:rə:ŋ cèmsǎj paj naj cʰû:akʰu:n	
	exuberant ASP in overnight	

‘She became a person who was despondent and lost in thought, as if she lost her childhood which was exuberant overnight.’

TT: She was despondent and often lost in thought, as though she had shed the exuberance of **childhood** overnight.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 36, 32)

In (237), the TRC ‘ที่รำเริงแจ่มใส’ /tʰi: rā:rə:ŋ cəmsǎj/ (‘which was exuberant’) was translated with the noun ‘exuberance.’ The unit was changed from the clause unit of the TRC to the word unit in the English translation.

e. Verb

(238) ST:	เขา	ยืน	งง	อยู่	สักครู่	พลาจ
	kʰǎw	ju:n	ŋoŋ	jù:	sàk krû:	pla:ŋ
	he	stand	confused	ASP	a while	while
	นึกถึง	เสียง	ไซเรน	ที่	ได้ยิน	จึง
	núk tʰǎŋ	sǎ:ŋ	sajre:n	tʰi:	dâj jin	cuŋ
	think of	sound	siren	REL	hear	LINK ⁵⁹
	เข้า	ไป	หมุน	โทรศัพท์	ถาม	ไป
	kʰâw	paj	mũn	tʰo:raʔsàp	tʰǎ:m	paj
	enter	go	dial	phone	ask	ASP
	ศูนย์ดับเพลิง					
	sũ:n	dàp	pʰlɔ:ŋ			
	fire station					

⁵⁹ LINK refers to ‘linker.’

‘He stood with confusion for a while, while thinking of the siren sound which he heard, so he entered (the house) and called the fire station.’

TT: He thought for a while, then remembered hearing the siren and called the fire station.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 66, 68)

Another word class found in the word unit of G4: Unit shift is verbs. The sentence pair in (238) is the only occurrence found to adjust the TRC into a verb in the translation. The TRC ‘ที่ได้ยิน’ /tʰiː dáj jin/ (‘which he heard’), which postmodified the head noun ‘เสียงไซเรน’ /sǐːaŋ saɹeːn/ (‘siren sound’) was rendered into the verb ‘hear’ in the gerund form: ‘hearing.’

2. Phrase unit

The phrase unit was the most frequently used unit. There were 48 sentences, which adopted the phrase unit, from the total of 98 occurrences of G4: Unit shift. The phrase unit was found in five types of phrases, namely the adverb phrase, adjective phrase, noun phrase, prepositional phrase, and verb phrase. Among them, the prepositional phrase was the most common.

a. Adverb phrase

(239) ST:	สองเมือง	ขับ	รถ	อย่างรวดเร็ว	แต่	ก็	
	sǔːŋ muːaŋ	kʰàp	rót	jàːŋ rew	tèː	kôː	
	Songmuang	drive	car	PFX fast	but	LP	
	มา	ติด	การจราจร	อยู่	บน	ถนน	
	maː	tít	kaːn càʔraːcɔn jùː	bon	tʰaʔnǒn		
	come	stuck	traffic	ASP	on	road	

ซึ่ง ใกล้ กับ บริเวณเพลิงไหม้สอง

sûŋ klâj kâp bəʔriʔwe:n pʰlɔːŋ mâj sǎːŋ

REL near with location fire burn two

สาม กิโลเมตร เขา จึง ตัดสินใจ เลี้ยว

sǎ:m kiʔlo:mé:t kʰăw cuŋ tàtsɯn caj lí:aw

three kilometer he LINK decide turn

รถ เข้า ปุ่ม ผาก รถ ไว้ แล้ว

rót kʰăw pám fà:k rót wáj lé:w

car enter petrol station leave car ASP and

เดิน มา เรื่อย ๆ

də:n ma: rû:aj rû:aj

walk come continually

‘Songmuang drove fast but became stuck in the traffic on the road which was near the location of the fire by a few kilometers. He then decided to drive into a petrol station, leave the car and continue on foot.’

TT: Songmuang drove fast. Stuck in the traffic jam on **the road a few kilometers away from the fire**, he decided to drive into a petrol station, leave his car there and continue on foot.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 66, 68)

Example 239 above changed the TRC ‘ซึ่งใกล้กับบริเวณเพลิงไหม้สองสามกิโลเมตร’ /sûŋ klâj kâp bəʔriʔwe:n pʰlɔːŋ mâj sǎːŋ sǎ:m kiʔlo:mé:t/ (‘which was near the location of the fire by a few kilometers’) into the adverb phrase ‘a few kilometers away from the fire.’ Thus, the unit was changed from the clause unit to the phrase unit.

b. Adjective phrase

(240) ST: บาลี ยิ้ม นิด ๆ แต่ เป็น ยิ้ม ที่ ค่อนข้าง

ba:li: jí:m nit nit tè: pen jí:m tʰi: kʰǝnkʰâ:ŋ

Balee smile a little but COP smile REL rather

เจื่อน และ รวดร้าว

cù:an lé? rû:atrá:w

sheepish and painful

‘Balee smiled a little, but it was a smile which looked rather sheepish and painful.’

TT: Balee offered a sheepish and tired smile.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 52, 53)

In (240), the TRC ‘ที่ค่อนข้างเจื่อนและรวดร้าว’ /tʰi: kʰǝnkʰâ:ŋ cù:an lé? rû:atrá:w/ (‘which looked rather sheepish and painful’) was translated into the adjective phrase ‘sheepish and tired,’ which was placed before the modified noun ‘smile.’ This syntactic role of premodifier of a noun is one of the most common roles for adjective phrases (Biber et al., 1999, p. 101).

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(241) ST: ความมืด ไหลลั่ง มา เป็น ริ้ว ๆ เหมือน

kʰwa:m mú:t lâj lǎŋ ma: pen ríw ríw mú:an

darkness follow come COP strips similar

ม่าน ทึบ ที่ คลี่ตัว ปิด ละคร

mâ:n túp tʰi: kʰlí: tu:a pít la?kʰɔ:n

curtain think REL unfold close play

ฉาก หนึ่ง

c^hà:k nùŋ

scene one

‘Darkness follows like strips, similar to a thick curtain which unfolds to end a scene of a play.’

TT: Darkness is unfolding right behind, like **a thick curtain** about to fall at the end of a scene.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 19, 9)

The sentence pair in (241) is another example of a TRC being adjusted into an adjective phrase. However, (241) differs from (240) in that the adjective phrase ‘about to fall at the end of a scene’ comes after the head noun phrase ‘a thick curtain.’

c. Noun phrase

(242) ST: ผม ฮัม ตาม ท่วงทำนอง ที่

p^hǒm ham ta:m t^hû:ŋ t^hamno:ŋ t^hí:

I hum follow melody REL

แผ่ว พลิว นั้น เบาๆ

p^hèw p^hlíw nán baw baw

gently meander that softly

‘I softly hum along that melody which meanders gently.’

TT: Softly I hum along the subtle meanderings of **the melody.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 33, 28)

The TRC ‘ที่แผ่วพลีว’ /tʰí: pʰèw pʰlíw/ (‘which meanders gently’) in (242) was adjusted and translated as the noun phrase ‘the subtle meanderings.’ As a result, the clause unit of the TRC was changed to the phrase unit in the translation.

d. Prepositional phrase

(243) ST: หนึ่ง คว่ำ นาฬิกาทราย ที่วางไว้หัวเตียง

nĭŋ kʰwá: na:liʔka: sa:j tʰí: wa:ŋ wáj hǔ:ati:aŋ

Ning grab sandglass REL place at head of a bed

ขึ้น มา ดู

kʰúm ma: du:

up come look

‘Ning grabs the sandglass which was placed at the head of the head to look at it.’

TT: Ning grabs **the sandglass** at the head of the bed and looks at it.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 41, 39)

The prepositional phrase was the most frequently adopted phrase type in G4: Unit shift. Example 243 illustrates the unit change from the clause unit in the Thai ST to the phrase unit in the English translation, employing the prepositional phrase. The TRC ‘ที่วางไว้หัวเตียง’ /tʰí: wa:ŋ wáj hǔ:a ti:aŋ/ (‘which was placed at the head of the bed’) was translated as the prepositional phrase ‘at the head of the bed,’ indicating the location of the sandglass.

e. Verb phrase

(244) ST:	มี	แต่	แม่	เท่านั้น	ที่	ยังคง			
	mi:	tè:	mê:	thâw nán	thi:	jan k ^h on			
	have	only	Mum	only	REL	still			
	นั่ง	ปักหลัก	อยู่	บน	เก้าอี้ยาว	บน			
	nâŋ	pàk làk	jù:	bon	kâwʔi: ja:w	bon			
	sit	settle	ASP	on	bench	on			
	โรงพัก	โดย	มี	หญิง	นั่ง	หลับ	อยู่		
	ro:ŋ p ^h ák	do:j	mi:	nîŋ	nâŋ	láp	jù:		
	police station	by	have	Ning	sit	sleep	ASP		
	ใกล้ๆ								
	klâj klâj								
	nearby								

‘There is only Mum who still keeps sitting on the bench in the police station, having Ning sits, asleep, nearby.’

TT: Only **Mum** keeps sitting on the bench, with Ning asleep against her.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 50, 50)

Another phrase type found in the data is the verb phrase. In spite of a slight omission of the prepositional phrase ‘บนโรงพัก’ /bon ro:ŋ p^hák/ (‘in the police station’), the TRC was translated into the verb phrase ‘keeps sitting on the bench,’ which was the predicate of the subject ‘Mum,’ the ST head noun.

3. Sentence unit

Another unit under G4: Unit shift is the sentence unit. Only three occurrences were found. Nevertheless, the presence of this unit suggests possible translations to the TRC translation into English.

(245) ST: ผม แตะ บ่า เอกรงค์ ที่ นั่ง ซึ่ม
 p^hǒm tèʔ bà: ʔè:kkaʔroŋ tʰí: nân sum
 I tap shoulder Eikkarong REL sit drowsily

อยู่ คนเดียว

jù: k^hon di:aw

ASP alone

I tap the shoulder of Eikkarong who sits drowsily alone.

TT: I tap **Eikkarong** on the shoulder. He sits drowsily on his own.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 53, 52)

In (245), the TRC ‘ที่นั่งซึ่มอยู่คนเดียว’ /tʰí: nân sum jù: k^hon di:aw/ (‘who sits drowsily alone’) postmodified the head noun ‘เอกรงค์’ /ʔè:kkaʔroŋ/ (‘Eikkarong’). In the English translation, the TRC was adjusted and translated as the new sentence ‘He sits drowsily on his own.’ Thus, the unit was changed from the clause unit in the ST to the sentence unit in the TT.

- **G6: Clause structure change**

Table 47. G6: Clause structure change (Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G6: Clause structure change			
1. Whose	7		-
2. Others	3		[F] 1
Subtotal	10	4.90	1

G6: Clause structure change concerns the clause structure with respect to “its constituent phrases” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 96). The strategy also includes, for example, active and passive voices, and finite and non-finite structures. Since G6: Clause structure change relates directly to the internal clause structure, this study considered the translations which retained the RC structure as employing G6: Clause structure change. In other words, they were the translations which contained the RC structure with adjustment within the RC. The adjustment found in this Thai-English translation can be divided into two main groups. First, the adjustment contained the relative determiner ‘whose,’ which was found in seven occurrences. Second, the adjustment in the category ‘Others’ in Table 47 contained other relative words with other elements. To illustrate, the three occurrences, which were analyzed as employing G6: Clause structure change, contained the expressions: ‘many of whom,’ ‘on which,’ and ‘to whom,’ respectively. The following examples are sentence pairs with G6: Clause structure change.

1. Whose

(246) ST:	ใน	ชั้นโหม่ง	พละ	หลังจาก
	naj	ch ^h û:a mo:ŋ	p ^h aʔraʔ	lǎŋ cà:k
	in	class	physical education	after

กายบริหาร	กัน	จน	เหงื่อ	ออก	แล้ว		
ka:j bəʔriʔhǎ:n	kan	con	ŋù:a	ʔə:k	lé:w		
exercise	REC	until	sweat	out	ASP		
ครู	บุคร	จะ	ให้	พวกเรา	ล้อมวง		
kʰru:	bùt	càʔ	hâj	pʰù:ak raw	ló:m wəŋ		
teacher	But	CM	CAUS	we	form a circle		
กัน	โดย	มี	แก	ยืน	อยู่	ตรง	กลาง
kan	do:j	mi:	ke:	ju:n	jù:	troŋ	kla:ŋ
REC	by	have	he	stand	ASP	at	center
แล้ว	ลงมือ	เล่า	นิทาน	ที่	ชื่อ	เจ้า	สอน
lé:w	loŋmu:	lâw	nítʰa:n	thí:	cʰú:	câw	sǎn
and	start	tell	tale	REL	name	Son	
ซึ่ง	มี	เป่า	วิเศษ	เป็น	อาวุธ		
súŋ	mi:	pi:	wíʔsè:t	pen	ʔa:wút		
REL	have	flute	magic	COP	weapon		

‘In the gym class, after we had had warm-up exercises until we worked up a sweat, Master But had us sit in a circle with him in the center and started telling a tale which was called Son who had a magic flute as his weapon.’

TT: During the gym class, after we had had warm-up exercises and had worked up a sweat, Master But would tell us to sit in a circle around him and he would get on with the tale of a boy called **Little Son** whose weapon was a magic flute.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 38, 34)

In (246), the TRC ‘ซึ่งมีปี่วิเศษเป็นอาวุธ’ /sûŋ mi: pì: wí?sè:t pen ?a:wút/ (‘who had a magic flute as his weapon’) modified the head noun ‘เจ้าสน’ /câw sǎn/ (‘Son’). To illustrate, the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ acted as the subject of the TRC, followed by the verb phrase ‘มีปี่วิเศษเป็นอาวุธ’ /mi: pì: wí?sè:t pen ?a:wút/ (‘had a magic flute’). Nonetheless, when translated into English, the clause structure of the ERC differed from that of the TRC. The ERC adopted the determiner ‘whose,’ which was combined with the noun ‘weapon.’ Therefore, in the ERC of the TT, the noun phrase ‘whose weapon’ became the subject of the verb phrase ‘was a magic flute.’

(247) ST: ผม ปลอบ น้อง ที่ หน้า เจ๋อน ไป
 p^hǒm plò:p nǒ:ŋ t^hí: nâ: cù:an paj
 I comfort sister REL face pale ASP
 ‘I comfort my sister whose face has turned pale.’

TT: I comfort **my sister**, whose face has turned pale.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 41, 39)

(247) is another example with the relative determiner ‘whose.’ The ST main clause was the sentence ‘ผมปลอบน้อง’ /p^hǒm plò:p nǒ:ŋ/ (‘I comfort my sister’). The object ‘น้อง’ /nǒ:ŋ/ (‘sister’) was then modified by the TRC ‘ที่หน้าเจ๋อนไป’ /t^hí: nâ: cù:an paj/ (‘whose face has turned pale’). That is, the entire ST sentence could be viewed as the combination of two sentences: ‘ผมปลอบน้อง’ /p^hǒm plò:p nǒ:ŋ/ (‘I comfort my sister’) and ‘น้องหน้าเจ๋อนไป’ /nǒ:ŋ nâ: cù:an paj/ (‘sister (whose) face has turned pale’). Unlike the first sentence with the ‘subject + verb + object’ order, the latter sentence adopted the topic-comment construction. To elaborate, Thai is a topic-prominent language (Li & Thompson, 1976 cited in Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 359). The topic plays a more important role in a sentence than the subject (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 359). The topic-comment construction, which is also known as

the ‘double-subject’ construction, comprises a topic and a clausal comment containing “a subject and a predicate” (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, p. 360). In relation to the sentence ‘น้องหน้าเจี๋นไป’ /nó:ŋ nâ: cù:an paj/ (‘sister (whose) face has turned pale’), the sentence topic is the noun ‘น้อง’ /nó:ŋ/ (‘sister’), followed by the clausal comment ‘หน้าเจี๋นไป’ /nâ: cù:an paj/ (‘face has turned pale’) which consisted of the subject ‘หน้า’ /nâ:/ (‘face’) and the predicate ‘เจี๋นไป’ /cù:an paj/ (‘turned pale’). Therefore, in (237), the TRC containing the topic-comment construction, i.e. ‘ที่หน้าเจี๋นไป’ /tʰi: nâ: cù:an paj/ (‘whose face has turned pale’), modified the head noun ‘น้อง’ /nó:ŋ/ (‘sister’). In the English translation, the clause structure was changed due to the addition of the determiner ‘whose’ before the noun ‘face,’ creating the subject noun phrase ‘whose face.’ The determiner ‘whose’ also signified the connection between the noun ‘face’ and the antecedent ‘sister.’

2. Others

Examples of the sentence pairs that adopted other relative words under G6: Clause structure change are as follows.

(248) ST:	เพราะฉะนั้น	เมื่อ	หล่อน	เข้ามา	ทำงาน	ใน
	próʔ cʰàʔnán	mû:a	lòn	kʰâw ma:	tʰam ɲa:n	naj
	therefore	when	she	enter	work	in
	สมาคม	นี้	และ	ต้อง	พบปะ	คนต่างชาติ
	saʔma:kʰom	ní:	léʔ	tón	pʰóppàʔ	kʰon tà:ŋ cʰâ:t
	association	this	and	must	meet	foreigner
	ซึ่ง	มี	พวกสอนศาสนา	ปะปน	อยู่	
	<u>sûŋ</u>	mi:	pû:ak sǝ:n sà:tsaʔná:	pàʔpon	ju:	
	REL	have	missionaries	mix	ASP	

เป็น จำนวน มาก บาลี จึง คำนึง ต่อ

pen camnu:an mâ:k ba:li: cuŋ k'hún tò:

COP number many Balee so accustom to

การ ค่อย และ ฟัง คน เหล่านี้ เอ่ย ถึง

ka:n k'huj léʔ faŋ k'hon làw ní: ʔə:j t'hǔŋ

PFX speak and listen people these say about

ศาสนา จนกระทั่ง บางคราว หล่อน ก็

sà:tsaʔnǎ: con kraʔt'hǎŋ ba:ŋ k'hra:w lòn k'óʔ

religion until sometimes she LP

สามารถ ผสมผสาน ตนเอง เข้ากับ

sá:mâ:t p'haʔsǒm p'haʔsé: ton ʔe:ŋ k'hâw kàp

can blend oneself with

คริสต์ศาสนา ได้ ดี

k'hít sà:tsaʔnǎ: daj di:

Christianity POT good

'Therefore, when she came to work with this association and had to meet foreigners, many of whom were missionaries, Balee was so accustomed to speaking with and listening to these people talking about their religion that sometimes she could blend in well with Christianity.'

TT: Now that Balee was working with this association, she had to be in contact with **foreigners, many of whom were missionaries**. She therefore was so accustomed to people talking about their religion that she sometimes thought she could blend in well with Christianity.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 60, 62)

In (248), the TRC ‘ซึ่งมีพวกสอนศาสนาปะปนอยู่เป็นจำนวนมาก’ /sûŋ mi: pû:ak sǎ:n sà:tsaʔnǎ: pàʔpon ju: pen camnu:an mâ:k/ (‘many of whom were missionaries’) adopted G6: Clause structure change in the translation into English. The translation was ‘many of whom were missionaries.’ The change of constituents within the clause was the structure of ‘many of whom’ to quantify the missionaries as stated in the ST ‘จำนวนมาก’ /camnu:an mâ:k/ (‘many’). In NRRCs, the structure of ‘of which’ or ‘of whom’ after some determiners such as many, all, each, none, some, can be used “to add information about the whole or a part of a particular number of things or people” (Hewings, 2003, p. 142).

(249) ST:	พรม	เปอร์เซีย	ปูลาด	อยู่	บน	ที่ว่าง
	p ^h rom	pə:si:a	pu: lâ:t	jù:	bon	tʰi: wâ:ŋ
	rug	Persia	lay flat	ASP	on	space
	เล็ก ๆ	ซึ่ง	มี	เบาะ	และ	หมอนอิง
	lék lék	sûŋ	mi: bə:	léʔ	mǎ:n	ʔiŋ
	small	REL	have	mattress	and	cushion
	สำหรับ		นั่งเล่น			
	sǎmràp		nâŋ lén			
	for		rest			

‘The small space was covered with a Persian rug which had a mattress and cushions for resting.’

TT: The floor was covered with an exquisite **Persian rug on which** were a mattress and cushions.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 49, 49)

Another type of clausal adjustment is preposed prepositions. ‘Preposition + which’ can be used in place of the relative adverbs ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘why.’ In (249), ‘on which’ was adopted instead of the relative adverb ‘where.’ This adjustment affected the typical RC structure by preposing a preposition before a relativizer.

(250) ST: “ปีก หัก” ของ คาลิล ยิบราน คือ หนังสือ

p^{hi}:k hək k^hǝ:ŋ k^ha:lin jípra:n k^hw: nəŋsǔ:
wing break of Khalil Gibran COP book

เล่ม นั้น แต่ ป้อม คง ไม่ มี โอกาส

lēm nán tè: póm k^hoŋ māj mi: ʔo:kà:t
CLF that but Porm may NEG have chance

รู้ ว่า ผม ไม่ ได้ อ่าน มัน เลย

rú: wá: p^hom māj dáj ʔà:n man lə:j
know COMPI NEG POT read it PP

แม้แต่ บรรทัด เดียว และ ก็ ได้แต่ หวัง ว่า

mé: tè: bantát di:aw lé? kó? dáj tè: wǎŋ wá:
even line single and LP only hope COMP

คน ที่ รับ หนังสือ “ปีก หัก” ต่อ ไป

k^hon t^hi: ráp nəŋsǔ: p^{hi}:k hək tò: paj
person REL receive book wing break continue ASP

จาก ผม คง จะ ยัง เก็บ รักษา มัน

cà:k p^hom k^hoŋ cà? jaŋ kep ráksǎ: man
from me may CM still keep protect it

เอา ไว้ อย่าง ดี

ʔaw wáj jà:ŋ di:

take ASP PFX good

“Broken wings” by Khalil Gibran was that book, but Porm might not have a chance to know that I did not read even a single line of it, and I only hope that the person who received the book “Broken wings” from me would keep it well.’

TT: The book was Khalil Gibran’s Broken Wings, but Porm probably never got to find out that I didn’t read a single line of it, and I can only hope that **the one to whom I passed it on** has kept it in good condition.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 49, 48)

Example 250 is another occurrence of preposing a preposition before a relativizer. However, this example differs from (249) in the following aspect. The TRC ‘ที่รับหนังสือ “ปีกหัก” ต่อกับฉัน’ /tʰi: ráp nǎŋsǔ: pʰi:k hàk tò: paj cà:k pʰom/ (‘who received the book “Broken wings” from me’) was translated into the clause ‘to whom I passed it.’ The relativizer /tʰi:/ was rendered as the relativizer ‘whom’ because ‘whom’ is the object of the verb ‘pass.’ That is, the underlying sentence is ‘I passed it on to whom.’ The preposition ‘to’ was preposed as a result of the formal style of writing. Therefore, since the clausal structure was adjusted, the translation strategy was categorized as G6: Clause structure change.

- **G7: Sentence structure change**

Table 48. G7: Sentence structure change (Thai- English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G7: Sentence structure change			
1. Adverbial clause	<u>1</u>		- -
2. Bare RC	<u>20</u>		- -
3. Infinitive clause	<u>10</u>		- -
4. Reduced RC			
a. Past participle	16		[F] 1
b. Present participle	17		- -
<u>Total</u>	<u>33</u>		
Subtotal	64	31.37	1

The findings showed that, accounting for 31.37%, G7: Sentence structure change ranked as the second most used strategy in RC Adjustment. This strategy relates to adjustment to the structure of the sentence unit in terms of its clause units. It includes changes between main clauses and sub-clauses, or changes of sub-clause types.

Table 48 illustrates four types of clause that occurred in the TRC translation into English. These include adverbial clauses, bare RCs, infinitive clauses, and reduced RCs. The three most used types of clauses were reduced RCs, bare RCs, and infinitive clauses. All types of clauses found in Table 48 related to the adjustment of the sub-clause types from the RCs in the Thai STs. The following section presents examples of each clause type.

1. Adverbial clause

(251) ST: ผม ไม่ แน่ใจ ว่า ครู เล่า อะไร ให้

p^hǒm mâj nê: caj wâ: k^hru: lâw ?a?raj hâj
 I NEG sure COMP teacher tell what CAUS

ฟัง บ้าง จำ ได้ แต่ ว่า

faj bâ:ŋ cam dâj tɛ̀: wâ:
 listen some remember POT but COMP

มี บาง ตอน ครู ก็ จะ ยืน ขึ้น สี

mi: ba:ŋ to:n k^hru: kǝ? cà? ju:n k^hũm sǐ:
 have some time teacher LP CM stand up play

ไวโอลิน ประกอบ ด้วย ซึ่ง ทำ ให้

waj?o:lin pra?kò:p dũ:aj sũŋ t^ham hâj
 violin accompany too REL make CAUS

ผม คิดถึง ครู พละ ที่ เคย

p^hǒm k^hít t^hũŋ k^hru: p^ha?ra? t^hí: k^hǝ:j
 I think of teacher gym REL used to

สอน สมัย เรียน อยู่ ชั้น ประถม

sǝ:n sa?mǎj ri:an jù: c^hán prà?t^hǒm
 teach period study ASP class primary school

‘I am not sure what the teacher told us. I only remember that sometimes he would stand up and play the violin to accompany the story, which reminded me of the gym teacher who taught me when I was in primary school.’

TT: I don’t quite remember what he was telling us, except that at times he would stand up and play the violin to illustrate a point,

which reminded me of **my gym teacher** when I was in primary school.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 37, 34)

Example 251 was the only occurrence with the TRC being translated into an adverbial clause. That is, the TRC ‘ที่เคยสอนสมัยเรียนอยู่ชั้นประถม’ /tʰiː khəːj sǎːn saʔmäj riːan jùː chǎn ràʔtʰǒm/ (‘who taught me when I was in primary school’) was adjusted to the adverbial clause ‘when I was in primary school.’ Being a single occurrence with an adverbial clause in G7: Sentence structure change, this sentence pair illustrated another clausal structure which could be used in the TRC translation into English.

2. Bare RC

(252) ST:	ผม	ไม่	อาจ	ปฏิเสธ	ตัวเอง	ถึง
	pʰǒm	māj	ʔaːt	paʔtiʔsèːt	tuːaʔeːŋ	tʰǎŋ
	I	NEG	dare	deny	oneself	about
	ความรัก	และ	ความห่วงใย		ที่	แม่
	kʰwaːm rák	léʔ	kʰwaːm hùːaŋjaj		tʰiː	mêː
	love	and	concern		REL	Mum
	มี	ต่อ	ผม	ได้	เลย	
	miː	tòː	pʰǒm	dāj	lɔːj	
	have	for	me	POT	PP	

‘I cannot deny the love and concern which Mum has for me.’

TT: I can’t ignore **the love and concern** Mum has for me.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 51, 50)

A bare RC was the second most typical type of clause that was found in G7: Sentence structure change. Bare RCs resemble the common RC structure, but the relativizer is omitted. In (252), the ST noun phrase ‘ความรักและความห่วงใยที่แม่มีต่อผม’ /k^hwa:m rák lé? k^hwa:m hù:anjaj thî: m^h: mi: tò: p^hǒm/ (‘the love and concern which Mum has for me’) contained the TRC ‘ที่แม่มีต่อผม’ /thî: m^h: mi: tò: p^hǒm/ (‘which Mum has for me’) with the relativizer ‘/thî:./’ In the English translation, the whole noun phrase was rendered as ‘the love and concern Mum has for me.’ That is, the TRC became the bare RC with the covert relativizer ‘which/that’ before the bare RC as in ‘the love and concern (which/that) Mum has for me.’ Thus, the sub-clause type was altered from the typical RC in the ST to the bare RC in the TT.

3. Infinitive clause

- (253) ST: บางที ฉัน เห็น จะ ต้อง หา เพลง
 ba:ŋ thî: chǎn hǎn cà? tǒŋ hǎ: ple:ŋ
 perhaps I see CM must find song
 ที่ มี ความหลัง สำหรับ ตัวเอง บ้าง
 thî: mi: k^hwa:m lǎŋ sǎmràp tu:a?e:ŋ bâ:ŋ
 REL have the past for oneself too
 แล้ว เผื่อ จะ ได้ สီ ไวโอลิน ได้ ดีๆ
 lé:w phù:a cà? daj sǐ: waj?o:lin daj di: di:
 ASP in case CM get play violin POT well
 ‘Perhaps I should find a song which has old memories for myself, so I can play the violin well.’
- TT: Perhaps I should find myself **a song** to stir up some old memories so I can play the violin this well.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 34, 29)

Example 253 illustrates the case where a TRC was rendered as an infinitive clause. The ST head noun ‘เพลง’ /ple:ŋ/ (‘song’) was literally translated into the noun ‘song.’ As for the TRC ‘ที่มีความหลัง’ /tʰi: mi: kʰwa:m lǎŋ/ (which has old memories), it was adjusted and translated into the infinitive clause ‘to stir up some old memories’ in the English translation.

4. Reduced RC

Reduced RCs are the most frequently used type of clause under G7: Sentence structure change. A reduced RC is also known as a participle clause. This type of clause contains either a present participle or a past participle at the beginning of the clause. The findings showed that, in this study, reduced RCs with a past participle and reduced RCs with a present participle were adopted by relatively equal proportions, i.e. 16 and 17 sentence pairs, respectively.

a. Past participle

- (254) ST: สONGเมือง พา หล่อน เดิน เลย เข้าไป
 sǎ:ŋ mu:ŋ pʰa: lǎn dǎ:n lɔ:j kʰǎw paj
 Songmuang take her walk beyond enter
- ใน ห้องอาหาร ซึ่ง เชื่อม กับ ห้องแพนทรี
 naj hǎŋ ʔa:hǎ:n sǔŋ cʰú:am kàp hǎŋ pɛ:ntʰrí:
 in dining room REL connect to pantry
- ‘Songmuang led her into the dining room which was connected to the pantry.’
- TT: He led her into **the dining room** connected to the pantry.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 14, 10)

Example 254 shows the adjustment of a TRC into a reduced RC with a past participle. To illustrate, the TRC ‘ซึ่งเชื่อมกับห้องแพนทรี’ /sûŋ cʰû:am kàp hòŋ pɛ:ntʰrí:/ (‘which was connected to the pantry’) was translated into the reduced RC with a past participle: ‘connected to the pantry.’ Therefore, the possible underlying noun clause of the translation could be ‘the dining room which was connected to the pantry.’

b. Present participle

- (255) ST: เสียง เพลง “เวลา ใน ขวด แก้ว” ของ จิม โครซี่
 si:aŋ ple:ŋ we:la: naj kʰu:at kʰê:w kʰw:ŋ cim kʰro:si:
 sound song time in bottle glass of Jim Croce
 ที่ กังวาน จาก ตู้เพลง ใน ร้านกาแฟ
 tʰi: kanwa:n ca:k tu: ple:ŋ naj rá:n ka:fɛ:
 REL resound from jukebox in coffee shop
 เล็ก ๆ ริมหาง ตรึง ผม ไว้ กับ ที่
 lek lek rim tʰa:ŋ truŋ pʰom waj kap tʰi:
 small wayside stop me ASP at spot
 ‘The sound of the song “Time in a bottle” by Jim Croce which
 resounds from the jukebox in a small, wayside coffee shop
 stops me in my tracks.’
- TT: **The sound of Jim Croce’s ‘Time in a bottle’ coming out of the jukebox of a small, wayside coffee shop stops me in my tracks.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 16, 6)

While past participles relate to a passive verb, present participles are used with an active verb. In (255), the reduced RC with the present participle ‘coming out of the

jukebox of a small, wayside coffee shop’ is the translation of the TRC ‘ที่กังวานจากตู้เพลงในร้านกาแฟเล็ก ๆ ริมหาด’ /tʰi: kaŋwa:n ca:k tu: ple:ŋ naj rá:n ka:fɛ: lek lek rim tʰa:ŋ truŋ/ (‘which resounds from the jukebox in a small, wayside coffee shop’).

- **Couplet**

Couplet refers to the strategy which merges any two strategies in the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment (Table 23). The data of Thai-English translation suggested that Couplet constituted 15.69% of RC Adjustment. It ranked the third most used strategy, after G4: Unit shift and G7: Sentence structure change. The findings showed that there were nine couplets found, as presented in Table 49.

Table 49. The Couplets used in translating TRCs into English

Couplet	Frequency	Percentage⁶⁰ (%)
1. G4: Unit shift + G4: Unit shift	2	6.25
2. G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change	4	12.50
3. G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase	8	25.00
4. G4: Unit shift + Additions	1	3.13
5. G4: Unit shift + Subtractions	3	9.38
6. G4: Unit shift + Alterations	1	3.13
7. G6: Clause structure change + Alterations	1	3.13
8. G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase	1	3.13
9. S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions	11	34.38
<u>Total</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>100</u>

The nine couplets in Table 49 were constituted from eight strategies, i.e. G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. The most typical

⁶⁰ Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding.

Couplet found was ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions,’ accounting for 34.38% of the occurrences. The second and third most used Couplets were ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ (25.00%), and ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ (12.50%). It should be noted that some couplets were found in one occurrence or a few occurrences. Categorizing into detailed couplets was carried out with the intention to clarify each combination of strategies rather than to generalize the couplets. The section below gives examples to all couplets in Table 49.

1. G4: Unit shift + G4: Unit shift

This couplet is unlike other couplet in that it is the combination of the same strategy, i.e. G4: Unit shift. This strategy changes the unit between the ST and the TT. In this couplet, TRCs are translated with two G4: Unit shift strategies. The sentence pair in (256) illustrates this point.

(256)	ST:	ไม่	มี	เสียงหัวเราะ	เต็ม	เสียง	ไม่	มี
		mâj	mi:	sǐ:əŋ hǔ:aróʔ	tem	sǐ:əŋ	mâj	mi:
		NEG	have	laughter	full	sound	NEG	have
		แหวตา	ที่	ข้างฝัน	และ	กระตือรือร้น		
		wɛ:w ta:	tʰi:	chʰâ:ŋ fǎn	léʔ	kraʔtuw:ruw:rón		
		eye expression	REL	dreamy	and	enthusiastic		
		ต่อ	สิ่งรอบข้าง	ไม่	มี	ท่าทาง	กระโดดโลดเต้น	
		tò:	sìŋ rɔ:p kʰâ:ŋ	mâj	mi:	tʰâ:tʰa:ŋ	kraʔdò:tlò:ttén	
		about	surroundings	NEG	have	expression	jumping	
		อย่าง	สนุกสนาน	เบิกบาน	หลงเหลือ	อยู่		
		jà:ŋ	saʔnùk saʔnǎ:n	bò:k ba:n	lǒŋ lǔ:a	ju:		

PFX	fun		joyful	remain	ASP
ใน	ตัว	เธอ	อีก	ต่อไป	
naj	tu:a	thə:	ʔi:k	tò: paj	
in	body	her	more	next	

‘There was no full burst of laughter, no expression in her eyes which was dreamy and enthusiastic about her surroundings, no jumping joyfully, left in her any longer.

TT: There was no spontaneous burst of laughter, no dreamy expression in her eyes, no enthusiasm for everything around her, no jumping up and down in glee from her any longer.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 36, 32)

Example 256 shows that the head noun ‘แววตา’ /we:w ta:/ (‘expression in (her) eyes’) was literally translated into the head noun phrase ‘expression in her eyes.’ As for the TRC ‘ที่ช่างฝันและกระตือรือร้นต่อสิ่งรอบข้าง’ /thî: c^hâ:ŋ făn léʔ kraʔtu:ru:rón tò: sîŋ rô:p k^hâ:ŋ/ (‘which was dreamy and enthusiastic about her surroundings’) was adjusted into two parts. First, the verb phrase ‘ช่างฝัน’ /c^hâ:ŋ făn/ (‘dreamy’) was translated into the adjective ‘dreamy.’ This is the change of unit from the clause unit in the ST to the word unit in the TT. The remainder of the TRC is the verb phrase ‘กระตือรือร้นต่อสิ่งรอบข้าง’ /kraʔtu:ru:rón tò: sîŋ rô:p k^hâ:ŋ/ (‘enthusiastic about her surroundings’), which was connected to the preceding verb phrase ‘ช่างฝัน’ /c^hâ:ŋ făn/ (‘dreamy’) with the conjunction ‘และ’ /léʔ/ (‘and’). The verb phrase ‘กระตือรือร้นต่อสิ่งรอบข้าง’ /kraʔtu:ru:rón tò: sîŋ rô:p k^hâ:ŋ/ (‘enthusiastic about her surroundings’) was translated into English as the noun phrase ‘no enthusiasm for everything around her.’ Therefore, another unit change is from the clause unit of the TRC to the phrase unit in the translation.

2. G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change

This couplet was the third most used couplet, constituting 12.50% of the couplet occurrences. It combines G4: Unit shift and S7: Emphasis change; thus, the translation strategy concerns the adjustment in unit and emphasis.

(257) ST:	ท้าย	ที่สุด	ไม่	ทันใจ	เขา	ถึงกับ	ออก
	tʰá:j	tʰí: sùt māj	tʰan caj	kʰǎw	tʰǔŋ kàp	ò:k	
	end	most	NEG	enough	he	so	start
	วิ่ง	ปะปน	ไป	กับ	ฝูงคน	ซึ่ง	ดู
	wiŋ	pà? pon	paj	kàp	fũ:ŋ kʰon	sũŋ	du:
	run	mix	go	with	crowd	REL	look
	อลหม่าน	เหมือน	กลุ่ม	ฝุ่น	ที่	ถูก	พายุ
	ʔonlaʔmà:n	mũ:an klùm	fùn	tʰí:	tʰù:k	pʰa:jú? pʰát	
	Chaotic	like	cloud	dust	REL	PASS	storm blow
	‘In the end, it was not fast enough, so he started running with the crowd that seemed chaotic like a cloud of dust which was blown by storms.						
TT:	That was not fast enough, so he ran with the crowd that seemed to be in commotion like dust <u>in a violent storm</u> .						

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 55, 56)

Example 257 demonstrates that the TRC ‘ที่ถูกพายุพัด’ /tʰí: tʰù:k pʰa:jú? pʰát/ (‘which was blown by storms’) was translated with the couplet strategy ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change.’ That is, the TRC was translated into the prepositional phrase ‘in a violent storm.’ In addition, the addition of the adjective ‘violent’ intensified the noun ‘storm.’ This added the emphasis to the English translation.

3. G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase

This third couplet ranked as the second most used couplet. It combines G4: Unit shift and S8: Paraphrase. With paraphrasing, the content can be loosely adjusted with the objective to convey the core meaning of the texts.

(258) ST:	บา	จึง	คิด	ว่า	ตัวเอง	เข้าใจ
	ba:	cunɯŋ	kʰít	wâ:	tu:aʔe:ŋ	kʰâw caj
	Ba	so	think	COMP	oneself	understand
	ความรู้สึก	ของ	แม่	ที่	รัก	ลูก จริง ๆ
	kwa:m rú:sùk	kʰǔ:ŋ	mê:	tʰi:	rák	lû:k ciŋ ciŋ
	feeling	of	mother	REL	love	child true
	เพียงพอ	เลย	ค่ะ			
	pʰi:aŋ pʰɔ:	lɔ:j	kʰàʔ			
	enough	PP	SLP			
	‘So, I think that I understand the feeling of a mother who truly loves her child.’					
TT:	So I think I can identify <u>the real love that a mother has for her child.</u> ”					

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 55, 56)

The example above shows the combination of the two strategies, i.e. G4: Unit shift and S8: Paraphrase. Together with the preceding noun phrase ‘ความรู้สึกของแม่’ /kwa:m rú:sùk kʰǔ:ŋ mê:/ (‘the feeling of a mother’), the TRC ‘ที่รักลูกจริง ๆ’ /tʰi: rák lû:k ciŋ ciŋ/ (‘who truly loves her child’) was paraphrased and translated into the noun phrase ‘the real love that a mother has for her child.’ With respect to G4: Unit shift, the clause unit of the TRC was altered to the phrase unit in the translation. As for S8: Paraphrase, the English translation was rendered through paraphrasing the original

text. The core adjustment lay in the change of the verb ‘รัก’ /rāk/ (‘love’) in the TRC to the noun ‘love’ in the translation.

4. G4: Unit shift + Additions

This couplet integrates G4: Unit shift with Additions. Thus, the TRC translation is adjusted in terms of units, and there is an addition to the RC translation.

(259) ST:	ใน	ชั่วโมง	พละ		หลังจาก			
	naj	c ^h u:a mo:ŋ	p ^h a?ra?		lǎŋ cà:k			
	in	class	physical education		after			
	กายบริหาร		กัน	จน	เหงื่อ	ออก	แล้ว	
	ka:j bo?ri?hǎ:n		kan	con	ŋu:a	?ò:k	lé:w	
	exercise		REC	until	sweat	out	ASP	
	ครู	บุตรี	จะ	ให้	พวกเรา		ล้อมวง	
	k ^h ru:	bùt	cà?	hǎj	p ^h u:ak raw		ló:m woŋ	
	teacher	But	CM	CAUS	we		form a circle	
	กัน	โดย	มี	แก่	ยืน	อยู่	ตรง	กลาง
	kan	do:j	mi:	kɛ:	ju:n	jù:	troŋ	kla:ŋ
	REC	by	have	he	stand	ASP	at	center
	แล้ว	ลงมือ		เล่า	นิทาน	ที่	ชื่อ	เจ้าสอน
	lé:w	loŋmu:		lâw	nít ^h a:n t ^h í:	c ^h u:	câw sǎn	
	and	start		tell	tale	REL	name	Son
	ซึ่ง	มี	ปี	พิเศษ		เป็น	อาวุธ	
	súŋ	mi:	pi:	wí?sè:t	pen	?a:wút		

REL have flute magic COP weapon

‘In the gym class, after we had had warm-up exercises until we worked up a sweat, Master But had us sit in a circle with him in the center and started telling a tale which was called Son who had a magic flute as his weapon.’

TT: During the gym class, after we had had warm-up exercises and had worked up a sweat, Master But would tell us to sit in a circle around him and he would get on with **the tale of a boy called Little Son whose weapon was a magic flute.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 38, 34)

The ST head noun in (259) is ‘นิทาน’ /nítʰa:n/ (‘tale’) which was translated with the literal translation strategy into the noun ‘tale.’ In the Thai ST, the TRC ‘ที่ชื่อเจ้าสน ซึ่งมีปีวิเศษเป็นอาวุธ’ /tʰí: cʰû: cáw sǎn sǔn mi: pì: wíʔsè:t pen ʔa:wút/ (‘which was call Son who had a magic flute as his weapon’) modified the head noun ‘นิทาน’ /nítʰa:n/ (‘tale’), stating that the title of the tale was ‘เจ้าสน’ /sǎn sǔn/ (‘Son’). In the English translation, the TRC was translated into the prepositional phrase ‘of a boy called Little Son whose weapon was a magic flute.’ This shows the change of unit from the clause unit in the ST to the phrase unit in the translation. Moreover, there was the addition of this prepositional phrase ‘of a boy’ which was placed before the participle clause ‘called Little Son whose weapon was a magic flute.’ This added prepositional phrase changed the meaning of the text. To illustrate, while the proper noun ‘เจ้าสน’ /sǎn sǔn/ (‘Son’) – the name of a boy character – was the name of the tale in the ST, ‘เจ้าสน’ /sǎn sǔn/ (‘Son’) or ‘Little Son’ was the name of a ‘boy’ in the TT. The addition of the prepositional phrase ‘of a boy’ can be analyzed in relation to Nida’s (1964) “Amplification from implicit to explicit status.” Since ‘Little Son’ could be misinterpreted to ‘a young son,’ adding the prepositional phrase ‘of a boy’ helped clarify that ‘Little Son’ was the name of the boy in the tale.

5. G4: Unit shift + Subtractions

The fifth couplet also employs G4: Unit shift, but this couplet pairs it with Subtractions. Subtraction is one of the three additional strategies based on Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. It is a strategy that deletes or omits words, expressions, or some contents of the texts, as a result of repetitions or referents which do not exist in SLs. It is to be noted that, subtractions are carried out with the purpose that translation achieves naturalness, and core messages of the STs must be retained.

(260) ST:	อา	นิ่ง	นึก	ขณะ	บิด	ลูกบิดประตู	
	ʔa:	nin̩	núk	kʰaʔnàʔ	bít	lú:kbit praʔtu:	
	aunt	still	reflect	while	turn	doorknob	
	ห้อง	เล็ก ๆ	ห้อง	หนึ่ง	ซึ่ง	อยู่	ด้านหลัง
	ห้อง	เล็ก	ห้อง	หนึ่ง	ซึ่ง	อยู่	ด้านหลัง
	h̄w̄ŋ	lék lék	h̄w̄ŋ	n̄w̄ŋ	s̄w̄ŋ	jù:	d̄a:n lǎŋ
	room	small	CLF	one	REL	locate	back
	ติด		กับ	ดาดฟ้า		กว้าง	
	<u>t̄it</u>	<u>k̄àp</u>	<u>d̄a:t fá:</u>	<u>kw̄a:ŋ</u>			
	adjacent	to	deck	spacious			

‘The aunt reflected while turning the doorknob of the small room which was at the back and adjacent to a spacious deck.’

TT: The aunt was silent, looking pensive as she turned the doorknob to enter **the small room adjacent to a spacious deck.**

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 55, 56)

(260) shows that the TRC ‘ซึ่งอยู่ด้านหลังติดกับดาดฟ้ากว้าง’ /s̄w̄ŋ jù: d̄a:n lǎŋ t̄it k̄àp d̄a:t fá: kw̄a:ŋ/ (‘which was at the back and adjacent to a spacious deck’) was

translated into the adjective phrase ‘adjacent to a spacious deck.’ This is the shift of unit from the clause unit to the phrase unit. As for Subtractions, the verb phrase ‘อยู่ด้านหลัง’ /jù: dâ:n lǎŋ/ (‘was at the back’) was omitted in the translation. A plausible explanation is that the translator might deem this phrase trivial and subtracting it would not affect the core meaning of the text in respect of the location of the room.

6. G4: Unit shift + Alterations

The sixth Couplet combines G4: Unit shift with Alterations. Based on the additional strategies adapted from Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment strategies, Alteration refers to a rearrangement of words or ideas in the texts.

(261) ST:	บาลี	แลดู	ผม	ขาว	สวย	ที่	ตัด
	ba:li:	le: du:	phǒm	kʰă:w	sǔ:aj	tʰi:	tàt
	Balee	look	hair	white	beautiful	REL	cut
	สั้น	อา	เป็น	คน	ร่างท้วม	ผิว	สะอาด
	sân	ʔa:	pen	kʰon	râ:ŋ tʰú:am	pʰi:w	saʔʔà:j
	short	aunt	COP	person	plump	skin	clean
	นับ	เป็น	หญิง	วัยกลางคน	ที่		
	náp	pen	jǐŋ	waj kla:ŋ kʰon	tʰi:		
	consider	COP	woman	middle-aged	REL		
	เหมาะสม	กับ	ตำแหน่ง	แม่บ้าน	ผู้	ไม่	
	mò:	kàp	tamnè:ŋ	mê: bâ:n	pʰú:	mâj	
	appropriate	with	position	housekeeper	REL	NEG	
	มี	ที่	ดี				

mi: thî: ti?

have point criticize

‘Balee looked at the beautiful, white hair which was cropped. The aunt was a plump person. The skin was clean. She was considered the middle-aged woman who was appropriate for the position of the housekeeper who was flawless.’

TT: Balee looked at **the middle-aged woman** with beautiful white hair cropped short and a clean-looking skin, like a flawless housekeeper.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 45, 44)

Concerning G4: Unit shift, the TRC ‘ที่เหมาะสมกับตำแหน่งแม่บ้านผู้มีที่ติ’ /thî: mò: kàp tamnè:ŋ mē: bā:n p^hû: mâj mi: thî: ti?/ (‘who was appropriate for the position of the housekeeper who was flawless’) was translated into the prepositional phrase ‘like a flawless housekeeper.’ Thus, the unit was shifted from the clause unit to the phrase unit. As for Alterations, the presentation of ideas was adjusted from the ST to the translation. The Thai ST contained four sentences. These are ‘บาลีแลดูผมขาวสวยที่ตัดสั้น’ /ba:li: lɛ: du: p^hôm k^hă:w sŭ:aj thî: tăt sân/ (‘Balee looked at the beautiful, white hair which was cropped’), ‘อาเป็นคนร่างท้วม’ /ʔa: pen k^hon râ:ŋ thú:am/ (‘The aunt was a plump person’), ‘ผิวสะอาด’ /p^hiw saʔà:j/ (‘The skin was clean’), and ‘นับเป็นหญิงวัยกลางคนที่เหมาะสมกับตำแหน่งแม่บ้านผู้มีที่ติ’ /náp pen jŋ waj kla:ŋ k^hon thî: mò: kàp tamnè:ŋ mē: bā:n p^hû: mâj mi: thî: ti?/ (‘She was considered the middle-aged woman who was appropriate for the position of the housekeeper who was flawless’). These four sentences were merged into one in the English translation. In the ST, the structure is ‘subject + verb + object,’ as in ‘บาลี /ba:li:/ (‘Balee’) + แลดู /lɛ: du:/ (‘looked at’) + ผม /p^hôm/ (‘hair’)’. The head noun ‘หญิงวัยกลางคน’ /jŋ waj kla:ŋ k^hon/ (‘middle-aged woman’) with the TRC was in the third sentence. In the TT, this noun phrase ‘the middle-aged woman’ became the object of the preposition ‘at.’ The descriptive details

of the woman from the ST's first, second, and third sentences were translated as the prepositional phrase 'with beautiful white hair cropped short and a clean-looking skin.' Then, it was followed by the prepositional phrase 'like a flawless housekeeper,' which was adjusted and translated from the ST TRC. The rearrangement of the ideas might be carried out to make the English translation more concise and easier to read.

7. G6: Clause structure change + Alterations

This couplet employs G6: Clause structure change and Alterations. With G6: Clause structure change, there is adjustment in terms of the internal clause structure. Alterations concern the change in the order of words or presentation of ideas.

- (262) ST: แต่ คนขับรถ เป็น ผู้ มา จัดการ
 tè: kʰon kʰàp rɔ́t pen pʰú: ma: càtka:n
 but chauffeur COP person come manage
 ถอย รถ เข้า โรง ซึ่ง มี รถ อีก
 tʰɔ̌:j rɔ́t kʰâw ro:ŋ sùŋ mi: rɔ́t ʔi:k
 reverse car into garage REL have car another
 จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
 CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY
 สอง คัน จอด อยู่ แล้ว คือ รถตู้ คัน
 sɔ̌:ŋ kʰan cò:t jù: lé:w kʰu: rɔ́t tû: kʰan
 two CLF park ASP ASP COP van CLF
 หนึ่ง และ รถจี๊ป สี เหลือง อม ส้ม อีก
 nùŋ léʔ rɔ́t cí:p sí: lǔ:ŋ ʔom sòm ʔi:k
 one and jeep color yellow mix orange another
 คัน หนึ่ง ใหม่เอี่ยม ทั้ง สอง คัน
 kʰan nùŋ màj ʔi:am tʰáŋ sɔ̌:ŋ kʰan

CLF one brand new all two CLF

‘But the chauffeur was the person who came to reverse the car into the garage where there were two other cars parked which were a van and an orangish yellow jeep, both brand new.’

TT: The chauffeur came to take the car to **the garage where a van and an orangish yellow jeep, both brand new, were already parked.**

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 13, 10)

In (262), the TRC adopted the translation strategy of G6: Clause structure change in that the TRC was translated into an RC with the relative adverb ‘where.’ This altered the reference of the modified head noun ‘garage’ to the place that the cars were parked. This aspect of the ‘garage’ as a place in the English translation is different from the ST head noun ‘โรง’ /ro:ŋ/ (‘garage’) which was the doer of the transitive verb ‘มี’ /mi:/ (‘have’). Thus, instead of the RC structure with a relativizer in the ST, the English translation contained the relative adverb ‘where,’ followed by the subject ‘a van and an orangish yellow jeep, both brand new,’ and the verb phrase ‘were already parked.’

The TRC comprised two main parts: the verb phrase ‘มีรถอีกสองคันจอดอยู่แล้ว’ /mi: rɔt ʔi:k sɔ:ŋ kʰan cò:t jù: lé:w/ (‘there were two other cars already parked’) after the relativizer ‘/sùŋ/’ and the noun phrase ‘รถตู้คันหนึ่ง และรถจี๊ปสีเหลืองอมส้มอีกคันหนึ่ง ใหม่เอี่ยมทั้งสองคัน’ /rɔt tû: kʰan nùŋ lé? rɔt cí:p sí: lǔ:ŋ ʔom sôm ʔi:k kʰan nùŋ mǎj ʔi:am tháŋ sɔ:ŋ kʰan/ (‘a van and an orangish yellow jeep, both brand new’). Regarding Alterations, this noun phrase was made the subject of the translated RC, followed by the verb phrase ‘จอดอยู่แล้ว’ /cò:t jù: lé:w/ (‘were already parked’), which initially preceded this descriptive noun phrase. This shows that there was an adjustment of the presentation of ideas in the TT.

8. G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase

This couplet combines G7: Sentence structure change and S8: Paraphrase. That is, the translation strategy contains clausal changes and paraphrasing. There was only one occurrence that adopted this couplet as provided below.

(263) ST:	เมื่อ	รถ	มา	จอด	ที่	หน้า	ประตู	บ้าน
	mû:a	rót	ma:	cò:t	thî:	nâ:	pra?tu:	bâ:n
	when	car	come	park	at	front	gate	house
	ซึ่ง	เป็น	หมู่บ้านจัดสรร		แห่ง	หนึ่ง	ใน	
	<u>sûŋ</u>	pen	mù: bâ:n càtsǎn		hèŋ	nùŋ	naj	
	REL	COP	subdivision		CLF	one	in	
	ซอย	กว้าง	และ	หล่อน	เปิด	ประตู	อย่าง	ช้าๆ
	<u>so:j</u>	<u>kwâ:ŋ</u>	lé?	lòn	pə:t	pra?tu:	jà:ŋ	?ó:j?iŋ
	street	wide	and	she	open	door	PFX	slow
	กำไลวง	ถาม	ว่า	“แล้ว	เรา	จะ	พบ	
	kamlajwŋ	thǎ:m	wâ:	lé:w	raw	cà?	pʰóp	
	Kamlaiwong	ask	COMP	and	we	CM	meet	
	กัน	เมื่อไหร่	อีก	ล่ะ	คะ”			
	kan	mû:a ràj	?i:k	là?	kʰá?			
	REC	when	again	PP	SLP			

‘When the car parked in front of the gate of the house which was (a house in) a subdivision on a wide street, she slowly opened the door. Kamlaiwong asked, “When will we meet again?”’

TT: He parked in front of a **house** located on a wide street.
Kamlaiwong slowly opened the car door, saying, “When will I see you again?”

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 23, 20)

In (263), G7: Sentence structure change was adopted because the TRC ‘ซึ่งเป็นหมู่บ้านจัดสรรแห่งหนึ่งในซอยกว้าง’ /sûŋ pen mù: bâ:n càtsǎn hèn nùŋ naj so:j kwâ:ŋ/ (‘which was (a house in) a subdivision on a wide street’) was adjusted to the reduced RC with a past participle in the translation: ‘located on a wide street.’ This is considered the change of the sub-clause type. As for S8: Paraphrase, paraphrasing was required mainly because the way Thai expresses details or arranges modifiers could slightly differ from that of English. To illustrate, Upakitsilapasarn (2005, pp. 298-301) states that, to understand Thai sentences, the word order is most important, which then is supported by the content of the text. Thus, the literal translation of the ST head noun and the TRC in (263), i.e. ‘the house which was a subdivision on a wide street,’ could be misleading in the English translation. The content or the context ought to be taken into consideration. That is, the ST intended to convey that the house was in a subdivision and this house was located on a wide street. Interpreted from the ST, the English translation paraphrased the head noun and the TRC into the noun phrase ‘a house located on a wide street.’ As paraphrasing may lead to loose translation, S8: Paraphrase in (263) also brought about the deletion of the ST noun phrase ‘หมู่บ้านจัดสรร’ /mù: bâ:n càtsǎn/ (‘subdivision’). The translator might consider this word a minor element and omitted it. In addition, the word choices for this noun phrase ‘หมู่บ้านจัดสรร’ /mù: bâ:n càtsǎn/ (‘subdivision’), such as ‘subdivision’ or ‘housing development,’ might also not fully represent the same impression of the place in Thailand – the ST country – as intended by the author and in the readers’ countries. Therefore, this might be another plausible explanation to the deletion of the noun phrase ‘หมู่บ้านจัดสรร’ /mù: bâ:n càtsǎn/ (‘subdivision’).

Another point worth mentioning is the ST head noun ‘บ้าน’ /bâ:n/ (‘house’), which was literally rendered into the head noun ‘house’ in English. In the Thai ST, the head noun ‘บ้าน’ /bâ:n/ (‘house’) was part of the noun phrase ‘ประตูบ้าน’ /pra?tu:bâ:n/ (‘gate of the house’). Since the TRC ‘ซึ่งเป็นหมู่บ้านจัดสรรแห่งหนึ่งในซอยกว้าง’ /sûn pen mù: bâ:n càtsǎn hèn nùŋ naj sɔ:j kwâ:ŋ/ (‘which was (a house in) a subdivision on a wide street’) was to modify the head noun ‘บ้าน’ /bâ:n/ (‘house’), the TRC was then placed immediately after the noun ‘บ้าน’ /bâ:n/ (‘house’) without repeating this same word. Nevertheless, the English translation omitted the word ‘ประตู’ /pra?tu:/ (‘gate’) as the verb phrase ‘to park in front of a house’ rendered the same meaning as intended in the ST ‘to park in front of the gate of a house.’

9. S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions

The last Couplet is the combination of S7: Emphasis change and Subtractions. Accounting for 34.38%, this couplet was the first most frequently used couplet in Thai-English translation. This couplet includes the changes of emphasis with subtractions from the STs.

(264) ST:	แม่	ลุก	ลุก	ขึ้น	ยืน	และ	ทำ	ท่า	
	mê:	p ^h ùt	lúk	k ^h ûn	ju:n	lé?	t ^h am	t ^h â:	
	Mom	rise	rise	up	stand	and	make	act	
	จะ	ถอด		รองเท้า	ส้นสูง		ที่	สวม	อยู่
	cà?	t ^h ò:t		rɔ:ŋ	t ^h áw sôn sǔ:ŋ		t ^h í:	sǔ:am	jù:
	CM	take off		high-heeled shoes			REL	wear	ASP

‘Mom rose to her feet and made as if to take of the high-heeled shoes which she was wearing.’

TT: She rises to her feet and makes as if to take off her **high-heeled shoes**.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 29, 23)

For this couplet, both strategies affect each other. That is, (264) shows that the TRC ‘ที่สวมอยู่’ /tʰiː sǔːam jùː/ (‘which she was wearing’) was subtracted. Only the head noun ‘รองเท้าส้นสูง’ /rɔːŋ tʰáw sôn sǔːŋ/ (‘high-heeled shoes’) was literally translated into the noun phrase ‘high-heeled shoes.’ Since RCs modify or provide extra information to the head noun, the omission of the TRC in (264) reduced the emphasis of the head noun ‘รองเท้าส้นสูง’ /rɔːŋ tʰáw sôn sǔːŋ/ (‘high-heeled shoes’). To explain the possible reason for the subtraction, in the Thai ST, the TRC ‘ที่สวมอยู่’ /tʰiː sǔːam jùː/ (‘which she was wearing’) modified the shoes that ‘แม่’ /mâː/ (‘Mom’) was wearing. However, the high-heeled shoes in the verb phrase ‘ทำท่าจะถอดรองเท้าส้นสูง’ /tʰam tʰâː càʔ tʰòːt rɔːŋ tʰáw sôn sǔːŋ/ (‘made as if to take off the high-heeled shoes’) must be referring to the pair that she was wearing. The translator might see that this TRC ‘ที่สวมอยู่’ /tʰiː sǔːam jùː/ (‘which she was wearing’) was redundant and, thus, omitted it from the translation. Another point to make is that the message of the TRC might already be included in the determiner ‘her’ before the noun phrase ‘high-heeled shoes.’

The data on Couplet show that this strategy was the third most used strategy of RC Adjustment. Although Couplet accounted only for 15.69%, it comprised various combinations of the strategies. Table 49 illustrates nine couplets which were constituted from eight translation adjustment strategies, namely G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. The two most typical couplets found in TRC translation into English were ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions’ (34.38%) and ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ (25.00%). To clearly see the

frequency of each strategy adopted as a sole strategy and Couplet, Table 50 below was condensed from Table 45 on RC Adjustment's translation adjustment strategies used in translating TRCs into English.

Table 50. RC Adjustment's translation adjustment strategies found as sole strategies and couplets (Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift	98	48.04	[F] 21
G6: Clause structure change	10	4.90	[F] 1
G7: Sentence structure change	64	31.37	[F] 1
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	[F] 15
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	[F] 9
Couplet	32	15.69	
Additions	-	-	[F] 1
Subtractions	-	-	[F] 14
Alterations	-	-	[F] 2
Total	204	100	64

Table 50 shows that there are three strategies which were adopted in high frequency as Couplet. These are G4: Unit shift, S7: Emphasis change, and Subtractions, with the occurrences of 21, 15, and 14, respectively. The high frequency of S7: Emphasis change and Subtractions goes in line with the fact that 'S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions' was the first most used Couplet.

To explain why these three strategies were commonly used as Couplet, this requires an examination into all the couplets found. Regarding G4: Unit shift, its highest frequency as part of Couplet was because of three reasons. First, G4: Unit shift was combined with other strategies in six couplets. The strategies that G4: Unit shift paired with were G4: Unit shift itself, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase; Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. This included the fact that one of the couplets was 'G4: Unit shift + G4: Unit shift,' which doubled the frequency of this

strategy. Second, the couplet ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ ranked as the second most used couplet with 8 occurrences or 25%. This couplet also indicated that S8: Paraphrase which was used as Couplet was mainly from this couplet. This suggested that when TRCs were paraphrased, which related to semantics, their syntactic structures tended to be adjusted. For instance, the TRC in (258) were paraphrased and the English translation became a noun phrase. Third, the reason supporting the high frequency of G4: Unit shift as Couplet is that it was part of the other two couplets with relative high percentages, i.e. ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ and ‘G4: Unit shift + Subtractions.’ This also leads to the explanation on S7: Emphasis change and Subtractions.

The high occurrences of S7: Emphasis change and Subtractions can be explained together in the following aspects. Firstly, the couplet ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions’ was the first most used couplet. It occurred in 11 sentence pairs, constituting 34.38% of the couplet occurrences. An example can be seen in (264) where the TRC was omitted in the translation. The data suggested that occasionally Thai STs contained the expressions that translators may view unnecessary to be translated into English. The deleted parts included what seemed to be obvious from the context as in (264), or redundant or repetitive. Secondly, both S7: Emphasis change and Subtractions also co-occurred with G4: Unit shift, which constituted two couplets with relatively high percentages of occurrences as mentioned earlier.

In addition, concerning S7: Emphasis change and S8: Paraphrase, which belonged to Chesterman’s (1997) semantic strategies, the findings showed that they typically occurred with syntactic strategies. ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions’ was the only couplet that S7: Emphasis change did not pair with a syntactic structure, and the change in emphasis occurred because some contents were deleted as a result of the Subtraction strategy.

Apart from the above discussed strategies, the other four strategies, namely G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, Addition, and Alterations, were also adopted as couplets. Although they were used in only a few occurrences, it is worth noting that these strategies could constitute couplets in the TRC translation into English.

To conclude and discuss RC Adjustment, the most prominent findings on this strategy is that it accounted for 55.74% among the four types of translation strategy and 67.33% when comparing among the three adjustment strategies. These percentages indicate that RC Adjustment was the first most frequently used strategy in the TRC translation into English. With the head nouns literally translated, the TRCs were adjusted in the translation process of RC Adjustment. The sentence pairs that adopted this strategy were further examined by the framework for analyzing translation adjustment (see Table 23) based primarily on Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, supplemented by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. The findings showed that nine strategies were found, either as a sole strategy or couplet, which were G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, Couplet, Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. Five strategies from Table 23 were not found, namely G3: Transposition, G5: Phrase structure change, G8: Cohesion change, G9: Level shift, and G10: Scheme change.

Among the strategies found in translating the TRCs into English, two most typical strategies were G4: Unit shift (48.04%) and G7: Sentence structure change (31.37%).

The findings showed that for G4: Unit shift, the word unit and phrase unit were adopted in high proportions. The word unit with the highest frequency was adjectives. This suggested that in many sentences, TRCs can be translated into adjectives, especially attributive adjectives, which were common in the data. The literal translation of Examples 231 and 233 into 'the car honk which is familiar' and 'something which is better,' respectively, could have been carried out, but the English translations would be wordy or unnatural. As for the phrase unit, prepositional phrases were the most common phrase type. This is in line with the corpus findings in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999, p. 606), which mentioned that prepositional phrases are the most typical type of postmodification in the four registers, i.e. conversation, fiction, news, and academic prose, of the corpus data. Another adjustment strategy that was often used in the TRC translation into English was G7: Sentence structure change. The most common structure was reduced RCs or

participle clauses, with both past participle and present participle. In addition, bare RCs were another common structure. Due to the fact that English and Thai share the structure of bare RCs, some sentences allow TRCs to be translated into bare RCs as exemplified in (252).

The findings of RC Adjustment's translation strategies presented many possibilities in translating TRCs into English. Moreover, some of these strategies or structures shed light on the syntactic differences between Thai and English that translators of Thai-English texts need to be aware of when producing English translations. For example, determiners, the relative determiner 'whose,' infinitive clauses, and reduced RCs are English linguistic elements which are not present in Thai. The findings showed that using these words or structures could help create natural English translations.

5.1.4 Complete Adjustment

The findings showed that among the four types of translation strategies (i.e. Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment), Complete Adjustment ranked as the second most frequently used strategy, with 24.04%. It can be said that this strategy was the most flexible in terms of translation since it adjusts both the head noun and the RC. Therefore, various translations were found. To categorize the sentence pairs with Complete Adjustment, the data were analyzed in two areas, i.e. the retention of the head nouns and the retention of the RC structure. This categorization is identical to English-Thai translation.

Regarding the retention of the head nouns, the data are separated into two groups: 1) the translation with retention of the head nouns, all or partial, and 2) the translation without the retention of the head nouns. The first group also included the occurrences when the meanings of the ST head nouns were retained in the translation and when the ST units were units other than a clause. The findings of the ST head noun retention in Thai-English translation are exhibited in Table 51.

Table 51. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the ST head noun (Thai-English translation)

ST head noun retention	Frequency	Percentage (%)
With some retention	55	62.50
Without any retention	33	37.50
<u>Total</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>100</u>

Table 51 shows that the percentage of the translation with some retention of the head nouns was higher than that of the translation without any retention. The translations with some retention of the head noun in Thai-English translation were in various patterns. The common one was when some words in the STs were literally translated. An example is in (265).

(265) ST:	ป้อม	มองดู	ผม	ด้วย	สายตา	ที่
	pôm	mɔːŋ duː	pʰôm	dûːaj	sǎːj taː	tʰiː
	Porm	look	me	with	eye expression	REL
	ผม	ไม่เคย	เห็น	มาก่อน		
	pʰôm	mâj	kʰəːj	hěn	ma kòːn	
	I	NEG	used to see	before		

‘Porm looks at me with an expression in her eyes which I have never seen before.’

TT: Porm looks at me with a weird **expression in her eyes** I’ve never seen before.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 26, 19)

In (265), the adjustment was made to both the head noun and the RC. Although the head noun ‘สายตา’ /sǎːj taː/ (‘eye expression’) seemed to be translated in the literal fashion into the noun phrase ‘expression in her eyes,’ the full English head noun phrase before the ERC is ‘a weird expression in her eyes.’ That is, there was the

addition of the adjective ‘weird’ to further clarify the ‘expression in her eyes.’ As for the RCs, the TRC was translated into the bare RC ‘I’ve never seen before,’ which was considered adopting G7: Sentence structure change. In this example above, the retention of the head nouns was the noun phrases ‘สายตา’ /sǎ:j ta:/ (‘eye expression’) and ‘expression in her eyes.’

Apart from this prevalent pattern, the data of Thai-English translation show the retention of head nouns in terms of related meanings. An example is provided below.

(266) ST:	เธอ	กำ	มัน	ไว้	ใน	มือ	ที่	เปียกๆ
	tʰə:	kam	man	wáj	naj	mu:	tʰi:	pì:ak pì:ak
	she	hold	it	ASP	in	hand	REL	wet
	ชั่วครู่	เดียว	เมล็ด	สีน้ำตาล	เข้ม	ก็		
	cʰu:a krú:	di:aw	mét	sǐ: námta:n	kʰêm	kô?		
	a while	one	pod	brown	dark	LP		
	แตก	เปรี๊ยะ						
	tè:k	prí:a						
	break	pop						

‘She holds it in her hand which is wet. In the next instant, the dark brown pod pops.’

TT: She holds them in her wet **fist**, and the next instant, the dark brown pods pop open.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 42, 40)

Example 266 illustrates that the head noun in the Thai ST, ‘มือ’ /mu:/ (‘hand’), was translated into the noun ‘fist’ in English. This was considered the retention of the head noun due to the reason that the meaning was transferred from the ST to the TT.

This translation into the noun ‘fist’ can also be inferred from the verb ‘hold.’ As a result of this verb, the action of the hand can be described as in a ‘fist.’ Concerning Complete Adjustment, the adjustment was made on the head noun and the RC. First, the head noun was altered with regard to meanings. Second, the TRC ‘ที่เปียกๆ’ /thi: pì:ak pì:ak/ (‘which is wet’) was rendered as the adjective ‘wet.’ This was the change of units, which belonged in G4: Unit shift.

Another pattern in the retention of the head noun is the case where the ST head noun and the RC were merged and produced the TT nouns. Examples are (267) and (268).

(267) ST:	พวก	ที่	เศร้าโศก	มาก	ที่สุด	ก็	คือ
	p ^h u:ak	thi:	sâw sò:k	mâ:k	thi: sùt	kô?	k ^h u:
	group	REL	sad	much	most	LP	COP
	พวก	ที่	มี	แต่	ร้าน	คือ	เอา
	p ^h u:ak	thi:	mi:	tè:	râ:n	k ^h u:	?aw
	group	REL	have	only	shop	COP	take
	เป็น	บ้าน	ด้วย				
	pen	bâ:n	dû:aj				
	COP	house	too				

‘The group that is saddest was the group that had only the shop; that is, they used the shop as the house too.’

TT: The worst sufferers were those who lived in their shops.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 67, 69)

Example 267 has the ST head noun ‘พวก’ /p^hu:ak/ (‘group’), which is a collective noun. In order to further identify any collective noun, common nouns or

proper nouns can be added after collective nouns, for example, “พวก-นักเลง” /p^hu:ak-nák lɛ:ŋ/ (‘group-gangsters’) to refer to ‘พวกของนักเลง’ /p^hu:ak k^hǎ:ŋ nák lɛ:ŋ/ (‘group of gangsters’) (Upakitsilapasarn, 2005, p. 72). Along the same line, in (267) the TRC was adopted to modify the head noun ‘พวก’ /p^hu:ak/ (‘group’) resulting in the noun phrase ‘พวกที่เศร้าโศกมากที่สุด’ /p^hu:ak t^hi: sâw sò:k mâ:k t^hi: sùt/ (‘the group that is saddest’). Therefore, this noun phrase could be translated into the noun phrase ‘the worst sufferers.’ Due to the meaning of the collective noun ‘พวก’ /p^hu:ak/ (‘group’) being transferred into the noun phrase ‘the worst sufferers,’ the translation of the ST noun phrase ‘พวกที่เศร้าโศกมากที่สุด’ /p^hu:ak t^hi: sâw sò:k mâ:k t^hi: sùt/ (‘the group that is saddest’) into the TT noun phrase ‘the worst sufferers’ was considered the head noun retention.

(268) ST:	นั่น	คือ	สิ่ง	ที่	หล่อน	นึก	ขึ้น	ได้
	nân	k ^h u:	sìŋ	t ^h i:	lôn	núk	k ^h ûm	dâ:j
	that	COP	thing	REL	she	think	up	POT
	อย่าง	ชัดเจน						
	jà:ŋ	chátce:n						
	PFX	clear						

‘That was the thing that she could clearly think of.’

TT: That was the most obvious characteristic to her.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 21, 19)

Example 268 is similar to (267) in that the head noun was fused with the TRC in producing the English translation. While the Thai head noun in (267) is a collective noun, (268) has a common noun ‘สิ่ง’ /sìŋ/ (‘thing’) as the head noun. The word itself can be literally translated as a ‘thing,’ but it can refer to many referents depending on

contexts. In (268), the head noun ‘สิ่ง’ /sìŋ/ (‘thing’) refers to ‘characteristic;’ thus the meaning of the ST head noun was retained and transferred into the translation.

The last pattern is when the retention of the head noun together with the TRC was rendered as noun clauses. Example 269 illustrates this point.

(269) ST:	เรา	รู้	กัน	มา	นาน	แล้ว	ว่า	ชัย
	raw	rú:	kan	ma:	na:n	lé:w	wâ:	c ^h aj
	we	know	REC	come	long	ASP	COMP	Chai
	ฝัน	ที่	จะ	เป็น	ทหาร		เหมือน	พ่อ
	fàj fǎn	t ^h i:	cà?	pen	t ^h a?hǎ:n		mǔ:an	p ^h ǒ:
	dream	COMP	CM	COP	soldier		like	father
	แต่	เหตุการณ์	ที่	เกิดขึ้น			ทำลาย	
	tè:	<u>hè:t ka:n</u>	<u>t^hi:</u>	<u>kə:t k^hún</u>			t ^h amla:j	
	but	event	REL	happen			destroy	
	ความฝัน	และ	ทุกสิ่งทุกอย่าง				ลง	สิ้นเชิง
	k ^h wa:m fǎn	lé?	t ^h úk sɨŋ t ^h úk jà:ŋ				loŋ	sɨn ^h ɔ:ŋ
	dream	and	everything				down	completely

‘We had known for a long time that Chai dreamed of being a soldier like his father, but the event that happened destroyed his dream and everything completely.’

TT: We had long known that Chai dreamed of being a soldier like his father, but what had happened had shattered his dream, shattered everything for good.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 59, 59)

The translation of this sentence pair was categorized as Complete Adjustment because the head noun and the TRC were both adjusted. In (269), there was no parallel structure between the TRC and translation. That is, whereas the ST contained the noun phrase, i.e. the head noun with the TRC: ‘เหตุการณ์ที่เกิดขึ้น’ /hè:t ka:n tʰi: kò:t kʰûn/ (‘the event that happened’), the TT translation was the noun clause ‘what had happened.’ The wh-word ‘what’ functions as ‘a noun + a relative pronoun’ (Swan, 2005, p. 481). Thus, the noun clause ‘what had happened’ could be reformulated as ‘the event which had happened.’ That is, the ST head noun ‘เหตุการณ์’ /hè:t ka:n/ (‘event’) and the TRC ‘ที่เกิดขึ้น’ /tʰi: kò:t kʰûn/ (‘that happened’) were combined and translated as the noun clause ‘what had happened.’ Therefore, it can be said that the meaning of the ST head noun ‘เหตุการณ์’ /hè:t ka:n/ (‘event’) was retained in the wh-word ‘what’ in the English translation.

The above section elaborates on the retention of the head nouns. As for the translation without the retention of the head nouns, the translations appear closer to paraphrasing. An example is as follows.

(270) ST:	เมื่อ	เรา	ยัง	เล็กๆ	วันเกิด	ดู
	mû:a	raw	jan	lek lek	wan kò:t	du:
	when	we	still	little	birthday	look
	ช่าง	เป็น	วัน	<u>ที่</u>	<u>มี</u>	<u>ความหมาย</u> และ
	cʰâ:ŋ	pen	wan	<u>tʰi:</u>	<u>mi:</u>	<u>kʰwa:m mǎ:j lé?</u>
	so	COP	day	which	have	meaning and
	<u>ความสำคัญ</u>			<u>เหลือเกิน</u>		
	<u>kʰwa:m sǎmkʰan</u>			<u>lǔ:a kə:n</u>		
	importance			so much		

‘When we were young, birthdays seemed to be the days which had so much meaning and importance.’

TT: When we are young, birthdays are so important and meaningful.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 40, 37)

Example 270 illustrates the sentence pair with the Complete Adjustment strategy, which did not retain the head noun in the translation. The ST head noun is ‘วัน’ /wan/ (‘day’). Due to its repetitive reference to the preceding noun ‘วันเกิด’ /wan kə:t/ (‘birthday’), which carried the core meaning, the translation kept only the noun ‘วันเกิด’ /wan kə:t/ (‘birthday’), and omitted the original ST head noun ‘วัน’ /wan/ (‘day’).

Another group to be discussed for Complete Adjustment is the retention of the RC structure. The sentence pairs can also be categorized into two groups: 1) the translation with the retention of the RC structure, and 2) the translation without the retention of the RC structure. The data are presented in Table 52.

Table 52. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the RC structure (Thai-English translation)

RC structure retention	Frequency	Percentage (%)
With retention	4	4.55
Without retention	84	95.45
<u>Total</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>100</u>

The findings showed that for Complete Adjustment of Thai-English translation, only 4.55% of the occurrences retained the RC structure in the translations. However, it is to be noted that there must be some adjustment to it for this is part of Complete Adjustment. Concerning the translation without retention of

the RC structure, it constituted 95.45% of Complete Adjustment occurrences. An example of the translation with the retention of the RC structure is in (271).

(271) ST: บาลี จับ แขน หล่อน ไว้ รู้สึก ถึง เหงื่อ
 ba:li: càp k^hǎ:n lòn wáj rú:sùk t^hǔŋ ɣù:a
 Balee hold arm she ASP feel of sweat

ซึ่ง เปียกโชก เต็มที่ ตรง เนื้อหนัง

s^uŋ pì:ak c^hò:k tem t^hí: trong nú:a nǎŋ
 REL soak fully at skin

ที่ หล่อน สัมผัส

t^hí: lòn sǎmp^hàt
 REL she touch

‘Balee held her arm and felt the sweat which soaked the skin where she touched.’

TT: Balee touched the woman’s arm, which was soaked with sweat.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 62, 64)

The first point to make is that, with Complete Adjustment, both the head noun and the RC received adjustment. That is to say, in (271), the Thai head noun and the TRC were translated into the ERC ‘which was soaked with sweat.’ This ERC modified the head noun ‘the woman’s arm,’ which was a different head noun from the Thai ST’s. Thus, while there was the retention of the RC structure in the English translation, the meanings were altered. The adjustment in (271) could be explained through syntactic and semantic differences between English and Thai. To illustrate, in Thai, it was well-formed that the subject ‘เหงื่อ’ /ɣù:a/ (‘sweat’) occurred with the predicate ‘เปียกโชก’ /pì:ak c^hò:k/ (‘soak’). However, translating this structure into English only yielded the ungrammatical phrase ‘*sweat soaked.’ Thus, for English to be grammatical, the translation needed to be ‘the arm was soaked with sweat.’

With respect to the translation without the retention of the RC structure, the sentence pair in (270) above exemplified this aspect. There was no RC structure in the translation. The translations can be carried out via various structures similar to RC Adjustment.

To sum up, Complete Adjustment was the second most commonly used strategy when comparing among the four types of translation strategy and the three types of adjustment strategy, with the percentages of 24.04% and 29.04%, respectively. Complete Adjustment is located on the rightmost end of the translation strategy continuum (Figure 4), suggesting that its degrees of adjustment are the highest comparing to the other types of translation strategy found in this study. Both the head nouns and the RCs receive adjustment. However, the data show some patterns. That is, most occurrences retained the head nouns in the translations to a certain degree, and almost all occurrences abandoned the RC structure in the TRC translation into English.

5.2 Summary

The findings on Thai-English RC translation showed that the framework for the analysis of the translation of RCs (Figure 3) and the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment (Table 23) were practical to analyze the translation strategies used in translating TRCs into English. The findings answered the second research question ‘What are the translation strategies used in translating the TRCs with the relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ into English?’ The translation strategies used were the four types of translation strategy, namely Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. The types of strategy used varied in accordance with the degrees of translation adjustment on the head noun and the RC.

Based on the findings that the translation of TRCs into English adopted the two main translation strategies, i.e. literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment, the results go in line with other previous research studies (e.g. Anshori,

2007; Dwijati et al., 2016; Leenakitti, 2012; Nau, 2011). These studies presented the RC translation strategies with literal translation and other translation strategies. With respect to the translation direction into English, Dwijati et al. (2016) studied the Indonesian-English language direction, and Nau (2011) carried out a research from the Swedish ST into four TTs, i.e. German, Polish, Latvian, and English. Apart from the literal translation strategy found in these studies, translation adjustment⁶¹ was also employed. Thus, the findings of translation adjustment strategies in the current research were in line with some other studies with the translation direction into English.

The findings of the Thai-English translation indicated that translation adjustment was adopted in the TRC translation for 82.79% versus Literal Translation with 17.21%. The high percentage of the adjustment strategy is not in line with some previous research studies such as Anshori (2007) and Leenakitti (2012), who found high percentages of the translation into RCs with a relative pronoun. Nonetheless, the findings of Thai-English translation of this study cannot entirely be compared to those by Anshori and Leenakitti since the language directions were different. While Anshori and Leenakitti conducted the study on RC translation from English into Bahasa Indonesia (BI) and English into Thai, respectively, this chapter examined the Thai-English language direction. Therefore, translating from English might produce different results from translating into English.

In conclusion, the findings showed that there were four types of translation strategy used in translating the TRCs into English. These are literal translation with a relativizer, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. The TRC translation analysis was carried out based on the framework adapted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, and Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. The findings showed that the first most frequently adopted strategy was RC Adjustment (55.74%). The other three strategies were

⁶¹ The terms used in Dwijati et al. (2016) and Nau (2011) were different from 'translation adjustment' used in this study. However, the concept was identical. That is, the terms used in Dwijati et al. (2016) or Nau (2011) concerned strategies or structures other than literal translation, for example, adaptation or participle construction.

Complete Adjustment (24.04%), Literal Translation (17.21%), and Antecedent Adjustment (3.01%). The total percentage of the three Adjustment strategies was 82.79%; this clearly emphasized the preference of Adjustment over Literal Translation in the TRC translation into English. As for Literal Translation, the English relativizers found were ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ The use of these relativizers is subject to the animacy of the head nouns.

In the next chapter, the findings of the ERC translation into Thai and the TRC translation into English will be compared and contrasted in order to answer the third research question: ‘Are the translation strategies used in translating RCs in this study the same or different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai?’ Later in the chapter, the effects of English RC types – restrictive and non-restrictive – will be explored to find out the results of the fourth research questions, which is ‘Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies?’

CHAPTER 6
COMPARISON BETWEEN ERC AND TRC TRANSLATION STRATEGIES
AND EFFECTS OF THE RC TYPES

This chapter aims to answer the third and the fourth research questions. In order to answer the third research question: ‘Are the translation strategies used in translating RCs in this study the same or different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai?’, the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs into Thai in Chapter 4 and those in translating the TRCs into English in Chapter 5 are compared and contrasted (6.1). As for the fourth research question: ‘Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies?’, the RC types are examined for its influences on the ERC translation strategies into Thai (6.2) with respect to the Thai relativizers. The last section is the summary of this chapter (6.3).

6.1 Comparison between ERCs and TRCs translation strategies

Fundamentally, the findings showed that ERC translation into Thai and TRC translation into English employed both literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment. The frequency and percentages of translation strategies used in ERC translation into Thai and TRC translation into English are presented in Table 53.

Table 53. The frequency and percentages of occurrences of English-Thai and Thai-English RC translation strategies (Literal translation and translation adjustment)

Translation strategy	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Literal translation	175	50.29	63	17.21
Translation adjustment	173	49.71	303	82.79
Total	348	100	366	100

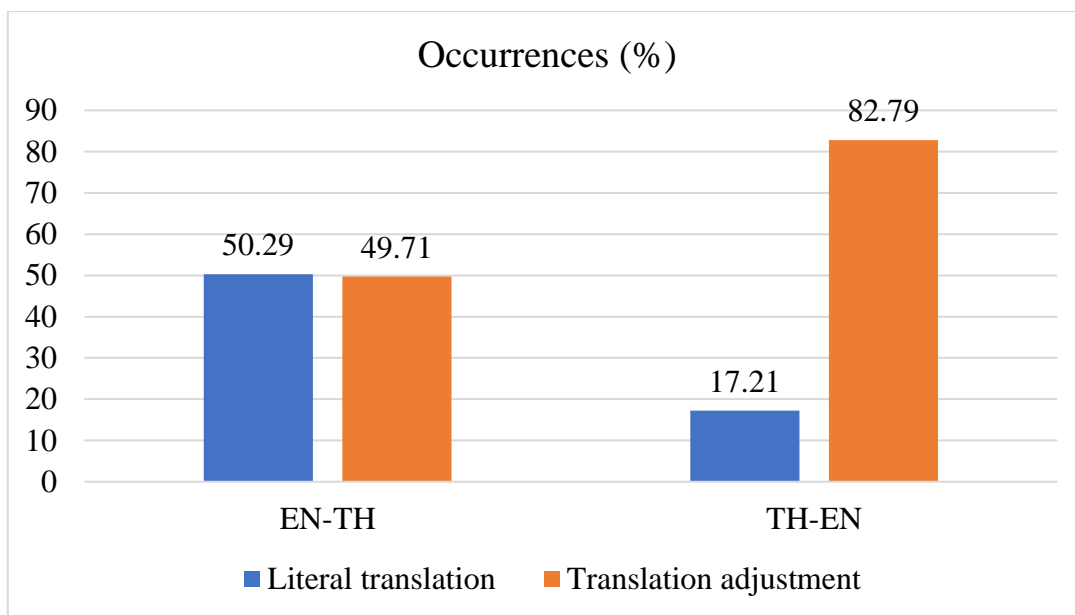


Figure 5. Percentages of the translation strategy occurrences of the English-Thai and the Thai-English language directions (Literal translation and translation adjustment)

The findings showed that, for the RC translation, English-Thai translation adopted literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment in approximately equal proportion, i.e. 50.29% and 49.71%, respectively. In contrast, Thai-English translation distinctively preferred translation adjustment over literal translation, with 82.79% versus 17.21%.

According to the data, the RC translation between English and Thai can be categorized into four types: Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment, based on the degrees of adjustment to the head noun and the RC. Table 54 and Figure 6 show the frequency and percentages of occurrences of the four types of RC translation strategy in English-Thai and Thai-English translation.

Table 54. The frequency and percentages of occurrences of English-Thai and Thai-English RC translation strategies (Four types of translation strategy)

Translation strategy	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Literal Translation	175	50.29	63	17.21
Antecedent Adjustment	21	6.03	11	3.01
RC Adjustment	111	31.90	204	55.74
Complete Adjustment	41	11.78	88	24.04
Total	348	100	366	100

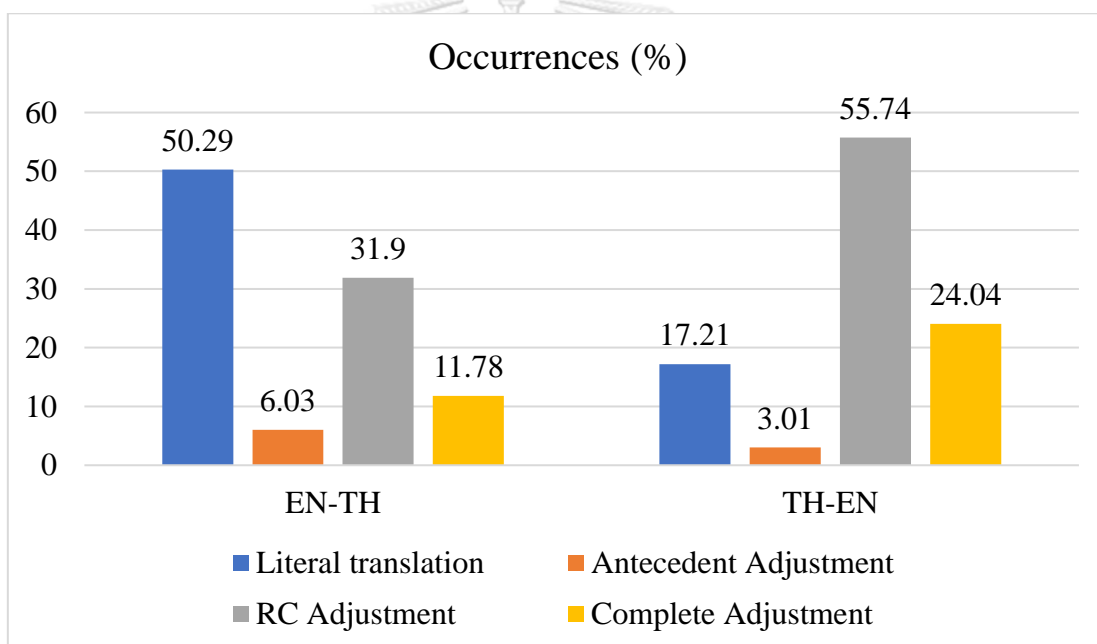


Figure 6. Percentages of the translation strategy occurrences of the English-Thai and the Thai-English language directions (Four types of translation strategy)

The data show that, in English-Thai translation, the three most used strategies were Literal Translation (50.29%), RC Adjustment (31.9%), and Complete Adjustment (11.78%). As for Thai-English translation, the three most common strategies were RC Adjustment (55.74%), Complete Adjustment (24.04%), and Literal Translation (17.21%). Antecedent Adjustment was the least used strategy in

both language directions. Among the three Adjustment strategies, the usage frequency ranged from RC Adjustment, Complete Adjustment, and Antecedent Adjustment.

The following section elaborates on the comparison between English-Thai and Thai-English translation with regard to each type of translation strategy, namely Literal Translation (6.1.1), Antecedent Adjustment (6.1.2), RC Adjustment (6.1.3), and Complete Adjustment (6.1.4).

6.1.1 Literal Translation

Both English-Thai and Thai-English translation adopted the literal translation strategy to translate ERCs into Thai and TRCs into English, respectively. However, the percentages of occurrences varied to a certain degree. While English-Thai translation used Literal Translation as the first most used strategy with 50.29% of occurrences, Thai-English translation adopted it as the third most used strategy with 17.21%. These percentages showed that RCs in English STs were more likely to be literally translated into TRCs with a relativizer when compared with the Thai-English language direction. It is possible that the shared structure of RCs between the two languages facilitated the literal translation from English into Thai. On the other hand, only 17.21% of Thai-English adopted the literal translation strategy in translating the TRCs into English. The reason behind this might be inferred from the high percentages of the Adjustment strategies that the translation from Thai into English required a great deal of translation adjustment. Thus, some sentences in which changes were not needed could be literally translated by maintaining the core structure of the RC in the English translation.

With respect to relativizers, the English-Thai and Thai-English translation found four relativizers each. In English-Thai translation, the Thai relativizers found were ‘/t^hî:/,’ ‘/sûŋ/,’ ‘/p^hû:/,’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/.’ As for Thai-English translation, the English relativizers found were ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ The main difference between the two languages was the animacy concord between the head noun and the relativizer. This language feature does not affect the common relativizers in Thai, i.e. ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/,’ which can be used with animate and

inanimate antecedents. Only the relativizers with the word ‘/p^hû:/’ such as ‘/p^hû:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sũŋ/’ take animate head nouns. However, in English, the animacy concord is the main feature of ERCs. That is, the relativizers ‘who’ and ‘whom’ must occur with animate head nouns, and the relativizer ‘which’ takes inanimate head nouns. Only the relativizer ‘that’ can occur with both animate and inanimate head nouns. This language feature of RCs is one factor to be considered in translation.

6.1.2 Antecedent Adjustment

Antecedent Adjustment was the least used RC translation strategy in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. The degree of adjustment was deemed to be lowest according to the translation strategy continuum (see Figure 4) because the changes were made only on the head noun while the RC structure was maintained. These changes included, for example, when the head nouns were omitted, added with other elements that altered the meanings in some ways, changed to other head nouns. In this study, this concept was applied to Antecedent Adjustment and Complete Adjustment where the head nouns received adjustment. On the other hand, the head nouns in Literal Translation and RC Adjustment were considered under literal translation because the antecedents were literally translated from the ST head nouns with merely some syntactic adjustment to follow the TL grammatical rules. The data from English-Thai and Thai-English translation show similar adjustment. The common changes can be summarized into two groups: 1) omissions, and 2) changes made to the head noun such as new head nouns and altered head nouns. Examples of omissions of the head noun in English-Thai and Thai-English translation are provided below.

(272) ST: He was staring at Harley, trying to see him as ‘Mr H.’, **the person who had ordered Allan Mitchison’s execution.**

TT:	มอง	จ้อง	ฮาร์ลีย์	พร้อมกัน	พยายาม
	mɔːŋ	cɔ̃ŋ	ha: li:	prɔːm kàp	p ^h aʔja:ja:m
	look	stare	Harley	along with	try to

นี่ภาพ เขา เป็น ‘นายเอช.’ ผู้ สั่ง
 núk p^hâ:p k^hăw pen ‘na:j ʔét’ p^hû: sàŋ
 imagine him be ‘Mr H’ who order

ฆ่า อัลลัน มิทช์สัน

k^hâ: ʔanlan mít^híʔsǎn

kill Allan Mitchison

‘staring at Harley along with trying to imagine him being ‘Mr H.’ who order to kill Allan Mitchison’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 422, 511)

(273) ST: อา เปิด ประตู ห้องนอน ห้อง หนึ่ง
 ʔa: p^hè:t praʔtu: h^hŋ nɔ:n h^hŋ n^hŋ
 aunt open door bedroom CLF one
 ซึ่ง เป็น ห้อง ที่ มี ลม ผ่าน กรูกรือยว
 s^hŋ pen h^hŋ t^hi: mi: lom p^hà:n kru: kri:aw
 REL COP room REL have wind pass well

‘The aunt opened the door to one of the bedrooms which was the room that was very well ventilated.’

TT: His aunt opened the door to **one of the rooms** which was very well ventilated.

(*Poon Pid Thong*, pp. 27, 26)

Examples 272 and 273 show the sentence pairs with the Antecedent Adjustment strategy. The original head nouns ‘the person’ in (272) and ‘ห้อง’ /h^hŋ/ (‘room’) in (273) were omitted. Both examples are the instances of omissions when

the head nouns in the STs repeated the preceding nouns which contained the key meaning. In these two examples, they were ‘Mr H.’ and ‘ห้องนอนห้องหนึ่ง’ /hǒŋ nɔ:n hǒŋ nùŋ/ (‘one of the bedrooms’), respectively.

(274) ST: There were **dedicated teams** – detectives and uniforms – **who** operated the system, typing in data, checking and cross-referencing.

TT:	ทีมค้นหา	โหมงาน	หนัก	ตำรวจสืบสวน	และ
	thi:m kʰón hǎ:	hǒ:m ŋa:n	nàk	tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an	léʔ
	search team	work	hard	detective	and
	เจ้าหน้าที่	ผู้ดูแล	ระบบ	ต่าง	
	cáwnǎ:thí:	pʰú: du:le:	raʔbòp	tà:ŋ	
	uniform	who	operate	system	each
	ตั้งหน้าตั้งตา	ป้อน	ข้อมูล	ลง	คอมพิวเตอร์ เพื่อ
	tâŋ nâ: tâŋ ta:	pô:n	kʰô: mu:n	loŋ	kʰompíwtô: pʰú:a
	concentrate	type in data	down	computer	for
	ตรวจสอบ	และ	ค้นหา		
	trù:atsò:p	léʔ	kʰónhǎ:		
	check	and	search		

‘The search team worked hard. Detectives and uniforms, who operated the system, each concentrated on typing in data for checking and searching.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 68, 94)

- (275) ST: เขา จะ ต้อง พบ ผู้หญิง ที่ เข้าใจ
- k^hǎw càʔ tōŋ p^hóp p^hû: jǐŋ t^hî: k^hâw caj
- he CM must meet woman REL understand
- เขา เพียงพอ และ ไม่ มองดู เขา
- k^hǎw p^hi:an p^hɔ: léʔ mâj mɔ:ŋ du: k^hǎw
- him enough and NEG look him
- แต่ บ้าน ราคา แพง ล้าน บาท หรือ ธุรกิจ
- k^hê: bâ:n ra:k^ha: pè:t lá:n bà:t rǔ: t^húʔraʔkit
- only house price eight million baht or business
- อื่น ที่ เขา มี
- ʔù:n t^hî: k^hǎw mi:
- other REL he have

‘He would need to meet a woman who understands him enough and is not interested in him only because of his eight-million-baht house or other businesses that he has.’

- TT: He would need to find **someone who** could understand him well and see beyond his eight-million-baht house and his businesses.

(Poon Pid Thong, pp. 27, 26)

Examples 274 and 275 illustrate the instances where the ST head nouns were adjusted and translated into new or altered head nouns. In English-Thai translation in (274), the head noun phrase was changed from ‘dedicated teams’ in the ST to ‘ตำรวจสืบสวนและเจ้าหน้าที่’ /tamrù:at sù:psǔ:an léʔ câwnâ:t^hî:/ (‘detectives and uniforms’) in the translation. As for (275), in the Thai-English translation, the head noun ‘ผู้หญิง’

/p^hû: jǐŋ/ ('woman') was translated with the pronoun 'someone.' With the context, it referred to the same reference 'woman' as in the ST.

These examples above show that English-Thai and Thai-English translation share some commonality in the adjustment made to the head noun in Antecedent Adjustment. It appeared that the adjustment was performed, either through omissions, additions, or alterations, so that the translated texts were able to convey clearer meanings in the TTs.

6.1.3 RC Adjustment

This type of translation strategy adjusts the ERCs and TRCs. According to Figure 3 on 'Framework for the analysis of the translation of RCs,' when the RCs received adjustment in translation, the sentences with such RCs would be further analyzed with selected strategies based on Chesterman's (1997) syntactic and semantic strategies, and Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. These strategies constituted the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment (see Table 23), which comprised eight syntactic strategies, two semantic strategies, Couplet, and three additional strategies. Table 55 presents the translation adjustment strategies found in ERC and TRC translation. The letters coded in the table are: 'F' for 'the strategies found,' '[F]' for 'the strategies that co-occurred with another strategy in Couplet,' and 'X' for 'the strategies not found in the data.'

Table 55. Translation adjustment strategies found in translating the RCs

Translation strategy	Language direction	
	EN-TH	TH-EN
G3: Transposition	X	X
G4: Unit shift	F, [F]	F, [F]
G5: Phrase structure change	X	X
G6: Clause structure change	F	F, [F]
G7: Sentence structure change	F, [F]	F, [F]
G8: Cohesion change	F	X
G9: Level shift	X	X
G10: Scheme change	X	X
S7: Emphasis change	[F]	[F]
S8: Paraphrase	[F]	[F]
Couplet	F	F
Additions	F, [F]	[F]
Subtractions	X	[F]
Alterations	F	[F]

Table 55 shows that not all strategies in the framework were found in the RC translation from English into Thai and Thai into English. Some strategies were found both as an individual strategy and Couplet, for example, G4: Unit shift and G7: Sentence structure change. Some strategies were found only as Couplet, such as S7: Emphasis change and S8: Paraphrase. Four strategies that were not found in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation were G3: Transposition, G5: Phrase structure change, G9: Level shift, and G10: Scheme change. Table 56 below combined the translation adjustment strategies used in translating ERCs and TRCs. The sub-categories of the strategies and their frequency were provided, together with percentages and frequency of [F].

Table 56. Compilation of the adjustment strategies used in translating ERCs and TRCs

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
G4: Unit shift						
1. Word	-					
a. Adjective	-		1	39		4
b. Adverb	-		1	1		-
c. Determiner	-		-	2		1
d. Noun	-		-	4		-
e. Verb	-		-	1		-
<u>Total</u>	<u>0</u>		<u>2</u>	<u>47</u>		<u>5</u>
2. Phrase						
a. Adverb phrase	-		-	1		1
b. Adjective phrase	-		-	13		2
c. Noun phrase	5		3	6		2
d. Prepositional phrase	6		2	19		10
e. Verb phrase	29		4	9		1
<u>Total</u>	<u>40</u>		<u>9</u>	<u>48</u>		<u>16</u>
3. Sentence	<u>9</u>		-	<u>3</u>		-
Subtotal	49	44.14	11	98	48.04	21
G6: Clause structure change						
1. Active and passive voices	1		-	-		-
2. Whose	-		-	7		-
3. Others	-		-	3		1
Subtotal	1	0.90	-	10	4.90	1
G7: Sentence structure change						
1. Adverbial clause	5		-	1		-
2. Bare RC	13		1	20		-
3. Infinitive clause	-		-	10		-
4. Main clause	-		8	-		-
5. Noun clause	-		1	-		-
6. Reduced RC	-		-	33		1
7. Sentential RC	-		2	-		-
Subtotal	18	16.23	12	64	31.37	1
G8: Cohesion change	3	2.70	19	-	-	-
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	21	-	-	15
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	7	-	-	9
Couplet	36	32.43		32	15.69	

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
Additions	3	2.70	2	-	-	1
Subtractions	-	-	-	-	-	14
Alterations	1	0.90	-	-	-	2
<u>Total</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>204</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>64</u>

Table 56 summarizes all the translation adjustment strategies found in both language directions. Some strategies and sub-categories were adopted by both while some occurred only in one language direction. It is worth noting that, even though some strategies or structures were found with only a few occurrences, they represented the actual translations of ERCs and TRCs. Figure 7 shows the percentages in a bar chart for a clearer view of the data.

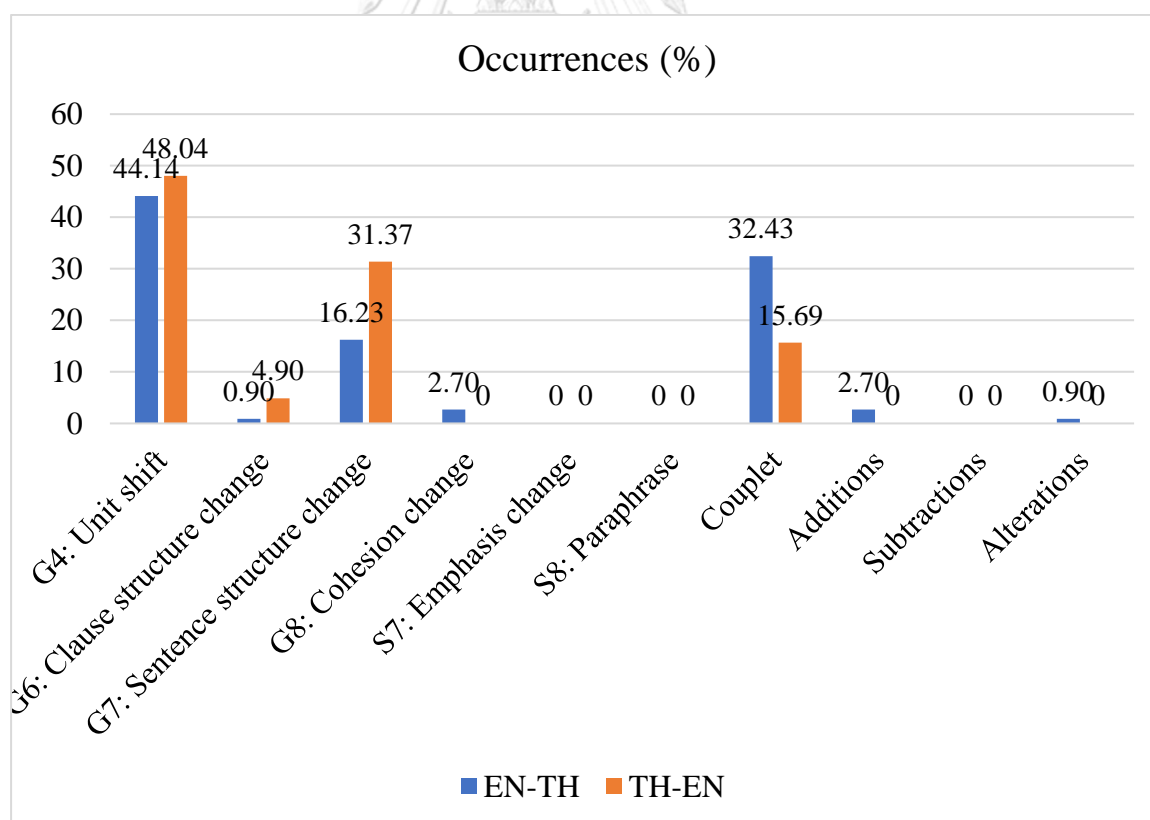


Figure 7. Percentages of occurrences of RC Adjustment's translation strategies

According to Figure 7, it was apparent that the three most used strategies in RC Adjustment in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation were G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, and Couplet. However, the order of frequency was different between the two language directions. For the English-Thai translation, it ranged from G4: Unit shift (44.14%), Couplet (32.43%), and G7: Sentence structure change (16.23%). As for Thai-English translation, the order was from G4: Unit shift (48.04%), G7: Sentence structure change (31.37 %) and Couplet (15.69%). Basically, it can be concluded from the data that the first most used strategy in translating ERCs into Thai and TRCs into English was G4: Unit shift. Regarding the other strategies, the percentages were lower or shown as zero. The latter case represented the strategies that were not found in the data or was found as Couplet only. The following section elaborates on each translation adjustment strategy in more detail.

- **G4: Unit shift**

Table 57. G4: Unit shift (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
G4: Unit shift						
1. Word	-					
a. Adjective	-		1	39		4
b. Adverb	-		1	1		-
c. Determiner	-		-	2		1
d. Noun	-		-	4		-
e. Verb	-		-	1		-
<u>Total</u>	<u>0</u>		<u>2</u>	<u>47</u>		<u>5</u>
2. Phrase						
a. Adverb phrase	-		-	1		1
b. Adjective phrase	-		-	13		2
c. Noun phrase	5		3	6		2

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
d. Prepositional phrase	6		2	19		10
e. Verb phrase	29		4	9		1
<u>Total</u>	<u>40</u>		<u>9</u>	<u>48</u>		<u>16</u>
3. Sentence	<u>9</u>		-	<u>3</u>		-
Subtotal	49	44.14	11	98	48.04	21

As mentioned in the earlier section, G4: Unit shift was the most typical adjustment strategy found in both ERC and TRC translation. Thai-English translation adopted this strategy in a slightly higher percentage than English-Thai translation, i.e. 48.04% versus 44.14%, respectively. G4: Unit shift was found in three units, namely word, phrase, and sentence units. The word and phrase units can be divided into various sub-groups as presented in Table 57. The data show that, in English-Thai translation, the phrase and sentence units were found when G4: Unit shift was used as a sole strategy. On the contrary, all the three units were used in Thai-English translation.

With regard to the word unit, there were no ERCs being translated into words in English-Thai translation. The only two exceptions, i.e. one occurrence with an adjective and one with an adverb, were part of couplet strategies. It is to be noted that these occurrences with low frequency might not be generalizable; however, they showed the actual language usage. In contrast to English-Thai translation, Thai-English translation found 47 occurrences of the word unit. Five word classes found were adjectives, adverbs, determiners, nouns, and verbs. The most frequently used word class was adjectives. To be specific, the adjectives used as the translation of TRCs were mostly attributive adjectives, which are placed before the modified noun. This differs from English-Thai translation where translating into attributive adjectives was not found in the data. The reason is that, in Thai, an adjective is located after the modified noun (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2009, pp. 66, 91). For example, in the noun phrase ‘รถแพง’ /rót p^hɛ:ŋ/ (‘an expensive car’), the head noun is ‘รถ’ /rót/ (‘car’) and

the adjective is ‘แพง’ /pʰɛːŋ/ (‘expensive’). The adjective follows the noun. So, it can be summed that translating TRCs into adjectives is one typical characteristic of Thai-English translation. An example is provided below.

(276) ST:	มัน	ช่าง	เป็น	ช่วงเวลา	ที่	ดี	ที่สุด
	man	cʰâːŋ	pen	cʰûːaŋ weːlaː	tʰiː	diː	tʰiː sùt
	it	such	COP	time	REL	good	best
	ใน	ชีวิต	ของ	เรา	สอง	คน	
	naj	cʰiːwít	kʰǎːŋ	raw	sǎːŋ	kʰon	
	in	life	of	we	two	CLF	

‘It was the time which was best in life for two of us.’

TT: This was the best time in life for the two of us.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 37, 33)

The TRC ‘ที่ ดี ที่ สุด’ /tʰiː diː tʰiː sùt/ (‘which was best’) postmodified the head noun ‘ช่วงเวลา’ /cʰûːaŋ weːlaː/ (‘time’) in the ST. This TRC was translated into the attributive adjective ‘best,’ placed before the modified noun ‘time.’ The clause unit of the TRC was changed to the word unit in the translation.

According to Table 57, there were also other word classes where TRCs were translated into. These are adverbs, determiners, nouns, and verbs. However, in Couplet, only two word classes were found, namely adjectives and determiners.

The second unit found in G4: Unit shift was the phrase unit. Its frequency was the highest in both English-Thai and Thai-English RC translation although the word unit in Thai-English translation was found in relatively the same number as the phrase unit. Regarding English-Thai translation, the phrase unit was found in three types: noun, prepositional, and verb phrases. The verb phrase was the most common phrase

type. This can be explained by the grammatical functions of relativizers in ERCs. The data show that many ST sentences with ERCs contained the relativizers which function as the subject of the RC. In other words, the missing element in the RC was in the subject position of the RC. The sentence pair in (277) exemplifies this point.

(277) ST: But **the first taxi that came along**, he flagged it down.

TT: แต่ พอ แท็กซี่ คัน แรก ผ่าน มา เขา

tè: pʰɔ: thɛ̀k sǐ: kʰan rɛ̀:k pʰà:n ma: kʰǎw

but when taxi CLF first pass come he

ก็ ไบกรเรียก

kô? lò:k rí:ak

LP flag down

‘But when the first taxi came along, he flagged it down.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 184, 228)

In (277), the ST head noun phrase was ‘the first taxi,’ and the ERC ‘that came along’ modified the head noun ‘taxi.’ The relativizer ‘that’ functions as the subject of the RC. To illustrate, the RC could be derived from the clause ‘taxi came along.’ This corresponded with the translation where the ERC was adjusted and translated as the verb phrase ‘ผ่านมา’ /pʰà:n ma:/ (‘came along’) while the modified head noun phrase ‘the first taxi’ became the subject of the verb ‘ผ่านมา’ /pʰà:n ma:/ (‘came along’). Many sentence pairs with the relativizers functioning as the subject resulted in the translation adjustment of G4: Unit shift with the verb phrase as the translated unit. Other than verb phrases, ERCs can also be adjusted into noun phrases and prepositional phrases.

As for Thai-English translation, the phrase types were more varied. Five phrase types were found, i.e. adverb phrases, adjective phrases, noun phrases,

prepositional phrases, and verb phrases. Two phrase types that were not used in English-Thai translation were adverb phrases and adjective phrases. Unlike English-Thai translation in which the verb phrase was the most common phrase type, Thai-English translation adopted the prepositional phrase the most. The frequency of prepositional phrases as Couplet was also the highest. As aforementioned in Chapter 5, prepositional phrases in English are common postmodifiers. This supports the high frequency of prepositional phrases in TRC translation into English. Another phrase type that was frequently used in Thai-English translation was the adjective phrase. This phrase type was not found in English-Thai translation. This could be due to the different language structures between the two languages. The adjective phrases, which were found as the translation of TRCs, can be categorized into two main groups: premodifier of noun and postmodifier of noun. Examples are provided in (278) and (279).

(278) ST:	ผม	อาจ	เพียงแต่	คิดถึง	วัยเด็ก	
	p ^h ǒm	ʔà:t	p ^h i:əŋ tɛ:	k ^h ít t ^h ǎŋ	waj dèk	
	I	may	merely	miss	childhood	
	<u>ที่</u>	<u>บริสุทธิ์</u>	<u>และ</u>	<u>ไร้เดียงสา</u>	หรือ ผม	
	<u>t^hi:</u>	<u>boʔriʔsùt</u>	<u>lɛʔ</u>	<u>rāj di:əŋsǎ:</u>	r ^u : p ^h ǒm	
	REL	pure	and	innocent	or I	
	อาจ	จะ	เพียงแต่	คิด	ว่า	ตัวเอง
	ʔà:t	càʔ	p ^h i:əŋ tɛ:	k ^h ít	wâ:	tu:a ʔe:ŋ
	may	CM	merely	think	COMP	oneself
	คิดถึง	สิ่ง	เหล่านั้น	ก็ได้		
	k ^h ít t ^h ǎŋ	sìŋ	lâw nán	kôʔ dâj		
	think of	thing	those	perhaps		

‘I might merely miss my childhood which was pure and innocent, or perhaps I might merely think that I missed those things.’

TT: Perhaps I merely missed my pure and innocent **childhood**, or perhaps merely thought I thought about those things.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 71, 75)

(279) ST: ความมืด ไหลหลัง มา เป็น ริ้ว ๆ เหมือน
 k^hwa:m mû:t lâj lăŋ ma: pen ríw ríw mû:an
 darkness follow come COP strips similar
 ม่าน ทึบ ที่ คลี่ตัว ปิด ละคร
 m̄a:n túp t^hi: k^hlí: tu:a pít laʔk^ho:n
 curtain think REL unfold close play
 ฉาก หนึ่ง
 c^hà:k nùŋ
 scene one

‘Darkness followed like strips, similar to a thick curtain which unfolded to end a scene of a play.’

TT: Darkness is unfolding right behind, like a **thick curtain** about to fall at the end of a scene.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 19, 9)

In (278), the TRC ‘ที่บริสุทธิ์และไร้เดียงสา’ /t^hi: boʔriʔsùt léʔ ráj di:ɑŋsǎ:/ (‘which was pure and innocent’) was translated into the attributive adjective phrase ‘pure and innocent,’ premodifying the head noun ‘childhood.’ An attributive adjective phrase is similar to a single word of an attributive adjective. The structure was not compatible

to Thai; thus, adjective phrases were not found in English-Thai translation. As for (279), the adjective phrase ‘about to fall at the end of a scene’ postmodified the noun phrase ‘a thick curtain.’ This resembles reduced RCs with the omission of relative words and the copula verb ‘be.’ This structure is closer to bare RCs in Thai. This point will be discussed further in the section on G7: Sentence structure change.

The last unit that was found in RC Adjustment of English-Thai and Thai-English translation was the sentence unit. This was a change from the clause unit of RCs to a new sentence. Both language directions adopted this unit. The frequency was slightly higher in English-Thai translation than Thai-English translation.

- **G6: Clause structure change**

Table 58. G6: Clause structure change (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
G6: Clause structure change						
1. Active and passive voices	1	-	-	-	-	-
2. Whose	-	-	-	7	-	-
3. Others	-	-	-	3	-	1
Subtotal	1	0.90	-	10	4.90	1

This strategy deals with the clause structure in relation to the constituents within a clause. The difference between English-Thai and Thai-English RC translation was clear in terms of the changes and frequency. In English-Thai translation, only one occurrence was found with the adjustment of active and passive voices. On the other hand, no sentence pair in Thai-English translation was found regarding the voices. The changes in Thai-English translation related to relativizers other than ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ They included ‘whose,’ ‘many of

whom,' 'on which,' and 'to whom.' Translating TRCs into these terms and expressions in English is language specific; therefore, they were found only in the Thai-English language direction.

- **G7: Sentence structure change**

Table 59. G7: Sentence structure change (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
G7: Sentence structure change						
1. Adverbial clause	5	-	-	1	-	-
2. Bare RC	13	-	1	20	-	-
3. Infinitive clause	-	-	-	10	-	-
4. Main clause	-	-	8	-	-	-
5. Noun clause	-	-	1	-	-	-
6. Reduced RC	-	-	-	33	-	1
7. Sentential RC	-	-	2	-	-	-
Subtotal	18	16.23	12	64	31.37	1

For RC Adjustment, G7: Sentence structure change was the third most frequently used strategy in English-Thai translation, and the second most used strategy in Thai-English translation. This adjustment strategy concerns the change of the clause units, for example, the main clause or the sub-clause. Two structures, i.e. adverbial clauses and bare RCs, were shared by the two language directions, English-Thai and Thai-English. This shows that ERCs and TRCs can be rendered into the TTs with these structures, particularly bare RCs, which were frequently used in both language directions.

With respect to bare RCs, there are differences between English-Thai and Thai-English translation. That is, for English-Thai translation, the bare RCs were verb

phrases, which function as the main verb of the preceding subjects. This can be traced back to the English STs. For these occurrences of bare RCs in the Thai translations, the relativizers functioned as the subject of the RC. The structure is ‘head noun + relativizer + verb.’ Therefore, the Thai translations could be translated as bare RCs in the structure of ‘head noun + verb.’ An example is presented below.

(280) ST: Jimmy Cordell seemed like **a man who worked hard and spent most of his off time with his family.**

TT: จิมมี่ คอร์ดเวลล์ ดู เหมือน จะ เป็น คน
 cimmî: kʰɔːde:n du: mǔnːan càʔ pen kʰon
 Jimmy Cordell look like CM COP man
 ทำงาน หนัก และ นอก เวลา ทำงาน
 tʰam ɲa:n nàk léʔ nɔːk weːla: tʰam ɲa:n
 work hard and outside time work
 ก็ อยู่ กับ ครอบครัว เสีย เป็น ส่วนใหญ่
 kôʔ jù: kàp kʰrɔːp kʰruːa sǐːa pen sùːan jàj
 LP stay with family PP COP most

‘Jimmy Cordell looked like a man (who) worked hard and spent most of his off time with his family.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 218, 216)

In (280), the TRC ‘who worked hard and spent most of his off time with his family’ was translated into the verb phrase ‘ทำงานหนัก และนอกเวลาทำงานก็อยู่กับครอบครัวเสีย เป็นส่วนใหญ่’ /tʰam ɲa:n nàk léʔ nɔːk weːla: tʰam ɲa:n kôʔ jù: kàp kʰrɔːp kʰruːa sǐːa pen sùːan jàj/ (‘worked hard and spent most of his off time with his family’). Since this

verb phrase postmodified the head noun ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘man’) without a relativizer, it followed the structure of a bare RC

On the other hand, Thai-English translation also utilized bare RCs in the translation of TRCs. Nonetheless, the structure differed from the bare RCs found in the Thai translation. In English, in order that relativizers can be omitted, the relativizers must be the object of the RC. Thus, the structure would be ‘head noun + relativizer + subject + verb.’ The bare RCs found in the Thai-English language direction, thus, followed the structure of ‘head noun + subject + verb.’ The sentence pair in (281) exemplifies TRC translation into a bare RC in English.

(281) ST:	ผม	ไม่	อาจ	ปฏิเสธ	ตัวเอง	ถึง
	pʰǒm	mâj	ʔà:t	paʔtiʔsè:t	tu:aʔe:ŋ	tʰǎŋ
	I	NEG	dare	deny	oneself	about
	ความรัก	และ	ความห่วงใย		ที่	แม่
	kʰwa:m rák	léʔ	kʰwa:m hù:anjaj		tʰi:	mê:
	love	and	concern		REL	Mum
	มี	ต่อ	ผม	ได้	เลย	
	mi:	tò:	pʰǒm	dâj	lɔ:j	
	have	for	me	POT	PP	

‘I cannot deny the love and concern which Mum has for me.’

TT: I can’t ignore **the love and concern Mum has for me.**

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 51, 50)

Example 281 shows that the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ functioned as the object of the RC. The TRC could be derived from the clause ‘แม่มีความรักและความห่วงใยต่อผม’ /mê: mi: kʰwa:m rák léʔ kʰwa:m hù:anjaj tò: pʰǒm/ (‘Mum has the love and concern for me’). When translated, the TRC ‘ที่แม่มีต่อผม’ /tʰi: mê: mi: tò: pʰǒm/ (‘which Mum has for

me’) was adjusted into the bare RC ‘Mum has for me,’ postmodifying the same head noun ‘the love and concern.’

These differences in the RC translation into bare RCs between the two language directions show that the functions of relativizer in the STs also affect the TT structures.

Apart from adverbial clauses and bare RCs, which were found in G7: Sentence structure change, there were five other structures, i.e. infinitive clauses, main clauses, noun clauses, reduced RCs, and sentential RCs. Among these five structures, main clauses, noun clauses, and sentential RCs were found only as Couplet in English-Thai translation, and infinitive clauses and reduced RCs were found only in Thai-English translation.

In Thai-English translation, TRCs were found to be translated into infinitive clauses and reduced RCs. Reduced RCs comprised both those with a past participle and those with a present participle. This clause type was the most common structure used in translating TRCs into English in G7: Sentence structure change. As for infinitive clauses, this clause type was the third most used structure in Thai-English translation. While other clause types found in the data were shared by both languages, these two structures – infinitive clauses and reduced RCs – were specific to English. That is, infinitives and participles concern inflection, which its role “is limited in English compared with many other languages” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 57). The findings confirmed that these structures were not found in English-Thai translation.

- **G8: Cohesion change**

Table 60. G8: Cohesion change (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
G8: Cohesion change	3	2.70	19	-	-	-

This translation adjustment strategy relates to intra-textual reference. It was found only in English-Thai translation, not vice versa. This is because the translated TRCs contained an added referent in the subject position. Example 282 illustrates an occurrence of G8: Cohesion change.

(282) ST: Inside, McCaleb talked to **James Cordell's supervisor, who** gave him the names and numbers of some of the aqueduct maintenance supervisors Cordell would have been working with in early January.

TT: ใน บ้าน แม็กเคเล็บ ได้ พูด กับ หัวหน้า
 naj bâ:n mékkh'e:lêp dâj p'hû:t kàp hǔ:anâ:
 in house McCaleb got to talk to supervisor
 ของ คอร์ดอลล์ ซึ่ง ฝ่ายหลัง ได้ ให้ ชื่อ
 k'hǔ:ŋ k'hɔ:de:n sũŋ fà:j lǎŋ dâj hâj ch'û:
 of Cordell REL the latter got to give name
 และ หมายเลข โทรศัพท์ ของ หัวหน้า
 lé? mǎ:jlê:k t'hɔ:ra?sàp k'hǔ:ŋ hǔ:a nâ:
 and number phone of supervisor

งานบำรุง	ท่อลำเลียงน้ำ	บางคน	ซึ่ง
<u>na:nbamruŋ</u>	<u>tʰw̃:lamli:anám</u>	<u>ba:ŋ kʰon</u>	<u>súnŋ</u>
maintenance	aqueduct	some people	REL
คอร์ดอลล์	เคย	ทำงาน	ด้วย ใน
<u>kʰw̃:de:n</u>	<u>kʰw̃:j</u>	<u>tʰamŋa:n</u>	<u>dú:aj naj</u>
Cordell	used to	work	with in
ช่วง	ต้น	เดือนมกราคม	

cʰú:ŋ tón du:anmáʔkaʔra:kʰom
 period early January

‘In the house, McCaleb talked to Cordell’s supervisor who (the latter) gave him the name and phone numbers of some aqueduct maintenance supervisors whom Cordell used to work with in the early January.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 223, 220)

The addition of the intra-textual reference ‘ฝ่ายหลัง’ /fà:j lǎŋ/ (‘the latter’) helped clarify the modified head noun ‘หัวหน้าของคอร์ดอลล์’ /hũ:anâ: kʰw̃:ŋ kʰw̃:de:n/ (‘Cordell’s supervisor’). The reason why there were no occurrences in this structure in English translation is it would be ungrammatical in English to repeat the subject in the ERC. For example, the sentence ‘*Inside, McCaleb talked to James Cordell’s supervisor, who the latter gave him the names ...’ with the addition of the noun phrase ‘the latter’ is ill-formed in English. Whereas G8: Cohesion change was adopted as a sole strategy in only three occurrences (2.70%), its frequency ranked as the second most used strategy (19 occurrences) as Couplet in English-Thai translation. Fundamentally, the high frequency implied that translating English texts into Thai preferred addition of words or phrases for referencing purposes.

- **S7: Emphasis change**

Table 61. S7: Emphasis change (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
S7: Emphasis change	-	-	21	-	-	15

This strategy makes changes in terms of the emphasis between the STs and the TTs. S7: Emphasis change is one of the two semantic strategies adopted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies. It was found occurring with other syntactic strategies. As Couplet, S7: Emphasis change was the first most used strategy in English-Thai translation and the second most used strategy in Thai-English translation. This suggested that translating ERCs and TRCs usually had an impact on the emphasis within the texts.

- **S8: Paraphrase**

Table 62. S8: Paraphrase (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
S8: Paraphrase	-	-	7	-	-	9

This is another semantic strategy, based on Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, which was selected for analyzing RC translation. It was also found as Couplet. Even though the frequency of the couplets with S8: Paraphrase was relatively high in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation, i.e. 7 and 9 occurrences, respectively, it was not as high as S7: Emphasis change. Still, it could be

inferred that translating ERCs and TRCs occasionally involved a higher level of textual adjustment in order to convey the ST meanings, which led to paraphrasing.

- **Couplet**

Table 63. Couplet (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
Couplet	36	32.43		32	15.69	

Couplet, or a combination of two strategies, was the second most used strategy (32.43%) in English-Thai RC translation and the third most used strategy (15.69%) in Thai-English RC translation. In English-Thai translation, there were seven couplets found. As for Thai-English translation, nine couplets were found. Table 64 combined all couplets between the two language directions.

Table 64. The Couplets used in translating the ERCs into Thai and the TRCs into English

Couplet	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1. G4: Unit shift + G4: Unit shift	-	-	2	6.25
2. G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change	4	11.11	4	12.50
3. G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase	5	13.88	8	25.00
4. G4: Unit shift + Additions	2	5.56	1	3.13
5. G4: Unit shift + Subtractions	-	-	3	9.38
6. G4: Unit shift + Alterations	-	-	1	3.13
7. G6: Clause structure change + Alterations	-	-	1	3.13
8. G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change	6	16.67	-	-

Couplet	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
9. G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change	4	11.11	-	-
10. G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase	2	5.56	1	3.13
11. G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change	13	36.11	-	-
12. S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions	-	-	11	34.38
Total	36	100	32	100

Altogether, twelve couplets were found in the data. Four couplets were shared by English-Thai and Thai-English translation, namely ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change,’ ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase,’ ‘G4: Unit shift + Additions,’ and ‘G7: Sentence structure change + S8: Paraphrase.’ This confirmed the findings that G4: Unit shift was the most common strategy in translating ERCs and TRCs. In terms of the frequency and percentages, the three most used couplets were also different. In English-Thai translation, it ranged from ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ (36.11%), ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change’ (16.67%), and ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ (13.88%). As for Thai-English translation, the three most used couplets were ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions’ (34.38%), ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ (25.00%), and ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ (12.50%). That is, it was apparent the first most frequently used couplet was dissimilar between the two language directions. In addition, such couplets were adopted only in either language direction.

In English-Thai translation, the fact that ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change’ ranked as the first couplet shows that translating TRCs into English tended to add intra-textual reference in the translation. Based on the data, the added reference was through classifiers, which increased the emphasis to the head noun. This couplet was not found in Thai-English translation. Regarding Thai-English translation, ‘S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions’ was the most typical couplet. The

data show the subtractions of the Thai STs in the English translation. As a result, the emphasis on the head noun dropped. From these two couplets, it can be summarized that translating ERCs into Thai seemed to add more texts while translating TRCs into Thai appeared to be more concise by reducing texts.

The second most used couplet in English-Thai translation was ‘G7: Sentence structure change + G8: Cohesion change.’ The ERCs were translated into main clauses as part of compound sentences. The intra-textual reference was added as the subject of the new main clause; these subjects were coreferential to the original head nouns of the RCs. This couplet was not found in Thai-English translation. As for Thai-English translation, ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ ranked as the second most used couplet. When a text was paraphrased, it was very likely that the clause unit of the ST RC would be changed to other units. The percentage of occurrences, which was relatively high, showed that translating TRCs into English required a great deal of paraphrasing. This couplet linked to the third most used couplet in English-Thai translation, which was also ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase.’

In English-Thai translation, ‘G4: Unit shift + S8: Paraphrase’ was one of the common couplets. However, the lower percentage at 13.88% in English-Thai translation compared with 25.00% in Thai-English translation showed that translating ERCs into Thai required less paraphrasing. As for Thai-English translation, ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ was the third most used couplet. The translation was carried out with the units other than clauses, and there was adjustment in the emphasis of the texts.

Table 64 shows other couplets that were adopted in RC Adjustment. Some other couplets with relatively high percentages, which were also used in English-Thai translation, were ‘G4: Unit shift + S7: Emphasis change’ and ‘G7: Sentence structure change + S7: Emphasis change.’ This suggested that the focus of the STs was adjusted to some extent in the ERC translation into Thai. In terms of Thai-English translation, other couplets did not occur as frequently. However, the data show that there was a couplet with the same strategy, i.e. ‘G4: Unit shift + G4: Unit shift.’ In addition, Subtractions and Alterations were found in Thai-English couplets, and not in English-Thai translation.

- **Additions**

Table 65. Additions (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
Additions	3	2.70	2	-	-	1

To supplement Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, three additional strategies, i.e. Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations, were drawn from Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) techniques of adjustment. The data show that English-Thai translation used Additions in the RC translation, but Thai-English translation adopted it as a strategy in Couplet. Additions in English-Thai translation were added as connectives or modifiers to help clarify the texts. Although with the low percentage, English-Thai translation appeared to add more details to the TTs.

- **Subtractions**

Table 66. Subtractions (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
Subtractions	-	-	-	-	-	14

The data show that Subtractions were not adopted in English-Thai translation. In Thai-English translation, this strategy occurred only as Couplet. The couplets that contained Subtractions were 'S7: Emphasis change + Subtractions' and 'G4: Unit shift + Subtractions.' Thus, omitting some parts of the texts resulted in the change in emphasis or units. It can be inferred that English-Thai translation attempted to preserve the ST meanings more than Thai-English translation did. Conversely, the

data of Thai-English translation showed more subtractions as a result of various factors. For example, the descriptions that were considered trivial or the references which were deemed cultural-specific to the STs might be omitted. An example is the translation of the Thai noun phrase ‘บันไดซึ่งมีชานพักกว้างและลูกกรงกลิ้งเกลา’ /bandaj sũŋ mi: cʰa:n pʰák kwâ:ŋ lé? lû:k kroŋ kluŋ klaw/ (‘the stairs which have a wide landing and delicate balusters’) was simply translated to the noun phrase ‘the stairs’ in the English translation without the RC. Another example of the cases where there were subtractions was when the Thai STs appeared to be tautologies. Thus, the English translations subtracted some repeated ST elements. For instance, the Thai ST sentence ‘หนึ่งตอบ และเบี่ยงตัวหลบมือแม่ที่ยื่นออกมา’ /nĩŋ tò:p lé? bì:aŋ tu:a lòp muu: mê: tʰi: jũ:n ?ò:k ma:/ (‘Ning replies and dodges to avoid Mum’s hand which reaches out’) was translated into the English sentence ‘Ning replies and dodges to avoid Mum’s hand.’ The TRC ‘ที่ยื่นออกมา’ /tʰi: jũ:n ?ò:k ma:/ (‘which reaches out’) was omitted. These instances might be explained by Saibua (2007) and Nida (1964). Saibua (2007, p. 69) mentions that words or phrases that are trivial and not present in the target languages might be subtracted under the condition that the ST main ideas must remain. In addition, both Saibua and Nida state that text repetitions could be omitted so that the TTs become natural.

- **Alterations**

Table 67. Alterations (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

Translation Adjustment Strategy	EN-TH			TH-EN		
	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]	Freq.	%	Freq. of [F]
Alterations	1	0.90	-	-	-	2

The last strategy in RC Adjustment is Alterations or the changes of ideas presented in the texts. Only one occurrence was found in English-Thai translation when Alteration was employed independently. As for Thai-English translation, two

occurrences were adopted as part of couplet strategies. The data show that this strategy rarely occurred in RC translation. Thai-English translation shows a higher tendency to use Alterations than English-Thai translation.

6.1.4 Complete Adjustment

This fourth type of translation strategy adjusts both the head noun and the RC. Complete Adjustment ranked as the third (11.78%) and the second (24.04%) most frequently used strategy in English-Thai and Thai-English translation, respectively (see Table 54 and Figure 6). The percentages indicated that Complete Adjustment was adopted more in Thai-English translation. In other words, more adjustments were made in Thai-English translation than English-Thai translation.

Since the levels and types of change in Complete Adjustment were diversified, the data were grouped into two points to be discussed. These are 1) the retention of the head nouns, and 2) the retention of the RC structure.

Table 68. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the ST head noun (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

ST head noun retention	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
With some retention	30	73.17	55	62.50
Without any retention	11	26.83	33	37.50
<u>Total</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>100</u>

Table 68 illustrates the cases where the ST head nouns were retained in the translations. The results were similar between the two language directions. That is, translation with some retention of the ST head noun was more common in both English-Thai translation (73.17%) and Thai-English translation (62.50%). 26.83% of English-Thai translation and 37.50% of Thai-English translation did not retain the ST head nouns. This means that they were omitted or paraphrased, but the meanings can

still be comprehended from the TTs and the contexts. The percentages shown in Table 68 also pointed out that Thai-English translation made changes to the head nouns in approximately 10% higher than English-Thai translation.

The other aspect to be discussed is the retention of the RC structure. Table 69 summarizes the results from English-Thai and Thai-English translation.

Table 69. Complete Adjustment in relation to the retention of the RC structure (English-Thai and Thai-English translation)

RC structure retention	EN-TH		TH-EN	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
With retention	3	7.32	4	4.55
Without retention	38	92.68	84	95.45
<u>Total</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>100</u>

The data in Table 69 clearly show that around 90% of both language directions did not retain the RC structure in the translations. As for the occurrences with retention of the RC structure, the translated RCs underwent some adjustments. These could be from paraphrasing and additions to the translated RCs.

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6.2 Effects of the RC types in English on translation strategies into Thai

Both English and Thai contain one similar characteristic which is the restrictiveness of RCs. There are two types: restrictive RCs (RRCs) and non-restrictive RCs (NRRCs). Basically, RRCs restrict or identify the antecedent, and NRRCs provide additional information to the antecedent. In English, for written language, separation markers such as commas or dashes are usually used to mark NRRCs. In contrary, there are no separation markers in RRCs. As for Thai, some scholars (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010), state that the relativizer ‘/thî:/’ signifies RRCs and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ refers to NRRCs.

Since the relativizers are involved, the data must be from two translation strategies with relativizers, which are Literal Translation and Antecedent Adjustment. According to the data, all four combinations of translation were found: 1) a ST RRC with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ in the translation, 2) a ST RRC with the relativizer ‘/sũŋ/’ in the translation, 3) a ST NRRC with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ in the translation, and 4) a ST NRRC with the relativizer ‘/sũŋ/’ in the translation. The sentence examples are provided as follows.

1) a ST RRC with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ in the translation

(283) ST: There are always **details that don't add up.**

TT: มั่น จะ ต้อง มี รายละเอียด จุกจิก ที่
 man cà? tɔŋ mi: ra:jaʔʔi:at cùkɔk tʰi:
 it CM must have detail trivial REL
 ไม่ ลงตัว กัน
 mâj loŋ tu:a kan
 NEG fit REC

‘There would be trivial details which did not fit.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 114, 116)

2) a ST RRC with the relativizer ‘/sũŋ/’ in the translation

(284) ST: They entered **one decent-sized room which** seemed kitchen and living room both.

TT: ทั้ง สาม เข้า ไป ใน ห้อง ขนาด ไม่
 tʰáŋ sǎ:m kʰâw paj naj hũŋ kʰaʔnà:t mâj
 all three enter go in room size NEG

ใหญ่ ไม่ เล็ก ซึ่ง ดู เหมือน จะ เป็น ทั้ง

jàj māj lék súŋ du: mǔ:an cà? pen tʰán
big NEG small REL look like CM COP both

ห้องครัว และ ห้องรับแขก

hôn kʰru:a lé? hôn ráp kʰè:k

kitchen and living room

‘All three people walked into a decent-sized room which seemed both kitchen and living room.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 420, 508)

3) a ST NRRC with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ in the translation

(285) ST: Ancram nodded to **Jack Morton**, **who** set the machine running.

TT: แอนแควรม พยักหน้า ให้ แจ็ก มอร์ตตัน

ʔɛ:nkʰrɛ:m pʰaʔjək nâ: hâj cək mɔ:tân

Ancram nod to Jack Morton

ที่ กำลัง ตั้ง เครื่องอัดเทป

tʰi: kamləŋ tən krû:əŋ ʔət tʰé:p

REL ADV set recorder

‘Ancram nodded to Jack Morton who was setting the recorder.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 301, 364)

4) a ST NRRC with the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ in the translation

(286) ST: McCaleb could see they were headed for **Buskirk’s office**,
which was still empty.

TT:	แม่็กเค่ลึบ	พอ	จะ	ดูออก	ว่า	
	mékke:lép	pʰɔ:	càʔ	du: ʔɔ:k	wâ:	
	McCaleb	could	CM	see	COMP	
	พวกเขา	กำลัง		มุ่งหน้า	ไป	ทาง
	pʰû:ak kʰǎw	kamlɔŋ		mûŋ nâ:	paj	tʰa:ŋ
	they	ADV		head	go	side
	ห้องทำงาน	ของ	บัสเคิร์ก	<u>ซึ่ง</u>	<u>ยังคง</u>	
	hŏŋ tʰamŋan	kʰɔ:ŋ	bûtkʰó:k	sûŋ	jan kʰon	
	office	of	Buskirk	REL	still	
	ว่าง	อยู่	เช่นเดิม			
	wâ:ŋ	jù:	cʰên dɔ:m			
	empty	ASP	same			

‘McCaleb could see that they were heading for Buskirk’s office
which were still empty.’

(*Blood Work*, pp. 42, 46)

To answer the fourth research question: ‘Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies,’ a chi-square test was performed via the SPSS program. This was to find out whether the RC types, i.e. restrictive and non-restrictive, affected the translation strategy in relation to the Thai relativizers or not. To illustrate, while the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ are believed to correspond with RRCs and NRRCs (Kullavanijaya, 2010;

Panthumetha, 2010), the chi-square test will show if there is actually an association between the two variables.

The data source was the English-Thai translation. The sentence pairs that were used as the data were those with the literal translation strategy. Since the focus was on two Thai relativizers, ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/,’ the translation strategies which yielded these relativizers were Literal Translation and Antecedent Adjustment. Nevertheless, there were other relativizers found, namely ‘/p^hû:/’ and ‘/p^hû: sûŋ/.’ Thus, only the sentence pairs with the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ were selected for the chi-square test. The total number of sentences was 177, comprising 161 sentence pairs from Literal Translation and 16 sentence pairs from Antecedent Adjustment.

The two categorical variables, i.e. the RC types (restrictive and non-restrictive) in English and the Thai relativizers (‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’) with their frequencies were tabulated in a contingency table as presented in Table 70.

Table 70. Contingency table in relation to the RC types in English and the Thai relativizers

		Thai relativizer		Total
		‘/t ^h î:/’	‘/sûŋ/’	
RC type in English	Restrictive	92	49	141
	Non-restrictive	9	27	36
Total		101	76	177

After the chi-square test was performed, the test showed that there was a significant association between the RC types and the selection of the Thai relativizers in English-Thai translation, $(1) = 18.961, p < .001$. With Yate’s continuity correction⁶², the chi-square test revealed the same results, $(1) = 17.354, p < .001$. The calculation of the effect size with ‘phi coefficient (ϕ)’ showed that the Phi value was .327, indicating a medium-sized effect.

⁶² For a 2 by 2 table, i.e. two variables with two categories in each variable, the value of Continuity Correction should be used instead of the Pearson Chi-square value (Pallant, 2010, p. 219). To illustrate, the value of Continuity Correction is the chi-square value that received ‘Yates correction,’ which ensures that “the chi-square value is not overestimated” (Roever & Phakiti, 2018, p. 182).

To conclude, according to the output of the Chi-square test to determine an association between the types of RCs and the translation strategies in terms of the Thai relativizers, the chi-square value showed that the RC types significantly affected the choice of Thai relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/,’ and the effect size was medium. That is, RRCs in English were more likely to be translated into the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/,’ and NRRCs in English were more likely to be translated into the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/.’

In comparison with Leenakitti’s (2012) findings on the effect of English RC types on Literal translation with the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/,’ there were some differences. With the frequency count and percentages, Leenakitti found that the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ was used more with RRC STs, and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ occurred more with NRRC STs. However, the current study found that both relativizers were used more with RRC STs. The chi-square test was performed in this current study to determine if there was an association between the two variables. The results confirmed the association.

According to the chi-square test and due to the medium-sized effect, it can be concluded that the findings moderately confirmed the notion mentioned in, for example, Kullavanijaya (2010) and Panthumetha (2010), that the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ in Thai is used with RRCs and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ is used with NRRCs. In other words, there is a high tendency that the usage of these two Thai relativizers would be adopted in that fashion. Therefore, to answer the fourth research question: ‘Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies,’ the chi-square test showed that the RC types in English affected the translation strategies in relation to the Thai relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/.’

6.3 Summary

This chapter is divided into two main sections: comparison between ERC and TRC translation strategies and effects of the RC types. Firstly, the comparison between ERC and TRC translation strategies shows that English-Thai translation adopted literal translation (50.29%) and translation adjustment (49.71%) in nearly same proportion. On the other hand, Thai-English translation adopted translation

adjustment (82.79%) more than literal adjustment (17.21%). As the findings shown, adjustment can be performed on both the head noun and the RC. Thus, adjustment was divided into three types based on the degrees of adjustment, namely Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. The data show that English-Thai translation adopted Literal Translation the most, followed by RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. As for Thai-English translation, the first most used strategy was RC Adjustment, followed by Complete Adjustment, and Literal Translation.

The highest percentage of Literal Translation in English-Thai translation shows that it was common that ERCs would be rendered into Thai with TRCs. This is because of the parallel structure between ERCs and TRCs, including the availability of relativizers in both languages. However, Thai-English translation did not employ Literal Translation in high degree. The data show that translation adjustment was adopted more in Thai-English translation. There are two reasons which can be inferred from the data why Thai-English translation employed more adjustment than English-Thai translation.

Firstly, English has various structures in order to modify nouns. This is particularly evidenced by RC Adjustment, which shows that Thai-English translation adopted a wider variety of language structures that can be used to modify nouns than English-Thai translation. For instance, according to Table 56, which is the compilation of the adjustment strategies used to translate ERCs and TRCs, TRCs could be translated into words as part of the word unit under G4: Unit shift by employing adjectives, adverbs, determiners, nouns, and verbs. On the contrary, these categories of words were not found, as an individual strategy, in English-Thai translation. Similar to G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, which was adopted in both language directions, could be divided into more types of clauses in Thai-English translation than English-Thai translation. That is, in the Thai-English language direction, there were four clause types found, i.e. an adverbial clause, bare RC, infinitive clause, and reduced RC. On the other hand, only two clause types were employed in English-Thai translation; these included an adverbial clause and bare RC. In brief, various structures used to modify nouns were found in Thai-English

translation. Thus, this could be one of the factors contributing to the higher percentage of translation adjustment in Thai-English translation than English-Thai translation.

Secondly, the findings show that the length of RCs influenced the translation strategies of RCs between English and Thai. The data show that, based on the STs of the two language directions, the TRCs tended to be shorter in length than the ERCs. In Thai-English translation, when a TRC is short, containing merely a few words, it is possible to translate the TRC into one single adjective, as evidenced by the findings showing that most adjectives found as the translation of the TRCs under G4: Unit shift were attributive adjectives. In addition, short TRCs undeniably tend to produce short English translation; this might facilitate the adjustment and the selection of other syntactic structures to convey the original TRCs. In contrast, the data show that the ST ERCs tended to be longer than the ST TRCs. Therefore, it can be inferred from the findings that, when an ERC is long, the Thai translation is likely to follow the RC structure, which results in literal translation. To conclude, the length of RCs might also affect the translation strategies of ERCs and TRCs. Each translation adjustment strategy can be summarized as follows.

Antecedent Adjustment was the least used strategy in both language directions. The changes were made on the head nouns, which did not affect the RC structure. Therefore, the degree of adjustment was considered minimal.

RC Adjustment was the most versatile strategy. It can be analyzed with the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment (see Table 23) based on Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida's (1964) and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies. Ten strategies in total were found in RC Adjustment. The three most typical strategies in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation were G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, and Couplet. The high percentages of G4: Unit shift in both language directions indicated that ERCs and TRCs were usually translated into a new unit. Different characteristics of English and Thai affected the translation strategies. For example, attributive adjectives, infinitive clauses, and reduced RCs are language features of English. Therefore, they were not found in English-Thai translation. On the contrary, adding intra-textual referencing words into TRCs can be done in English-Thai translation, but not vice versa. Another

strategy which was common was Couplet. This strategy underlined the fact that more than one strategy could co-occur.

Lastly, Complete Adjustment shows that some sentence pairs had their head noun and RC adjusted. The changes also concern the retention of the ST head noun or the RC structure. This translation adjustment may resemble paraphrasing, whose focus is on the core meanings of the texts.

To conclude, in order to answer the third research question: ‘Are the translation strategies used in translating RCs in this study the same or different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai,’ the findings showed that the translation strategies used in translating RCs between the two languages were the same and different. To illustrate, the four types of translation strategy were adopted in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. The details of each strategy could vary.

Another point of this chapter is the effects of the RC types. In order to examine this, the chi-square test was performed. The results indicated there was a significant association between the RC types and the relativizers in English-Thai translation. Thus, the answer to the fourth research question ‘Do the RC types in English (restrictive/ non-restrictive) affect the translation strategies’ was that it affected the translation strategies in relation to the Thai relativizer choice. That is, RRCs tend to be translated with the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/,’ and NRRCs correspond with the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/.’

The next chapter will present the conclusions of the study, followed by the theoretical and translation implications and pedagogical implications. The final section will cover the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the summary of the study (7.1) based on the findings and discussion in Chapter 4 to Chapter 6. Then, the implications are described in relation to theoretical and translation aspects (7.2) and pedagogical aspects (7.3). Chapter 7 ends with limitations of the study and recommendations for future research (7.4).

7.1 Summary of the main findings

This study aimed at examining the translation strategies used in translating ERCs into Thai and TRCs into English. The focus was on the ERCs with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ and the TRC with the relativizers ‘/tʰiː/’ and ‘/sûŋ/.’ These relative words were chosen because they were common in English and Thai, respectively. The data were the sentence pairs from two English novels – *Blood Work* (2015) and *Black and Blue* (2012) – and two Thai novels – *เวลาในขวดแก้ว* /we:la:naj kʰu:at kê:w/ (2015) and *ปูนิ่ปิดทอง* /pu:n pít tʰɔ:ŋ/ (2015) – with their translations. The total of 348 sentence pairs were collected from the English STs, and 366 sentence pairs were retrieved from the Thai STs. The RC translation strategies were analyzed based on the framework for the analysis of RC translation adapted from Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment techniques. After the translation strategies of each language direction were categorized, they were compared and contrasted in order to examine the similarities and differences between the ERC and TRC translation strategies. The study also investigated the effects of the RC types in English on the translation strategies into Thai.

With regard to the hypotheses, the first hypothesis stated that the translation strategies used in translating the ERCs into Thai and the TRCs into English were the literal translation with a relativizer and the translation adjustment. The findings confirmed this hypothesis. Both language directions adopted the literal translation

strategy and translation adjustment strategies. In addition, it was found that, in the translation of ERCs and TRCs, adjustment was not made only on the RC but also the head noun. Thus, the translation strategies could be further divided into four types, i.e. Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. This categorization was determined based on the degrees of adjustment performed on the head noun and the RC. That is, for Literal Translation, the head noun and the RC did not receive adjustment in terms of the RC structure. As regards Antecedent Adjustment, changes were made on the head noun whereas the RC with a relativizer was literally translated with the TT RC structure. RC Adjustment carried out adjustment on the RC and maintains literal translation on the head noun. Lastly, Complete Adjustment contained changes in both the head noun and the RC.

With respect to the relativizers in the literal translation strategy, four Thai relativizers were found in English-Thai translation, and four English relativizers were found in Thai-English translation. The four Thai relativizers used in the ERC translation were *‘/tʰɨː/’*, *‘/sûŋ/’*, *‘/pʰûː/’*, and *‘/pʰûː sûŋ/’*. As for English relativizers, the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ were found in Thai-English translation. The findings showed the usage frequency of relativizer and animacy concord between the relativizer and the RC. In English-Thai translation, the two most common relativizers were *‘/tʰɨː/’* and *‘/sûŋ/’*. The other two relativizers, i.e. *‘/pʰûː/’* and *‘/pʰûː sûŋ/’*, were found in low percentages. Regarding Thai-English translation, the most typical relativizer found in the data was ‘who,’ followed by the relativizers ‘that’ and ‘which,’ while the relativizer ‘whom’ was found the least.

The usage of these relativizers as the translation also followed and reflected the animacy concord. With respect to English-Thai translation, this concord does not apply to the relativizers *‘/tʰɨː/’* and *‘/sûŋ/’* in Thai. Both relativizers contain a neutral concord, which means they can take either animate or inanimate head nouns. Only the relativizers with the word *‘/pʰûː/’* show the animacy concord between the relativizers and animate head nouns. Since the relativizers *‘/tʰɨː/’* and *‘/sûŋ/’* are more common than other relativizers, high percentages of occurrences of the relativizers *‘/tʰɨː/’* and *‘/sûŋ/’* in the translation could be due to both the regularity and the absence of animacy concord.

Conversely, ERCs have the animacy concord between the relativizer and the head noun as its main characteristic. Thus, the high frequency of the relativizer ‘who’ indicated a large number of animate head nouns in the Thai STs. The data also showed the translation with the relativizer ‘that,’ which possesses the neutral concord, the relativizer ‘which,’ which takes inanimate head nouns, and the relativizer ‘whom,’ which co-occurs with animate head nouns.

The second hypothesis was that the translation strategies used in translating RCs in the present study were the same and different between the selected RC structures of English and Thai. The findings confirmed the second hypothesis. To illustrate, both English-Thai and Thai-English translation adopted the four types of translation strategy found in this study, namely Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. This included patterns and sub-strategies within each type of translation strategy. Nonetheless, the percentages of the translation strategies used differed between the two language directions. English-Thai translation adopted Literal Translation (50.29%), RC Adjustment (31.90%), Complete Adjustment (11.78%), and Antecedent Adjustment (6.03%). Thai-English translation used RC Adjustment (55.74%), Complete Adjustment (24.04%), Literal Translation (17.21%), and Antecedent Adjustment (3.01%). In essence, English-Thai translation tended to preserve the RC structure within the translation as can be seen from a high percentage of the literal translation strategy. This could be because of the corresponding RC structures between the two languages.

In contrast, despite the parallel RC structure, the findings of Thai-English translation showed high percentages of translation adjustment, especially RC Adjustment and Complete Adjustment. The changes in translation were addressed in detail particularly in RC Adjustment, where the translation strategies used in translating RCs were analyzed based on the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment adapted from Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, supplemented by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment strategies. Nine strategies were found, either as an individual strategy and/or as Couplet, in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. These strategies included G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis

change, S8: Paraphrase, Couplet, Additions, and Alterations. Subtractions was the strategy found only in Thai-English translation.

The data illustrated that the three main adjustment strategies were the same between English-Thai and Thai-English translation, namely G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, and Couplet. However, the percentages of occurrences varied between the two language directions. Overall, among the translation strategies shared by the two language directions, Thai-English translation showed a wider variety of translation adjustment than English-Thai translation, including higher percentages of translation adjustment. This signified that translating TRCs into English needed higher degree of adjustment in terms of the language structures and may involve text deletion. On the contrary, English-Thai translation tended to add more texts to the translation, for example, the addition of classifiers as intra-textual reference. Regarding Couplet, which was often found in the data, this combination strategy confirmed that more than one adjustment strategy usually co-occurred in a single instance of translation.

Moreover, the fact that the findings showed the higher percentage of translation adjustment in Thai-English translation than English-Thai translation might come from two factors. The first factor was that English has more means of noun modification. RC Adjustment showed that more structures which could be used instead of the RC structure were found in Thai-English translation than in English-Thai translation. The other factor is the length of ST RCs. Short RCs, which were found more in the Thai-English language direction, tended to be adjusted. On the other hand, long RCs, which were found more in the English STs, were likely to be translated as RCs in the Thai translation. These two observations appeared to be the contributing factors of the selection of RC translation strategies. In addition, they also helped explain why there was a higher degree of adjustment in Thai-English translation than English-Thai translation.

In response to the third hypothesis, which specified that the RC types in English (restrictive and non-restrictive) affected the translation strategies, the chi-square test was carried out to prove this hypothesis. The results confirmed that there was a statistically significant association between the RC types in English and the

relativizers ‘/tʰi:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ in the Thai translation. In other words, the English RC types did affect the translation strategies with regard to the literal translation strategy with a relativizer. The effect size was calculated after the association between the two variables, i.e. the RC types in English and two Thai relativizers, was tested significant. The medium effect size was found, which suggested that, when the ERC was an RRC, the relativizer ‘/tʰi:/’ tended to be adopted, and when the ERC was an NRRC, the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ tended to be used instead.

7.2 Theoretical and translation implications

This section concerns two main aspects in relation to translation, i.e. translation theories and the RC types. Based on the literature review of translation theories in Chapter 2 (Section 2.1.1 Translation theories), this study mentioned translation methods, translation strategies, and translation adjustment. As the term suggests, translation methods usually refer to how translation is carried out. Typically, they are divided into two main poles, i.e. literal translation and free translation, with translation methods on, towards or in-between each pole. The findings of this study, which could be broadly categorized into literal translation and translation adjustment, conformed to a certain extent with these two poles. That is, literal translation was inclined to the literal translation pole, and translation adjustment was towards the free translation pole.

In addition to the two main translation strategies, i.e. literal translation and translation adjustment found in this study, they could be divided into four types of translation strategy: Literal Translation, Antecedent Adjustment, RC Adjustment, and Complete Adjustment. The categorization was based on the degrees of adjustment to the head noun and the RC. The aspect of the adjustment degrees was similar to Newmark’s (1988) and Larson’s (1984) translation methods. To illustrate, both Newmark and Larson provided various translation methods which could be considered along the translation continuum between literal translation and free translation, for instance, Newmark proposing word-for-word translation, faithful translation, idiomatic translation, and Larson proposing very literal translation,

modified literal, idiomatic translation. That is, the various degrees of translation adjustment found in the current study are in accordance with the fact that there could be many translation methods between the two poles of translation as suggested by some translation scholars.

It was the translation strategies for ERC and TRC translation that this study aimed to discover. In order to analyze the strategies found in the data, Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies, including Newmark's (1988) translation procedures, were adopted. The translation strategies, as reviewed in Section 2.1.1.2 Translation strategies in Chapter 2, refer to solutions to translation problems at the units smaller than the whole text such as sentences or structures. Although there were categories of 'translation strategies' proposed by various scholars (e.g. Chesterman, Newmark, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995)), Chesterman's translation strategies were selected as the basis for the development of the frameworks used in this study. The reason behind the selection was that Chesterman divided the translation strategies into three groups, namely syntactic strategies, semantic strategies, and pragmatic strategies. Thus, the syntactic strategies and those syntactic-related strategies could be used to explain RC translation. The practicality of the frameworks developed from Chesterman's translation strategies was confirmed by the findings. That is to say, apart from literal translation, RC Adjustment, which coped with the RC Adjustment, could be analyzed by using the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment. In addition, the term and concept of 'couplets' or the combination of two strategies as mentioned in Newmark (1988, p. 91) were included in the translation frameworks. The findings showed that couplets were employed in ERC and TRC translation.

In order to supplement the translation adjustment strategies, Nida's (1964) 'techniques of adjustment' and Saibua's (2007) translation adjustment strategies were included. The additional adjustment strategies were summarized into three groups, termed following Nida's techniques of adjustment, i.e. Additions, Subtractions, and Alterations. The findings of the study showed that these additional strategies were employed as an individual strategy and a couplet.

With regard to the RC types, restrictive and non-restrictive, this aspect was explored in terms of its effects on ERC translation into Thai. While the RC types in

English could be specified by certain markers such as commas and dashes, the RC types in Thai could not. In theories, the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ suggests RRCs, and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ is for NRRCs. However, this is not an absolute rule to determine the restrictiveness of TRCs although some studies (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010) suggest in favor of such employment. The statistical findings of the current study supported this notion. The chi-square test showed there was the tendency that the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ was selected in the translation when the ST ERC was an RRC, and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ was adopted with the ST ERC being an NRRC.

In conclusion, the findings of this research supported the two poles of translation, namely literal translation and free translation, and the fact that there could be various translation methods or strategies in-between the two poles. The various translation strategies could portray the degree of how ‘literal’ or ‘free’ the translation is. As for RC translation, the translation analysis should expand to the head noun of the RC, not only the RC itself. In order to elaborate on the translation phenomenon, the translation theories or strategies from multiple scholars could be adopted to complement one another. Lastly, with respect to the effects of the RC types on English-Thai translation, this study supported the mainstream notion of the relativizer ‘/tʰiː/’ for RRCs and the relativizer ‘/sûŋ/’ for NRRCs.

7.3 Pedagogical implications

The findings of this research can benefit the teaching of ERC translation into Thai and TRC translation into English. In the instruction of ERC and TRC translation, teachers may begin by introducing the similarities and differences between ERCs and TRCs in various aspects, for example, syntactic structures, relativizers, types of RC, grammatical functions of RCs and relativizers. Then, the two main types of translation strategy, namely literal translation and translation adjustment, can be presented. The literal translation strategy would demonstrate the parallel structures of ERCs and TRCs and the fact that RCs can be literally translated. However, it should be pointed out that literal translation can produce natural and unnatural translation; this is when

translation adjustment can be mentioned. The findings of this study suggested three adjustment strategies, depending on the degrees of adjustment. This would show that adjustment could be carried out either on the head noun or the RC, or both. The framework for the analysis of translation adjustment (see Table 23 in Section 3.4.1), including the compilation of translation strategies and the couplets adopted in RC translation (see Table 56 and Table 64 in Section 6.1.3, respectively), can be used as the guidelines for possible translation strategies employed in translating ERCs into Thai and TRCs into English. Teachers may identify the strategies adopted in each language direction and explain the language features that might lead to certain strategies.

For instance, English-Thai translation frequently adopted G4: Unit shift by translating ERCs into verb phrases. This concerns the change of the head noun, which is originally modified by the ERC, to be the subject of the verb phrase which is the translation of the ERC. An example is provided below.

(287) ST: The phone rang, was answered by **the barmaid, who nodded** towards Rebus.

TT: เสียงกริ่ง ของ โทรศัพท์ ดัง ขึ้น บาร์เทนเดอร์
 sǐːaŋ krɨŋ kʰɔ̌ːŋ tʰoːraʔsap daŋ tʰɯ̌m baːtʰeːndôː
 ring of phone ring up bartender
 สาว เป็น ผู้ รับสาย ก่อน จะ บัญหน้า
 sǎːw pen pʰûː ráp sǎːj kòːn càʔ bûj náː
 young COP person answer before CM nod
 มา ทาง รีบัส
 maː tʰaːŋ riːbút
 come side Rebus

‘The ring of the phone came up. The barmaid answered and nodded towards Rebus.’

(*Black and Blue*, pp. 461, 560)

In (287), the head noun phrase was ‘the barmaid’ modified by the ERC ‘who nodded towards Rebus.’ This head noun phrase functioned as the object of the preposition ‘by.’ In the Thai translation, the ST head noun phrase ‘the barmaid’ was translated into the noun phrase ‘บาร์เทนเดอร์สาว’ /ba:tʰe:ndô: sǎ:w/ (‘barmaid’), which was the subject of the sentence ‘บาร์เทนเดอร์สาวเป็นผู้รับสายก่อนจะนุ้ยหน้ามาทางรีบัส’ /ba:tʰe:ndô: sǎ:w pen pʰû: ráp sǎ:j kò:n cà? búj nâ: ma: tʰa:ŋ ri:bút/ (‘the barmaid answered and nodded towards Rebus’). The ERC was translated into the verb phrase ‘นุ้ยหน้ามาทางรีบัส’ /búj nâ: ma: tʰa:ŋ ri:bút/ (‘nodded towards Rebus’). With the sentence pair in (287) as an example, teachers can direct students’ focus to the altered structure between the ST and the TT. This resulted in the translation adjustment from the ST ERC to the TT verb phrase.

As for Thai-English translation, the data show that TRCs were commonly rendered into English attributive adjectives, as exemplified in (288).

- (288) ST: บ่อยครั้ง ที่ ผม หวน คิดถึง ช่วงเวลา
 bøj kʰráŋ tʰi: pʰôm hũ:an kʰít tʰŋŋ cʰû:aŋ we:la:
 often COMP I return miss time
- ที่ ผ่าน มา เมื่อ ผม และ น้อง ยัง เล็ก
 tʰi: pʰà:n ma: mû:a pʰôm lé? nó:ŋ jaŋ lék
 REL pass come when I and sister sill little
- ‘I often reminisced the days which passed when I and my sister were little.’

TT: I often reminisce about bygone **days** when my sister and I were little.

(*Time in a Bottle*, pp. 19, 10)

In (288), the TRC ‘ที่ผ่านมา’ /tʰi: pʰà:n ma:/ (‘which passed’) was translated into the attributive adjective ‘bygone.’ The different syntactic structures of the modification between English and Thai can be pointed out to students. This also concerns the effects of the dissimilar structures on the translation from Thai into English.

Simply put, the translation strategies found in this study provide translation alternatives to the literal translation strategy and also present the usage frequency of translation adjustment strategies in actual data. Regarding Antecedent Adjustment, teachers can describe the translation patterns and strategies that could be performed on the head noun, for example, omissions of the head noun or alterations made on the head noun. With respect to RC Adjustment, there are many translation adjustment strategies, presented in Section 6.1.3 RC Adjustment, which can be used as examples of ERC and TRC translation. As for Complete Adjustment, various translations can be exemplified. This is due to flexible adjustment, which tends to involve paraphrasing, carried out on both the head noun and the RC. In addition, the retention of the head noun and RC can also be mentioned when the head noun and the RC receive changes in Complete Adjustment. These adjustment strategies show the literal translation strategy is not the only strategy or the most suitable strategy to translate RCs. There are various other adjustment strategies which can be used to translate ERCs into Thai and TRCs into English. That is, since literal translation does not always provide idiomatic translated texts, adjustment can be implemented. In addition to pointing out to translation students that language naturalness is crucial, teachers can also refer to the grammaticality aspect. The parallel structure between ERCs and TRCs could lead to mistranslation if students translate the RCs by strictly following the ST structure, which, in some cases, could be dissimilar to the TT structure. Thus, the adjustment strategies found in this research could guide students in terms of similarities and differences between ERCs and TRCs, and naturalness and accuracy in RC translation.

Another relating topic is the RC types in English. This study tested the association between the RC types in English and the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ and ‘/sûŋ/’ in Thai translation. The chi-square test was performed and confirmed the association between the two variables. Teachers may suggest that, for the literal translation strategy, these two Thai relativizers can be employed. Furthermore, if the English RC types of the ST sentence are taken into consideration, the translation could be carried out in accordance with the Thai language norm in terms of relativizers. That is, when the ERC is an RRC, the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ could be used. As for an NRRC, the relativizers ‘/sûŋ/’ could be used. Students should also be informed this relativizer selection is merely a tendency, and they do not need to strictly follow this pattern. This was evidenced because the findings also showed the translation in reverse, i.e. an RRC with the relativizers ‘/sûŋ/’ and an NRRC with the relativizers ‘/t^hî:/’ in the Thai translation. Thus, it would be complicated to specifically pinpoint if the RC types in English should determine the relativizers used. The reason for selecting any particular relativizer could be due to other factors such as the contexts or translators’ translation decision.

To conclude, the findings of this study could be beneficial to the teaching and learning of ERC and TRC translation. The RC translation strategies found in real usage were compiled in both English-Thai and Thai-English translation. The findings suggested various syntactic strategies that could be adopted as substitutes for the literal translation strategy. This can help eliminate some translation problems, for example, the repetitive use of the relativizer ‘/t^hî:/’ in English-Thai translation and the lack of translation choices for RC translation between English and Thai.

7.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The limitations of the present study and their corresponding recommendations for future research are in three aspects. Firstly, on account of the scope of the study, this research investigated only the RCs with a relativizer in English-Thai and Thai-English translation. Thus, other syntactic structures of RCs, for example, bare RCs and sentential RCs in English and Thai, and reduced RCs in English, were excluded.

These RC structures could be examined for their translation strategies by applying the frameworks proposed in this study, i.e. the framework for the analysis of the translation of RCs and the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment.

Another interesting aspect which was not included in this study was the analysis of the grammatical functions of RCs and relativizers in RCs. This refers to the functions of RCs, considered together with the head noun, in a sentence such as the subject of a sentence, and the functions of relativizers in an RC, e.g. the object in an RC. Due to this limitation of the study, the factor of the grammatical functions of RCs and relativizers was not taken into account when analyzing the translation strategies of ERCs and TRCs. Nonetheless, these factors could be further analyzed in future research in order to see whether they affect or are associated with how RCs are translated.

Lastly, the sentence pairs of English and Thai, which were the data of this study, were retrieved only from novels which are in the broad genre of fiction. Thus, RCs in other text genres, for example, non-fiction, advertisement, or web genres such as a personal homepage, could be examined in future studies. Various genres reflect different text types and language functions, which might affect the language use in the texts. Studying how ERCs and TRCs are translated in other text genres than fiction could reveal varied translation strategies which might be specific to particular genres.

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