

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

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Abstract

This research investigated translation strategies used in translating English relative clauses with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai. The data comprised 348 sentence pairs from two English novels and their Thai translations. It was hypothesized that the adopted translation strategies could be divided into two groups: literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment. To analyze the data, a framework for the analysis was constructed based on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment techniques. The findings confirmed that the two main strategies used in translating the English relative clauses into Thai are literal translation and translation adjustment. Regarding literal translation, four Thai relativizers were found: /t^hi:/, /s^uŋ/, /p^hu:/, and /p^hu: s^uŋ/. While literal translation suggested parallel syntactic structures between the English and Thai relative clauses, translation adjustment underscored distinctions between the two languages. The findings indicated three types of translation adjustment, i.e. Adjustments 1, 2, and 3, according to the degree of adjustment. The findings confirm the hypothesis and

have implications for the study of the relative clause structure and its translation strategies.

Keywords: relative clause, relative pronoun, translation strategy, literal translation, translation adjustment

Introduction

The structure of relative clauses (RCs) is one of many focal topics that language scholars have been examining with interest for many decades. One possible reason might be the universality of the structure, which is shared by multiple languages. The following studies might well support this assumption. Keenan and Comrie (1977, 1979) conducted studies on RC formation in almost 50 languages. Yaowapat and Prasithrathsint (2008) conducted a study on the typology of RCs in four languages in mainland Southeast Asia, namely Thai, Lao, Vietnamese, and Cambodian. This current study focuses on two languages: English and Thai.

With many aspects of RCs between English and Thai to explore, there have been numerous previous studies regarding, for example, contrastive or comparative analysis of Thai and English RCs (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2010; Suktrakul, 1975), the analysis of Thai RCs (TRCs) or TRC elements (e.g. Kullavanijaya, 2008; Sornhiran, 1978; Yaowapat and Prasithrathsint, 2008), and the acquisition or interlanguage of English RCs (ERCs) by Thai learners (e.g. Amornwongpeeti, 2013; Phoocharoensil, 2009). Nevertheless, there is hardly any research that focuses on the translation of RCs from English into Thai.

The fact that English and Thai share the core syntactic structure of RCs – a subordinate clause preceded by a relative word which postmodifies an antecedent – would seem not to pose any difficulty in translation. That is, literal translation can be applied when appropriate. However, literal translation is not always the only strategy. A study by Pongpairroj and Mallikamas (2004) indicated that the faithful Thai translation of English source texts (STs) could result in an unidiomatic translation and adjustment was required. Along the same lines, there are various ways that ERCs can be translated into Thai.

One study on RC translation between English and Thai was conducted by Leenakitti (2012). She examined the translation methods used to translate ERCs with the relative pronouns ‘which’ and ‘that’ into Thai. The main findings showed literal translation and translation adaptation. (See the Previous Study on the RC Translation in the English-Thai Language Pair in the Literature Review section)

However, with the lack of research in this area of RC translation from English into Thai and more room for extensive exploration, the present study aims to analyze translation strategies used to render ERCs with the relative words ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that’ into Thai. The significance of the study lies in the findings, which will yield practical and systematic translation strategies of ERCs into Thai, and the RC translation framework used in the analysis process.

This paper is organized as follows. After the introduction, Section 2 presents the hypothesis. Section 3 is a literature review regarding RCs in English and Thai, translation strategies, translation adjustment, and previous studies on RC translation. Section 4 elaborates on the methodology, followed by Section 5, which covers the findings and discussion. Section 6 provides the conclusions.

Hypothesis

The translation strategies used to translate ERCs into Thai can be categorized into two groups: literal translation with a relativizer¹ and translation adjustment.

Literature Review

RCs in English and Thai

The following subsections describe RCs in English and Thai with the focus only on RCs with a relativizer.

¹ In this paper, the term ‘relativizer’ refers to relative pronouns in English and Thai. It may be used interchangeably with ‘relative word’ for both languages and ‘relative pronoun’ in the English context.

- **RCs in English**

ERCs are finite subordinate clauses that postmodify and identify or give extra information to their antecedents, i.e. noun phrases (NPs) and some pronouns. An ERC is normally headed by a relativizer – for example ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that,’ which refers back to the preceding NP or the antecedent in the main clause (Ballard, 2007; Radford, 2004). In addition, an ERC has the missing constituent that semantically links to the head noun. An example of an ERC is in (1).

- (1) *the diamond earrings **that Mama wore.***

(Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999, p. 608)

This RC has ‘earrings’ as the antecedent and ‘that’ as the relativizer. The ‘gap’ of this RC occurs in the position of the direct object, suggesting the meaning of “Mama wore the diamond earrings” (Biber *et al.*, 1999, p. 608).

- **RCs in Thai**

Like ERCs, TRCs are subordinate clauses that postmodify nouns or pronouns. TRCs contain a missing argument or a personal pronoun which is a co-referent to the head noun (Kullavanijaya, 2010; Panthumetha, 2010). TRCs are typically preceded by a relativizer, namely /tʰiː/, /sǔŋ/, or /ʔan/. Example (2) illustrates a TRC.

- (2) หนังสือ ที่ คุณ ให้ ฉัน อ่าน สนุก ดี
 nǎŋsǔː tʰiː kʰun hâj cʰǎn ʔà:n saʔnùk diː
 book that you give me read fun good
 ‘The book that you gave me was fun to read.’

(adapted, transcribed, and translated from
 Kullavanijaya, 2010, p. 20)

The head noun in (2) is the word ‘หนังสือ’ /nǎŋsǔː/ (‘book’) postmodified by an RC introduced by the relativizer /tʰiː/. There is the missing argument in the position of the direct object of the

verb ‘ให้’ /hâj/ (‘give’), signifying the meaning of the clause ‘คุณให้หนังสือฉัน’ /kʰun hâj nâŋsǔu cʰăn/ (‘you gave the book (to) me’).

In Thai, the three primary relativizers, i.e. /tʰi:/, /sûŋ/, and /ʔan/, do not reflect the same animacy concord as English relativizers. The animacy of the antecedent only affects the relativizers with the word /pʰû:/ since they require animate antecedents.

Translation Strategies

How translation is carried out has been termed differently by many scholars, for example ‘methods of translation’ (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995), ‘kinds of translation’ (Larson, 1984), and ‘translation methods’ (Newmark, 1988). One of the most common terms is ‘translation method,’ which can be generally divided into two major poles: ‘literal translation’ and ‘free translation.’ Some scholars, for instance, Newmark (1988), Larson (1984), and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), specify that translation methods can be along a continuum, signifying that there are other means to translation between the two poles. However, when referring to possible solutions to translating STs, Newmark and Vinay and Darbelnet employ the term translation ‘procedures.’

This study adopted the term ‘translation strategy’ based on Chesterman’s (1997) ‘local strategies’ which handle translation problems at a specific level, for example, items or structures. His notion on strategies as solutions to problems is in line with Newmark’s (1988) and Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) translation procedures; thus, translation strategies are solutions to translation problems.

Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies can be categorized into three main groups: mainly syntactic/grammatical (G), mainly semantic (S), and mainly pragmatic (Pr). Occasionally, these three groups overlap, and there can be a combination of strategies. Due to their comprehensiveness and relatedness, Chesterman’s translation strategies were adopted as the main strategies for the framework of translation analysis. Since the focus of this study is on language structure, the strategies were

drawn from syntactic and semantic strategies, and pragmatic strategies were excluded. The framework and strategies are further elaborated under the section ‘Data Analysis.’

Translation Adjustment

To supplement Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, translation adjustment based on Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) was incorporated in this study. Nida’s ‘techniques of adjustment’ fall into three groups, i.e. ‘additions,’ ‘subtractions,’ and ‘alterations’ with various sub-types in each group. Translators carry out these techniques to achieve equivalents. In essence, ST meanings are maintained, but the form may be adjusted. With respect to Saibua (2007), both literal and free translation require translation adjustment. It can be performed at two levels: lexical and structural levels. Each level comprises further sub-groups.

Previous Studies on the RC Translation in the Language Pairs Other Than English and Thai

Some studies on RC translations of other language pairs apart from English and Thai are those by Anshori (2007); Dwijati, Pastika, and Puspani (2016); Nau (2011). Table 1 summarizes the language pairs and translation strategies found in the aforementioned studies.

Table 1: Previous Studies and Translation Strategies Adopted in the 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 <i>et al.</i> (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). The sample comprised 91 relative pronouns from a novel. 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 (no equivalents). The most common translation with 89.01% occurrence was translation into BI embedded clauses with the relative pronoun 'yang.'

Dwijati *et al.* (2016) conducted a study regarding the Indonesian-English language pairs. The researchers aimed at analyzing the types of Indonesian NPs with RCs and the translation procedures. The data were from a short story. Regarding 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, which were 1) NPs with RCs that contain adjectives and the relative pronoun 'yang,' and 2) NPs with RCs whose relative pronouns function as the subject or object of the RC. The translation procedures found were modulation, adaptation, and literal translation; the procedures also varied according to each type of NP.

Nau (2011) examined RCs with the focus on the functions of RCs. The data were from a chapter of a Swedish novel and the translations were in four languages, i.e. German, Polish, Latvian, and English. The researcher also analyzed the translation equivalents of all the texts. The data showed that there were 93 RCs in the ST; the translation equivalents differed in number among the four translations. The types of translation equivalents found included finite RCs, other finite clauses, participle construction, other translation, and no translation.

Previous Study on the RC Translation in the English-Thai Language Pair

One study that focused on ERC translation into Thai was that of Leenakitti (2012). The aims were to analyze the translation methods of ERCs with the relative pronouns ‘which’ and ‘that,’ and to analyze the factors that could affect the selection of Thai relative pronouns. The data comprised 630 sentence pairs from two children’s books. The data were analyzed based on three criteria: 1) literal translation with relative pronoun /tʰiː/, 2) literal translation with relative pronoun /sûŋ/, and 3) translation adaptation. The findings showed that all three methods were used, while literal translation with the relative pronoun /tʰiː/ was adopted the most with 52.54%. Translation adaptation and literal translation with the relative pronoun /sûŋ/ were employed with the percentages of 30.48 and 16.98, respectively. Regarding other factors that might influence relative pronoun translation, it was found that the ERC type – restrictive or non-restrictive RCs – and the frequency of a relative pronoun /tʰiː/ in one single sentence had some effect on the translation choice.

Methodology

This section discusses the ST selection, data collection and preparation, and data analysis.

ST Selection

The data for this study are sentence pairs from English STs and Thai translations. The STs contain RCs with the relativizers ‘who,’ ‘which,’ and ‘that.’ These relativizers were selected since they are the three most frequently used relative pronouns based on Biber *et al.* (1999). Two English novels and their Thai translations were used as the data sources, namely 1) *Blood Work* (2015²) by Michael Connelly and the translation /pʰa:raʔkìt lû:at/ (2004) translated into Thai by Sumet Chaochuti, and 2) *Black and Blue* (2012) by Ian Rankin and the Thai edition /sù:p sò:n

² The years of the STs and the translations are the publication years of the copies from which the data were derived.

k'hâ:ttā?kō:n ηaw/ (2007) done by Nantawan Termsangsirisak. These two novels were chosen because they met the selection criteria, i.e. the availability and quality of the STs and the translations, and the quantity of ST sentences with the selected RCs. Firstly, as a study on translation, the availability of both the English STs and Thai translations is crucial. The two novels belong to the sub-genre of crime fiction, which receives extensive translation from English into Thai. Therefore, this sub-genre was selected. Secondly, since both novels and their Thai translations are the work of renowned authors and translators, this assured the quality, i.e. correctness and appropriateness of the language use, of the STs and the translations. Lastly, the quantity of sentences containing the RCs was important. Both STs feature a sufficient number of sentences to show the actual use of RCs for the study.

Data Collection and Preparation

After the ST selection, the data – English-Thai sentence pairs – were collected. The ERC structure to be collected and analyzed is presented in Figure 1.

Determiners, Premodifiers (optional)	Antecedent	Postmodifiers (optional)	+	ERC	
				(Relativizers) who, which, that	Other elements of the RC

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

The ST sentences must contain an antecedent, which is the head noun, followed by an RC headed by a relativizer ‘who,’ ‘which,’ or ‘that.’ Determiners or premodifiers might precede the antecedent, and there could be postmodifiers after the antecedent. This constitutes NPs and they are treated as the object of the study.

To collect the data, the STs and target texts (TTs) were input into Microsoft Word files from online or paper sources. The

three relativizers were used as keywords to search for the sentences. The ST sentences in the scope of the study and their translations were manually recorded on Microsoft Excel sheets to create a parallel corpus ready to be analyzed.

Data Analysis

The analysis began with an identification of the translation strategies used to translate the ERCs based on the framework shown in Figure 2.

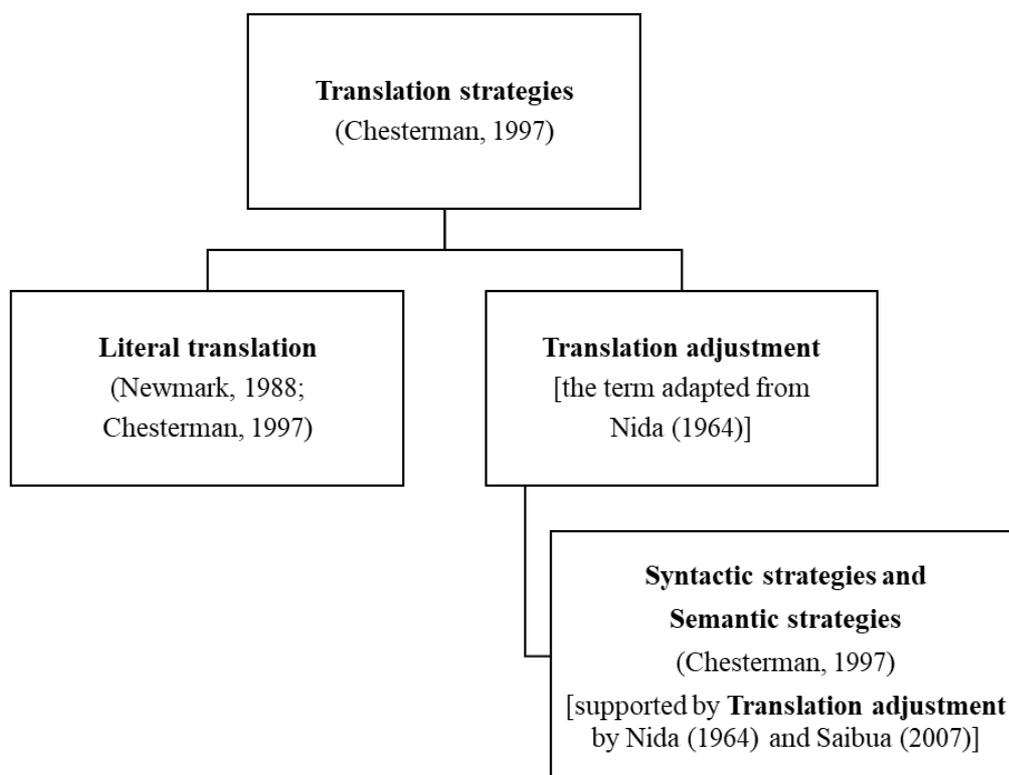


Figure 2. Framework for the Analysis of the Translation of RCs

Since Chesterman's (1997) classification involves 'literal translation' and other strategies, strategies involving changes are referred to as 'translation adjustment.' In this study, the term 'adjustment' is based on Nida's (1964) 'techniques of adjustment.'

Figure 2 shows that in the analysis process, the translation strategies were first separated into literal translation or translation adjustment. Literal translation in this study follows the concept of

Chesterman (1997) and Newmark (1988); it basically means the circumstance when the form is similar to the source language, and the translation is still grammatical and contains the intended ST meaning. Therefore, the ERCs were categorized as using the literal translation strategy when the translation can be paired as follows: ‘an antecedent + an RC preceded by a relativizer.’ It should be noted that there might be other adjustments performed with the antecedents or within the RCs in order that the TT complies with its syntactic structures. An example of literal translation analysis is in (3).

- (3) ST: He’s waiting on **a heart that isn’t coming**³.
 TT: เผื่อรอ หัวใจ ซึ่ง ไม่ มี วัน ที่ จะ
 fâw ro: **hũ:acaj sũŋ mâj mi: wan tʰi: cà?**
 wait heart REL⁴ no have day REL will
มา ถึง
ma: tʰũŋ
 come arrive
 ‘waiting on a heart that there will be no day
 that (it) will come.’ (*Blood Work*)

Example (3) adopted the literal translation strategy with the antecedent ‘heart’ and the RC literally translated. The relativizer ‘that’ was translated into the relativizer /sũŋ/. Despite some adjustment within the TRC, the core structure of an RC postmodifying an antecedent was maintained, together with the ST meaning.

Conversely, when the RCs are translated using strategies other than literal translation, they were categorized as adopting translation adjustment strategies. As shown in Figure 2, the framework for analyzing translation adjustment derived primarily from Chesterman’s syntactic strategies and some semantic

³ All emphases and underlines in the examples from the data were made by the researchers. The head nouns and head noun phrases were typed in bold, the relativizers in bold and with an underline, and the RCs with an underline. In addition, the Thai translations of the ERCs were underlined.

⁴ REL refers to relativizer.

strategies. These strategies were selected because they directly relate to syntax. To supplement Chesterman's strategies, translation adjustment strategies by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) were incorporated. These additional strategies include additions, subtractions, and alterations. Table 2 illustrates the framework for the analysis of translation adjustment.

Table 2: 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 ⁵ Subtractions Alterations

Table 2 shows the main syntactic and semantic strategies based on Chesterman (1997). The term 'Couplet' is borrowed from Newmark (1988) to refer to a strategy which combines two strategies.

Syntactic strategies in this framework consist of eight strategies as follows: 'G3: Transposition' is the change of word classes, for instance a noun to a verb; 'G4: Unit shift' refers to the change of units including, for example, word, phrase, clause, sentence; 'G5: Phrase structure change' is a change in a phrase's

⁵ The terms 'Additions,' 'Subtractions,' and 'Alterations' were borrowed from Nida (1964). For the analysis, they included the adjustment strategies mentioned by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007), which were categorized into these three additional strategies.

internal structure; ‘G6: Clause structure change’ relates to the clause structure such as constituent phrases in a clause; ‘G7: Sentence structure change’ is an adjustment to the structure of the sentence unit; ‘G8: Cohesion change’ deals with connectors, ellipsis, repetition, or reference; ‘G9: Level shift’ is the change of level between the ST and TT; ‘G10: Scheme change’ involves a rhetorical scheme change.

There are two semantic strategies directly concerning this study. ‘S7: Emphasis change’ relates to a change of emphasis or thematic focus. ‘S8: Paraphrase’ focuses on the pragmatic meanings of higher units, for example, a whole clause.

To supplement Chesterman’s (1997) aforementioned strategies, the other three additional strategies, namely additions, subtractions, and alterations, from Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) were included in the framework.

For the analysis, any sentence pair categorized as not using literal translation strategy would be analyzed based on this framework for translation adjustment. The example of an RC with an adjustment strategy is provided below.

(4) ST: ... got its name from **Thom Bird**, who had been co-founder ...

TT: ... ตั้งชื่อ ตาม นาย ทอม เบิร์ด หนึ่ง ใน ผู้ก่อตั้ง
 ... tâŋ c^hû: ta:m **na:j tɔm bî:t** nùŋ naj p^hû: kò: tâŋ
 ... name after Mr.Thom Bird one of founder
 ‘... was named after Mr. Thom Bird, one of the founders ...’

(Black and Blue)

Example (4) shows that while the head noun ‘Thom Bird’ was maintained with the slight addition of the title ‘Mr.,’ the ERC was adjusted into an NP in Thai as in ‘หนึ่งในผู้ก่อตั้ง’ / *nùŋ naj p^hû: kò: tâŋ*/ (‘one of the founders’). This exemplifies a shift in units from a clause in the ST to a phrase in the TT. Thus, this RC translation was categorized as using G4: Unit shift.

Findings and Discussion

The findings, which illustrate the translation strategies employed in translating ERCs into Thai, and the discussion are presented in this section.

Translation Strategies Used to Translate ERCs into Thai

A total of 348 sentence pairs from the source novels and Thai translations were collected. Of the two books, *Black and Blue* contains fewer sentences with ERCs. The total number of such sentences was 173 from all thirty-six chapters. This quantity of sentences proved sufficient use of RCs within the book; thus, this number of sentences was used as the criterion for collecting a comparable number of sentences from the other book, *Blood Work*, where 175 sentences were drawn from the first twenty chapters.

The data analysis found that two general translation strategies – literal translation and translation adjustment – could not fully describe the translation nature of the ERCs. Translating RCs affects not only the RCs themselves but also the head noun phrases. Thus, the analysis can be divided into four types of translation strategy (Table 3) located along a translation adjustment continuum (Figure 3).

Table 3: The Four Types of Translation Strategy

Type	Antecedent	RC
Literal	Literal	Literal
Adjustment 1	Adjustment	Literal
Adjustment 2	Literal	Adjustment
Adjustment 3	Adjustment	Adjustment

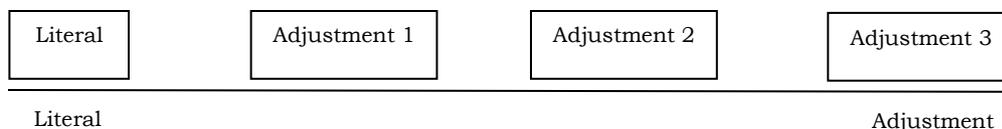


Figure 3. Translation Strategy Continuum

Table 3 and Figure 3 show that the types of translation strategy in this study were analyzed based on the notion that the translation of ERCs can be examined according to the adjustment level, from very literal translation to significant adjustment. To begin, literal translation is the strategy in which the TT employs literal translation of both the antecedents and the RCs. For Adjustments 1 to 3, the levels of adjustment are from the least to the highest. That is, Adjustment 1 makes adjustment to the head noun but not the RC. Adjustment 2 alters the syntactic structure of RCs while keeping the head noun phrases literally translated. Adjustment 3 manipulates the translation the most, with both the head nouns and RCs subject to adjustment. Table 4 below demonstrates the frequency of occurrences together with the percentage of each type of translation strategy.

Table 4: Frequency of Occurrences in Connection with the Translation Strategies Used to Translate ERCs into Thai (Four Types of Translation Strategy)

Translation strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literal translation	175	50.29
Adjustment 1	21	6.03
Adjustment 2	111	31.90
Adjustment 3	41	11.78
Total	348	100

The data from Table 4 show that the most common translation strategy in this study is the literal translation strategy with 50.29%. As for adjustment, Adjustment 2 was adopted the most frequently, accounting for 31.90%, followed by Adjustment 3 (11.78%) and Adjustment 1 (6.03%), respectively. The data show that literal translation and translation adjustment were used in approximately equal proportion of around 50%.

The following section elaborates on each type of translation strategy with sentence examples.

1. *Literal Translation*

Literal translation strategy preserves the ST structure with the head nouns or head noun phrases followed by the RCs. The data from Table 4 show that 50.29% of all occurrences adopted the literal translation strategy. The data also indicate that there were various Thai relativizers used as presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Frequency of Thai Relativizers in the Translation

Literal translation strategy with a relativizer	Frequency	Percentage (%)
/t ^h i:/	91	52
/s ^u ŋ/	70	40
/p ^h u:/	11	6.29
/p ^h u: s ^u ŋ/	3	1.71
Total	175	100

Table 5 shows that the relativizer /t^hi:/ was employed the most and comprised approximately half of the literal translation occurrences. The second most used relativizer was /s^uŋ/. The other two relativizers /p^hu:/ and /p^hu: s^uŋ/ were found, but together they constituted only less than 10%. The following sentence exemplifies the ERC literally translated into Thai.

- (5) ST: ... look at **the item that** was taken.
 TT: ... มองดู ของ ที่ ถูก เอาไป
 ... mɔːŋ du: **k^hɔ̌ːŋ t^hi:** t^hɔ̌ːk ʔaw paj
 ... look item REL PASS⁶ taken
 ‘... look at the item that was taken.’

(*Blood Work*)

By analyzing the head noun phrase and the RC, Example (5) adopted the literal translation strategy. That is, the antecedent ‘item’ and the RC ‘that was taken’ were literally rendered into ‘ของที่ถูกเอาไป’ /k^hɔ̌ːŋ t^hi: t^hɔ̌ːk ʔaw paj/ (‘item that was taken’) in Thai. This suggests the parallel structure of an antecedent and an RC preceded by a relativizer.

⁶ PASS refers to passive.

2. Adjustment 1

According to the data, Adjustment 1 was found the least (6.03%) among the four types of translation strategy. Adjustment 1 makes adjustment to the antecedents or head noun phrases while the translated RCs remain RCs with a relativizer. This type of translation strategy is closest to literal translation on the continuum of the level of translation adjustment. The reason is that the alteration is made on the head noun, which tends to be relatively common for all translation since translation normally requires adjustment to a certain level. Nevertheless, the structure of ST RCs remains unchanged in the translation; thus, the level of adjustment could be considered syntactically minimal. Example (6) illustrates a sentence pair which adopted Adjustment 1 strategy.

(6) ST:... see him as ‘Mr H.’, **the person who** had ordered
Allan Mitchison’s execution.

TT: ... นี้กภาพ เขา เป็น ‘นายเอช.’ ผู้ สั่ง ฆ่า
... núk p^hâ:p k^hăw pen ‘na:j ʔét’ **p^hû:** sàŋ k^hâ:
... imagine him be ‘Mr H’ who order kill

อัลลัน มิทชีสัน

ʔanlan mítc^hiʔsǎn

Allan Mitchison

‘... imagine him being ‘Mr H.’ who order to kill
Allan Mitchison.’

(Black and Blue)

The English ST in Example (6) has ‘the person’ as the head noun phrase of which the antecedent ‘person’ was modified by the RC. This NP ‘the person’ was coreferential to ‘Mr H.’ In the translation, however, the NP ‘the person,’ which originally was the ST head noun phrase, was omitted in the translation. In the translated TRC, ‘Mr H.’ is the antecedent. As for the relativizer, the Thai relativizer /p^hû:/ was employed; this shows the animacy concord with the animate head noun. This sentence pair exemplifies the case where the adjustment was made merely on the head noun and the RC was literally rendered. The probable reason for the omission of the ST head noun could be to reduce

the repetition of the head noun phrases, i.e. ‘Mr H.’ and ‘the person.’

3. Adjustment 2

Adjustment 2 alters the RC structure in the TTs while the antecedents or head noun phrases remain literally translated. Among the three adjustment strategies, Adjustment 2 could be anticipated as the most common strategy, based on the assumption that when translated, the syntactic structure might change; therefore, the RC structure could be adjusted. The findings support this notion. Among the three types of adjustment, Adjustment 2 accounts for 64.16%, which is the highest percentage. Comprising 111 occurrences, Adjustment 2 can be further categorized into sub-strategies based on the analysis framework adapted from Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies, supported by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment strategies. Table 6 illustrates the sub-strategies found under Adjustment 2. The coding of ‘[F]’ indicates that a particular word class or structure of those corresponding strategies was ‘found’ as part of the couplet strategy.

Table 6: Adjustment 2’s Translation Adjustment Strategies Used in Translating ERCs into Thai

Translation Adjustment Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency of [F]
G4: Unit shift	49	44.14	
1. Word	-		
a. Adjective			[F] 1
b. Adverb			[F] 1
2. Phrase	40		
a. Noun phrase (5)			[F] 3
b. Prepositional phrase (6)			[F] 2
c. Verb phrase (29)			[F] 4
3. Sentence	9		- -
G6: Clause structure change	1	0.90	
1. Active and passive voice	1		- -

G7: Sentence structure change	18	16.23		
1. Bare RC	13		[F]	1
2. Main clause	-		[F]	8
3. Sentential RC	-		[F]	2
4. Subordinate clause	5		[F]	1
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	<u>111</u>	<u>100</u>		

Based on Table 6, these findings show that not all ten strategies from Chesterman's (1997) selected syntactic and semantic strategies presented in Table 2 were employed. Only four main strategies were used independently; these are G4: Unit shift, G6: Clause structure change, G7: Sentence structure change, and G8: Cohesion change. In addition to the main strategies, the couplet strategy was adopted, including additions and alterations. Couplet incorporates any two strategies which were marked with '[F]' coding in Table 6. The data show that there were six strategies which were used to constitute Couplet, namely G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions.

The findings indicate that G4: Unit shift was employed the most with 44.14%. The other two most frequently used strategies were Couplet (32.43%) and G7: Sentence structure change (16.23%). Less frequently used strategies include G8: Cohesion change (2.70%), Additions (2.70%), G6: Clause structure change (0.90%), and Alterations (0.90%), respectively.

The following section explains each sub-strategy in more detail with examples provided.

- **G4: Unit Shift**

This strategy was the first most used strategy in Adjustment 2 with 44.14%. The analysis found that there were three units in Thai that the ERCs were translated into, i.e. word, phrase, and sentence units. The word unit was adopted only as a Couplet. The phrase unit was adopted by 40 out of the total 49 sentences. This can be further divided into three types of phrases, which are noun phrase (NP), prepositional phrase (PP), and verb phrase (VP). The VP was adopted the most commonly. Regarding the sentence unit, 9 sentence pairs adopted this structure. This sentence unit in G4: Unit shift refers to sentences which were separated as a new sentence. Some examples of sentence pairs which employed the G4: Unit shift strategy are provided below.

- (7) ST: She had **blond hair that was straight** ...
 TT: เรือนผม สีทอง เหยียดตรง ...
ru:a p^hǒm sǐ: t^ho:ŋ jì:at tron ...
 hair gold color straight ...
 ‘Blond hair was straight ...’

(*Blood Work*)

Example (7) exemplifies the change of unit from the clause unit of the ST RC to the phrase unit in the TT. The ERC modified the head noun phrase ‘blond hair.’ While this antecedent was maintained in the translation, the ERC was rendered with the VP ‘เหยียดตรง’ /jì:at tron/ (‘was straight’).

- (8) ST: ... turned to **Rebus, who nodded.**
 TT: ... หันมาหา รีบัส เขา พยัก หน้า ตอบ
 ... hǎn ma: hǎ: **ri:bút k^hǎw p^ha?jǎk nǎ: t^hò:p**
 ... turn to Rebus he nod face reply
 ‘... turned to Rebus. He nodded in reply.’

(*Black and Blue*)

The example in (8) is the shift from the clause unit to a sentence unit in the TT. The ERC ‘who nodded’ was translated as the new sentence ‘He nodded in reply.’

- **G6: Clause Structure Change**

This strategy relates to the internal clause structure such as the order of constituents and active and passive voices. However, the data show that in only one occurrence was this strategy the main strategy. The sentence pair is below.

(9) ST: He saw **a wooden chair** **which** had once been padded.

TT: เขา เห็น เก้าอี้ ไม้ ตัวหนึ่ง ซึ่ง เเบาะนวม
 kʰǎw hěn kâwʔi: máj tu:a nuəŋ súŋ bə: nu:am
 he see chair wood one which/that chair pad
 หลุดออกไป
 lùt ʔə:k paj
 come off

‘He saw a wooden chair whose chair pad came off.’

(Black and Blue)

The ERC in (9) was translated into a TRC; however, it was adjusted in terms of the voice, from passive voice to active voice. That is, the internal structure of the ST clause ‘a chair had once been padded’ was re-ordered, yielding the active voice structure ‘the chair pad came off’ in the translation.

- **G7: Sentence structure change**

Accounting for 16.23% of Adjustment 2, G7: Sentence structure change is the third most used sub-strategy. It concerns the structure of the sentence unit regarding its clauses. This involves changes made to the status of main clauses and sub-clauses, including sub-clause types. Based on this notion, the findings show that there are four groups under this strategy, which are bare RCs, main clauses, sentential RCs, and subordinate clauses. Only bare RCs and subordinate clauses were found when G7: Sentence structure change was used as a sole strategy. The other two structures were adopted as part of a couplet strategy. Examples of the ERC translated into a bare RC and a subordinate clause are as follows.

(10) ST: ... Fletcher was **the type who liked to hang out**

...

TT: ... เฟล็ตเชอร์ อาจ เป็น ประเภท ชอบ สังสรรค์ ...
 ... flét sô: ?à:t pen **pra?pê:t** c^hô:p sǎŋsǎn ...
 ... Fletcher may be type like hang out ...
 ‘... Fletcher might be the type (that) liked to hang out ...’

(*Black and Blue*)

Example (10) illustrates the case where the ERC was translated into a bare RC. That is, the NP ‘ประเภทชอบสังสรรค์’ /pra?pê:t c^hô:p sǎŋsǎn/ (‘the type (that) liked to hang out’) in the Thai translation seems to have the covert ‘that’ between the antecedent ‘type’ and the VP ‘liked to hang out.’ This suggests the adjustment of the sentence structure regarding the sub-clause type from the typical RC in the ST to the bare RC in the TT.

(11) ST: It wasn’t **dockside, which** was where he’d expected it to be.

TT: สถานที่ตั้ง บริษัท ไม่ได้ อยู่ บริเวณ
 sa?t^hǎ:nt^hí:tâŋ bo:ri?sàt mâj dáj jù: **bo?ri?we:n**
 location company not be area
 ท่าเรือ อย่างที่ คาดไว้ ...
t^hâ: ru:a jà:ŋ t^hí: kâ:t wáj ...
 dock like expect ...
 ‘The location of the company was not in the dockside like (he) expected.’

(*Black and Blue*)

The sentence pair in (11) exemplifies the change of the sub-clause type where the ERC was translated into a subordinate clause, which is, in this example, an adverb clause. Omitting the subject ‘he,’ the clause ‘อย่างที่คาดไว้’ /jà:ŋ t^hí: kâ:t wáj/ (‘like (he) expected’) describes the verb ‘อยู่’ /jù:/ (‘be’) of the main clause.

- **G8: Cohesion change**

This strategy relates to references within the texts, for example connectors, repetition, and ellipsis. Although G8:

Cohesion change was found to be used independently for only 2.70% in Adjustment 2, it was the second most frequent Couplet strategy. The following example shows how cohesion change was adopted in the RC translation as a single strategy.

(12) ST: ... McCaleb talked to **James Cordell's supervisor**,

who gave him the names ...

TT: ... แม็กเคเล็บ ได้ พูด กับ หัวหน้า ของ
... mékk^he:lêp dâj p^hû:t kâp hǔ:anâ: k^hǎ:ŋ

... McCaleb get to talk to supervisor of

คอร์ดลล์ ซึ่ง ฝ่ายหลัง ได้ ให้ ชื่อ ...

k^hǎ:de:n sǔŋ fâ:j lǎŋ dâj hâj c^hû: ...

Cordell who the latter get to givename ...

‘... McCaleb talked to Cordell’s supervisor
who (the latter) gave him the names ...’

(Blood Work)

The example above 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^hǎ:de:n/ (‘Cordell’s supervisor’) which could be considered a literal translation. Also, the ERC was translated into a TRC; however, there was the addition of the intra-textual reference in the form of the NP ‘ฝ่ายหลัง’ /fâ:j lǎŋ/ (‘the latter’) after the relativizer /sǔŋ/ ‘who’ in Thai. This insertion of an NP resembles that of the resumptive pronouns mentioned by Panthumetha (2010) and Kullavanijaya (2010) in that the NPs 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 coreferencing the antecedent, the Thai language considers this to be well-formed in certain contexts. Example (12) suggests that the addition of the NP ‘the latter’ in the translation assisted in clarifying the reference ‘James Cordell’s supervisor.’

- **Couplet**

According to the findings, Couplet is the second most used strategy in Adjustment 2, accounting for 32.43% of the occurrences. This strategy combines any two strategies in the framework. The data show that there were seven couplets used to translate ERCs into Thai as illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7: Couplets Used in Translating 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
Total	36	100

From the data, there were six strategies found as part of the couplets. These were G4: Unit shift, G7: Sentence structure change, G8: Cohesion change, S7: Emphasis change, S8: Paraphrase, and Additions. The most common couplet is ‘G8: Cohesion change + S7: Emphasis change,’ which accounts for 36.11% of all couplet occurrences. A sentence pair with this couplet appears below.

- (13) ST: ... the family of **the woman who was killed** ...
 TT: ... ครอบครัว ของ ผู้หญิง คน ที่ ถูก
 ... k^hrɔ̀:p k^hru:a k^hɔ̀:ŋ p^hú: jǐŋ k^hon t^hi: t^hù:k
 ... family of woman
 CLF⁷ who PASS
 ยิ่ง ตาย ...
 jǐŋ ta:j ...

⁷ CLF refers to classifier.

shoot die ...

‘... the family of the woman (the one) who was
shot to death ...’

(*Blood Work*)

This example combines G8: Cohesion change and S7: Emphasis change in the following aspects. On the surface, this sentence pair appears similar to literal translation with the antecedent and the RC. However, adding the classifier ‘คน’ /kʰon/ (‘the one’) adjusted the translation from the typical RC to the adoption of G8: Cohesion change. That is, the classifier was added as an intra-textual reference to the antecedent ‘woman.’ This addition resulted in S7: Emphasis change because the added classifier intensifies the specification of the antecedent ‘woman.’ This language feature supports the notion that in Thai a classifier can be inserted between the antecedent and the relativizer to identify or emphasize the modified head noun (Higbie & Thinsan, 2003; Panthumetha, 2010).

Apart from this couplet, there were other possible couplets used to translate ERCs into Thai as stated in Table 7. Among the six strategies constituting couplets, only S7: Emphasis change and S8: Paraphrase, which are two semantic strategies, were not found to be employed independently, but always co-occurred with another syntactic/grammatical (G) strategy. This could be because the adjustment of structure and meaning usually affects each other.

- **Additions**

Addition is one of the three additional strategies used to supplement the main strategies, based on Chesterman’s (1997) schema. The data show that only Additions and Alterations were adopted, but not Subtractions. The addition strategy concerns, for example, the addition of text to make what may be implicit in the ST more explicit in the translation, or the addition of transitionals. This strategy differs from G8: Cohesion change in that the latter is more involved with the reference within the text and the use of

connectors. The use of additions as the ERC translation strategy is as follows.

(14) ST: ... to **a conference room** that had an oval table

...

TT: ... ไป ที่ ห้องประชุม ซึ่ง ข้างใน มี
 ... paj tʰi: **hǒŋ praʔcʰum sǔŋ** kʰâ:ŋ naj mi:
 ... to at conference room that inside have
 โต๊ะ ทรงกลมรี ...
 tóʔ soŋ klom ri: ...
 table oval-shaped ...
 ‘... to a conference room that (the inside) had an
 oval-shaped table ...’

(*Blood Work*)

The sentence pair above has the head noun phrase ‘a conference room’ in both the ST and the TT, followed by RCs. However, in the translation there is the NP ‘ข้างใน’ /kʰâ:ŋ naj/ (‘the inside’) placed in the subject position of the TRC. This NP is an example of the use of addition and can be analyzed in relation to Nida’s (1964) “Amplification from implicit to explicit status” (p. 228), which requires the explicit elaboration in the TT. Therefore, the addition of the NP ‘ข้างใน’ /kʰâ:ŋ naj/ (‘the inside’) helps identify more clearly the location of the table inside the conference room.

- **Alterations**

The last strategy is Alteration, which deals mainly with the order of words or ideas in the text. From the data, only one sentence pair adopted Alteration as its main strategy to translate the ERC.

(15) 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 สุดอัปยศ ใน เรื่อง
 náp tè: kwa:m lómlé:w sùt ʔàppàʔjót naj rú:an
 after failure humiliating in issue

การสะกดจิต และ โบลोटอฟ แล้ว เธอ ต้อง รับหน้า
 ka:n saʔkòtcit léʔ bo:lo:tóp lé:w tʰə: tón ráp nâ:
 hypnosis and Bolotov ASP⁸ she must face
 กับ ผู้บังคับบัญชา ซึ่ง อาจ คิด ว่า เธอ
 kàp pʰú:baŋkʰápbaŋcʰa: súnʔ à:t kʰít wâ: tʰə:
 with captain who may think that she
 ยอมปล่อยให้ คนนอก เป็น คนคุมเกม
 jo:m plòj háj kʰon nô:k pen kʰon kʰum ke:m
 let to outsider be controller
 ง่ายเกินไป
 ŋâ:j kə:n paj
 too easy

‘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*)

Example (15) illustrates alteration in terms of the content presentation. In the ST, the PP ‘after the hypnosis and Bolotov fiascos’ was embedded in the RC. In the translation, it was moved to the beginning of the main clause. The purpose could be to facilitate the interpretation of the head noun and the modifying RC by altering the position of the intervening PP.

4. Adjustment 3

Adjustment 3 is the second most used strategy among the three adjustment strategies. It is on the furthest end of the translation strategy continuum (Figure 3). Here, the adjustment is implemented on both the antecedent and the RC, and occasionally the translation strategy resembles paraphrasing. An example of Adjustment 3 is as follows.

⁸ ASP refers to aspect auxiliary.

- (16) ST: ... had **one tooth which** overlapped another
 ...
 TT: ... มี ฟันสองซี่ _____ เกยกันอยู่ ...
 ... mi: fan sǎ:ŋ sǐ: kə:j kan jù: ...
 ... has two teeth overlapped ...
 ‘... had two teeth overlapping ...’
 (*Black and Blue*)

Example (16) shows the adjustment at the head noun and the RC; the syntactic structure in the ST was adjusted in the TT. The head noun phrase ‘one tooth’ and the pronoun ‘another’ were combined into the NP ‘ฟันสองซี่’ /fan sǎ:ŋ sǐ:/ (‘two teeth’) in Thai. Also, the action verb ‘overlapped’ became the VP ‘เกยกันอยู่’ /kə:j kan jù:/ (‘overlapping’) in the translation.

As the findings above show, the strategies for translating ERCs into Thai could be analyzed by the translation framework based mainly on Chesterman’s (1997) translation strategies supplemented by Nida’s (1964) and Saibua’s (2007) translation adjustment. The findings concerning the translation strategies employed confirm the hypothesis in that the translation of the ERCs into Thai could be categorized into two groups, i.e. literal translation with a relativizer and translation adjustment. This is in line with other previous studies on RC translation such as Anshori (2007), Dwijati *et al.* (2016), Leenakitti (2012), Nau (2011), which found that RCs could be rendered in the TT RC structure or adjusted to other forms. The main translation strategy in various studies appears to be the RC structure. The use of relativizers or relative pronouns in the TT languages was also evidenced. For instance, Anshori reported that 89.01% of the data of English embedded clauses with relative pronouns was rendered into BI relative pronoun ‘yang.’

In comparing the language pair of English and Thai, this current study shows a lower percentage of literal translation with a relativizer than the study by Leenakitti (2012), i.e. 50.29% and 69.52%, respectively. Nevertheless, many factors could contribute to this variation, for example the scope of the English relativizers

in the STs, the different data sources, the translators, or the publishing houses. Despite the percentage gap, it could be concluded that literal translation plays a major role in translating ERCs into Thai. Apart from the two typical Thai relativizers /t^hi:/ and /s^uŋ/, this study also found other Thai relativizers, i.e. /p^hu:/ and /p^hu: s^uŋ/ used in the literal translation. This reflects the animacy of the antecedents and the relative pronoun 'who' as part of the data scope. Since Leenakitti focused only on ST RCs with 'which' and 'that' relativizers, the relativizers /p^hu:/ and /p^hu: s^uŋ/ were not found as translation equivalents in her study. This clearly elaborates on the fact that the animacy of the head nouns can affect the translation choice.

In the analysis of RC translation, different frameworks result in different categorization. For this study, Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies with the support of the translation adjustment of Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007) were found to be appropriate for analyzing ERCs translation into Thai. The findings help to emphasize that in translating RCs, adjustment can affect both the RCs and the antecedents or head noun phrases. This results in the three types of adjustment found in this study, i.e. Adjustments 1, 2, and 3, which are based on the degree of adjustment.

Adjustment 1 has literal RC translation with the adjustment on the antecedents. The adjustment was varied, for example word addition for clarification, word subtraction for eliminating redundancy, or paraphrasing. To consider the RC adjustment specifically, Adjustment 2 would be the closest strategy. The adjustment of the ERCs in Adjustment 2 was analyzed based on the analysis framework. Some strategies were found to be used independently. The results also showed 'couplets,' which combined two strategies. The two most used strategies under Adjustment 2 were G4: Unit shift (44.14%) and Couplet (32.43%). Regarding G4: Unit shift, translating the ERCs into Thai phrases was the most common, and the main phrase type was the VP. The findings suggest that translating into VPs was the effect of the syntactic adjustment to elements higher than

the ERCs. In other words, the changes in translation were made to the NPs containing the RCs. For example, Example (7) illustrates when the head noun phrase became the subject of the sentence; this resulted in the adjustment of the ERC to a VP in the TT. As for the Couplet strategy, its relatively high percentage of occurrences could be evidence of Chesterman's (1997) claim that "Strategies of different types often co-occur" (p. 93). The last type of adjustment strategy is Adjustment 3, which manipulates both the head nouns and the RCs. Adjustment 3 underscores that, when changes are made, they could separately apply to the head noun or the RC, or the entire NP containing the RC. Thus, in some sentences in the Thai translation, the head noun phrases were still present. On the other hand, some sentences were paraphrased and, therefore, abandoned the structure of the head noun and the RC.

With respect to Adjustment 2 and Adjustment 3, there are more interesting points to discuss regarding the changes in the RC translation. The examples in the sections on Adjustments 2 and 3 show that some sentence pairs, i.e. (7), (8), and (10), could have been translated literally; however, this would have resulted in unidiomatic Thai. Thus, adjustment might be more appropriate. In addition, the ST structures also influence the translation. For instance, the passive voice in (9) and the *It*-cleft construction in (11) might require some adjustment when translated into Thai. That is, originally, the passive construction in Thai reflects negative actions, making the active construction a more suitable choice in the translation. Although the use of passive construction with positive actions is more acceptable at present, it could still lead to unnatural Thai, and the active construction could be adopted instead for idiomatic translation (Kulthamrong, 2009). This could be the reason for the adjustment in (9). As for the *It*-cleft construction in (11), the literal translation of the empty subject 'it' into Thai would bring about an unidiomatic translation (Pinmanee, 2009). As a result, the main clause's structure was adjusted, which could account for the ERC translation into an adverb clause in Thai even though literal translation was allowed.

The adjustment might have been carried out so that the translation sounded idiomatic and complemented the verb of the main clause. Examples (12), (13), and (14) contain TRCs with some addition for clarification or specification. Example (15) shows the relocation of the intervening PP in order to aid text comprehension. Without reordering, the identification of the head noun could be more complex due to the proximity of the head noun and the RC. Lastly, Example (16) in Adjustment 3 would allow literal translation; however, adjustment into an NP sounds more natural than the RC structure. In brief, many examples suggest that literal translation is acceptable, but the resulting translated texts would have been unidiomatic. The adjustment was performed to render the translations more natural sounding in Thai, or to emphasize or to clarify the head noun.

Adjustments in RC translation were also reported in other previous studies, for example those by Dwijati *et al.* (2016) and Leenakitti (2012). Nevertheless, different frameworks and categorization yield different data interpretation. Dwijati *et al.* adopted the translation procedures of Vinay and Darbelnet (2000); therefore, the procedures discovered from the data were literal translation, modulation, and adaptation. As for Leenakitti, adjustment strategies were divided into adjustments with the relativizers /t^hi:/ and /s^uŋ/ and those without. Some sub-strategies under Adjustments 2 and 3 in this study resemble those reported by Leenakitti; however, the different analysis framework resulted in different and additional sub-strategies. Nonetheless, the similarity in the translation of ERCs into Thai in this current research and the earlier study by Leenakitti affirms the syntactic structures that translators usually adopt when rendering the ERC structure into Thai. The adjustments found in this study also support the notion that when translating complicated English structures such as subordinate clauses, some translation adjustments might be required in order to create an idiomatic Thai translation (Chantasingh, 1986).

Conclusions

The results of this study show that the translation strategies used to translate ERCs into Thai can be grouped into four types: literal translation with a relativizer, Adjustment 1, Adjustment 2, and Adjustment 3. These translation types are based on the degree of translation adjustment carried out on the antecedents and the RCs. The translation strategies were analyzed according to a framework for the analysis of RC translation adapted from Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies supported by Nida (1964) and Saibua (2007)'s translation adjustment strategies. Literal translation was adopted in 50.29% of cases. This high frequency suggests that for ERC translation into Thai, the literal strategy is widely employed, and the relativizers may include /tʰi:/, /sûŋ/, /pʰù:/, and /pʰù: sûŋ/. This underlines the parallel structure of ERCs and TRCs. The other three adjustment strategies constitute 49.71% of the data, with Adjustment 2, Adjustment 3, and Adjustment 1, in order of occurrence. This implies that the translation of ERCs can affect the antecedents, the RCs, or the clause unit.

The translation strategies presented in this study illustrate a wide range of translation possibilities for ERC translation into Thai. The findings show that literal translation remains one major strategy; however, translation adjustment is equally significant. Although RC structure between English and Thai appears comparable, there are cases where literal translation might yield an unnatural Thai translation, and adjustment might be required for idiomatic expressions. Thus, different degrees of adjustment could be implemented as necessary and appropriate.

Limitations of the Study

The limitation of this study is that the data sources were based on selected chapters from two English novels. Therefore, while the findings might not be generalizable, they do represent the actual occurrences found in the selected texts. For future studies, it is recommended that researching the translation of RC structures with other relative words or applying the analysis

framework with other structures such as reduced RCs or sentential RCs could yield interesting findings.

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