LINGUISTIC THEORY
& TRANSLATION PRACTICE

THE IMPACT OF THEMATIC SHIFT
ON SEMANTIC AND FUNCTIONAL
ASPECTS OF THE TRANSLATED TEXT

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to investigate the linguistic choices made in translated texts. The investigation is conducted through the examination of a sample of more than 40 translated texts and their originals, selected from an archive of some two hundred pairs of texts, which are used as referential resources to illustrate the most common issues found in English into Vietnamese translation. The texts range across many areas of government services from resettlement issues, to housing, education and common health issues, with a particular focus on mental health.

The research has been inspired by several underlining questions concerning the relationship between translation theory and practice and linguistic theory, as well as the possible applicability of linguistic notions and methodologies to further the understanding and seeking solutions for many translation problems. It explores various linguistic notions in explaining and describing the most common issues in translation. It then goes on to examine different analytical tools in text analysis for translation purposes such as register analysis, discourse analysis, metafunction analysis, and genre analysis. Eventually it rests with the textual metafunction analysis, the notion proposed by Halliday (1967, 1985, 1994), which is the language component responsible for organizing and constructing the two other language components; i.e. ideational and interpersonal, into a message. Or, as described by Halliday and Matthiessen (1999: 512), the most important function of the textual component is that it creates information “[and] engenders discourse, the patterned forms of wording that constitute meaningful semiotic contexts.”

The textual metafunction consists of two interrelated systems, the thematic and information systems, which play a crucial role in the creation of discourse in a communicative event. The research, however, has a particular interest in investigating the impact caused by the transfer of the thematic structure of the source language text (ST) into that of the target language (TT). In order to achieve the above aim certain theoretical notions such as Theme and Rheme, as well as thematic structure, are discussed in the light of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL); and the linguistic resources used to realize Theme in both languages are looked into.

With respect to translation, a detailed discussion regarding the relationship between a particular choice of Theme and the intended meaning of the text covers both Chapter IV and Chapter V of the study. The research also examines how meanings made through the thematic choices in the original texts are interpreted and reproduced by the translator, and the effect of this upon the translations.
Statement of Candidate

I certify that the work in this thesis entitled “TRANSLATION THEORY AND PRACTICE: The impact of thematic shift on semantic and functional aspects of the translated text” has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it has been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged.

In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

The research presented in this thesis was approved by Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee, reference number (Not Applicable)

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Date: 15 May 2012
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Có thể

1. Be able to, can, may, be possible.
2. Probable, possible

Được

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Nói

4. Be able to; be strong enough

Might – Could

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INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER

RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

0.1 AIM & OBJECTIVES

0.1.1 GENERAL AIM

The aim of this research is to investigate the linguistic choices made in translated texts. The investigation will be conducted through the examination of a sample of more than 40 translated texts and their originals, selected from an archive of some two hundred pairs of texts, which will be used as referential resources to illustrate the most common issues found in English into Vietnamese translation.

The texts range across many areas of government services from resettlement issues, to housing, education and common health issues, with a particular focus on mental health.

The research has been inspired by several underlining questions, which may also be common among other translation practitioners and translation scholars:

- What makes a ‘good’ translation?
- Are there any relationships between translation theory and practice and linguistic theory?
- Can knowledge and understanding of modern linguistic theory help inform and assist translation practitioners with problem solving and decision making in the process of translation?

The above questions have often come to the mind of the researcher during years of working, teaching and studying in the field of translation and interpreting.

0.1.2 BACKGROUND

Once, in the mid-1980s, those questions were raised with a lecturer who was a highly experienced translation practitioner as well as a translation scholar with many widely published articles on translation issues and translation criticism. The lecturer just smiled sympathetically and advised: "A good translation is something which does not read like a translation. And in order to be a ‘good’ translator, you just have to constantly sharpen your skills. Translating is a craft - the more you do it, the better you become."
His view concerning the definition of a ‘good’ translation was later found echoed in what is termed ‘covert translation’, which according to House (1997: 69; italics added), “is a translation which enjoys the status of an original source text in the target culture”. However, it is easier said than done. And besides, what exactly are the criteria for a 'good’ translation? Does it simply mean to rewrite the text in the target language?

Another lecturer responsible for introducing first year translation students to the study of language, when asked about the relationship between linguistic theories and translation practice, seemed dubious about any applicability of linguistic notions to the practice of translation. However, he did assure the students that “at least translation can make good use of linguistic terminology”.

Many of the overseas students undertaking post-graduate programs in interpreting and translation saw no usefulness with respect to linguistic or translation theory. Some thought the inclusion of such subjects was either to make the program appear impressive, or just “to pump up the hours”; others made their intention very clear that, “all we need is a lot of translation tasks”.

In response to the question concerning the interlink between theory and practice, one post-graduate student made a sarcastic introduction to her assignment “Once there was a saying, ‘Those who can, translate; those who can’t, teach translation; those who can’t teach translation, teach translation theory.’”

Yet the question remains valid.

Years of working in a culturally and linguistically diverse environment has provided the researcher with an insight into the numerous challenges faced by both service providers and service recipients due to linguistic difficulties and cultural differences. Sometimes communication breakdown may happen even though it is conducted through the assistance of a linguistic facilitator. An intended message can be lost due to a variety of factors, many of which are preventable; for example the use of highly technical and professional language, the inclusion of cultural references in the communication, or the interference of the cultural expectations of either side, etc. Therefore, the success of communication is due largely to the sensitivity of service providers toward service recipients’ language and cultural differences and the former’s effort to accommodate these needs. One way of facilitating communication and enhancing mutual understand is through the use of an interpreter to assist with face-to-face or telephone interaction between a service provider and a recipient. Another, aiming to reach more widely and include a greater range of recipients, is through the dissemination of information using multilingual printed materials.
Before the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (now known as Department of Immigration and Citizenship) decided to disband its team of in-house and contract translators, during the financial year 1992-93, translators of the Translating & Interpreting Service (TIS), undertaking translation work in more than 80 languages, translated 10,143,440 words (TIS/DIEA Statistics, 1993). In NSW, during the same period, TIS translators translated 2,285,824 words (TIS Newsletter, Dec. 1993), and the NSW Ethnic Affairs Commission's Translation Service undertook a total amount of 1,539, 708 words (NSW EAC Statistics, 1993). That is not to mention a considerable volume of work undertaken by other relevant departmental agencies and private translation services.

More recently, according to the 2010-11 Annual Report published by the NSW Community Relations Commission (formerly the NSW Ethnic Affairs Commission), translators employed by the agency alone undertook 28,504 translation tasks, amounting to almost four million words.

The above statistical figures reflect the importance of translated materials among people from ethnic communities and demonstrate that the amount of information directed to these communities is voluminous, in particular information regarding social, health and legal issues. However, is the stated aim of information provision being adequately met? And what messages do translations for the language group in question actually contain? These now are the subject of the present research.

Another issue underlying this research is that of the often challenging communication that occurs between a checker and a translator. It has been found that due to a lack of a ‘common language’ for discussing and explaining translation problems the task of checking sometimes ends up in, at best, frustration and at worst, conflict.

Such comments as “The translation doesn’t sound Vietnamese (or English for that matter)”, or “... the translated text lacks the naturalness of the Vietnamese language…” are vague, unconvincing and likely to fuel tension between two translation practitioners. Moreover, comments such as “The word such and such is more appropriate in this context” are often not followed by any explanation helpful to the translator.

Sometimes it requires the involvement of a third party who is invited to act as a linguistic ‘referee’, in an attempt to defuse tension and provide ‘a professional opinion’ on what has been labelled as an ‘incorrect’ translation. Again, depending on whether the linguistic ‘referee’ has a better way of presenting the issue and finding a concrete way to explain the problem, provides suggestions for translation improvement (thus resolving the impasse) or simply agrees or disagrees with either translator or checker, or with both, the outcome of the involvement may remain frustrating.
From the point of view of the researcher, because translation is mainly a language activity (and linguistics is the study of language) unless both the translator and checker possess some basic knowledge and understanding of linguistic theory and thus linguistic terminology (a ‘common language’) in order to discuss and explain the issue at hand, communication between the two may not improve. The use of linguistic terminology to discuss and explain any translation problems may greatly accelerate the checking process.

As a translation teacher, it has been found that although linguistics is often included as a subject in the translation training syllabus of post graduate programs (and also in the syllabus of BA in Interpreting and Translation), it is up to translation trainees to work out how this newly acquired knowledge can assist them with their translation competence (and thus their translation practice).

And as earlier discussed, many translation practitioners believe that translation competence can only be gained by practising (working extensively on a lot of translation tasks) rather than realising that linguistic insight may probably provide satisfactory solution for a translation problem.

Through the researcher’s own experience, in more than one instance linguistic notions have provided insightful solutions to common problems in translation and proved a reliable tool in analyzing and synthesizing texts for translation and for translation evaluation purposes. This has led to an almost decade long journey of exploration into relevant linguistic notions and methodologies which may help provide insight into the many problems of translation practice and may expedite the training of translation aspirants.

The present study has also been grounded in the researcher’s introduction to Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) while doing an MA in Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University in the 1990s. The implementation of its theory into translation practice has helped address some of the most common issues faced by a translator (which were included in the researcher’s MA special topic, Some Common Issues in Vietnamese Translation of Informative Texts). And perhaps, the current research can be seen as an expansion of the translation problems and potential solutions that were explored at the time.

In a more practical sense, the knowledge and understanding of SFG and relevant theories (i.e. ethnography of communication, text linguistics, sociolinguistics amongst others) has assisted the researcher in his work as a translation practitioner as well as a translation teacher. It has not only provided a tool for discussion and explanation of a translation problem, but also a method for text analysis, which is essential in the translation process.
Evidence of some of the earlier exploration is found in the first three chapters of the research; especially in Chapter IIB in which several linguistic conceptions and techniques are implemented to discuss translation issues as well as to deal with translation difficulties. In Chapter I, a brief glimpse into the field of translation studies, the term first used by Holmes (1972), presents the most widely discussed as well as fundamental issues in the field. The chapter also registers the fact that such a common language activity: i.e. translation practice (particularly in the oral/aural form), although having been around perhaps since the presence of human beings on the planet earth, has only recently been able to establish itself as a branch of study of its own and be recognized as such. This is followed by Chapter II, which focuses mainly on translation issues specifically found in the language pair under question; i.e. English and Vietnamese. Many issues at various levels pertinent to the two linguistically and culturally remote languages are identified and authentic examples are provided to illustrate points of discussion.

The chapter provides a springboard for an investigation into Vietnamese grammar from a systemic functional (SFL) perspective presented in Chapter III (and Chapter IIB, especially Section 3.1.2 in the Appendix), in which Vietnamese language is examined using the three metafunctions of language proposed by Halliday (1967; 1985; and 1994). Translation, a purposeful activity, for the most part draws meaning not only from what is encoded in the text, but also from its intended purpose (or function), as well as from the context of situation and context of culture where the text is embedded. A translation act is itself a performance, requiring careful choices of language which are both appropriate for and constrained by a certain context and designed for a particular purpose.

In other words, SFL deals with both form (or structure) and content (or meaning in context). And thus, due to its view of language as ‘meaning potential’, it provides a translator with a useful tool, not only for the analysis of an SL text for the translation purpose, but also for the selection of a word, phrase or structure to reproduce a corresponding meaning in the TL text.

Commenting on the usefulness and reliability of SFL as a theoretical framework, Newmark (1991: 65) makes a point concerning its application to translation practice: “it is not surprising that Hallidayan linguistics, which sees language primarily as a meaning potential, should offer itself as a serviceable tool for determining the constituent parts of a source language text and its network of relations with its translation.”
0.1.3 SPECIFIC ISSUES & THE MAIN FOCUS OF THE STUDY

Despite differences between Vietnamese and English grammars, the ideational content of the English originals and Vietnamese translated texts under investigation is relatively comparable. Yet from feedback in numerous focus groups it is evident that the texts are not as successful as they might be for Vietnamese readers. And from the lack of community participation in services, there is a feeling of inadequacy in relation to the effectiveness of the information provided; i.e. the information might not be having the same effect on the target community as it does with respect to the English speaking community, despite conscientious effort by experienced translators.

So why is it that people are not being influenced by what they read? This question has concerned the researcher over many long years, and a possible explanation has come, though not from the realms of experiential and interpersonal meanings, which appear to be comparatively analogous across the spread of sample data, but with the choices made in relation to the flow of information; i.e. the textual metafunction.

That this is the solution to such a hard-to-define issue does make sense because textual meaning works far more abstractly than ideational and interpersonal meanings, which can immediately be identified through readers’ reaction or feedback. Changing the textual flow of a text does not necessarily change the truth or falsity of a message, but rather gives it a different sense of relevance and newsworthiness, and, significantly, a different priority.

The data obtained from text analysis show that any changes made to the TT within the domain of textual metafunction were significantly marked. Therefore the decision was made to follow up on this more abstract, and even shadowy set of structures that is nonetheless fundamental to language and particularly significant to expository text.

In other words, it seems that not maintaining the thematic flow results in the disconnection of the thread of sense, thus making the text, to a greater or lesser degree, have a different meaning. One of the reasons for the loss of the “thread of sense” may come from the fact that under constant pressures to satisfy the requirements of ideational and interpersonal meanings through the use of explication and compensation, translators may lose sight of the bigger picture; i.e. the textual meaning which is realised through thematic structure.

As far as translation practice is concerned, Dooley (2007: 2), in responding to the question “what should be preserved of the source text thematic structure”, advises that “[it depends] on hierarchical level: source-text thematicity is often preserved on macro-levels, but
micro-level structure often follows target language norms.” Should this be taken more seriously by translation practitioners?

The researcher’s particular interest in informative texts has come from the crucial role this type of text has played in the dissemination of information among ethnic communities and their contribution to successful resettlement as well as post-resettlement processes. How could many members of these communities obtain information about employment, housing, education for their children, banking, and other social services and systems, were it not provided, for the larger part, through the means of multilingual materials?

The realisation has also come that a specific type of text genre, namely health information material, may be more at stake than other types due to the more technical and, in some cases, (for example in the case of mental health material) more abstract nature of its content. Moreover, misunderstanding caused by a poorly translated document in such areas as housing and education may be redressed by a well-informed explanation, but being overdosed or misdiagnosed due to a mistranslation or misinterpretation can lead to very serious personal and social consequences.

As will be revealed in Chapter V of the study, a low level of participation in, and consultation with mental health services by a large section of the Vietnamese community, particularly in the southwest region of Sydney, has caused great concern among mental health professionals. And as identified by a research conducted by a group of psychologists (see Wagner et al 2006), a lack of clear understanding of mental health issues has prevented many of those within this community who suffer from mental illness from seeking help with their problem. As far as the diagnosis and treatment of mental illness is concerned, not fully understanding mental health concepts and thus not being able to explain many manifesting symptoms also has the potential to exacerbate the issue for Vietnamese patients.

Furthermore, if such general concepts as mental health, mental wellbeing and mental illness are not clearly explicated, and relevant symptoms or signs are not accurately described during a consultation with a medical or psychological professional, potentially there may be confusion or even disbelief among ill-prepared patients and their families. And in order to prevent this from happening there is a need for the provision of information in a language that is understood by the target audience and in a manner that will influence their thinking and behaviours.

It goes without saying that the success of any translation on mental health issues is of great consequence within the Vietnamese community, with its efficacy always being on trial. The community of recent migrants, including large numbers from a refugee background, are under the constant pressure of dealing with post resettlement problems with many, in
addition, being at high risk of post-traumatic stress disorder. Every time someone from the
group needs to make a decision on whether he or she should consult a mental health
professional, it is the information contained in a leaflet made available for the community,
which will be used to assist with the decision. And the information will be assessed and
reassessed with close scrutiny, and if the reader cannot make sense of it, disregarded.

To analyse translated text we would need a reliable analytical tool with ability to
discover textual features in all areas of metafunction; with a metafunction concerning choices
in bands, rather than one element/choice at a time. However, by exploring the impact of all
three metafunctions of language the realisation has come that efficacy rather subtly balances
on the textual metafunction. Translators are usually effective in managing the truth function;
namely ideational meaning, but the truth function does not necessarily get the message across,
and thus Vietnamese readers of the texts in question do not get the subtle yet essential
elements of topicality and more importantly priority passed across to them. ‘Topicality’ here
should be understood as discourse topic(s) which reflects a writer’s conceptual organisation of
discourse expressed implicitly through the use of themes; whereas ‘priority’ refers to a
writer’s intention in selecting which element(s) should go first in the clause or what should be
introduced first in a paragraph to create a certain impact for particular purpose(s).

The above has led the research to focus in on the impact caused by the transfer of
thematic structure of the source language text (ST) into that of the target language (TT), i.e.
on one particular area of meaning: textual meaning, and its realization through the Theme-
Rheme structure.

Specifically answers are sought to the following questions:

• *Given that the choices of Theme made by the translator during the translation process
  may cause thematic shifts in the TT, will these thematic choices affect the overall
  meaning of the text?*

• *To what extent do these choices impact on the purpose and function set out for the text
  to achieve in the target language environment with respect to what is intended in the
  ST?*

In order to achieve these aims, certain theoretical notions such as Theme and Rheme,
as well as thematic and information structure, need to be discussed; and the linguistic
resources used to realize Theme in both languages need to be looked into. With respect to
translation, it is important to consider the relationship between a particular choice of Theme
and the intended meaning of the text. It is also imperative to investigate how meanings made
through the thematic choices in the original are interpreted and reproduced by the translator.
0.2 ARGUMENT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION

As earlier explained, the main reason for choosing to tackle the textual metafunction is to discover how it helps organize and present ideational and interpersonal meanings in text, particularly in the translated text which is supposed to satisfy the functional criteria of the original.

It is believed that no matter how hardworking and conscientious a translator is, s/he may not be able to convey the message effectively in the translation if greater attention is not paid to the management of the flow of information as it appeared in the original. Since unlike ideational meaning - the propositional meaning or content meaning of the text as expressed through the Transitivity system, or interpersonal meaning - the interactive nature of the text as expressed through Mood and Modality systems, textual meaning is not based on truth or falsity. Therefore it is likely to be problematic for translators, regardless of their level of experience in handling difficult texts, due to its higher order of abstraction in the semiotic system of a language. Even if SFL were employed as an analytical tool to examine texts, it would be hard to make the textual implication more visible than its ideational and interpersonal counterparts. It is challenging enough for a translator to keep an eye on the ideational meaning of the text while also acknowledging the importance of interpersonal meaning with the result that textual meaning generally remains covert.

Let’s take as an example a comparison of the two following sentences:

Example 0.1

Source Text:
A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women, claim researchers in the United States.
(Heritage Fashion Dec 2006-Jan 2007, Vietnam Airlines In-flight Magazine)

Target Text:
Các nhà nghiên cứu Mỹ đã đưa ra công bố là một chương trình luyện tập lâu dài ở mức độ vừa phải có thể giảm nguy cơ bị cảm lạnh ở phụ nữ lớn tuổi.

Back Translation:
American researchers claimed that a long-term exercise program of moderate degree could reduce the risk of contracting colds among older women.
One will find that there are no major differences in their ideational and interpersonal meanings. Ideationally, they are both about a claim made by researchers in the US regarding an exercise program which can help reduce the risk of colds among older women (ideational or propositional meaning). With regard to interpersonal meaning, both are in the affirmative declarative mood and use the modal verb ‘can’ (though it is in present tense in the ST, whereas in the TT it is in past tense) to enhance the degree of possibility of the main verb ‘reduce’. Both sentences are clauses complex having the characteristics of a projection clause which realizes a statement or claim by a claimant (or claimants). Therefore, semantically they both satisfy the principle of truth conditions.

Structurally, however, there is a difference in the order of the projecting clause and the projected clause, with the former occupying the tagging position in the ST (i.e. at the end of the sentence), and the latter being foregrounded in the TT.

The difference in the word order of the TT sentence may not have significant impact on its propositional meaning if it were a ‘stand alone’ sentence. But what would happen, in relation to its co-text and context, if the sentence played a part in a large stretch of the text or were the introductory sentence of the text? Would the change in word order cause any semantic consequences to the information flow of the text as a whole? And if so, to what extent would it affect the purposes of the text?

The answers to these questions will be found in Chapter IV and Chapter V of the study.

And this may explain why some translation only partially achieves its goal in reflecting the global structure of the original, but is not able to harness the flow of information as well as maintain the text coherence with respect to the new context of use as it has been purportedly designed for as in the ST.

In a private consultation, Butt (2011) from the perspective of a linguist, suggests that there are reasons to believe that textual metafunction and textual meaning are less likely to be observed in translation. Firstly, textual meaning, governed by the text’s thematic principle, or the practice of foregrounding a linguistic element in the clause to make it Theme, is often subtle if not ‘invisible’. It is no surprise when Butt (forthcoming) refers to the role of textual metafunction in language as the ‘silent legislation of thought’, because its manifestation is difficult to analyse.

Secondly, when conducting a contrastive and comparative analysis of a translated text against its original, any errors made to its ideational and interpersonal meanings often become clearly apparent due to the interrelations between these meanings and the lexicogrammatical aspects of the text. However, it’s not always obvious in the case of textual meaning because it
lurks within the stratal hierarchy of the text and also because it is part of the background of the reader’s semantic expectations.

Moreover, from a traditional point of view, textual meaning was never considered to be important either in translation theory or practice. Indeed, a thematic approach to text analysis for translation and translation criticism purposes has only recently been explored. Ventola (1995), investigating the relationship between a text and its parallel text using thematic analysis, notes that only a few translation scholars or researchers such as Newmark (1988), Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997), Taylor (1993), and Baker (1992) did include a discussion on Theme and Rheme analysis in their research. Hatim and Mason (1990), for example, discussed the use of thematic progression in translation as well as the relationship between thematic choices and text genres; while Baker (1992) dedicated a whole chapter of her book (1992: Chapter 5) to the discussion of issues concerning thematic structure and text equivalence in translation.

In the present study it is argued that if Theme is the point of departure of a message (Halliday 1994) and if a message consists of Given and New pieces of information and often progresses from Given to New, then any change made to Themes of the clause will, in effect, cause change to the information flow of the text. It also follows that such a change will give rise to some degree of semantic consequences, depending on the role of Theme of a specific clause in the text.

0.3 AN OUTLINE OF THE MAIN AREAS OF DISCUSSION

0.3.1 AN OVERVIEW OF TRANSLATION STUDIES

Translation is primarily concerned with meaning, and the meaning of a text is understood as its ‘propositional content’ or its intended message.

Discussing meaning in translation often evokes the notion of ‘equivalence’. This notion, though a central issue in translation, is also a controversial one. As far as equivalence is concerned, it is Nida (1964) and Nida & Taber (1969) who first made a distinction between formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence, and more specifically proposed the notion of ‘equivalent response’, which has since attracted a great deal of criticism from both linguists and translation scholars. Among these critics, Hu (1992) has been the most outspoken, writing a series of articles published in Meta over a three-year period attacking Nida on the issue (see On the implausibility of equivalent response, Part I-V Meta, 1992-1994).
Hu (1992: 291) argues that ‘equivalent response’ implies “comparability between two linguistic code-systems”; or as seen by Jakobson (1959: 233), ‘equivalence’ is “the cardinal problem of language and the pivotal concern of linguistics.” Hu also strongly rejects ‘equivalence’ as a prescribed criterion for translation, as if it were a mathematical equation, squarely challenging that “language is not mathematics” (ibid).

Hu’s comment is also reflected through the view of Yallop (2001) who points out that even in exact sciences there is often allowance for differences. Yallop instead promotes the concept of similarities and differences in translation, saying: “Equivalence is constructed, not out of absolute identity but out of a rich diversity of similarities” (ibid: 242).

The issue of equivalence will be discussed at some length in Chapter I. Also discussed are various views concerning the status and branch of study onto which translation studies should be attached. There follows a review of translation terminology with an attempt to present a personal view on the notion of equivalence.

Finally, Chapter I will include discussion on types of translation, translation procedures, translation techniques, and translation methods, which are often used interchangeably.

0.3.2 COMMON ISSUES IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION

Translation involves the transferring of meaning encoded in a text written in one linguistic code-system into that of another linguistic system. A discussion about translation, therefore, should include such an issue as how language users of a particular language community view the world around them and how this view may influence both the translation process and the product of this process: namely, the translation text. It is a common belief that the environment in which a text is produced is influenced by the way of thinking and living of language users of that language. Therefore, this leads to the observation that each language has a unique way of expressing meaning and that no two languages in the world, no matter how closely related, express meaning in the same way.

In order to understand difficulties faced by translators, especially translators working in a remotely related language pair such as English and Vietnamese, one should look into some common issues involving the practice of translation. Also discussed are factors exclusive to the language pair, such as culture and culturally specific expressions, linguistic structural differences, which may interfere with the translation process or may affect the translator’s decision making in the course of his/her work (Chapter II).
0.3.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSLATION AND LINGUISTICS

Translation is a language activity, and language is the object of linguistics. Moreover, translation involves two linguistic systems each having a unique structure governed by linguistic conventions pertaining to grammatical criteria and textual norms. One cannot therefore discuss translation without reference to language studies.

During the 1960s a contemporary of Nida (see above, and also Chapter I), Catford (1965), published a major work on the linguistic approach to translation which, as with Nida, received strong criticism from scholars in the field of translation and other related fields.

Influenced by the work of Firth, and especially Halliday’s rank-scale grammar, Catford provides a systematically detailed description of translation from a linguistic perspective. He makes a distinction between textual equivalence and formal correspondence, as well as pointing out the difference between full translation and partial translation, or between total translation and restricted translation (for detailed discussion, see Catford 1965; Snell-Hornby 1988; Fawcett 1997; to name but a few).

Since its publication in 1965, Catford’s “A linguistic theory of translation” has been strongly criticized due to its primary focus on language structure and on “determining the regular distribution of grammatical and lexical forms” (Neubert & Shreve 1992: 38) as well as due to its failure to pay any attention to the context in which the text is embedded. Neubert & Shreve strongly reject this limited approach because “[there] is more than just linguistics involved in translation”. (ibid)

Other translation scholars criticise Catford’s approach with Fawcett identifying “[the] main weakness [as] being that Catford’s model never goes beyond the sentence to incorporate the text as a unit of meaning.” (1997: 121). However, Fawcett praises Catford for his genuine “attempts to give a systematic description of translation from a linguistic point of view” (ibid), as well as his contribution to translation terminology in coining such seminal terms as translation shift, textual equivalence, and formal correspondence.

Fawcett (1997: 2) points out the limitations of linguistics, especially if translation is seen as “an entirely linguistic activity”, or if linguistics is used “as a recipe giving ready-made solutions to translation problems”. However, he also admits that: “Linguistics quite clearly does have something to offer the study of translation.” (ibid). And to elaborate Fawcett points to the close relationship between the two fields: “one can apply the findings of linguistics to the practice of translation, and one can have a linguistic theory of translation…” (ibid)

More discussion concerning the issue of whether translation should be a subfield of linguistics or a branch of communication studies, as well as comments on Catford’s use of translation terminology, can be found in Chapter I.
Inspired by Fawcett’s comment regarding the relationship between linguistics and translation, as well as by the Hallidayan view of language as social semiotics (seeing language as a social activity and meaning as choice), Chapter IIIB (in Part Two of the study) will examine relevant linguistic concepts and methodology which may be applicable to the study and practice of translation.

In order to compare and contrast the texts under investigation in the present research there is a need for a common analytical tool, which can provide both a theoretical framework, as well as an analytical methodology for the examination of texts. More specifically, because translation is about meaning and meaning is not contained within a single word or sentence but in a whole text, such an analytical framework needs to be able to help explore various operational levels of text. Systemic Functional Linguistics, (SFL) initiated and developed by Halliday, provides a useful set of tools for the investigation of language and its function in a communicative context. It focuses on authentic linguistic data obtained from a particular social interaction, and analyses language from two inseparable aspects; i.e. systemic and functional. The systemic approach aims to describe the internal relations of language as a system, and the functional approach views language as a resource for making meaning. In other words, SFL deals with both form (or structure) and content (or meaning in context). And thus, it provides a translator with a useful tool not only for the analysis of the SL text for the translation purpose, but also for the selection of a certain word, phrase or structure to reproduce a corresponding meaning in the TL text due to its view of language as ‘meaning potential’, and the choice of language is influenced by both the context of situation and context of cultures.

Newmark (1991: 65), in one of his books on translation, devotes a whole chapter to explain the usefulness of systemic linguistics in translation as well as the potentiality of its application to translation practice: “it is not surprising that Hallidayan linguistics, which sees language primarily as a meaning potential, should offer itself as a serviceable tool for determining the constituent parts of a source language text and its network of relations with its translation.”

A brief overview of SFL theory will, therefore, be presented and such analytical tools as register analysis as well as genre and discourse analysis will be employed to examine authentic texts from the perspective of a translation practitioner.

Also included in this discussion are such notions as text cohesion and text coherence, which are fundamental to translation. Other relevant concepts having pragmatic implications with regards to translation practice will be explored in Chapter IIIB (Part Two).
Before exploring the possible usefulness of SFL theory and methodology in explaining and informing translation theory and practice, perhaps a brief history describing the significant contribution of linguistics in general to translation studies in recent times, would provide an overall picture of the closely developed relationship between these two interrelated fields.

Even before Nida and Catford, interest in exploring linguistic aspects of translation can be traced back to the 1950s and 1960s. During this period the linguistic approach to translation started with the publication of *Stylistique comparée du français et de l’anglais* by two Canadian scholars, Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet, simultaneously in France and Canada in 1958. One year later it was followed by the Russian-born American linguist Roman Jakobson’s seminal article *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* (1959), and shortly after, Nida’s *Toward a Science of Translation* (1964). While Jakobson employed his structuralist knowledge to discuss the issue of equivalence of meaning, Nida applied theoretical concepts and terminology borrowed from Chomsky’s *Transformation Grammar* to the examination of the translation phenomenon.

The period between the 1970s and 1990s saw an influx of some major studies on translation from a linguistic perspective, especially the application of systemic functional approach to translation. It began with House (1977) with her pioneering work on translation quality assessment incorporating the stylistic analysis model proposed by Crystal & Davy (1969) with Halliday’s register analysis. More than ten years later there came the work of Hatim and Mason (1990), strongly influenced by the Hallidayan approach to both register and discourse analysis. Following Hatim and Mason, two years later Baker, also influenced by Halliday, published *In Other Words – A Course Book on Translation* (1992), which has been used as a translation textbook for translation courses around the world.

Returning to the issue of meaning and with reference to a SFL perspective, Halliday posits that all human languages embody three types of meaning which form “the basis of the semantic organization of all natural languages” (ibid); namely ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. Of these, ideational meaning is concerned with the representation of experience about the world inside and outside us; whereas interpersonal meaning refers to the interactive nature of language and the way it is used “as a form of action”; that is, to have things acted upon through the use of language. Textual meaning, however, is concerned with the way language is used to create text.

Moreover, according to Halliday these three types of meaning are closely related to three metafunctions of language: ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions. Thus,
the ideational metafunction is responsible for the construal of human experience. It is through the ideational metafunction that language users describe their experience about real or unreal phenomena of their internal and external world; and thus, it is the propositional or representational dimension of language. As far as the interpersonal metafunction is concerned, Halliday (1978: 112) refers to it as ‘participatory function’, which is responsible for the establishment and maintenance of relationship among language users; and thus, it covers the social dimension of language.

The textual metafunction, on the other hand, “has an enabling function with respect to the other two [namely: ideational and interpersonal functions]; it is only in combination of textual meanings that ideational and interpersonal meanings are actualized” (Halliday: ibid).

Echoing Halliday’s view on the ‘enabling function’ of the textual aspect of language, Eggins (1994: 273) also makes a point about its importance “This is the level of organization of the clause which enables the clause to be packaged in ways which make it effective given its purpose and its context”. In other words, textual metafunction is responsible for the meaning constructional or organizational aspect of language. Seen from this perspective the textual metafunction plays an essential role in ensuring the organization and construction of ideational and interpersonal meanings into texts to achieve certain purposes.

The textual metafunction is realized in thematic and information structures of the text. And it is on this that the current research will concentrate; namely, the realization of Theme in Vietnamese and English.

### 0.4 RESEARCH RATIONALE

One of the main reasons for approaching translation issues from the perspective of textual meaning, which is largely realized through the choice of themes in the text, is that from years of experience working as a translator and translation checker it has been noted that the major concern for many translation practitioners, at least in Vietnamese, has always been the ‘content’ (i.e. ideational meaning) and interpersonal meaning, with little or no consideration given to the textual meaning. This is not surprising given that research indicates this practice to be widespread. Indeed Halliday (2001: 16) observes that, “As a general rule, ‘translation equivalence’ is defined in ideational terms; if a text does not match its source text ideationally, it does not qualify as a translation … [because] the ideational [metafunction carries] by far the highest value overall.”
Similarly, Matthiessen (2001) is even more specific in his view regarding which metafunction should be seen as more important in translation. The author (2001: 96) strongly criticizes the traditional view of ‘translation equivalence’, saying “while translation should give equal weight to all three metafunctional contributions, there has been a strong tendency to give more weight to the ideational metafunction…” However, as will be revealed in the current research it is not the issue of equal contribution of weight, in terms of meaning and function that is of concern, but rather the important contribution of thematic structure to the overall development and direction of the text – an area that is often underestimated or completely overlooked.

Another reason for the current research is that while there have been many studies into the impact of thematic shifts in translation in various languages (see Taylor 1993; Ventola 1995; Munday 2008; etc) there has been no such study into how thematic structure of a text is handled in Vietnamese. More important is the question as to what extent do thematic shifts affect the meaning of the text at the level of clause, paragraph and even discourse.

The above issues will be dealt with in Chapter IV and Chapter V of the research.

Moving to the reason for the selection of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as the main theoretical and analytical framework for exploring and explaining textual phenomena in the research, it is its socio-cultural approach to the study of language and its emphasis on the study of language in its context of use that makes SFL an ideal tool.

More importantly, the SFL approach to language studies is multi-faceted and multi-stratal, namely, from the level of word to the level of text or from lexico-grammar to discourse semantics. It is believed that its application to the exploration of translation issues and problem solving in translation will help theoretically to inform translation studies, and practically assist with translation process. Translation involves a careful consideration of the context in which a text is produced, therefore it can greatly benefit from such analytical tools as register analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis which are specifically designed to examine texts taking into account both the context of situation and context of culture.

In addition, SFL particularly recognizes the significance of the interrelationship between language, the context in which a communicative act occurs, as well as the outcome of the act, which is text.

Another, more important reason, is its approach to language as a system of meaning-making for communication purposes. It describes language as a system of choices, which are available to individuals to construct meanings in particular contexts for certain purposes. As Eggins (1994: 1) explains “[it] is increasingly being recognized as providing a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making
Indeed, SFL stresses the view of language as systems of mutually exclusive options from which speakers/writers can select according to their communicative needs under specified conditions. This notion is significant especially in the area of translation practice in which the choice of a particular textual strategy or lexical item is essential in terms of its capacity to ‘make or break’ the intended message which is the outcome of the translation process. In other words, making a contextually and culturally appropriate choice of meaning is essential to the work of a translator.

From a systemic functional perspective, the choice of Theme, or the choice of the first linguistic constituent of a clause, reflects the motivation of speakers or writers in their intention to communicate a certain message to their audience.

Word order is the main obstacle in the Vietnamese-English translation process. In English it is seen as an important textual strategy to manipulate the information flow in texts. At the clausal level, there is a link between word order and communication strategy through the use of Theme and Rheme structure (more on this notion will be found in Chapter III). For Halliday (1985: 53), Theme-Rheme structure is the “basic form of the organization of the clause as message”; and a message always contains meaning, which a speaker/writer wants to communicate to the listener/reader. Theme is “the point of departure for the message”, and in English it occupies the first position in the clause, whereas Rheme is “the part in which the theme is developed” (Halliday 1985: 38).

Danes, on the other hand, sees Theme as having a “constructional role” in the text creation; while Rheme “pushes the communication forward” (1974: 113).

Seen from this perspective, the meaning of a clause is partly determined by which element is chosen to be its Theme: the element taking the first position in the clause. In other words, by assigning thematic value to a linguistic item in the clause, text producers can manipulate its meaning. As Butt et al (2000: 135) explicate, “In English the first position in a clause contains textual meanings because it signposts the development of a text.”

Also as Baker puts it, “Linear arrangement has a role to play in processing and organizing messages at text level.” (1992: 120) Baker’s comment provides a twofold perspective; i.e. that which pertains to a text user and that of the text producer. From the former’s perspective the choice of Theme will assist with the flow of information throughout the text and thus with its processing and comprehension; whereas from the latter’s point of view it helps determine which constituent should be placed first in the clause to create certain impact or to highlight a certain message.

This will be further illustrated and discussed in Chapter IV and Chapter V when...
exemplars of authentic translated texts are examined alongside their originals with the intention of highlighting the effect caused by different thematic choices.

0.5 VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR - A SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

There have been several studies on Vietnamese grammar from a SFL perspective, with the most recent one by Thái Minh Đức (in *Language Typology: A functional perspective* - edited by Caffarel, Martin and Matthiessen, 2004) especially providing a metafunctional profile of Vietnamese grammar.

In the first part of his contributing chapter (Chapter 7), Đức gives an outline of the Theme-Rheme structure of Vietnamese clauses. Unfortunately Đức’s study, and the studies of other researchers such as Hoàng Văn Văn (2005 - published in Vietnamese and primarily examining the experiential grammar of Vietnamese clauses), are for the purpose of comparing and contrasting two grammatical systems (namely, English and Vietnamese), and are not specifically for translation purposes.

In addition, there have been several studies on Vietnamese language structure published in Vietnamese, which are heavily influenced by the works of linguists from the Prague School of Linguistics. Among these, perhaps the most widely known is the study by Cao Xuân Hao (1991) *Tiếng Việt: So Thảo Ngữ Pháp Chức Năng (Vietnamese language: An Outline of Functional Grammar)*. A brief review of the section on Vietnamese Theme-Rheme structure of this work will be presented in Chapter III. In his study, Hao suggests that Vietnamese language is a topic-comment language and attempts to prove it by referring to the work of Li and Thompson (1976) and others. He also uses various examples to illustrate his argument. However, Hao’s work is criticized by other Vietnamese linguists for the use of ‘context-free’ examples and his ‘inconsistent’ viewpoint on Theme-Rheme (see Hoàng Văn Văn 2005, and also Chapter III of the current study for further discussion).

Even though Hao has referred to Halliday in his study, his theoretical framework and method reflects a strong influence from the Prague School of Linguistics, especially the notion of Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) proposed by Firbas (1964, 1966, 1974, 1986, 1992) who was inspired by Mathesius (1939). This is particularly evident in Hao’s argument on the notion of Theme-Rheme and Given-New in Vietnamese.

In Chapter III a linguistic model purportedly used to identify Subject in English (and may be applicable to other languages) proposed by Hasan and Fries (1995) will be
implemented to argue that Vietnamese is a topic-comment language.

As far as the classification of Theme is concerned, it appears that some of the above Vietnamese studies may have been heavily influenced by the thematic characteristics of English language, especially by the definition of marked Theme. An example of these is the classification of Vietnamese temporal and locative adjuncts as marked Themes (see Tha’i Minh Đức, 2004). In fact in Vietnamese, the foregrounding of such elements is conventional and not exceptional as in English. This and other issues pertaining specifically to the Theme-Rheme structure of Vietnamese clauses as well as types of Theme such as existential Theme, contextual Theme (or Contextual Frame) and so on will be discussed at some length in Chapter III.

Similarities and differences in translation cannot be identified and discussed if the translation is not compared and contrasted against its original. Moreover, this comparative and contrastive process cannot proceed without a common tool employed to examine both the ST and the TT. Therefore, applying the SFL theoretical and analytical framework, a brief profile of Vietnamese language metafunctions will be described in Chapter III. Once relevant notions and issues related to the theoretical framework concerning Theme of Vietnamese clauses are properly defined and a model for thematic analysis is clearly established, the research will move to the next stage, which is to implement the model to text analysis. Significant emphasis, however, will be placed on the textual metafunction due to its important relevance in the current research.

In the current study, examples from various printed information materials on health, housing, and relevant issues will be employed to illustrate the discussion. These materials, both in English (ST) and Vietnamese (TT), were collected from many sources and are currently in circulation across the country; most can be downloaded from websites managed by different government departments (such as the NSW Health Department – Multicultural Health Communication Service, Queensland Health Department – Trans-cultural Mental Health Service, etc) and non-government agencies (Black Dog Institute, beyondblue NSW, etc).
0.6 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

0.6.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

The major findings of the research have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, with respect to translation theory the current study argues that linguistics plays a major role in translation studies as it can provide the latter with theoretical notions as well as metalanguage for discussion on translation issues. In terms of translation practice, through the examination of a collection of authentic texts in every chapter of the study it is found that several linguistic methods and techniques can be implemented to address successfully translation problems; be it at the word, or phrase level; be it at the sentence or beyond sentence and/or discourse level.

The implementation of linguistic concepts and techniques, especially those investigative tools designed by linguists from the SFL tradition, is found to be particularly useful in relation to both text analysis for translation and to translation quality assessment.

The study proposes a departure from the traditionally orthodox and controversial notion of ‘equivalence’ and adopts the concept of similarity and difference in translation due to the fact that there is no exact synonym even in the same language. Therefore, an absolute ‘equivalence’ between any two languages is at best a wishful thinking, and at worst, in the words of Snell-Hornby, a “fallacy” (1988).

Discussion also touches on the use of such terminology as translation procedures, translation methods and translation techniques, which have been used interchangeably by some translation scholars (for example Newmark 1981, 1988).

As far as the commonest issues pertaining specifically to the language pair English and Vietnamese are concerned, the study identifies translation problems with respect to linguistic structures as well as cultural differences. Linguistically, one expects to face differences at various levels: namely phonological, morphological, syntactic and textual. Culturally it is found that since English and Vietnamese belong to two remotely related cultures, and thus two significantly different semiotic systems, people living in these cultures belong to different social structures and have different traditions, social values and cultural beliefs. They also view the world differently due to the influence of cultural upbringing, family and education as well as the structure of the social institutions. These significantly shape the way they think and the way they use language.

Although the main focus of this study is the role of Theme in textual formation and textual meaning, some relevant theoretical notions and linguistic methods are used to
investigate texts from various angles: for example register analysis, genre analysis and discourse analysis, with the purpose of teasing out similarities and differences between parallel texts. It is interesting to find out that although the above analytical tools are very useful in dismantling texts for comparative and contrastive purposes, they may not be able to help make similarities and differences in meaning at various levels of the text more explicit. For example, the implementation of register analysis can help reveal what the text is intended for, who is the likely audience, the context in which the text is produced, what role the text plays in the context, as well as the language which is likely to be used in this particular context. In other words, register analysis is a useful tool, which assists with the investigation of “the purposes of the text as a whole or the role of the text in the social interaction…” (Fries 2009: 27) However, as the study indicates, this analytical methodology is not able to assist in pinpointing the method of development of a text nor certain stages of development in discourse. (More information regarding the effectiveness and usefulness of each theoretical notion and methodology will be offered in Section 6.2 below)

Genre analysis, on the other hand, as revealed by the study, can provide information concerning similarities and differences between the TT and the ST in relation to moves, or stages and steps within the moves, which are designed to achieve certain goals in the text.

However it is thematic, and thematic progression analyses, which help pinpoint not only thematic shifts caused by the translation process but also shifts in the generic structure of the TT, as well as the semantic implications resulting from these changes.

The study also identifies differences in relation to the delimitation of Theme and Rheme and argues that Theme should be extended to include the Subject of an independent clause. Moreover, given Vietnamese is a topic-prominent language and the fronting of circumstantial adjuncts and subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts is conventional, the classification of Theme as marked or unmarked needs to be redefined, especially in the case of Vietnamese language. This also leads to the decision to adopt the term ‘Contextual Frame’ (Davies 1988, 1997) to cover interpersonal and textual elements in multiple Themes as well as circumstantial adjuncts. This aims at combining linguistic elements that may precede Subject and highlighting their significant function in signalling different registers or genres.

In order to account for a specific function performed by a particular thematic element, in lieu of ‘topical Theme’ (‘ideational Theme’ or ‘experiential Theme’ as preferred by Thompson 2004), where appropriate the study adopts such labels as ‘informational Theme’ and ‘interactional Theme’ as proposed by Berry (1995).

However, an important aspect of the findings is the confirmation that thematic choice is textually and contextually motivated, and that different choices of Theme can create
different meaning, as observed by Ventola (1995: 88) in her discussion on the relationship between thematic choice and meaning in translation: “… different choices in Theme-Rheme structure can [shift] the orientation and the focus of the reader…” The study also reveals that Vietnamese translators seem to have issue with structures associated with an interpersonal evaluation of proposition such as the it ... that structure, commonly termed evaluative or ‘thematised comments’. These kinds of structure play a key role in construing the ST writer’s evaluative view, yet in examples discussed in this study they are largely ignored by the translator. (see Chapter V)

Furthermore, the use of what are termed by Davies (1988, 1997) ‘Contextual Frames’ (which include the ‘multiple Themes’ of Halliday (1994) as well as subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts) appears to help text producers with the orientation of their readers through certain stages of discourse. They also contribute to pointing readers in the direction of the argument where text producers wish to lead them.

Most important is the lack of awareness of the translator to the thematisation of circumstantial adjuncts which are considered as marked Themes in English often functioning as a signal of change in discourse. Also overlook is the ST producer’s use of imperative mood (see Chapter V) as interactional Theme (or interpersonal Theme) to engage readers in the discussion and, in effect, convince them to follow the advice suggested in the text. Because though they are not considered as ‘marked’ in Vietnamese, the presence of a circumstantial adjunct (of time, location, manner, etc.) often signals a major stage in the discourse.

0.6.2 IMPLEMENTATION OF SPECIFIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS AND METHODOLOGIES IN TEXT ANALYSIS FOR TRANSLATION PURPOSES

In this section, insights gained from various theoretical and methodological approaches to the investigation of thematic structure are discussed using Example 1 as an illustration. In implementing various models to the analysis of Example 1, it is found that each and every one is appropriate for different purposes of text analysis depending on the aim, objective and scope of a particular study.

A short text on the benefit of exercise as a preventative against colds is chosen to highlight the effectiveness of each model in helping to inform and address common issues in translation, be the issues at the lexicogrammatical, discourse, or generic levels.
0.6.2.1 Register analysis

Generally this approach helps detect similarities and differences between the texts at both lexicogrammatical and discourse levels. Implemented to the analysis of Example 1, it reveals translation mismatches in terms of participants (including lexical mismatches such as ‘exercisers’ and ‘supine relaxers’, ‘stretching’ and ‘relaxation’, ‘walking’ and ‘walking on treadmill’, etc), processes (in the area of tense and aspects, as well as the use of modal verbs, etc), and circumstances (for example, the use of noun phrase to replace an adverbial, or the use of one type of circumstances to replace another which may affect the meaning. An example of this is the use of Circumstance: Location: Temporal ‘after’ to replace Circumstance: Duration: Temporal ‘over’ as in ‘over 12 months’, etc.)

At a discourse level, the ST indicates its overall purpose is to promote the benefit of exercising through the use of the outcome report on a research project involving two groups of post-menopausal women. In contrast, the TT gives an impression of a report on a project conducted by American researchers. The discrepancy between the two texts is reflected through the different use of participants as well as processes, and circumstances (see Example 0.1 in Page 9).

0.6.2.2 Genre analysis

Genre analysis, on the other hand, provides a clear picture into the global structure of each text offering information about various stages/steps as well as the function of each stage/step in the text structure. More importantly, especially for translation evaluation purposes, genre analysis can help reveal a clear mapping of the TT as compared with the ST and can indicate at which stage(s) the purpose/function of the text seems to be sidetracking.

0.6.2.3 Metafunction analysis

With respect to the ideational metafunction, analysis can only indicate whether the ST and the TT share a similar propositional content, but cannot identify the subtle difference in meaning between the two, particularly with regard to stages or moves in the texts. Interpersonal metafunction analysis, however, helps reveal the priority undertaken by the ST and TT producers as well as their personal point of view expressed in the text.

As far as the translation of Example 0.1 is concerned, analysis identifies a certain degree of personal imposition and/or preference on the part of the translator in the TT. For example, in order to make the TT more credible and thus persuasive, the nominal group ‘American researchers’ is used as Subject of Clause 1; whereas in Clause 2 the ‘American
As far as textual metafunction is concerned, as defined by Halliday (1967: 50) “[textual metafunction is] the grammar which specifies the choices that speakers and writers make when they introduce structures into discourse”, this highlights the fact that without the textual metafunction the other two – ideational and interpersonal metafunctions – remain ‘hidden’ or ‘undisclosed’. It is textual metafunction that organizes thoughts and ideas into propositional content and facilitates the presentation of this content as well as the interaction of those who are involved in the communicative event through the text.

Therefore, textual metafunction performs a dual role in the construction of text. On the one hand it functions as propositional organizer, deciding what is going to be the subject/object of the clause or which linguistic element should occupy the clausal initial. On the other hand, it plays the role of an interactional organizer charged with the establishment and maintenance of the addresser/addressee relationship (Baker 1992: 121) In other words, textual metafunction is responsible for the organization of the semantic content of the text and at the same time signals the intention of the writer through the choice of Theme.

The analysis of Theme-Rheme, however, only reveals the thematic structure and the direction of the information flow at the local level; that means it only indicates the thematic relations between the main clause and its hypotactic clauses. In order to explore the thematic patterning of a series of interrelated clauses of a longer stretch of language or of the whole text, as well as the flow of its information, the thematic progression analysis proposed by Danes (1974) has proved to be effective. Although it has often been seen as having its focus mainly on ideational meaning (Thompson 2007), due to its constructional role in maintaining the text cohesion the choice of Theme is always textually and contextually motivated. Moreover, although Theme is speaker-oriented, it reflects a speaker’s consideration in relation to what s/he sees as important or new (what one needs to know) to the addressee (Mason 2007).

In other words, it can be said that Theme is consciously or unconsciously chosen by a text producer to facilitate the communication of a message or to manipulate certain reaction from the reader. Therefore, Theme helps express both textual and interpersonal meaning; whereas Rheme, the goal of the communication, expresses ideational meaning. Thus thematic patterning analysis performed on a text will reveal all three types of metafunction or meaning of the text.
0.6.2.4  **Problem-Solution Structure (PSS)**

As discussed, thematic analysis can help pinpoint discrepancies between the ST and the TT at different levels of text organization. However, some of these discrepancies may be obscured by subtle nuances in relation to the competing priority in expressing meaning at different levels of the text as well as the tension between meaning and structural differences.

In order to overcome these shortcomings it is proposed that Theme-Rheme structure analysis be conducted in conjunction with Problem-Solution structure (PSS) analysis. As shown through the exploration of Example 4.1, PSS analysis serves as a ‘backstop’ to catch up with ‘slippery’ pieces of information, which may go unnoticed under the radar of thematic analysis. When combined with thematic analysis it helps pin down important pieces of information deposit in the rhematic zone, which are interrelated elements of the Problem-Solution structure. And as will clearly be illustrated in Chapter V, when a longer stretch of text is explored using both thematic structure and PSS analysis, the eclectic model is very effective in dealing with texts of an informative and/or expositive nature. In comparing and contrasting two texts, with one purporting to be the ‘true’ image of the other, any model which can isolate specific features contained in one text but not the other will help not only with text analysis for translation purposes, but also with text analysis for translation quality assessment purposes.

0.6.2.5  **Topical Structure analysis**

The model, as its name indicates, helps keep track of the text’s cohesion and, to a larger extent, its coherence. It follows the same principle as Danes’ thematic progression patterning, however its focus is the ‘topic’ of the text. It should be noted that the notion of ‘topic’ proposed by Lautamatti (1978, 1987) is different to that of Halliday. While Halliday and his colleagues sometimes refer to ‘Topic’ as Theme, and this may be conflated with the Subject of a clause, ‘topic’ in Lautamatti’s view can occur anywhere in a sentence; i.e. beginning, middle or end.

0.6.2.6  **Rhematic progression**

A different thematic choice obviously also impacts on what is going to appear in the rhematic zone of a clause due to the intimate interrelationship between Theme and Rheme. Thus, an investigation into the thematic structure of a text also entails a degree of exploration into its rhematic structure, depending on the purposes of the investigation.
Because the rhematic zone is where ‘newsworthy’ information is deposited, and this information is crucial for the interpretation of meaning of the original text during the translation process, therefore one cannot explore thematic progression of a text without paying attention to its rhematic progression. Through the researcher’s experience as a translator, translation checker, and translation teacher, an awareness of the importance of the direction of the rhematic progression in a text during the deconstruction stage of a translation process will help make any obscurity or ambiguity of the original become more explicit. In addition, an awareness of the rhematic progression of a text also helps with the maintenance of the text cohesion as well as its coherence.

From a Problem-Solution perspective, it is common knowledge that in a text characterized with this type of patterning (Problem-Solution pattern), elements containing ‘solution’ to a ‘problem’ are often found concentrated in the rhematic region of the clauses in the text.

0.7 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH THESIS

The thesis presents a detailed analysis of semantic consequences caused by thematic shifts in English and Vietnamese translation. In order to help illustrate the argument clearly, the study is divided into two closely related parts.

- PART ONE
The first part of the study comprises five main chapters:

Chapter I

In this chapter, several fundamental concepts in the study of translation: i.e. different views on translation studies; issue of equivalence; translation methods, and so on will be discussed. It will be concluded by recommendations concerning the use of alternatives to such highly controversial translation terminology as ‘equivalence’, ‘equivalent response’, etc.

Chapter II

In order to highlight difficulties faced by translators working to and from English and Vietnamese, the chapter will examine the commonest issues pertaining specifically to the language pair, which often pose challenges to translation practice. Using examples drawn from a corpus of authentic parallel texts, which comprises mainly health information
materials, it discusses in detail many translation problems faced by translators at various levels. It also explores the issue of translation difficulty caused by cultural differences between the two linguistically and structurally unrelated languages.

Chapter III
The study is inspired by SFL theoretical and research methods, especially the notion of Theme and Rheme. Therefore, to assist with the discussion concerning the structural differences between the language pair, especially the difference in thematic structure, an in-depth analysis of the textual metafunction of Vietnamese grammar is conducted with the main focus being on one aspect of the metafunction: the thematic structure. Given Vietnamese is considered a topic-prominent language, the identification of Theme and issues regarding the delimitation of Theme in Vietnamese is reviewed, the position adopted here being that the boundary of Theme in Vietnamese is extended to include Subject of the clause.

Moreover, due to the functional role of circumstantial adjuncts as well as subordinate clauses in Vietnamese clauses, also discussed is the reason for the adoption of the term “Contextual Frame” proposed by Davies (1988, 1997) instead of “multiple Theme” as widely known within the SFL circle.

Chapter IV
This chapter will implement various theoretical notions as well as linguistic analytical techniques examined in the above chapters to translation practice. It will explore in detail different linguistic notions deemed relevant to translation theory and practice and apply these into text analysis for translation as well as translation quality assessment purposes. However, the focus of the chapter is on the textual metafunction of the text, with emphasis placed on discussion of the thematic distribution and information structure of the parallel texts.

A corpus of several short texts published in the in-flight bi-monthly and bilingual Vietnam Airlines magazine, Heritage Fashion, are used to illustrate the semantic consequences caused by thematic shifts in the translated texts. A preliminary conclusion is made. However, in order to make a definite conclusion, the chapter proposes that an examination of longer and more complex texts be conducted in the next chapter.

Chapter V
In order to determine the relevance of linguistic theory in translation practice, and especially to raise awareness concerning the importance of theme choice in translation and its possible semantic consequences, the Theme-Rheme structures of three translated texts (TTs)
are compared and contrasted with the thematic patterns of their originals (STs). Relevant analytical tools such as thematic progression and Problem-Solution pattern are implemented to examine the texts and discussion is conducted at some length on the findings. The findings show that there are more clauses in the target language texts as compared to their original versions; therefore it can be said that in Vietnamese a target language text is often longer than its source language version. This also means the number of Themes in the TTs is greater than that of the STs.

The chapter also briefly touches on the Vietnamese translation of mental health terminology, pointing out that some terms have caused confusion and even misunderstanding among information users and may, in effect, ‘shy’ them away from accessing the needed information. Given the information user’s access to necessary information is restricted by language difficulties and completely depends on the availability of translated materials, the issue of mistranslation, even at the morphological level, may deter the use of the information materials. Accessibility of the target audience will be significantly compromised if the information provided departs semantically from the meaning intended in the original.

It is not exaggerating to say that in terms of accessibility to necessary health information in general, information users of various ethnic communities who have difficulty accessing information directly in English are at their translators’ mercy.

Therefore, it is proposed that there should be pro-active collaboration between mental health professionals and translators, as well as between translators and prospective service users, to arrive at consensus on key terminology.

**Chapter VI**

Chapter VI provides a brief summary of the research findings as well as offers several recommendations for the future further studies into the relationship between linguistics and translation; in particular the relationship between a different thematic choice and possible change in semantic and functional aspects of translated texts in text types other than the informative text type. The current research also encourages the use of a similar methodological approach to other language pairs.
PART TWO
This includes the Appendices where copies of materials collected and used as data in the research are archived. 

Part Two also consists of a further two chapters; namely Chapter IIB, and Chapter IIIB which can be used as reference for the whole thesis due to their relevance to the purposes and scope of the study.

Chapter IIB
The purpose of the chapter is to try out some linguistic concepts and methodologies to discuss and address the most common issues in translation at the word, beyond word and discourse levels. Moreover, it also demonstrates that such notions as register, genre, and discourse analysis can play an important role in text analysis both for translation as well as translation criticism purposes.

Chapter IIIB
This chapter provides detailed descriptions of the Ideational and Interpersonal metafunctions of Vietnamese grammar through a SFL perspective. Combined with the profile of the Textual Metafunction in Chapter III, it can give a complete overview of Vietnamese grammar for comparative and contrastive purposes in English and Vietnamese translation practice.

Throughout the research authentic examples collected from various sources, including segments of informative texts on various subjects, are used to illustrate translation problems. Some are for evaluative purposes, and thus are coupled with suggested alternative translation; others are for the purpose of highlighting potential pitfalls. However, the research is conducted not with the intent of being critical of identified mismatches in translation, but rather to raise an awareness of the importance of thematic choice in text as well as with a pedagogical purpose in mind.

0.8 THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY
For the scope of the present research I will briefly discuss translation theories and various common issues, including controversial translation terminology such as equivalent and equivalence. Later, a corpus of non-literary texts of expressive, informative and persuasive nature in both languages (i.e. English and Vietnamese) will be examined to
identify practical problems involving translation practice.

The reason for the use of non-literary and informative text type for examination and discussion is both to ensure clarity and translatability, and reduce ambiguity. This reflects the common belief that informative texts are more explicit, thus helping minimize the translator's interpretation and judgment, as pointed out by Snell-Hornby (1991: 42): “Literary texts, especially those embedded in a culture of the distant past, tend to be less easily translatable than those texts dealing with the 'universals' of modern science.”

The choice also helps eliminate as much as possible the personal emotions or feelings in response to the predicament arising from the text which often interfere with the translation process of a translator while working on a literary work.

The sources of data for this study are mainly government and non-government leaflets, brochures, pamphlets and booklets on social, medical and legal issues. The collected data will be analysed using Systemic Functional Linguistics as a framework. Discussions on approaches to various translation problems will be made taking into account the cultural perspective and linguistic dimension (terms used by Snell-Hornby). Finally, recommendations for further studies in the field will be presented.

Texts for examination have been deliberately chosen ranging from simple to more complex structures, from a tangible and common health issue (colds) to an abstract and sensitive one (mental health), especially with respect to the target culture (Vietnamese culture).

The aim of the exercise is to investigate how textual meaning, which is largely expressed through thematic patterning, is handled in the translated texts. Moreover the study seeks to discover whether the intended message expressed in the ST is being carried over to the TT. And if not, what has caused the loss of meaning and to what extent is this caused by the change in thematic structure?

Therefore, to fulfil this aim, the research explores the semantic consequences of thematic shifts in translation and illustrates how these shifts may affect the meaning of the intended message. It also shows how these shifts, most often caused by a translator’s insensitivity to the significance of the textual metafunction reflecting through thematic choice, or by the language-specific structural requirements, may be able to be reconciled through awareness of thematic importance. In doing so, first it explores several theoretical linguistic insights and concepts, which may inform both translation theory and practice, and thus facilitate the process of translation in general. In addition, it hopes that such insights would help address some of the most common issues faced by translation practitioners in their course of work.
It therefore has both practical and pedagogic implications.

More ambitiously, although what works in a particular language pair may not be applicable to others, because each language pair has its unique characteristics, the proposed research methodology may be employed to approach those sharing similar characteristics. Given English and Vietnamese languages are culturally and structurally remote, the findings of this research may provide some insight into similar issues between other language pairs.
CHAPTER I

FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS
IN THE STUDY OF TRANSLATION

1.1 DIFFERENT VIEWS ON TRANSLATION STUDIES

1.1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of translation theory and practice is of great interest not only to linguists, translation theorists and translation practitioners, but also to scholars working in related fields such as philosophy, anthropology, language teaching and communication, in particular cross-cultural communication. With the increasing advance of electronic technology, translation studies has also placed its foot in the field of artificial intelligence and computing science with the emergence of machine translation.

1.1.1 TRANSLATION AS APPLIED STUDY

A fundamental question is whether translation studies should be seen as a branch of applied linguistics (or even a sub-category of comparative descriptive literature, as classified by Halliday) - and thus studied under the light of contemporary linguistic theories and techniques, or whether as an independent discipline along side with other 'notable' scientific ones (in this case, specific devices and methodology of investigation should be designed). As argued by Snell-Hornby (1991: 2-3):

... translation studies should be viewed as an independent discipline..., (and) as a culturally oriented subject, draws on a number of disciplines, including psychology (...), ethnology (...), and philosophy (...), without being a subdivision of any of them. Similarly, it can and should utilise relevant concepts and methods developed from the study of language (...) without automatically becoming a branch of linguistics or having to adopt linguistic methods and theoretical constructs wholesale...

Gutt (1991: 2) identifies the root of the confusion as lying in the lack of a comprehensive approach to translation “both systematic and theoretically sound”. Giving various reasons for 'this disappointing situation', he suggests that: “… translation theorists were preoccupied for too long with debating unfruitful issues, such as whether translation should be literal or free,
or whether translation is possible or not. Another suggestion is that the understanding of translation has remained inadequate because it has never been studied in its own right, but merely as a sub-domain of some other subject, such as literature or foreign language teaching. Some scholars have suggested the simple, if radical, explanation that translation simply is not open to scientific investigation because it is an art or a skill. By contrast, still others have suggested that our scientific understanding of translation is so poor because it really has not been studied in a proper scientific manner.”

Wilss (1982), however, strongly emphasises the need for a co-ordination of points of view on the subject; that is, a cooperation of linguists and translation theorists on translation issues. Other authors, such as Bell (1991), see the problem actually arising from the mutually hostile attitude of both linguists and translation theorists towards each other on a theory of translation.

The scope of this project does not allow for discussion at length of the so-called traditional translation theory which was seen as the polarisation of two extreme views of translating techniques; namely, word versus sense or literal versus free. I shall, however, briefly mention some recent developments in translation studies and related fields such as linguistics and sociolinguistics and their implications for translation theory and practice.

Adopting Halliday’s early development of systemic linguistics, Catford (1965: vii) proposes a linguistic theory of translation and gives the rationale behind it: “Since translation has to do with language, the analysis and description of translation-processes must make considerable use of categories set up for the description of language. It must, in other words, draw upon a theory of language - a general linguistic theory.”

He considers language as a type of social behaviour and emphasises the importance in the relationship between language in its social and situational context, and the role of participants.

Exploring the concept of rank and scale suggested by Halliday in 1961, Catford proposes four types of translation: phonological, graphological, grammatical and lexical, and also introduces the concept of ‘level’ shifts (i.e. grammar to lexis, and vice versa) which is useful in addressing structural differences in translation.

Newmark (1991: 65), referring to the work of Catford, agrees that the application of Halliday’s systemic linguistics to translation analysis is “more useful than Chomsky’s TG (Transformational Grammar) or the behaviourist Bloomfield’s immediate constituent analysis”. He (1991: 67) points out further contributions this approach has made to both the theory and practice of translation in “the pin-pointing of problems at varying grammatical levels...”
Following Catford, Bell (1991: xiii) also proposes systemic linguistics as a model for a translation task, and the reason is clearly stated by Candlin in his preface for Bell’s book *Translation and Translating*: “Like the author, I am of the opinion that systemic linguistics offers such a convenient tool, not only in its focus on the clause but also because of the importance it accords to the social and psychological.”

However, Neubert & Shreve (1992: 19) raise concerns regarding the linguistic approach, saying that it ignores extra-linguistic factors, which are essential for the interpretation of a text and, most of the time, help a translator to decide on appropriate techniques for a particular task:

This approach treats translation as a specific, perhaps unique, type of language use. It does not consider external or extra-linguistic factors such as critical norms or constraints of practice. It concentrates, instead, on systemic relationships between the source and target language. The model studies the linguistic resources of the source and target languages and the mechanism available in the target language for overcoming the structural differences between source and target appear in translation.

They also point out the fact that because the linguistic approach focuses mainly on language structure and on ‘determining the regular distribution of grammatical and lexical forms’ (1992: 38), it fails to pay any attention to the context where language is used. Indeed, they end up strongly rejecting this limited approach with the view that ‘There is more than just linguistics involved in translation’.

Furthermore, the above authors (ibid: 6-7) criticise the current trend of translation studies for its lack of substantiated evidence, saying that: “Translation studies today is a cluster of overlapping perspectives. There is no unified way of approaching the study of translation. Practitioners and scholars stake out certain territories and construct their own isolated understandings of translation reality. Many of these perspectives are non-empirical. They are derived from disparate sources. Some come from models in other disciplines.”

Instead, they propose a textual approach to translation, arguing that text is the central issue in translation, for without text there is no translation. And to support the argument they point out that the nature of the translation process, defined by texts and their situations, is a textual process, starting with a source text and resulting in a target text.

They (ibid: 39) also emphasise the fundamental importance of text as object of translation studies: “Texts are the empirical basis for the study of structured interaction. If translation is a form of structured interaction between source text author, translator, and target text reader, then the text is also the communicative basis for the study of translation.”
Sharing Neubert & Shreve’s view, Nord (1991: 1) suggests a translation-oriented model of text analysis, arguing that “different purposes require different approaches”, and also includes some criteria for such a model:

Translation-oriented text analysis should not only ensure full comprehension and correct interpretation of the text or explain its linguistic and textual structures and their relationship with the system and the norms of the source language (SL), but it should also provide a reliable foundation for each and every decision which the translator has to make in a particular translation process...

What is needed is a model of source text analysis which is applicable to all text types and text specimens, and which can be used in any translation task that may arise. Such a model should enable the translator to understand the function of the elements or features observed in the content and structure of the source text.

She emphasises the importance of the correlation between the SL and TL texts in the act of translating.

In his search for a scientific approach to translation studies Gutt explores relevance theory in communication as presented by Sperber & Wilson (1986). He (1991: 188) contends that “issues of translation are shown to be at heart issues of communication”, seeing “no need to develop a separate theory of translation”, and concluding that: “all the aspects of translation surveyed, including matters of evaluation, are explicable in terms of the interaction of context, stimulus and interpretation through the principle of relevance, a universal principle believed to represent a psychological characteristic of human nature.”

On the translation issue other authors such as Nida, in contrast, link translation theory and practice with sociolinguistics. In an article published in Current Trends in Linguistics, Nida (1974) acknowledges the important contribution by Catford to the theory of translation, saying that “such an approach ... has permitted Catford to define a translation rule...”, and “to describe with considerable precision some of the fundamental differences between textual equivalence and formal correspondence”.

However, realising the limitations of a linguistic approach to translation due to the fact that it cannot fully explain and address the issue of meaning, which is the most essential part of translation as a communication process, Nida (1976: 78) suggests a sociolinguistic approach: “Because translating always involves communication within the context of interpersonal relations, the model for such activity must be a communication model, and the principles must be primarily sociolinguistics in the broad sense of the term. As such, translating becomes a part of the even broader field of anthropological semiotics... [A]ll the aspects of translation surveyed, including matters of evaluation, are explicable in terms of the interaction of context, stimulus and interpretation through the principle of relevance, a universal principle believed to represent a psychological characteristic of human nature.”
But first of all, what is translation?

Even on this term, there is no common agreement amongst translation theorists and scholars. For example, Bell (1991: 5), quoting Dubois et al (Dictionnaire de linguistique, 1973), suggests that: “Translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalence.”

Newmark (1981: 7) views translation as a craft “consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language”; whereas, the most availably free consultative resources for almost any fields of human knowledge, the Wikipedia defines translation as: “the interpretation of the meaning of a text in one language (the "source text") and the production, in another language, of an equivalent text (the "target text," or "translation") that communicates the same message.” (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation)

However, most agree on two issues: the distinction between translation as process and product (Bassnett-McGuire, 1988; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Bell, 1991, etc.), and the notion that translation means equivalence. Therefore, we should first look at translation as both process and product, before examining the increasingly controversial notion of equivalence.

By process, linguists and translation scholars mean the act of translating a text from one language (Source Language, or SL) into another (Target Language, or TL), or the techniques used to reproduce the text in the target language (TL). On the other hand, product is the result of the translating process, namely the translated text. Hatim & Mason (1990:3) consider the translating process as “the negotiation of meaning between producers and receivers of texts”; while Bell (1991: 13) quotes from Meetham & Hudson's definition of translation as “The process or result of converting information from one language or language variety into another...”

Bell (1991) also distinguishes a third meaning for the word; that is, the abstract concept containing both the process of translating and the product of the process. However, because the reader of the TL text does not have access to the process leading to the decisions of which techniques should be used to provide certain effects, or which particular features (generic, cultural, or historical) of the SL text should be given more emphasis in the TL, the problem-solving in the course of translation lies with the translator. It can be said that it is analogous to the process of writing a literary work, in that the reader is not aware of the enormous effort in preparation for the work. Therefore, what is to be assessed or evaluated is the translated text, the outcome of the translation process, and the evidence of the translator's competence, rather than the process itself.
Catford (1965: 20) defines the process of translating as “The replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”. Similarly, Hartmann & Stork (1972: 173), in the Dictionary of Language and Linguistics, give the following definition “Translation is the replacement of a representation of the text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language.”

Nida & Taber (1969: 12), however, emphasise the process of reproducing the intended message contained in the SL into the TL text (the receptor language), striving to achieve “the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.”

Bassnett-McGuire (1988: 2), on the other hand, views it from a slightly different angle: “What is generally understood as translation involves the rendering of the source language (SL) text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that (1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and (2) the structures of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted.

Wilss (1982: 112: italics added) expands on this point of view “Translation is a procedure which leads from a written SL text to an optimally equivalent TL text, and which requires the syntactic, semantic, stylistic and text pragmatic comprehension by the translator of the original text.”

Note that Wilss seems to emphasise the optimal aspect of ‘equivalence’ of the translated text as well as its pragmatic impact on the reader’s comprehension. However, the former is difficult to gauge due to the divergence of world views and experience of translators and the latter is concerned with a reader’s personal background including age, gender, life experience, level of education, etc. This issue of subjectivity in relation to translation equivalence will be discussed in the next section.

1.1.2 ISSUE OF EQUIVALENCE

From the above definitions it is evident that the central issue of translation as a process is to find 'equivalence', and as pointed out by Catford (1965: 21): “A central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence.” According to Catford (ibid: 27) ‘translation equivalence’ is an “empirical phenomenon”; i.e. discovered by comparing SL and TL texts. Within this concept, he also distinguishes between ‘textual equivalence’ and ‘formal correspondence’, defining the former as “any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion… to be equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text” (ibid); and the latter as “any TL category [e.g. morpheme, lexis,
phrase, clause, etc.] which may be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the ‘same’ place in
the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL” (ibid: 32)

While these notions are not greatly relevant to the assessment of translation
equivalence they can however be useful tools in comparative and contrastive linguistics.

In his definition of translation equivalence, as quoted by Bassnett-McGuire (1988:25),
Popovic suggests four types:

• *Linguistic equivalence*, where there is homogeneity on the linguistic level of both SL and TL texts,
i.e. word for word translation.

• *Paradigmatic equivalence*, where there is equivalence of 'the elements of a paradigmatic expressive
axis', i.e. elements of grammar, which Popovic sees as being a higher category than lexical
equivalence.

• *Stylistic (translational) equivalence*, where there is 'functional equivalence of elements in both
original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning'.

• *Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence*, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a
text, i.e. equivalence of form and shape.

Nida, however, proposes merely two types of equivalence, namely *formal equivalence*
and *dynamic equivalence*. Using *formal equivalence*, the translator 'focuses attention on the
message itself, in both form and content. In such a translation one is concerned with such
correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept.' Nida calls
this type of translation 'gloss translation', which aims to allow the reader to understand as
much of the SL text as possible. *Dynamic equivalence*, however, is based on the principle of
*equivalent effect*, i.e. the message in the translation text should have the same effect on
readers of the TL text as it does to readers of the SL text (Nida, 1964: 159; Nida & Taber,

*Formal equivalence* is appropriate in circumstances such as diplomatic negotiations
where a translator may at crucial times be required to provide exact translation without regard
for 'equivalence of effect' as well as some insights into lexical, grammatical or structural
form of the SL text.

Translation theorist Kesteren is even more specific in his approach to equivalence,
proposing nine potential types, as referred to in an article written by Perez (1993). They are:
qualisign equivalence, sinsign equivalence, legisign equivalence, icon equivalence, index
equivalence, symbol equivalence, rhema equivalence, dicent equivalence, and argument
equivalence (in Babel 1994: 159-160). These definitely merit further investigation, but due to
the scope of this paper cannot be expanded upon here.

On the issue of equivalence, Snell-Hornby (1988: 16) questions the validity of the
discussion: “The argumentation (about equivalence/equivalent) seems plausible, but it rests
on a shaky basis: it proposes a degree of symmetry between languages which makes the postulated equivalence possible. Nowhere is the fallacy in such thinking better illustrated than in the term *equivalence* itself."

And she takes time to provide an etymological account of the term (ibid: 17):

For the last 150 years Engl. *equivalence* has been used as a technical term in various exact sciences to denote a number of scientific phenomena or processes; in mathematics and formal logic it indicates a relationship of absolute symmetry and equality involving guaranteed reversibility... In other words, the lexemes *equivalent/equivalence* are used in the English language both as sharply defined scientific terms and in the notoriously fuzzy area of general vocabulary to mean "of similar significance", "virtually the same thing"

Appearing critical of Snell-Hornby's rejection of the term 'equivalence', Neubert & Shreve (1992: 143) strongly express their view: “the notion of *equivalence* refers to semantic congruence within the scope of target language prototypical constraints. The source text's textuality is deliberately re-configured to produce a target textuality. There is an intrinsic source text - target text relationship in a good translation that we cannot ignore. *If we cannot use the term communicative equivalence to refer to this relationship, what other term would suffice?*” (italics added)

And they even go further to propose to translation scholars: “If scholars do not insist on definitions of equivalence that imply complete identity, then equivalence can remain a valid concept in translation studies.” (ibid)

In contrast to Neubert & Shreve, Bassnett-McGuire agrees with Snell-Hornby that the term 'equivalence' not only assumes mathematically symmetrical characteristics of the two languages involved (the SL and TL), but is a serious obstacle to any discussion on translation theory. She (1988: 26) also comments on the shortcoming of Nida's *dynamic equivalence*, which is based on the principle of 'equivalent effect', as being speculative and leading to "very dubious conclusions".

Hu (1992) is another critic of Nida’s equivalent effect. In a series of articles entitled ‘On the implausibility of equivalent response’, Hu points out the language-specific difference in the paradigmatic and syntagmatic systems of any language pair, contending that full equivalence between them is impossible, and therefore all acts of translation involve ‘losses’ and ‘gains’ in meanings. And he concludes: “... since there is no full equivalence, there is no practical criterion which measures full equivalence.” (ibid: 505)

Commenting on Nida’s “excessive zeal in emphasising equivalent response” and pointing out that from Nida’s perspective, a translator “is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language message with the source-language message, but with the dynamic relationship... (i.e. equivalent response)” (1992a: 297-298) Hu’s concern is that if the
translator places too much attention on the ‘equivalent response’ then a translation may not be a translation. From his point of view, a strict observation of the notion of ‘equivalent response’ may make the ‘translation’ move away from the original writer’s ideas, and cross the fine line that separates creative writing from translation.

Returning to the controversial issue of equivalence in translation and the concerns raised by Bassnett-McGuire, we find that two centuries earlier Schopenhauer made the same observation:

Not every word in one language has an exact equivalent in another. Thus, not all concepts that are expressed through the words of one language are exactly the same as the ones that are expressed through the words of another... Sometimes a language lacks the word for a certain concept even though it exists in most, perhaps all, other languages... On the other hand, for certain concepts a word exists only in one language and is then adopted by other languages... At times, a foreign language introduces a conceptual nuance for which there is no word in our own language.

(Translated by Mollenhauer 1992: 32)

Agreeing with Schopenhauer on this point and having second thoughts on his stand as to whether, in the translation process, a translator should focus his efforts on finding 'equivalents', Nida (1975: 5) suggests that:

(1) no word (or semantic unit) ever has exactly the same meaning in two different utterances;
(2) there are no complete synonyms within a language;
(3) there are no exact correspondences between related words in different languages...

Hence the notion of equivalence “whether in dictionaries or in translations, cannot be absolute” (ibid).

Bell (1991:6), like Schopenhauer, rejects the ideal of total equivalence, arguing that: “the ideal of total equivalence is a chimera. Languages are very different from each other; they are different in form having distinct codes and rules regulating the construction of grammatical stretches of language and these forms have different meanings... To shift from one language to another is, by definition, to alter the forms. Further, the contrasting forms convey meanings which cannot but fail to coincide totally; there is no absolute synonymy between words in the same language, so why should anyone be surprised to discover a lack of synonymy between languages?”

Jakobson (1959, 2000), a Russia-born American linguist, sees the issue of translation as involving “two equivalent messages in two different codes”, and he warns that the issue of “[equivalence] in difference is the cardinal problem of language and the pivotal concern of linguistics.” (1959: 223; 2000: 114).
Discussing Jakobson’s view on meaning and equivalence in translation, Munday (2001: 37) points out that it refers to the difference in the structure and terminology of languages rather than “[the ability] of one language to render a message that has been written in another language”. Confirming this view, Jakobson asserts that: “Languages differ essentially in what they must convey and not in what they may convey” (ibid: 116, original emphasis)

In her seminal work ‘In other words – a course book on translation’, Baker (1992: 5-6) sets out to explore the concept of equivalence at word and above word level, as well as grammatical equivalence, textual and pragmatic equivalence. However, no less doubtful about the very notion, she strongly confirms her stance that: “the term equivalence is adopted in this book for the sake of convenience – because most translators are used to it rather than because it has any theoretical status. It is used here with the proviso that although equivalence can usually be obtained to some extent, it is influenced by a variety of linguistic and cultural factors and is therefore always relative.” (original emphasis)

**So how can the issue of equivalence be addressed?**

In terms of stylistic, paradigmatic and syntagmatic equivalence, not all languages have the same form and structure. Therefore, the problem of equivalence becomes both the dilemma and the challenge for the translator.

If the term equivalence causes too much controversy due to its mathematically symmetrical connotation then one may think of proposing a substitute term to facilitate any further discussion. Correspondence has been used interchangeably with ‘equivalence’ in some literature on translation, and even though still bearing a mathematical and logical sense, it does not evoke the idea of exactness and precision or “absolute symmetry and equality involving guaranteed reversibility...” (Snell-Hornby, 1988: 17). Furthermore, the term does not only denote the relationship between the SL and TL texts, but also the analogy of their function in a given context and for a given purpose; thus, we can have semantic correspondence instead of semantic equivalence, textual correspondence in lieu of textual equivalence and so forth. Given the fact that a text is not static, but dynamic, the notion of correspondence also brings up a sense of responsiveness with the translator interacting with the SL text (as a text receiver) and re-expressing his/her response in another language rather than making an equation between the SL and TL texts.

Discussing the relationship between equivalence and translatability Hu maintains that translatability must be a precondition for equivalence, because if there is no translatability,
there will be no equivalence. However, “translatability does not entail equivalence.” (Hu, 1992b: 503-504). And to further explains his view of equivalence in translation, he posits:

The degree of translatability – and that of equivalence – depends on the extent to which the concerned languages differ and the extent to which mediation between them is possible. Since the solution almost inevitably allows the source language and the target language each to keep its distinctions at the cost of the other, equivalence is an inherently defective term. It is the term which is misleading and a better one would be temporal correspondence. (original emphasis)

In the article written by Yallop (2001), The Construction of Equivalence, the author examines a work in the Pitjantjatjara language by Nancy Sheppard, Altiji in the Dreamtime, which is a translated version of Lewis Carroll’s Alice in Wonderland. Despite significant differences between the original and the Pitjantjatjara text, he points out many correspondences as well as 'equivalences as close as one could ask of a translation' (for example: a white kangaroo for a white rabbit, a koala for dormouse, a stockman for mad hatter, etc.) and argues that, “What translators commonly do is … use their imaginative skill to create a new [word] play which is certainly not identical with the source but shows some kind of general affinity or resemblance to it” (ibid: 235)

Yallop (2001: 242) also proposes the notion of 'similarity in translation' with the view that similarities “justify correspondences which, under certain conditions, may reach a point at which many of us are content to speak of equivalence or even identity”. And to conclude, he makes the following observation:

In a world in which everything is unique, there is of course no ultimate guarantee of equivalence, whether in the translation of technical manuals, contracts or commercial correspondence, or in the translation of more obviously unique texts. What we encounter are similarities, points in which, as humans, we can discern connections and relationships. Equivalence is not a relationship that is fixed once and for all, and the question is, always, what kind of similarity we are prepared to accept as equivalence in a particular context for a particular purpose. Equivalence is constructed, not out of absolute identity but out of a rich diversity of similarities.

1.1.3 ISSUE OF TRANSLATION TERMINOLOGY

A major problem for translators when presented with a text is to make a decision as to which approach they are going to take i.e. whether they should translate it ‘literally’ or ‘freely’. It is the translator's responsibility to make a decision on what techniques to employ in order to produce certain effects; which terms to choose in order to convey the message intended by the producer of the source language text, but in a manner culturally appropriate for text receivers of the target language. As pointed out by Biguenet & Schulte (1989 Introduction: x) “[Ideally] … the translator's methodologies introduce the readers into
complexities of cultural thinking and expressions rather than reducing these complexities to a common denominator... Words don't find their equivalencies in the new language, nor do cultural expressions...”

So translation is not simply the act of seeking equivalents and writing them down, because not every term in one language has an equivalent in another; and the grammatical structure of a sentence in one language does not always match that of another. Besides, as Hatim and Mason (1990) point out, the meaning of a sentence or text is far more than the sum of its parts and focussing on the lexical items individually.

Therefore, translators must explore all possible meanings of a word resulting from the connection between this word and its co-text and specific context. Discussing literal translation, Biguenet & Schulte (1989: xi) write: “[It] (only) deals with the surface appearance of words without a reflection of the directions of meaning that the original author tried to materialise behind that surface. The reader of such translation will be confused and will experience great difficulties in visualising the situations of the original text and its relationships to subsequent expansions of such situations.”

In A Text Book of Translation, Newmark (1988) places ‘literal translation’ on a continuum of eight methods of translation; i.e. word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation, adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation, and communicative translation. Among these, two methods are often discussed by translation scholars (eg. Snell-Hornby, 1988; Hatim & Mason, 1990); namely, semantic and communicative translations of which:

Semantic translation attempts to render as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the TL allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original; whereas communicative translation tries to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original.

(Newmark 1981:42)

Ibrahim (in Dollerup & Lindegaard 1993: 152) rejects Newmark’s classification as confusing and pedantic pointing out that students of translation make no distinction between, for example, literal and word-for-word.

Accepting that “different text types and different reasons for translating call for different strategies” (ibid: 151), and proposing a translation spectrum for pedagogic purposes, Ibrahim uses the prefix 'trans' to create new terminology and suggests sixteen types of translation techniques (which due to the scope of this paper will not be presented in full for discussion) claiming: “The terms I suggest here are derived empirically and describe pathways along which translation proceeds. The process in which the translator tries to preserve the tone and style of the original, for example, could be labelled trans-emulation.
This is different from trans-imitation, where the translator makes a deliberate attempt to imitate the style of another author other than the one of the original…” (ibid: 153)

**Disagreement in the use of terminology**

Discussing the methods translators may use in the translation process, Vinay & Darbelnet (1995) point out that it is important for the translator to establish the relationships between two linguistic systems in order to identify the units of translation before deciding which method should be employed. The authors make a differentiation between the translation process and translation ‘methods’ or ‘procedures’ with the former having to do with the steps a translator has to take to carry out a translation task; while the latter concerns strategies used to handle the required task. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 31) also concede that: “translation methods or procedures seem to be countless”.

In practice, however, Vinay and Darbelnet propose only two methods of translating which they name ‘direct’ (or ‘literal’) and ‘oblique’ translation and which are associated with seven procedures; namely: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation. According to the authors, the first three procedures are linked to the ‘direct’ translation method, and the remaining four to the ‘oblique’ translation. They also link the methods to the translation task and explain that: “[more complex tasks may require] more complex methods … which at first may look unusual but which nevertheless can permit translators a strict control over the reliability of their work: these procedures are called *oblique translation methods.*” (1995: 31; italics added)

Again, for the scope of this research their proposed methods will not be looked at in detail. However, it is interesting to note that the first procedure, i.e. borrowing which, according to Vinay and Darbelnet, is used “to introduce the flavour of the SL culture into a translation”, is so influential in the English speaking environment. Few people even question the origin of such terms as ‘paparazzi’ (from Italian), ‘apparatchik’ (Russian), and ‘camaraderie’, ‘menu’ or ‘déjà vu’ (from French).

Venuti (1998: 240) views a translation task as determined by cultural, economic and political factors that result in various strategies in translation practice. He classifies these strategies into two broad categories; i.e. domesticating and foreignising. And he explains:
A translation project may conform to values currently dominating the target-language culture, taking a conservative and openly assimilationist approach to the foreign text, appropriating it to support domestic canons, publishing trends, political alignments. Alternatively, a translation project may resist and aim to revise the dominant by drawing on the marginal, restoring foreign texts excluded by domestic canons, recovering residual values such as archaic texts and translation methods and cultivating emergent ones. (Routledge Encyclopaedia of Translation Studies, 1998)

Thus the domesticating strategy can be seen as a ‘TL culture-oriented’ approach; whereas the foreignising strategy is a ‘SL culture-oriented’ approach.

From a traditional translation point of view, translation scholars and linguists make a clear distinction between formal correspondence and dynamic equivalence (Nida, 1964; Ivir, 1981), with the former highlighting the role of linguistic units in translation theory, and the latter to the role of translation in contrastive analysis (Ivir, 1981: 51).

Discussing the principles of correspondence in translation, Nida (1964: 156) recognises different types of translations as well as various factors affecting the translation process. However, the following are identified as the three basic factors:

- the nature of the message;
- the purpose (or purposes) of the text author and, by proxy, of the translator; and
- the type of audience

Nida (ibid: 159) argues that since the aim of the translation process is to achieve ‘equivalence’ and since, “there are, properly speaking, no such things as identical equivalents (quoted from Belloc, 1931: 37), one must, in translating, seek to find the closest possible equivalent.” He then proposes two types of equivalence: formal and dynamic approaches which have received a lot of comments from both supporters and critiques (see Issue of Equivalence in previous section).

In terms of correspondence, Nida has used a whole chapter of the book ‘Toward a science of translation’ to discuss what he terms “correspondences and contrasts” between source and target languages at the phonological, morphological and syntactical levels. He also discusses correspondences and contrasts between the SL and TL in relation to person, number, gender, tense, aspect, case, etc. before moving to phrasal and discoursal structures.

From the perspective of a translation practitioner, Nida (1964: 226) proposes several ‘techniques’ (which are coined ‘techniques of adjustment’) translators may utilise to achieve ‘equivalence’, the purpose of such being to:
(1) permit adjustment of the form of the message to the requirements of the structure of the receptor language;
(2) produce semantically equivalent structures;
(3) provide equivalent stylistic appropriateness; and
(4) carry an equivalent communication load.

Nida’s ‘techniques of adjustment’ fall broadly into the categories of additions, subtractions, alterations, the use of footnotes, and adjustments of language to experience but due to the issue of space they will not be discussed in detail in this research.

In her seminal work, now widely used as a textbook in translation training at universities and colleges of advanced education across the world, Baker (1992: 26-42) also discusses various translation approaches, identifying eight strategies commonly used by professional translators:

(a) Translation by a more general word (super-ordinate)
(b) Translation by a more neutral/less expressive word
(c) Translation by cultural substitution
(d) Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation
(e) Translation by paraphrase using related words
(f) Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words
(g) Translation by omission
(h) Translation by illustration

Jakobson (2000: 114), however, takes a far broader approach to the concept of translation, distinguishing three categories which he labels as:

- **Intralingual translation** or rewording is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language.
- **Interlingual translation** or translation proper is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of some other language.
- **Intersemiotic translation** or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of non-verbal sign systems.

Others, such as Bell (1991: 7), see translation techniques as polarised into the two broad categories of word-for-word and free: “The choice (and it goes back to Classical times; Cicero 46 BC) is between translation word-for-word (literal translation) or meaning-for-meaning (free translation)… Pick the first and the translator is criticised for the 'ugliness' of a 'faithful' translation; pick the second and there is criticism of the ‘inaccuracy' of a 'beautiful' translation. Either way it seems, the translator cannot win, even though we recognise that the crucial variable is the purpose for which the translation is being made, not some inherent characteristic of the text itself.”

From the above observations, it seems that no matter which translation method or approach is used, the ultimate aim of the translation process is to achieve either ‘formal
correspondence’, or ‘equivalence’, or both. The former (or ‘correspondence in form’ through a literal translation approach) concerns the linguistic structure of the TL as compared to that of the SL; whereas the latter (or ‘correspondence in sense’ through a free translation approach) concerns the meaning of the text in question.

However, as will be shown in the following example, there is little formal correspondence or structural similarity between the translated text and its original, nor similarity in their meaning (in a very strict sense), yet the translated text can be seen as ‘equivalent’ to its original in terms of its purpose.

To commemorate the bicentenary of European settlement in Australia, in 1988 the Reserve Bank of Australia issued a series of plastic currency notes (or polypropylene polymer banknotes), among them the AU$5 note. For security purposes, the Reserve Bank of Australia had the description of this note translated and published in several major ethnic language papers, including Vietnamese (see Appendix A). Relevant to our current discussion is the piece of information on the actual size of the note as compared with what would be printed as a ‘specimen’ banknote in the newspapers.

**Example 1. 1**

**Original text**

ACTUAL SIZE
The note is 65mmx130mm. These illustrations are approximately one-fifth smaller.

**Translation**

KÍCH THƯỚC THỰC SỰ CỦA TỜ GIẤY BẠC
Tờ giấy bạc có kích thước một bên 65 mi-li-mét và một bên 130 mi-li-mét. Hình vẽ kích thước tờ giấy bạc đang ở trên chỉ bằng khoảng 4 phần 5 tờ giấy bạc thật.

**Back translation**

THE ACTUAL SIZE OF THE NOTE
The note has the size of 65mm on one side, and 130mm on the other. The illustrations of the note shown above are only approximately four-fifths of the actual note.

The example has shown that although there are some similarities in the linguistic structure of the two texts (formal correspondence), there are also several differences. In terms of length, the translated text is almost four times longer than the original; and as far as the grammatical category is concerned, Clause (1) of the original depicts a relational relationship between the note and its size through the employment of a relational process (the verb ‘be’); whereas its translation shows a possessive relationship (the verb ‘have’ being used instead) between the object and its dimension.
Moreover, in a logically concrete sense, a Vietnamese speaker would prefer to say the specimen banknote is approximately ‘four-fifths of the actual note’ (and this would be quickly understood by most Vietnamese) instead of ‘one-fifth smaller than the actual note’ as described in the original. This shows a significant difference in relation to the use of description as well as the concept of measurement between the two language communities (English and Vietnamese) and reflects differences in cognitive experience of the target audience.

On this issue, in an article published in the NSW Public Health Bulletin (Volume 21, No 8, August 2001) concerning problems faced by translators while translating the survey questionnaires compiled by the NSW Health Survey Program, Public Health Unit, NSW Health Department, Deborah Baker (2001: 232), Program Coordinator, commenting on issues affecting the translation process, has the following observation: “the level of similarity in language structure between English and the non-English language affects the ease of translation. Translations into European languages such as Italian are more straightforward than translations into Arabic and Asian languages.”

As far as the use of measurement units is concerned, Baker suggests that translators consider the utilisation of a more easily graspable concrete concept in relation to size, dimension, volume, etc, rather than an abstract one. As she depicts: “Chinese people did not understand the concept of ‘serve’ and how big this would be. ‘Small bowl’ was substituted for ‘serve’ Similarly, Italian and Vietnamese people would not use ‘serve’ or ‘cup’ but would understand a volume measure such as ‘250mls or quarter of a litre’.” (ibid)

Therefore, it can be said that as long as the message conveyed by the TT has similar meanings to its SL counterpart (i.e. the reader of the TT understands the message the same way the reader of the ST does), there is no need for the notion of ‘formal correspondence’ in translation. Furthermore, the above example also shows an intimate relationship between language and culture as well as the influence of language on the way people think. And although not wanting to support the extreme view proposed by Sapir-Whorf concerning the affect of language patterns on human thoughts as well as the notion of linguistic determinism, we have to agree that different language communities have different ways of expressing their feelings and thoughts through the use of language.

This close relationship between language and culture, however, will be dealt with further in the next section. Now returning to the issue of translation methods, as discussed earlier, translation is a form of communication, and the job of a translator, as a communicative facilitator, is to provide an end-product which conveys the same message intended by the text producer of the SL, but at the same time it must be done in a culturally
appropriate manner for readers of the TL. The main question in this case is: ‘How would a translator balance these priorities; i.e. would s/he centre his/her efforts on preserving the producer's style and intention, or focus his/her concern on the reader's expectation’?

Almost two hundred years ago (1813), in a lecture ‘On the different methods of translating’ Friedrich Schleiermacher suggested: “there are only two. Either the translator leaves the writer alone as much as possible and moves the reader toward the writer, or he leaves the reader alone as much as possible and moves the writer toward the reader...” (in Schulte & Biguenet, 1992: 42; also Venuti, 1998: 242)

Andre Lefevre (1975) makes it more specific by distinguishing two types of translation, namely, 'reader-oriented' and 'text-oriented' (or 'author-oriented') translations. In the former, the translation is made to accommodate the reader's expectations (which have been formed by the prevailing taste); whereas in the latter, the reader is expected to make his/her taste accommodate the translation (which may run counter to the prevailing taste.). Hatim & Mason (1990: 17) suggest that the question of author-orientation or reader-orientation is dependent on “where one's priorities lie”; and give their observation: “For many translators of religious texts, first loyalty is at all times with the source text. For others in the same field of translating, concern for the reader is paramount.”

Neubert & Shreve, however, agree with Ibrahim’s observation (1994) on the fact that different text types and different purposes require different techniques. Equating translation technique with translation process, they (1992: 5) contend that: “Texts and their situations define the translation process. We cannot generalise about translation without speaking of specific texts embedded in specific situations. There is no single translation process.”

At this point, some confusion is evident in relation to the terminology used to describe steps taken by a translator in tackling a translation project. In order to assist with further discussion, consensus should be achieved in relation to the use of terminology to depict such strategies, methods, or techniques used in the process of translating.

Disagreement among translation scholars and practitioners has been evident in the use of different terminologies to describe and explain approaches to translation tasks and translation problems, as observed by Molina and Albir (2002: 449): “This disagreement is not only terminological but also conceptual. There is even a lack of consensus as to what name to give, to call the categories, different labels are used (procedures, techniques, strategies) and sometimes they are confused with other concepts.”

Indeed, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958; 1995) seem to use the term ‘methods’ and ‘procedures’ interchangeably. And while, according to Newmark, methods are used to deal with the whole text, procedures are used for smaller units such as phrases and sentences.
(1988, 81). However, this is in disagreement with Nida who prefers to label them ‘techniques of adjustment’ (1964).

And yet, what are termed ‘procedures’ by Vinay and Darbelnet or ‘methods’ by Newmark (1988) are named ‘strategies’ by Baker (1992). For Venuti, however, translation strategies “involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it” (1998: 240); whereas Bell shares Lorscher’s view on translation strategy and sees it as “a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it”. He (1998: 188) also suggests that: “given the distinction between micro- and macro-level problems, strategies too can be divided between those which are local (dealing with text segments) and those which are global (dealing with whole texts).”

To conclude this section, it’s necessary to use comments made by Marco (2007) concerning his observation about the current situation of translation terminology, which he blames partially on the weak status of translation studies and partially on the preference of translation theorists of various schools in their terminological usage:

… [T]he weak epistemological status of Translation Studies as a discipline does not favour consensus among specialists… [C]onceptual difficulties arise from the fact that the relationship between concepts and terms is far from univocal: conceptual similarities are clouded by terminological differences… [Finally] both conceptual and terminological practices are often rooted in different national tradition and may be school-specific.

**Proposed terminology in the translation process**

As demonstrated, there is no general agreement concerning definitions of strategies, methods and techniques in the translation process. Terms used by translation scholars are often conceptually overlapping, confusing, diverse and difficult to understand due to individual approaches to translation taxonomy. Faced with this confusion, it is proposed that a distinction is made between terms used in approaching source and target language texts on the one hand, and those referring to the way problems are handled in the translation process both at the global (or macro-) and local (micro-) levels. In addition, we see clarification of procedures in the translation process to be essential to the effective and successful completion of a translation task.
1.1.3.2a Translation strategies, methods and techniques

Translation strategy implies a holistic approach to a translation task at the textual and discoursal levels. It also implies the direction that translators have planned to take to get them from point A to point B. During the process of translating, the translators first examine the ST trying to establish the relationship between what has been expressed in the SL with what has been known and understood by them in the TL. They then use the knowledge of the two linguistic systems to identify what is the common ground between the two languages and cultures among the linguistic and cultural resources available, and what still needs a solution. As Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 30) rightly put it: “[When presented with a translation task translators] are thus faced with a fixed starting point, and as they read the message, they form in their minds an impression of the target they want to reach.”

When faced with a difficult ST, translators may choose to employ their knowledge in text, genre or discourse analysis to comprehensively grasp the full meaning of the text in order to identify ways to deal with it. In other words, strategies are concerned more with problems presented in the ST.

Translation methods, however, embrace approaches taken by translators to solve a particular problem in translation after having worked out strategies to deal with it. In practice, the method selected is also very much dependent on the requirement of how the translation task should be carried out made by the initiator; i.e. a translation agency or translation commissioner. Translators have the following methods to select from:

• Literal translation
For the purpose of comparing and contrasting two linguistic systems in order to identify structural, grammatical and even cultural differences between the two languages under examination. Literal approach is also normally used in back translation for discussion purposes during the translation checking process.

• Functional translation
This has a reader-oriented approach, and is employed to fulfil a certain translation task for a specific purpose and audience. As will be discussed in due course, quite often a translator is required to provide a certain type of service to meet a particular purpose of the translation initiator (for example an extract translation of a birth or marriage certificate, a summary of a medical report required by a health professional, etc.)
• **Communicative translation**

This is also reader-oriented and aimed at communicating the intended message to the audience by using various techniques, for example replacing written words with illustrations, using metric instead of imperial measurement systems, and so on. As the label indicates, the primary purpose of this method is to provide the same ‘equivalent effect’ (the term used by Nida) as the original using the target linguistic resources. The example of the AU$5 note used earlier, therefore, can be considered as typical of this method.

• **Adaptive translation**

This can be seen as the ‘domesticating approach’ proposed by Venuti; i.e. using the ST content, but adapting to the TL ‘flavour’ both in terms of stylistic, linguistic characteristics as well as cultural specifics. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 39) describe this method as one that is “used in those cases where the type of situation being referred to by the SL message is unknown in the TL culture.”

A good example of this type of translation is the Pitjantjatjara version of Lewis Carroll’s Alice in Wonderland mentioned above. The translation uses local fauna and even characters which are specifically pertinent to Australian culture in lieu of those which were used in the original; for example a white kangaroo for a white rabbit, a koala for dormouse, a stockman for mad hatter, etc.

**Translation techniques**, finally, are those employed to solve a particular translation problem at the micro-level, i.e. at word, phrase or clause level. These may include adaptation, borrowing, description, explanation, compensation, omission, addition, modulation, etc. which, due to the scope of this research, will not be discussed further.

1.1.3.2 b  **Translation procedures**

As far as procedures are concerned, these may vary with individual translation agencies or companies and act as a guideline providing translators and checkers (both in-house or panellists) with instructions on their undertaking of a translation task. For example the translation procedures of the Translation and Interpreting Services (TIS), Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs, or Language Services, NSW Community Relations Commission may include information about types of translation (e.g. extract, full, etc.) required for certain categories of document, as well as checking, editing and typesetting procedures. The Multicultural Health Communication Services, NSW Health Department, normally encourages discussion between its translator and checker on a translation task and,
as part of its translation quality assurance, sometimes involves a sample of the intended audience who acts as a focus group to discuss the linguistic and cultural appropriateness of the translated text.

Moreover, the translation procedures of private translation agencies may include instructions on checking procedures not only on the translated text but also on the typeset version of its final draft as both a quality assurance and cost saving measure.

### 1.1.3.2c Types of translation

Another term that is often used to mean translation approaches, strategies, methods or techniques, and may even be used to mean ‘types of translation equivalence’, thus adding to the confusion, is ‘translation type’.

Technically, translation type involves task-orientation and is normally associated with a medium or channel of communication. For example:

- **sight translation** (translating by reading from a document; e.g. court verdict, medical report, etc.)
- **dubbing** (or voice over)
- **subtitling**, etc.

Functionally, as mentioned earlier, a translation can be used to serve a particular purpose specifically required by a translation initiator or agency. For example, the end product of a text required to be translated may be in the form of an extract, summary, partial or full translation depending on the purpose the translation is used for.

Furthermore, the types of translation may also vary depending on the text genres, e.g. medical translation, technical translation, literary translation, legal translation, etc.

Therefore to avoid further confusion and for the purpose of this research, I would propose the following:

a. **Translation formats**: including sight translation, dubbing, subtitling, etc. which involves a certain medium or channel of communication;

b. **Translation types**: involving the final form of the end product (the translated text) which can be an extract, summary or a full translation;

c. **Translation categories**: related to particular text genres, therefore we have medical, technical, legal translation category, etc.
In sum, since its inception when James Holmes first introduced the term translation studies in 1972, the field of translation has evolved to become well-recognised as an independent discipline along side with linguistics and other language-related fields of study such as Applied Linguistics and Comparative Literature, from which it was considered an offshoot. It’s understandable that there has been confusion in relation to terminological concepts and methods. And as Snell-Hornby (2007: 314) points out “even the name of the discipline was a debatable issue…[while central] concepts like equivalence have become evergreens of scholarly dispute… without producing any mutually endorsed.”

Therefore, there is a need for a uniform scholarly usage of translation concepts, notions and terminology to give this fledgling field of study wings to soar and become a well-respected scientific discipline similarly to such related disciplines as anthropology, sociolinguistics, textlinguistics, and psycholinguistics. It’s not an easy task and will need to be accompanied by widely accepted research with outcomes published in the form of a translation studies handbook. In the meantime, this problem may be further exacerbated by the use of English as a lingua franca to discuss translation issues by translation scholars from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Due to the lack of standardised procedural guidelines for terminological coinage, scholars, particularly those from a language background other than English (LBOTE), may coin terms which they consider academically appropriate to indicate a certain translation notion or concept, but which may, in fact, further complicate the issue of terminology (see Snell-Hornby 2007 for more detailed discussion).

We may leave the issue of translation terminology here and move to another important aspect of translation as a process; i.e. the influence of culture on the use of language and thus on translation practice.

Earlier, it has been discussed that the function of a translation act is to facilitate communication across languages and cultures and that the nature of translation (in the interlingual sense) is essentially a cross-linguistic and cultural communicative process. In this process, the translator, as a linguistic and cultural facilitator, tries to bridge the communication gap between two languages and two cultures. As pointed out by Hewson and Martin (1991: 28) “the translator’s objective is to diversify and motivate the possibilities of meaningful contacts between cultures.”

The relationship between language and culture and its implications for translation practice has a crucial place in the study of translation theory and practice (see Bassnet-Maguire 1980, and 1993; Bassnett and Lefevere 1990)

This relationship and other culturally specific concepts, which may lead to ‘non-equivalence’, the term used by Mona Baker to describe the situation where “the target
language has no direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the source text” (1992: 20), will be discussed in an exploration of language and culture in **Chapter II**.

Thus far, it has been agreed that translation is inherently a language activity and language is essentially a tool for communication. If the translation process reproduces a message encoded in one language system using the codes of another language system, then the purpose of this process is to facilitate communication across languages and cultures. Therefore, one cannot discuss translation without referring to communication.

In the next section we will look at the relationship between translation and communication from a monolingual and interlingual perspective. A model for the translation process as a cross-cultural communication process will then be proposed.
1.2 MODELLING TRANSLATION - COMMUNICATION & TRANSLATION

1.2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous section I have discussed different views on Translation Studies which have led to various translation theories and thus to different definitions of what translation is or should be. I have also examined the issue of equivalence, the central issue of translation, both as a product and as a process, which has caused much discussion and to some extent disagreement amongst translation scholars and theorists and has resulted in different approaches to the task of translation; i.e. translation methods.

Through discussion thus far it seems clear that such factors as setting (where a communicative event takes place), participants (those who take part in the communicative event) and purpose have great impact on a communicative act, and that the culture of a particular language community has an important influence on the way language is used. Taking into account the outcomes of the above discussion, in this section I shall first examine a model for a monolingual communication process (a term used by Wilss, 1982) to point out the effect of a given cultural context and other relevant factors on the text producer and text receiver and propose a model for a translating process (or interlingual communication process) where the translator is considered both as receiver (of the ST) and producer (of the TT).

1.2.1 TEXT AS A COMMUNICATIVE ACT IN A MONOLINGUAL ENVIRONMENT

Nida (1975), considering the components of the communication process and relating these to the communicative context, proposes the following model for what is called the ‘Ethno-linguistic Design of Communication’:
In Figure 1.1, S stands for the source of the message (i.e. speaker, writer or the encoder of the message); M is the message expressed by the speaker/writer which may vary from a single word to a whole utterance or a volume of texts. Whereas R represents the receptor of the message (including decoder and receiver); and C represents the cultural context of which “the message (as a part of the language) is itself a part and a model…” (1975: 27).

The above model is rather simplistic. As any conscious communicator is well aware, quite apart from any external or internal interference in the communication process, an intended message (M) produced by a sender (S) may be understood differently by individual receivers (R) in the same communicative context. This diversity of response depends on various factors associated with each individual; i.e. the background of those involved, their language knowledge and life experience, and especially the assigned role each of them plays in this communicative act. As Nida (1975: 28) acknowledges:

Despite the recognition of the close connection between the M and C (that is, between the realities symbolized by the inner and outer squares), we must at the same time recognize the fact that every S (source) and every R (receptor) is a different individual in accordance with his background and is hence somewhat diverse in the use and understanding of M (the message). If we may describe each person’s encoding-decoding mechanism as a kind of linguistic grid based upon the totality of his previous language experience, we must admit that each grid is different in at least some slight degree. This does not make communication impossible, but it removes the possibility of absolute equivalence and opens the way for the different understanding of the same message. (italics added)

Taking into account the above observation and also the importance in the relationship between cultural context and language, and between context (situation where text is written or read) and text itself, we propose the following model to show the interaction between text producer and text receiver through a given text in a monolingual environment.
In Figure 1.2, the relationship between the text producer (P) and text receiver (R) is through the message (M) arising from the text, which is under the influence of context (E) in which it is written, and expressed in accordance with that particular community language structure; whereas language (L) is modelled by cultural context (C) where it is embedded. The three large circles indicate the influence spheres of culture, language, and context, respectively, on text producer, text receiver and the text itself. The smaller circle (the text), covering the overlapping area and containing the intended message (inner square), indicates the shared interest between the text producer and text receiver. The vector linking the two larger circles with arrows at both ends shows the significant interrelation between cultural context (C) and language (L). As pointed out by Nida (1975: 28): “It is quite impossible to
deal with any language as a linguistic signal without recognising immediately its essential relationship to the cultural context as a whole.”

The diagram also shows the interactive relationship between language (L) and context of situation (E), and thus its affect on the text producer (P) and text receiver; while the lines with arrows at one end point to the direction of the communicative act. Here, the emphasis is upon the interpretation of the text by individual text receivers as opposed to the actual intention of the text producer expressed through the text itself. Seen from this perspective, the text is not static but dynamic and may produce a range of messages, some of them slightly, others remarkably different from the intended message of the text producer.

At this point, we may need to make a distinction between text and message. For the purpose of our discussion only texts in written form are taken into consideration. According to Fowler (1986: 59) “a text is a different kind of unit from a sentence. A text is made up of sentences, but there exist separate principles of text-construction, beyond the rules for making sentences…”

The above definition only sees text in its linguistic form i.e. a unit made up of words and sentences, not as a function and may not benefit our discussion which considers text process as a communicative act and its result (text) as a product of this communicative instance.

From a functional perspective, Halliday (1985b: 10) sees text as “language that is functional. By functional, we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences…”

In order to be 'functional', a text must fulfil its purpose of communicating the intention of the text producer: “The important thing about the nature of a text is that, although when we write it down it looks as though it is made of words and sentences, it is really made of meanings. Of course, the meanings have to be expressed, or coded, in words and structures, just as these in turn have to be expressed over again ... in sounds or written symbols. It has to be coded in something in order to be communicated; but as a thing in itself, a text is essentially a semantic unit.” (ibid)

The communicative act is only successful if a text can convey the 'message' the text producer wants to send to his/her reader. In the view of Nida & Taber, a 'message' is defined as “the total meaning or content of discourse; the concepts and feelings which the author intends the reader to understand and receive.” (1964: 203)
Therefore, we can say that text is an expression of thoughts, concepts and feelings (message) using linguistic codes or symbols (form).

### 1.2.2 TRANSLATION AS A COMMUNICATIVE ACT IN AN INTERLINGUAL ENVIRONMENT

When someone who, for example, does not have any knowledge of the Chinese language, is presented with a text written in that language (SL text), they only see it as a chain of unintelligible graphic symbols. For a Chinese language translator, however, those symbols carry meanings. As discussed earlier, words and codes have no meaning unless they are expressed for a particular purpose or linked to a particular context. The work of a translator, then, is to try to discover 'what it means' (message) by relating those words and codes to his/her knowledge of the language in question, taking into account all the factors surrounding the text; i.e. what the text is for, to whom it is addressed and in what context it is going to be read, and re-express it in another language (TL text). By doing so, the translator acts first as a text receiver, then text producer, and his/her re-expression of the intended message into another language for the target audience is seen as a communicative act (an original text) in another setting and another culture. In other words, the translator is a 'bilingual mediating agent between monolingual communication participants in two different language communities' (House, 1977: 1)

The following diagram illustrates this communication process:

![Figure 1.3](image)

Figure 1.3

Relationship between the translator who is also text receiver (R = T) and both the text producer of the SL text (P) and the target audience (A).

In **Figure 1.3**, the large circle represents the SL world of experience (culture, language, and other extralinguistic factors) which is shared by both the text producer (P) and at first the
text receiver, then, translator (R = T). The large square indicates the world shared by the translator and target audience. The smaller and darker circle and square (representing SL and TL texts respectively) contain the message intended by the text producer and re-expressed by the translator. Different shapes not only show differences in language structures but also in ways of expressing ideas, thoughts and feelings. While translating a text, translators do their best to ensure the message in the TL text (M1) is as close as possible to the message contained in the SL text (M). This is the most difficult task for any translator and the ultimate goal of the translation process, as expressed by Pedersen (1988: 15-16): “[while] the problem of translation consists in ensuring that all the relevant features of the SL-message are reflected in the TL-text, we must recognise at once that even this seemingly modest aim often represents an ideal rather than an attainable goal.”

1.2.3 TRANSLATION AS A PROCESS

If translation is seen as an interlingual communicative act where a text received in one language is transferred into another, then a translator simultaneously plays the role of both text receiver and text producer. Analysing the process of translating, Nida divides it into three stages; namely, analysis, transfer and restructuring, as represented in Figure 1.4.

![Figure 1.4](adopted from Nida 1964: 79)

... the translator first analyzes the message of the SOURCE language into its simplest and structurally clearest forms, transfers it at this level, and then restructures it to the level in the RECEPTOR language which is most appropriate for the audience which he intends to reach.

(ibid: 79-80)
Bell (1991: 20), however, proposes a two-stage model translation process, claiming that it “shows, in extremely simplified form, the transformation of a source language text into a target language text by means of processes which take place within memory: (1) the analysis of one language-specific text (the source language text, the SLT) into a universal (non-language-specific) semantic representation and (2) the synthesis of that semantic representation into a second language-specific text (the target language text, the TLT)”

![Figure 1.5](adopted from Bell 1991: 20)

What happens in the brain of a translator in the transfer stage (as Nida calls it) or the transformation of a source language text into a target language text (according to Bell) remains a mystery. However, there has been some disagreement from scholars and theorists in the field on which is the most crucial stage in the process of translating. Nord (1992: 40) argues that the analysis of the original is crucial: “In the traditional equivalence-based approach to translation, the analysis of the original is the crucial first phase of the translation process which has provided the foundations for any one of the translator’s decisions in the translation process because it is the specific (communicative) ‘value’ of the text that has to be ‘equalled’ in the target text.”

Snell-Hornby (1988: 69) also expresses the same view on this point. To her, “textual analysis ... is an essential preliminary to translation... Taking that as the point of departure, the translator’s text analysis should begin by identifying the text in terms of culture and situation... The next step is the analysis of structure of the text...”
In contrast, Wilss (1982: 59) tends to agree with Nida and Taber on the transfer stage, saying Nida and Taber are correct in finding that “... the transfer itself is the crucial and focal point of the translation process.”

Emphasising the act of translating as ‘a special case of the text production - text comprehension activity cycle’ Neubert and Shreve (1992: 49), however, divide the process of translating into five stages which are listed below:

1. Decoding the surface structure of the L1 text
2. Retrieving the ideational content of the L1 text from the surface expression
3. Identifying the plan and development of the L1 text from the ideational configuration
4. Restructuring the expression, development, and plan of the text according to L2 standards
5. Encoding the modified expression, development, and plan in L2 linguistic structures

And explain the role of a translator in the process: “The translation process can be seen as a special case of the text production-text comprehension cycle. The translator intervenes in the cycle, embedding a second text comprehension-text production pair within the first. This embedding is characteristic of translation as a form of intercultural communication.” (ibid)

In Neubert and Shreve’s model of the translation process, between Stage 2 and Stage 4, namely the retrieving and restructuring stages which may be considered as the ‘transfer stage’ in Nida’s model, or what Bell (1991) and others may call ‘universal (non-linguistic specific) semantic representation’, a very complex mental activity goes on within the brain of a translator which starts from the information contained in the source text, as Neubert and Shreve (ibid: 14-15) explain in full:

... In translation we are concerned with three incarnation of the text. There is the source text and there is the target text. The third text is what we call the virtual translation. The virtual translation is a composite of the possible relations between a source text and a range of potential target texts. It is a mental model of the elements and relations which exist in the mental space between real source and not-yet-realised target. The translator factors the conditions of the translation situation into her understanding of the source text to create this mental model. He or she negotiates a target text from the mental model using the procedures available in her translator’s competence. What the layman calls “the translation” is the target text, the linguistic incarnation of a virtual translation that was a work-in-progress until it was delivered to its reader. We call this cognitive structure a virtual translation because we want to emphasise its mental nature. It is a mental construct only progressively committed to paper. The virtual translation is always constrained by the source text and by the textual expectations of the reader. Even though it is a mental construct, it is text-like. The concept of virtual translation is one that emphasises the fact that the translation works with a mental representation. The representation is anchored by the source text and oriented in its progressive elaboration by the determinants of the translation situation. As it emerges into linguistic reality in the target culture, it is increasingly controlled by the target culture’s linguistic and textual systems. The virtual translation includes a number of interdependent constituents and relations. Relations in virtual translation are between the elements of the two linguistic systems and between elements of the source text and the target text in potentio. The mental representation includes the propositional content and the illocutionary force of the messages underlying the source text. It includes the pragmatic conditions surrounding the text in the source and target communities.
However much this may sound abstract and speculative it remains a reasonable hypothesis until more scientific research is conducted to discover exactly what happens in the head of a translator during the process of translating. This hypothesis may at least help to provide a glimpse into the most complex cognitive process in human communication.

In contrast to the model presented by Neubert and Shreve, Delisle (1988), in proposing an interpretive approach to translation, divides the translating process into three stages: comprehension, reformulation, and verification in which each stage is again divided into 'subsidiary operations'. According to Delisle (1988: 53) “comprehension is based on decoding linguistic signs and grasping meaning, reformulation is a matter of reasoning by analogy and re-wording concepts, and verification involves back interpreting and choosing a solution.”

In the comprehension stage, a translator tries to identify 'concepts mediated by linguistic signs', because:

The text of a message does not contain the meaning, it only points to the meaning, because the signs making up the message refer to something other than themselves. Meaning may be defined as an original synthesis made at the junction of structural and situational references; interpretation is the thinking mind's discovery of the dynamic relationship between referents and linguistic signs combined in a message... Words and sentences are always open to interpretation according to the situational parameters that define the communicative situation; they take on an additional dimension. (ibid: 56)

This view confirms the observation that the meaning of a text is not made up of the sum of words or sentences contained in the text but is often deduced from the context or the surrounding factors, which associate with the text, eg. the translator's non-linguistic knowledge.

Discussing the reformulation, Delisle concedes that it is “the most mysterious, and the most complicated” mental process. He sees it as “the act of re-verbalising concepts using signifiers of another language', in that the translator 'scans a kind of internal dictionary for words corresponding to the concepts to be reconstituted.” (ibid: 60-61)

The purpose of verification, the final stage of the translation process according to Delisle, is “to confirm the accuracy of the solution.” He (ibid: 67) goes further to explain this mental operation: “Verification is, in fact, a second interpretation. The first interpretation takes place after the concepts have been understood and before they re-expressed; its purpose is to identify the ideas in the message. The second interpretation takes place after re-expression before selection of the final version; its purpose is to determine whether the signifiers of the tentative solution accurately convey the ideas of the message.”
In reality, this operation may happen simultaneously with the reconstruction of the TL text. In response to the meaning made out from the SL text, the translator refers it to his/her knowledge of the TL and consults with the "internal dictionary" for any items that correspond to the notions or concepts to be reconstructed. S/he realises at once if a particular word or a group of words s/he intends to use in representation of a concept appearing in the SL text is not appropriate, or 'doesn't sound right', and makes another choice.

From our experience in working as a translator, we tend to agree with Bell's two-stage model, namely analysis and synthesis, however would prefer using the terms deconstruction and reconstruction to describe the translation process. We also adopt Neubert and Shreve's 'text production - text comprehension activity cycle' with some modification in our discussion and propose the following model of the translation process:

a. **Deconstruction** involves:
   - Decoding the surface structure of the SL text
   - Retrieving the ideational content of the SL text from the surface expression

b. **Reconstruction** involves:
   - Restructuring the expression of concepts and ideas retrieved from the SL text
   - Encoding the modified expression, development, and plan in TL linguistic structures

**Figure 1.6** shows this simplified two-stage mental activity of the translation process:
Referring to the model proposed by Neubert and Shreve (1992), it shows that after decoding the surface structure of the ST to unfold the intended message (retrieving the ideational content of the SL text) the translator then works out strategies used by the text producer in planning and developing the ST, as they (1992: 48) explain: “A person who receives a text has the surface text as a starting point. By parsing surface expressions, he or she is able to determine their functional load. The linear order of the text and grammatical dependencies are used to identify the concepts conveyed by expressions. The arrangement of the concepts behind the expressions points to a more global arrangement. This leads to the recovery of the main ideas of the text. The recovery of the ideational sequence(s) brings the receiver-interpreter to an appreciation of the text producer's intended plan.”

In practice, however, we believe that this mental operation happens simultaneously with the above two steps. Seen from the production end, text is always written for a particular purpose, intended for a specific situation, and aims at a certain audience or group of audience. With this aim in mind the text producer works out strategies to carry out the task. S/he has to decide on what choice of text type, lexical items, etc. s/he should make in order to achieve intended outcomes before expressing the message through linguistic codes. ‘Text production is principally a message constructing process where meanings, ordered and developed according to an underlying plan, are attached to linguistic signs’, as Neubert and Shreve explain (ibid).

From Halliday's 'meaning potential' point of view, the choice of text type, grammatical arrangement and words, etc., all bear some sort of meaning: “A text... [is]... a product of a continuous process of choices in meaning that we can represent as multiple paths or passes through the networks that constitute the linguistic system.” (Halliday 1985b: 11)

Therefore, by examining the text producer's choice of text structures and his/her specific choice of lexical items, etc. the translator grasps not only the overall meaning of the text, but also recognises the former's text strategies. By the same token, before proceeding to restructure the expression of concepts and ideas discovered in the SL text through interpretation and matching them with those available in the TL, the translator has to plan for the TL text which includes the choice of appropriate text type, sentence structures and words according to the TL text conventions.

It should be noted that this activity happens in the form of a loop in which the translator continually moves back and forth between the SL text for more information and the TL text for more appropriate expression, rather than being linear.

Having set our topic for discussion, we shall now look at the deconstruction stage.
1.2.4 READING AS TEXT DECONSTRUCTION PROCESS

When translating a text, all that is available to a translator is a piece of writing containing symbols which s/he has to make sense of. The work of a translator, as thus, can be seen as symbol decoder whose task is to bring out the message this network of symbols conveys.

Neubert and Shreve (1992: 50) emphasise the difference between the act of reading for translation and other acts of reading: “Reading for translation may resemble reading for paraphrase and understanding, but it differs in certain task-related ways”

Christiane Nord and Penelope Sparrow (1991: Introduction) in their proposed model for translation-oriented text analysis see the reading and comprehension of the SL text as one of the fundamental procedures of the translation process: “Translation-oriented text analysis should not only ensure full comprehension and correct interpretation of the text or explain its linguistic and textual structures and their relationship with the system and norms of the source language (SL), but it should also provide a reliable foundation for each and every decision which the translator has to make into a particular translation process.”

The intention of the writer is reflected through his/her choice of words and language use and finding out what message the writer wants to convey requires a careful and thorough reading of the text. As pointed out by Hatim and Mason, (1990: 4) “texts can be seen as the result of motivated choice: producers of texts have their own communicative aims and select lexical items and grammatical arrangement to serve those aims. Naturally, in translating, there are potentially two sets of motivations: those of the producer of the source text and those of translator.”

Reading, therefore, is the starting point for all translation. As carefully as a critic or a scholar, translators need to go through the whole text, examining it first as an entity, then considering every paragraph, sentence, phrase and word down to the smallest detail. Each word needs to be examined first as a component of the text, then as a reflection of a cultural and historical context which may cover the layers of meaning hidden under its surface. To this effect, reading can be equated with interpretation (or translation); and translation is translation for the second time. No one can deny the intimate relationship between reading and translating as explained by Biguenet and Schulte (1989: Introduction):

Reading is already translation. Through the process of reading, readers are transplanted into the atmosphere of a new situation that does not build just one clearly defined reality, but rather possibilities of various realities. Reading re-establishes the uncertainty of the word, both as isolated phenomenon and as semantic possibility of a sentence, paragraph, or the context of the entire work. The re-discovery of that uncertainty in each word constitutes the initial attitude of the translator. Reading becomes the making of meaning and not the description of already fixed meanings... The act of reading should be
seen as the generator of uncertainties, as a driving force toward a decision-making process, as the
discovery of new interrelations that can be experienced but not described in terms of content-oriented
language... Reading transforms the text, and in transplanting the text into the environment of a new
language, the translator continues that process of transformation. Without transformation there is no
translation; perhaps that is the reason why literal translations have never been successful in the
transferral of works of literature.

And Octavio Paz (1992: 152) does not only agree with the above authors, but even
goes further by saying: “When we learn to speak, we are learning to translate; the child who
asks his mother the meaning of a word is really asking her to translate the unfamiliar term into
the simple words he already knows. In this sense, translation within the same language is not
different from translation between two tongues, and the histories of all peoples parallel the
child's experience.”

So 'reading is already translation' and translation involves decision-making. But can
decisions about the meanings of words and the writer's intention be made objectively? As
mentioned earlier, both the act of reading and the act of translating involve interpretation.
Only through the eyes of a translator can the reader recognise what is being described or said
in the original. “The worst mistake a translator can commit is to reassure himself by saying
'that's what it says in the original', and renouncing the struggle to do his best. The words of the
original are only the starting point; a translator must do more than convey information”
(Biguenet & Schulte, 1989: 117)

Following a line of thought similar to the Zen Buddhist technique which exemplifies
the act of pointing to the moon with one's finger in order to explain the difference between the
means and the end; i.e. the finger is not the moon, Delisle (1992: 56) maintains that: “The text
of a message does not contain the meaning, it only points to the meaning, because the signs
making up the message refer to something other than themselves.”

And so, the 'more' that a translator must do is to find out the text producer's intention
or the hidden message the latter wanted to convey in the text. Words only have meaning if
they are related to a particular context, or used for a particular purpose, and as pointed out by
Halliday (1985b: 5) “words get their meaning from activities in which they are embedded...”
Without a context, words are merely meaningless symbols “Every word in an utterance refers
both to the language system from which it draws its signification, and to the set of non-
linguistic parameters that give it meaning.” (ibid: 54)

Delisle (1988: 53-54) emphasises the importance in the relationship between words
and utterances and between utterances and non-linguistic factors which a translator should
pay great attention to: “The written text is the physical basis of an intricately woven network
of relationships that must be analysed. These relationships fall into two broad categories:
semantic relationships between the words and utterances of the text, and referential relationships between the utterances and non-linguistic phenomena. The network into which signs are integrated derives its coherence from the will of the author to communicate information to the reader.”

Despite its importance, reading is only one step in the deconstruction stage, because “Obviously, one cannot grasp the meaning of a text simply by reading it. It is quite possible to visualise the graphic signs of a text written in a foreign language or to mentally pronounce the sounds they symbolise without understanding the meaning of the signs. This purely physical act of perception must be accompanied by a mental activity that may be called interpretive analysis.” (Delisle: 1988: 53)

Knowledge of the linguistic system only helps a translator decode the meaning attributed to the words in a sentence, but not the communicative content of an utterance. To be able to understand the concept mediated by these linguistic signs, s/he has to establish the relationship between words and the communicative situation. In addition, in order to interpret the meaning of a text one also needs to have knowledge of texts; i.e. textual conventions, and how text is constructed for a particular purpose. This leads us to the important notion of discourse, text analysis and cultural factors which are reflected through the text. The notions of discourse and text analysis will be discussed in Chapter II which deals with linguistic concepts and theories relevant to translation theory and practice.

We now turn our attention to the examination of the reconstruction stage. Several factors related to the surrounding situation of a text must be taken into account before applying the techniques of reconstruction: the purpose of the translation (e.g. for what type of audience); the initiator of the translation and the intention of the SL text producer.

1.2.5 TEXT INTERPRETATION AND MEANING MATCHING AS RECONSTRUCTION PROCESS

Reconstruction involves the re-expression of meanings recovered from the deconstruction of the SL text using the signs or symbols of another language. This is achieved through the interpretation of what is expressed in the original text and matching it with the expressive resources available in the TL. Delisle (1988: 63) calls this mental operation 'analogical reasoning' “[which] is a process by which the imagination establishes similarities. Analogy plays a very important part in the search for translation equivalents and indeed in the very working of intelligence.”
Calling upon all the knowledge of the target world, translators start searching the stored linguistic and encyclopaedic information, and try to match elements found in the SL text with those in the TL. Using their judgement, they explore all possible solutions and when what is proposed does not match the interpretation, their mind goes back to search for the most appropriate one.

Once the meaning is discovered and matched with its “optimal functional counterpart in the experiential knowledge of the target audience” (Sa'Adeddin 1992: 21 italics added), it will be restructured “by means of ideas, not of words” (Delisle: 1988: 65). As discussed earlier, this mental activity happens in a circular order, not a linear one, in that the translator continually moves backwards and forwards until the translating process is completed.

The notion of interpretation and matching of meaning leads to an important observation; i.e. given the same SL text, translators may come to the same interpretation, but may express the ideas derived from the SL text differently.

Relevant to our discussion is the role of an initiator which may be seen as the starting point for most translation work. It is the initiator's decision to have the TL text translated for a certain purpose that starts the whole process of translating and significantly influences a translator's decision making process. Sometimes an initiator can be at the same time a text producer, or even the receiver of the TL text. However, in today's translation market more often an initiator is someone who wants to have a text translated for an intended audience. Depending on the purpose of the TL text the requirements to be met by a translator will vary greatly.

These will be discussed in more detail in Chapter II when examples derived from a corpus of texts are used to illustrate steps taken in the translation process and point out major factors which may affect the decision of a translator during the process, thus having an impact on the outcome, the translated text.

In addition, Chapter IIB (Part Two) investigates relevant linguistic theories such as systemic linguistics and text linguistics and their implications for translation practice.
CHAPTER II
COMMON ISSUES IN THE PRACTICE OF ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION

2.1 FACTORS AFFECTING THE TRANSLATION PROCESS

2.1.0 INTRODUCTION

Translators working on the language pair, English and Vietnamese, face many difficulties concerning the differences between the two linguistic systems and their cultural characteristics. Given translation is one of the most complex and challenging tasks, Chapter II will examine some of the most common factors affecting the translation process. It will start with a brief history of the Vietnamese language and especially its writing system which is most relevant to translation practice. The chapter will briefly go through the most basic levels pertaining to a language, namely the phonological and morphological systems, before analysing some major issues which may heavily interfere with the translation process at syntactic and textual levels.

At the textual level it will briefly explore the concept of cohesion within text which is usually defined as the semantic ties or “[the] relations of meanings that exist within the text, and that define it as a text” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 4). Combining with its contextual factors, cohesion gives the text some ‘texture’ which is what makes a text coherent and meaningful (Halliday and Hasan 1976).

Also discussed is the issue of culture in translation. Cultural factor is one of the most important factors impacting on the translation process due to its intimate relations with both language, as a vehicle for developing and maintaining the culture, and the social systems and the environment where the language is embedded. And thus, language competency alone does not guarantee a quality translation. In addition to language competency, a ‘quality’ translation requires translators to have also a good knowledge and understanding of their working language cultures as it will be illustrated through various examples containing in the present study.

2.1.1 BRIEF HISTORY OF VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE

A brief historical background of the Vietnamese language and its writing system may help, in part, with an understanding of the remoteness of the two linguistic and cultural traditions. Although English and Vietnamese share the same writing system, i.e. the Roman
alphabet, this is a relatively recent development and there are vast differences between the two linguistic systems at various levels. This section will look at the linguistic structures of the languages at the sound (phonetics or phonology), word (morphology), sentence (syntax), and text levels. And because translation primarily deals with meaning, it will also look at meaning structures (semantics) of the two languages in question.

Under the rule of various dynasties in China spanning more than a thousand years (111BC-938AD), the official written language of Vietnam was Classical Chinese (or chữ Nho). According to several Vietnamese grammarians (see Trương văn Chính & Nguyễn Hiền Lê, 1964; Dương Thanh Bình 1971; Nguyễn Hữu Quyên, 1994) around the 10th century the Chinese script was adapted and became a system of writing known as ‘chữ Nôm’ or the southern script. By the end of the century the script was refined, but not until the 13th century was it further systematised and used in literature.

‘Chữ Nôm’ employs a combination of Chinese characters with one providing the meaning and another indicating the Vietnamese pronunciation. For example, (ba “three”) is composed of 阡 (meaning ‘greatly desire’ or ‘anxiously hope’) the phonetic part, and 三位一体 (meaning ‘three’; pronounced as ‘tam’ in Sino-vietnamese, and as ‘san’ in Cantonese and Japanese) the semantic part (retrieved in April, 2008 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chữ_Nôm).

It should be noted that ‘chữ Nôm’ is different to ‘từ Hán Việt’ or ‘Hán tự’ (Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary) in that the latter contains terms derived from Chinese vocabulary stock, but written in ‘quốc ngữ’ (‘national language’ as it has been known since the turn of the 20th century and based on the Roman alphabet) and pronounced using Vietnamese pronunciation.

In the early 16th century, Portuguese missionaries began using the Roman alphabet to transcribe the Vietnamese language in their effort to introduce and disseminate Catholicism in Vietnam. This eventually led to the development of the present Vietnamese alphabet that owes much to the work of French Jesuit Alexandre de Rhodes, who lived and worked in the country between 1624 and 1644. However, chữ Nôm and chữ Nho remained in use until the early 20th century, when the French colonial administration made Rhodes' alphabet officially become the ‘national language’ (‘quốc ngữ’) (retrieved in April, 2008 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vietnamese_language).

Consequently, the present Vietnamese language and its structures have been greatly influenced by the above three historical events.
2.1.2 LINGUISTIC STRUCTURE OF VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE

Linguistic structures directly impact on the translation process and present translators with great difficulties if a language pair belongs to two such linguistically remote systems as Vietnamese and English. The lowest level of the linguistic structure of a language is its phonological system.

2.1.2.1 Phonological level

Phonologically, the Vietnamese language or ‘quốc ngữ’ is a tonal language which consists of six tones. A single Vietnamese monosyllabic item may have different meanings depending on the use of various diacritical accents (or tone markers). The diacritical marks are placed either over or under vowels to indicate particular sounds and syllabic tones or pitches. This linguistic feature is fundamental to the Vietnamese writing system, as pointed out by Smith et al (1967: 72): “Since most single syllables function as meaningful words, and many of these monosyllabic words are phonetically identical except for tone, the diacritical marks are an essential part of the written form.”

The use of various tones to make meaning in Vietnamese presents a translator with a lot of difficulties, particularly in literary translation. Most Vietnamese words are monosyllabic, but many can have more than one syllable (polysyllabic words), are formed using a hyphen and are often sino-Vietnamese terms; for example nỗ lực (effort), quê-gia (country), cửu-cánh (end as in “the end justifies the means”), and so on. Although in everyday usage, Vietnamese language users tend to leave out the hyphen.

Moreover, there is a widespread tendency among Vietnamese language speakers to employ compounds as reduplicatives (also known as reduplications) in both writing and speech. For example ‘nhà cửa’, in which ‘house’ (whole) and ‘door’ (part) are combined to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Không đều</th>
<th>đều sắc</th>
<th>đều luyện</th>
<th>đều hỏi</th>
<th>đều nặng</th>
<th>đều nặng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diacritic</td>
<td>No accent</td>
<td>acute accent</td>
<td>grave accent</td>
<td>hook</td>
<td>tild</td>
<td>dot below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>level</td>
<td>high rising</td>
<td>high-falling</td>
<td>falling-rising</td>
<td>low-rising</td>
<td>mid-rising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese word</td>
<td>gia</td>
<td>giá</td>
<td>giá</td>
<td>giá</td>
<td>giá</td>
<td>giá</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>family (sino-vietnamese)</td>
<td>bean-sprout, or price</td>
<td>old (age)</td>
<td>fake</td>
<td>to pound</td>
<td>Bushel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
mean ‘house’; or ‘chân chân’ (slowly), where the first word doesn’t bear any meaning, simply reinforcing the meaning of the second, but contributes to the musicality of Vietnamese. This unique musical characteristic can’t be translated into English which is an intonation language characterised by polysyllabic words consisting of a patterned combination of accentuated and unaccentuated syllables. Therefore, it can be said that at the phonological level there is little ‘correspondence’ between English and Vietnamese.

As far as reduplicatives are concerned, they can be found in almost all Vietnamese word classes, and their effect can “help the language acquire more vividness since varied patterns of total or partial reduplication serve to emphasise reiteration, intensification, attenuation or even irony.” (Nguyen, 1979: xii).

They are formed using different types of compounds which are generally classified into two main categories: semantic and non-semantic compounds. The following examples show how compounds used as reduplicatives may be formed in Vietnamese and their semantic effects, for example:

\[
\text{Cha mẹ có nhiệm vụ nuôi nấng, dạy dỗ và bảo bọc con cái.}
\]

Parents have the obligation of raising, educating and protecting their children

The word ‘nuôi’ when standing by itself means ‘raise, bring up or breed’ depending on the context. However, ‘nuôi nấng’ is a compound verb used as a reduplicative in which ‘nấng’ doesn’t have any meaning, but is there to provide an alliterative effect (matching consonants). Also due to the tonal characteristics of the language, a Vietnamese speaker may decide to give his/her speech some musicality by combining a level tone (‘nuôi’) with a high rising tone (‘nấng’) as in this case.

By the same token, ‘dạy’ means ‘teach/educate’, but ‘dạy dỗ’ is a compound verb combining two verbs ‘dạy’ (to teach/educate) and ‘dỗ’ (to soothe, comfort, or settle as in ‘to settle a crying baby’). When combined together, ‘dạy dỗ’ means ‘to teach with affection’.

‘Bảo bọc’, however, is a compound in which ‘bảo’ is a Sino-Vietnamese word meaning ‘to look after/care’; whereas ‘bọc’, a Vietnamese term, means ‘to wrap around/to cover’. Together they make up the compound ‘bảo bọc’ meaning ‘to protect’. Such compounds, which are called reinforcing or synonym compounds, contain two components of identical or similar meaning, a Sino-Vietnamese term combined with a Vietnamese word, and often have a more figurative or abstract reference than either of their bases (Thompson, 1965: 130)
Let’s look at another example where a word is repeated to form a reduplicative. ‘Quen quen’, is an adjective used as a complement, in which ‘quen’ by itself simply means ‘know/be familiar’. However, when used in this form, as in ‘Trông ông ấy quen quen’ (‘He looks rather familiar’), it indicates a degree of familiarity. Similarly ‘giông giông’ (‘rather similar’), however, indicates a degree of similarity. Both ‘quen quen’ and ‘giông giông’ contain both alliteration (matching consonants) and an assonance (matching vowel). Furthermore, Vietnamese people often take advantage of the musical aspect of their language to describe feelings and emotions. For example when expressing sadness (‘buồn’ sad/sadness), a reduplicative can be added to indicate the degree of feeling:

Example 2.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>Literal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buốn man mạc</td>
<td>Vaguely melancholic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buồn vu vụ</td>
<td>Unfoundedly sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buồn da diệt</td>
<td>Tormentingly sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buồn rã rụi</td>
<td>Wearingly sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buồn ngoa ngàn</td>
<td>Depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buồn với với</td>
<td>Unfathomably sad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extensive use of alliteration and assonance in Vietnamese writing, especially in literature (and more extensively in daily conversation), often causes (translation) loss in the process of translating from Vietnamese into a language such as English. It poses the question of whether translators working from the language should try to maintain this sound effect; and to what extent they should sacrifice meanings in order to carry across the uniqueness of this effect onto the target text.

Similarly, a translator will find it hard to render an English expression such as ‘Go well, go Shell’, an advertising slogan by the Shell Company, into Vietnamese. In this ad, the company cleverly uses the assonant effect of ‘well’ and ‘Shell’ to promote its products. In Vietnamese, “Shell” is pronounced as “Sheo” and a suggested Vietnamese version is ‘Dùng xăng Shell, phóng veo veo’ (literally means, ‘Use Shell products, speed as fast as a flash’) which obviously does not convey the intended meaning of the original in which ‘go well’ is more to do with the reliability of the product, nor is it appropriate in relation to the road regulations in Australia. However, given the context of the target culture and the tendency of taking advantage of the rhyming characteristics of the language (‘Shell’ rhymes with the Vietnamese word ‘veo’. In this case ‘ell’ is pronounced as ‘eo’ as in ‘Beowulf’, because the ending consonant of a word is not pronounced in Vietnamese), the suggested translation may be seen as ‘adequate’.
Vietnamese possesses a large number of onomatopoeic words. Onomatopoeia is a word whose phonic form imitates a sound made by an animal, or a thing. For example, the Vietnamese word ‘mèo’ (‘cat’) may have come from the sound ‘meo’ (meow) made by this feline; ‘quả’ (pronounced as [kwa], ‘crow’) is the imitative sound of the cry of the bird (it’s ‘caw’ in English). To describe the sound of raindrops on the roof, Vietnamese uses the reduplicative ‘lop dop’; of a hovering mosquito ‘vo ve’; of steam engine, ‘xinh xích’; of the burning flame in a fireplace, ‘lách tách’, and so on. This again presents a translator with the challenging task of trying to find a word that is phonically similar to that in the target text.

2.1.2.2 Morphological level

Unlike English, an inflecting language which is flexible and rich in relation to word formation and which uses morphemes, as defined by Crystal (1987: 90) “the smallest meaningful elements into which words can be analysed…”, to mark number, gender, and tense, Vietnamese is an isolating language that has the following features:

- It is monosyllabic, i.e. each word has only one syllable bearing meaning(s)
- Unchangeable word form is in contrast to European languages which make use of morphological variations in relation to plurality, gender, tense, etc. Thus, word order and lexical devices are employed to manifest any grammatical relations.
- A Vietnamese word consists of a unit called ‘tiếng’ which may correspond phonologically to either a syllable, a morpheme, or a word in English with respect to lexico-grammar.

For example, to express plurality in English, the morpheme ‘s’ is usually added to the end of a word (eg. a book, several books); whereas in Vietnamese one will have to resort to either a numeral such as ‘hai cuốn sách’ (two books), ‘ba cuốn sách’ (three books), etc; or a plural marker such as ‘nhiều cuốn sách’ (many books), ‘mấy cuốn sách’ (several books), etc. By the same token, the English word ‘immortalise’, for example, consists of three morphemes: ‘im - ’, meaning ‘not’, ‘mortal’ meaning ‘liable or subject to death’, and ‘- ise’ a suffix added to a word to mean ‘make’. When translated into Vietnamese this will become a phrasal verb ‘lắm/trở thành bất tử’ (literally ‘to make/become immortal’) in which ‘bất tử’ is a Sino-Vietnamese term.

The ability to express grammatical contrasts such as singular/plural (eg. tree/trees), present/past tense (look/looked), male/female (lion/lioness), and to expand meanings by adding a morpheme (or morphemes) to a word has enriched the English language both lexically and semantically. In Vietnamese, however, because words are invariable and have no internal structure (Crystal, ibid), other lexical means have to be used to cover for the
structural shortfall. Therefore, to express past tense in a sentence a speaker/writer has to use either adverbials of time or tense markers, or both:

Example 2.2

Viet: Hôm qua em nói (em) * đi mua gạo, thế (em) * đã mua chừa?
Lit: Yesterday (you) say (you) go buy rice, whether (you) [past tense marker] buy yet?
Eng: “Yesterday you said you would buy some rice, have you bought it yet?”

*NOTE: the personal noun ‘em’ (for ‘you’) in brackets is optional.

Or

Viet: Sáng mai em có đi làm không?
Lit: Tomorrow morning you go to work [question maker]?
Eng: “Are you going to work tomorrow morning?”

As far as nominalisation is concerned, in English a verb is often made nominal by simply adding the suffix –er or –or to the end of the word. These morphemes have both grammatical and semantic functions. In Vietnamese, however, human reference terms, for example ‘người’ (person), are used as prefixes or as heads of descriptive phrases. Thus, the same word may simultaneously contain more than one semantic element; for instance, ‘người lái xe’ (‘driver’) may be described as containing both actor and process (to use Hallidayan terminology); i.e. ‘a person who drives’, in which ‘người’ (person) participates as the actor of the process ‘lái xe’ (to drive).

Similarly, to designate a person by the object of his/her occupation or profession, the head-word ‘thợ’ (worker, or workman) is used; for example ‘thợ máy’ (one who repairs or provides maintenance to machines – a mechanic); ‘thợ điện’ (one who installs, maintains, and repairs electrical devices – an electrician); ‘thợ may’ (one who makes clothes – a tailor or dressmaker); etc. In addition to this, to indicate a career or profession in a formal context, several Sino-Vietnamese suffixes such as ‘gia’ (‘expert’ or ‘professional’), ‘sĩ’ (‘scholar’), or ‘già’ (‘practitioner’), these are considered to be equivalent to the Vietnamese prefix ‘nha’ (literally means ‘house’ or ‘family’), are also commonly possible, as shown by the following examples:
### Example 2.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>Sino-Vietnamese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>artist</td>
<td>nhà làm văn nghệ</td>
<td>nghệ sĩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>composer</td>
<td>nhà soạn nhạc</td>
<td>soạn gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commentator</td>
<td>nhà bình luận</td>
<td>bình luận gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>historian</td>
<td>nhà viết sự</td>
<td>sự gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>journalist</td>
<td>nhà báo</td>
<td>kỳ gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>playwright</td>
<td>nhà viết kịch</td>
<td>kịch tác gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poet</td>
<td>nhà thơ</td>
<td>thi sĩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientist</td>
<td>nhà khoa học</td>
<td>khoa học gia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writer</td>
<td>nhà văn</td>
<td>văn gia/văn sĩ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current usage of the English word ‘worker’ or ‘officer’ as a suffix in some professions – such as health worker, sex worker, welfare worker, street worker, etc; or community liaison officer, youth development officer, and so on, has created further problems for many Vietnamese translators who have to resort to the more formal and generic term ‘nhan vien’ (literally meaning staff or personnel) instead of ‘tho’ (‘worker’) which is only used to indicate a tradesperson, eg. ‘tho moc’ (‘carpenter’), ‘tho nhe’ (‘bricklayer’), ‘tho son’ (‘painter’), etc; or ‘s quan’ (‘[military] officer’) which is strictly used only in the military context. Therefore, ‘welfare worker’ is translated as ‘nhan vien xã hội’, ‘youth worker’ as ‘nhan vien phuc vu thanh thieu niem’, and so on.

Furthermore, nominal phrases used to indicate names of organisations or titles of officials also cause confusion to many of those working in the translation field. Therefore, it is not surprising to find such terms as Tenancy Commissioner and Tenancy Services having been translated as ‘Uy Viên Thuê Muron Nhà Cua’ (literally meaning ‘The Commissioner who rents houses/accommodation’) and ‘So Thuê Muron Nhà Cua’ (‘The Office whose business is to rent houses/accommodation’) respectively.

The above examples show that with respect to the translation of names of government and non-government agencies as well as titles of particular government officials, many Vietnamese translators may resort to word-by-word approach, instead of taking into account the role and function of these offices.

In Vietnamese, to nominalise a verb (or ‘process’ according to Systemic Linguistic terminology), a noun marker is usually added before the verb. The most often used markers are ‘viec’, or ‘sru’, with the former indicating an action or process and the latter, a fact, an event, or a state of being; for instance: ‘viec quan tri xi nghiệp’ (‘managing a firm’), ‘viec quoc huu hoa ngang ngu nghiệp’ (‘the nationalisation of the fishing industry’), ‘sru gia tang con so nhung nguoi di dan’ (‘the increase in the number of migrants’). These noun markers,
however, are used interchangeably, and they may even be omitted depending on the context, or the writer’s choice according to the tonal pattern of a sentence; for example ‘quốc hữu hóa ngành ngư nghiệp: một vấn đề cấp thiết cho nền kinh tế quốc gia’ (‘the nationalisation of the fishing industry: an urgent issue affecting the national economy’)

Modern English has evolved greatly to deal with social, economic, and technological changes. Words take on new meanings by combining with other words or changing meaning depending on context; new words are invented to reflect these changes and address the urgent issue of communicating new concepts and ideas. Recently, such terms as social engineering, downsizing, economic rationalism, political correctness, etc. have come into common usage indicating the need for further extension of meaning. Furthermore, many words in English are polysemous; i.e. having many meanings, and thus, very context-dependent. And the more polysemous a word is, the more ambiguous its meaning, and thus the greater the likelihood of mistranslation. Therefore while translating from English into Vietnamese, the utmost attention should be paid to both the co-text where the word is embedded and the context where the text is produced.

On the other hand, as a result of being under Chinese domination for so many years, modern Vietnamese has much of its lexical stock borrowed directly from Chinese (terms used in administration, education, literature, medical and technical fields, etc.) or indirectly through Japanese kanji, particularly terms relating to such fields as medical, philosophical, technical and scientific. Most of these borrowed terms, in turn, were originally borrowed from European languages in the late 19th and early 20th century, and translated into Japanese using the kanji, a Chinese related writing system. Sharing the classical Chinese writing system (or Hán Tự) with Japanese kanji, Vietnamese has taken advantage of this to borrow a large quantity of this vocabulary stock from Japanese and phonically adapted into what is called ‘từ Hán Việt’ (Sino-Vietnamese words/terms). Subsequently, many of these borrowed words were also introduced back into Chinese.

Over time, many of the Sino-Vietnamese technical terms have become widely accepted and gradually absorbed into the common Vietnamese lexicon. Examples include ‘điện thoại’ (‘telephone’), ‘diễn tín’ (‘telegram’), ‘máy điện toán’ (literally ‘computing machine’, or ‘computer’), ‘máy vi tính’ (‘micro-computing machine’, or ‘micro-computer’), etc. In medical terminology one finds such terms as ‘huyết áp’ for ‘blood-pressure’, ‘diễn tâm động đờ’ for ‘electro-cardiogram’, ‘xạ trị’ for ‘radiotherapy’, ‘khuyết kháng thể hô biến chứng’ for AIDS (‘Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome’), and so on.
Similarly to English which has taken advantage of words with Latin and Greek origins to enrich its own vocabulary stock, Vietnamese has heavily relied on its connection with the Chinese language to develop its own lexicon. It is said that such Sino-Vietnamese terms as ‘linh mục’ (literally meaning ‘spiritual shepherd’) for ‘priest’, ‘bác sĩ’ (literally meaning ‘the most knowledgeable scholar’ or ‘the highest academic position in a certain area of study’) for ‘doctor of medicine’ were developed in Vietnamese and do not exist or have the same meaning in Chinese (a Chinese speaker will call a doctor of medicine ‘y sĩ’ literally meaning ‘medical scholar’); other terms such as ‘lý thuyết’ (‘theory’) are no longer in use in the Chinese language (Wikipedia, 2006). There are yet others such as ‘kinh tế’ (‘economy’) which originated from the Chinese ‘kinh bang thể’ (literally ‘governing one’s country (and) helping the world’), were adopted and simplified by first the Japanese and then Vietnamese, and later reintroduced into Chinese.

Over the years, many western concepts and ideas were absorbed into Vietnamese through either Chinese or Japanese. Names of countries such as Portugal (‘Bồ Đào Nha’), Australia (‘Úc Đại Lợi’), and England (‘Anh Cát Lợi’), were first approximated by Chinese or Japanese, then borrowed by Vietnamese and pronounced in the Vietnamese way. Furthermore, using the Roman alphabet has made it easier for Vietnamese to transform many English and French words into an acceptable Vietnamese form. Examples include: ‘phanh’ (from the French word ‘frein’ or English ‘brake’), ‘cà phê’ (from ‘café’ or ‘coffee’), ‘ô tô’ (from ‘automobile’), ‘bò’ (from ‘beurre’ or ‘butter’), ‘bít tết’ (‘beefsteak’) and so forth.

Taking into account the above characteristics of modern Vietnamese and having a good understanding of the linguistic and cultural relationships between the two languages as well as a sound knowledge of Sino-Vietnamese will greatly help a translator make a decision on what should be borrowed or coined when dealing with new concepts or terminology found in an English original.

The issue of translation at the word level will also be discussed in detail in Chapter IIB (Meaning and Meaning Relation).

In the above section issues involving group of words or phrases that are the level between the morphological and syntactic ones have also been explored. Now translation issues at the syntactic level will be discussed.

2.1.2.3 **Syntactic level**

English is an inflecting language. Therefore, an English word can express various grammatical meanings in relation to number, gender, case, tense, voice, etc. through the use
of inflection. As a non-inflected language, Vietnamese has to express these grammatical meanings using a variety of lexical means.

Moreover, syntactically word order in Vietnamese is relatively more fixed as compared with its English counterpart. This imposes a certain degree of restriction on the way messages are organised in Vietnamese. For example, adverbials of time and place in English can be placed at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a sentence or clause; while in Vietnamese they usually occur at the beginning and occasionally at the end.

In her work on Vietnamese grammar (1971), Bình divides a sentence (or an utterance) into three sectors: Front, End and Trunk (T). Trunk is where Subject, Verb, Object and other functional elements are placed, and Front (F) and End (E) are where adverbials of time and place are most likely positioned. Bình observes that the F and E sectors are potentially positions for two different kinds of adverbials. The first answers such questions as ‘When?’; ‘On which day?’, ‘How often?’, etc; while the second responds to such questions as ‘Where?’, etc. Bình also points out that the usual order for adverbials of time and place in the F sector is an adverbial of time followed by that of place; while in the E sector an adverbial of place is usually followed by that of time. However, she contends that: “Adverbials of time and place occur in the F position more frequently than they do in the E position” (ibid: 89). She also provides the following example:

**Example 2.4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F sector</th>
<th>E sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Sáng hôm nay, trên toàn cõi Việt Nam, mọi người vui vẻ đón mừng Năm Mới.</td>
<td>mọi người vui vẻ đón mừng Năm Mới. trên toàn cõi Việt Nam sáng hôm nay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This morning, all over Vietnam, everyone joyfully greets the New Year</td>
<td>Everyone joyfully greets the New Year all over Vietnam this morning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In English, certain elements of the above sentence can be re-arranged and placed in the first position to give the message different emphases (in italics), for example:

a. *All over Vietnam this morning, everyone joyfully greets the New Year*
b. *This morning, everyone joyfully greets the New Year all over Vietnam*
c. *This morning all over Vietnam, everyone joyfully greets the New Year.*
d. *Everyone joyfully greets the New Year all over Vietnam this morning.*

The choice of what should be placed in initial position of a clause or sentence to give this element of information a special emphasis is fairly flexible in English. In Vietnamese, however, the F sector is always a preferable position, as shown in **Example 2.5**:
Example 2.5

THE STORY OF VIETNAM AIRLINES
Vietnam Airlines is now a company under the CAAV as a result of a reorganisation of the aviation industry.

Target text
LỊCH SỬ PHÁT TRIỂN CỦA VIETNAM AIRLINES
Hiện nay, Vietnam Airlines trực thuộc Cục HKĐDVN, đó là kết quả của việc tổ chức lại ngành hàng không cho phù hợp với tình hình mới.

Back translation
THE DEVELOPMENT HISTORY OF VIETNAM AIRLINES
At present, Vietnam Airlines is directly part of the Civil Aviation Administration of Vietnam. This is a result of the reorganisation of the aviation industry in response to new circumstances.

From the point of view of systemic functional linguists, the placing of a word (or a group of words) in the initial position of a clause to give it a significant emphasis is called thematisation. This will be discussed in some length in **Sentential Meaning and Communicative Potential** (Chapter IIB in Part Two).

As far as verbs are concerned, unlike English verbs whose inflections serve to indicate person, number, tense, aspect, voice, etc, the verb form in Vietnamese does not change according to the time when an action or event takes place. For example:

Example 2.6

| Viet: | Gia đình ông ấy đã đơn đi Melbourne để làm ăn năm ngoái |
| Lit: | His family (anterior) move to Melbourne to open a business last year. |
| Eng: | Last year, his family moved to Melbourne to open a business. |

Or: His family moved to Melbourne last year to open a business.

| Viet: | Gia đình ông ấy sẽ đơn đi Melbourne để làm ăn vào tháng tới. |
| Lit: | His family (subsequent) move to Melbourne to open a business next month. |
| Eng: | Next month, his family will move to Melbourne to open a business. |

Or: His family will move to Melbourne next month to open a business.

In the above examples, the Vietnamese verb ‘đơn’ (‘move’) is in bold. It should be noted that the use of ‘đã’ (anterior) and ‘sẽ’ (‘subsequent’) in complementary distribution to adverbials of time ‘năm ngoái’ (last year) and ‘tháng tới’ (next month) is optional but not obligatory. Furthermore, while English auxiliaries play an important role in the formulation of tense and voice, these do not exist in Vietnamese. Instead, co-verbs, either a pre-verb ‘sắp’,
‘dang’, or a post-verb ‘rồi’ are used to indicate aspects and tenses where there is no adverbial of time. For example:

Example 2.7a

Viet: Gia đình ông ấy sắp đồn đi Melbourne để làm ăn.
Lit: His family (pre-verb) move to Melbourne to open a business. (about to…)
Eng: His family is (was) about to move to Melbourne to open a business.

Example 2.7b

Viet: Gia đình ông ấy dang đồn đi Melbourne để làm ăn.
Lit: His family (pre-verb) move to Melbourne to open a business.
(in the process of)
Eng: His family is (was) moving to Melbourne to open a business.

Example 2.7c

Viet: Gia đình ông ấy đồn đi Melbourne để làm ăn rồi.
Lit: His family move to Melbourne to open a business already (post-verb).
Eng: His family has moved to Melbourne to open a business.

Or His family already moved to Melbourne to open a business.

Therefore, due to this lack of a formal category of tense and aspect, the only way to establish time reference of an action or event in Vietnamese is to refer to the context or use of adverbials of time and certain pre-verbs or post-verbs. This is often problematic, in particular when translating from Vietnamese into other European languages. The use of such tenses as present perfect in English, as opposed to simple past or past perfect, for example, is totally dependent on the translator’s inference from a certain context. Faced with a problem as presented in Example 2.8, a Vietnamese translator will need to rely on his/her bilingual and bicultural skills to negotiate and mediate across the linguistic systems:

Example 2.8

“Why did you come over here, Mr Cassidy?” she asked.
“Miss Wong was my brother’s secretary. She didn’t report to work and the office asked if I would come over here and check on her. My brother was a lawyer in Century City.”
“Was a lawyer? Past tense?”
“He died last night at his desk…”

This problem is even greater in the translation of an English clause or sentence in subjunctive or conditional mode:

**Example 2.9**

**Eng:** I would have warned you about his lousy business management record, if I had known of your intention to be his business partner.

**Viet:** Nếu biết anh có ý định hợp với y, tôi đã khuyên cáo anh về thành tích quản trị kinh doanh không mấy thành công của y rồi.

**Lit:** If (I) know you have an intention of going into business partnership with him, I ['anterior'] warn you about his rather unsuccessful business management record already.

As shown in the above example, the use of the word ‘đã’ (‘anterior’), the past tense marker, before the verb ‘khuyên cáo’ (‘warn’) as well as the use of the post-verb ‘rồi’ (‘already’) at the end of the sentence, both help to indicate that the event/action had already happened. Without referring to the context and without the use of the past tense marker ‘đã’ and the post-verb ‘rồi’, a hearer would definitely be confused. Note also that ‘if’ signalling the beginning of a subordinate clause (or dependent clause in the systemic linguistic terminology) has been placed in the initial position to indicate what might have happened, but didn’t happen.

In English frequent use is made of the passive voice, particularly in scientific and technical writing, “to give the impression of objectivity, and to distance the writer from the statement made in the text” (Baker, 1992: 103). Vietnamese speakers, in contrast, tend to avoid using passive structures as much as possible and use only when necessary. The following example shows the strategy the translator has used to deal with a passive sentence:

**Example 2.10**

**Source text** (HERITAGE – Vietnam Airlines – In-Flight Magazine, Nov-Dec 1993, p. 48

SAFETY

Seat belts **must be fastened** when the seat belt sign is on.

**Target text**

AN TOÀN

Khi đèn báo “Fasten Seat Belt” (Thông báo an toàn) bật sáng, mọi hành khách đều phải thắt dây an toàn.

**Back translation**

SAFETY

When the “Fasten Seat Belt” sign is on, all passengers must fasten their seat belts.

And while in English the passive is formed by using the auxiliary ‘be’ and the past participle of the main verb, in Vietnamese, again, pre-verbs are used to clarify the direction of
an action and also clearly indicate ‘pleasant’ or ‘unpleasant’ feelings of this action on the agent.

The feature of ‘pleasantness’ (‘
\textit{được}’ meaning ‘to get, to obtain, to receive, to find, etc’) or ‘unpleasantness’ (‘\textit{bị}’ meaning ‘to suffer, to undergo’) serves to trigger the choice of one of these pre-verbs, and does not have a corresponding feature in English. For example:

\textbf{Example 2.11}

\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textbf{‘pleasantness’} & \textit{Anh ta được} tương thường về cứu một em bé bị chết đuối.  \\
& He was commended for having saved a drowning child.  \\
\textbf{‘unpleasantness’} & \textit{Hắn bị bắt vì dim chết con chó của mình.}  \\
& He was arrested for having drowned his pet dog.  \\
\end{tabular}

Also the use in English of the empty (or ‘dummy’) subject ‘there’, to create existential sentences and depict “the existence of some entity or entities” (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1980: 419), is not easily translated into Vietnamese. A simple English sentence such as ‘There is a dog’ would hypothetically be rendered into Vietnamese as ‘Have dog’. However, there is a clear difference in meaning between ‘there is’ (depiction of ‘existence’) and ‘have’ (depiction of ‘possession’) with the latter implying the object (‘dog’) belongs to an unknown entity. As far as Theme and Rheme is concerned, the introduction of ‘there’ in the initial position has the effect of making it a marked Theme and “postponing of the indefinite noun phrase to a non-thematic position” (ibid: 418). However, to provide clarity to the above sentence in Vietnamese an entity would preferably be attached to the object and thus the thematic structure would become:

\textbf{Example 2.12}

\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textbf{Viet}: & \textit{Nhà có chó.}  \\
\textbf{Lit}: & House have dog.  \\
\textbf{Eng}: & There is a dog in the house.  \\
\end{tabular}

Thus a sign attached to the gate of a house saying ‘Nhà có chó dữ’ (literally meaning ‘House have dog ferocious’) needs to be understood as ‘Beware of dog’.

Furthermore, the frequent use of cleft sentences in English (i.e. ‘It’s/was important that), particularly in the report genre, creates many problems for translation into the Vietnamese language which does not possess such a feature. The issue of existential and cleft sentences will be revisited when the notion of thematisation and theme/rheme structure is discussed.
In addition, in terms of word order in English an adjective normally precedes a noun or nominal group which it modifies, whereas in Vietnamese an adjective is placed after a nominal group. For example:

**Example 2.13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Mốt</th>
<th>dưa bé</th>
<th>ngố nghĩnh</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[Numeral]</td>
<td>[nominal]</td>
<td>[adjectival]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>One*</td>
<td>baby</td>
<td>cute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>A cute baby</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that Vietnamese does not have either definite or indefinite articles, therefore when translating into Vietnamese the translator tends to substitute an indefinite article (in bold) with a numeral as in the following example:

**Example 2.14**

**Source text** (HERITAGE - Vietnam Airlines - In-Flight Magazine, March/April 1995: 31)

A Singaporean interior design firm is swiftly building a reputation in Vietnam for its progressive ideas that successfully fuse indigenous and imported elements.

**Target text**

Một công ty thiết kế nội thất của Singapore đang nhanh chóng xây dựng được danh tiếng ở Việt Nam nhờ những suy nghĩ tiên bở là kết hợp thành công yếu tố nội địa và yếu tố nhập ngoại.

However, Vietnamese does have what are termed ‘classifiers’ (‘loại tử’) which are placed before a noun/nominal group to indicate whether an object/thing is animate (‘con’) or inanimate (‘cái’), for example:

**Example 2.15a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Mốt</th>
<th>con</th>
<th>chó</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>[animate thing]</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>A dog</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 2.15b**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Mốt</th>
<th>cái</th>
<th>nhà</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>[inanimate thing]</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>A house</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This ‘rule’, however, is not universally applicable and like the use of un/une or le/la in French to indicate the gender of a word (i.e. masculine or feminine), the use of either ‘con’ or ‘cái’ is very much dependent on habit rather than strict rules. For example a knife and
a pair of scissors are both inanimate, but in Vietnamese a knife is referred to as ‘con dao’, a pair of scissors as ‘cái kéo’, and a road as ‘con đường’ etc.

2.1.2.4 **Textual level**

If a text is basically a meaningful combination of individual sentences or clauses which are connected logically and sequentially to make a coherent whole, then the issue faced by a translator while analysing a text is not simply to work out the meaning of each individual sentence, but to find out how the information is constructed and organised into text in a given context and for a given purpose. Enkvist (1978: 178) raises an awareness of the importance of the relations between sentence structures, text, context of culture and context of situation as follows: “a sentence is not autonomous, it does not exist for its own sake but as part of a situation and part of a text. And one of the most important functions of information dynamics is precisely to link a sentence to its environment in a manner which allows the information to flow through the text in the desired manner.”

Kaplan also observes that the rhetoric and “sequence of thought” of an individual normally reflects “the discourse and thought patterns” of his/her own culture (quoted by Odlin in *Language Transfer*, 1989: 16); that means each language community has a unique way to express a message using certain linguistic formulations available to that culture. Moreover, from a communicative dynamic point of view, (Firbas, 1974) a clause consists of two types of elements: foundation-laying and core-constituting elements, with the former being context-dependent bearing a lower degree of communicative dynamism (CD); while the latter are context-independent having a higher degree of CD. Communicative dynamism reflects the information structure of a clause and, as Firbas points out, it results from the interplay of three major factors: linear modification (i.e. word-order), semantic structure, and context. He (1986: 43) also adds “provided there are no interfering factors, the communicative importance of the sentence elements gradually increases with movement toward the end of the sentence, the final element becoming the most important because it completes the communicative purposes of the sentence.”

The ‘interfering factors’ that Firbas is concerned with are the contextual factors of a communicative event and the semantic structure of a language, which are hierarchically more superior to the linear modification. However, given structural differences between the two languages, particularly with respect to the morphemic system (see previous section) as well as the issue of topic-prominence versus subject-prominence among languages, this presents a translator with greater challenge.
Baker (1992: 166) points out that in all languages word-order patterns achieve a number of functions assigned to them. For example ideational function defines the role of subject, verb, and object; interpersonal metafunction identifies the role of actor, process type and relevant participants; and finally textual function indicates the role of theme and rheme in the information structure of the clause. She, however, makes it clear that “different languages give priorities to each of these functions, depending on how fixed their system of word-order is.”

Therefore, it is essential for translators to understand how messages are organised and structured in the languages they are working on to create the information flow threading through the myriad of lexical and grammatical elements that form the text. The choice of a particular syntactic structure and which linguistic elements should be used in a particular position in a sentence to produce certain communicative emphases is motivated by a speaker or writer’s intention. Baker suggests that to understand what motivates a speaker or writer to choose a certain structure among an infinite number of choices available to him/her to express a message, we need to view a sentence or clause as “a message rather than a string of grammatical and lexical elements” (1992: 121). Following the Hallidayan tradition she proposes that as a message, a clause can be analysed in terms of its thematic and information structure.

The significant similarities and differences between the thematic and information structures of English and Vietnamese are discussed in more detail in Chapter IIB. Also discussed is thematic progression, which is an important strategy to maintain text cohesion in English, but may not be able to be maintained when the text is translated into Vietnamese.

The difference in word order between Vietnamese and English does not only present difficulties to an English speaker who wishes to learn Vietnamese, but also has implications for the translation practice.

It should be noted here that while in English it is normal to make marked themes, and thus create an impact on a certain message by using a passive structure, impersonal subject, cleft sentence, and similar inverted structures, in the Vietnamese translation practice there is a tendency to avoid these structures as much as possible due to structural complications. This tendency may, at best, cause shifts in the discourse structure of the TL text, and at worst, distort the meaning of a message.

The following example (Heritage, September & October 2006: 88) shows a shift in both discourse and meaning when the text is translated into Vietnamese:
Example 2.16

Source text
2.16.a Smoking is not allowed on any Vietnam Airlines flights.
2.16.b Passengers will be reminded of our No Smoking rule while on board the aircraft.

Target text
2.16.c Tất cả các chuyến bay của Vietnam Airlines là các chuyến bay không hút thuốc,
2.16.d đèn báo không hút thuốc sẽ bật sáng trong suốt hành trình bay.

Back translation
2.16.e All Vietnam Airlines flights are non-smoking flights,
2.16.f [and] non-smoking lights will be on the whole time during the journey.

First, ‘No Smoking’ has been wrongly translated as ‘không hút thuốc’ (‘Non-Smoking’). While ‘no’ in ‘No Smoking’ implies a ‘prohibition’ of a certain act or approach (e.g. ‘No Parking’ or ‘No Entry’), ‘non’ in ‘Non-Smoking’ depicts a category or classification of things, for example ‘non-smoking zone’, ‘non-stick frying pan’, etc. In terms of thematic construction, in the SL text and in 2.16a in particular, the nominalisation of ‘smoking’ and its placement in the initial, thus prominent position in the clause, has the effect of bringing to the attention of Vietnam Airlines passengers the seriousness of its ‘no smoking’ policy. Structured in the passive form (in the SL text ‘smoking’ and ‘passengers’ are deliberately placed in the initial position in the clauses to make marked Themes, and in effect to draw readers’ attention to the prevailing messages), the message clearly states ‘Smoking is not allowed’, and is reinforced by the second message (also in the passive form) directly aimed at the passengers who are also the readers ‘Passengers will be reminded of our No Smoking rule…’

All of these aspects have been lost in the TL text which has ‘Vietnam Airlines flights’ and ‘non-smoking lights’ as the subjects and also as Themes. Note also that in the TL text, the two clauses 2.16c and 2.16d are only separated by a comma (as already discussed, in the Vietnamese syntax sometimes a comma is used to replace the conjunction ‘và’ or ‘and’), and though they appear to be more cohesive (the classifier ‘non-smoking’ placed before ‘flights’ in the Rheme position in clause 2.16c is repeated in the Theme position before ‘lights’ in 2.16d), the message is more about ‘Vietnam Airlines flights’ rather than its ‘no smoking’ policy.

This change in the thematic structure may appear to affect the meaning only at the syntactical level. However, as will be discussed later when the whole text is examined, a shift in thematic patterning can also affect the text at the discourse and genre levels. As shown in
the above example, this change in meaning has caused a generic shift; the message has become more descriptive than instructive.

Thematic organisation may also bear some stylistic value because it reflects the writer’s intention as well as his/her point of view (Brown & Yule, 1983; Martin & Rose, 2003).

2.1.3 COHESION

Text cohesion may be more appropriate to be brought up for discussion when the textual metafunction of Vietnamese grammar is explored in the light of the SFL perspective. However, because it is one among several textual factors which influences the English-Vietnamese translation process, it is deemed appropriate to be investigated in this section. As pointed out by various authors, (Whittaker, 1995; Butt et al, 2000, etc) thematic organisation can also be one of the strategies a writer employs, to create text cohesion, because thematic structure not only reflects the writer’s intention, but can also have a direct impact on the cohesive aspect of a text and as well as affect the text coherence as illustrated in the following example:

Example 2.17 (Immunisation – An essential guide to the new school entry requirements – NSW Health Department, 1993 - Appendix B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>R1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Immunisation</td>
<td>is extremely important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. It</td>
<td>is a simple, safe and effective way of protecting children from disease.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above passage, ‘immunisation’ which is the Theme of clause (a) is replaced by ‘it’, the Theme of clause (b). ‘It’ provides a tie between the two clauses as well as creates an anaphoric (backward referring) relation to immunisation and provides grammatical cohesion.
According to Halliday & Hasan (1976:4) ‘the concept of cohesion is a semantic one…’ which refers to semantic relations within a text. These relations are expressed through cohesive ties achieved by either lexical or grammatical means. This concept is very important in the translation practice because, as pointed out by the above authors (1976: 8) “Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it.” (italics added) And it is this interpretative nature of cohesion in text which is seen as importantly relevant to the translation practice. And because “some forms of cohesion are realised through the grammar and others through the vocabulary” (ibid: 6), it can present a translation practitioner with many difficulties due to differences in the lexico-grammatical systems among languages.

For example, when translating the above text (Example 2.17) into Vietnamese, to maintain cohesion the translator may have to employ different textual strategy as shown in the following:

**Example 2.18**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Việt: Viắc chung nghía rất quan trọng</td>
<td>Lit: (noun maker) immunise very important</td>
<td><strong>Eng:</strong> Immunisation is very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2 | Việt: Đâyla`m phương pháp đơn giản, an toàn và hữu hiệu trong việc bảo vệ trẻ em khỏi mắc bệnh. | Lit: This be one method simple, safe and effective in (noun marker) protect children from contract disease | **Eng:** This is a simple, safe and effective way of protecting children from disease.

The pronoun ‘it’ (as the referent of ‘immunisation’) has changed into the demonstrative pronoun ‘this’ in Vietnamese. Similarly, in the following example, to provide a cohesive tie, the translator chooses to approach the problem differently:
Example 2.19  (Hysterectomy – Health Information and Translation Services - NSW Department of Health, 1986)

While the author of Example 2.19 uses ‘it’ as a ‘referent’ to replace ‘hysterectomy’ in both Clause (2) and (3), the translator selects a structural approach to maintain cohesion, as illustrated in Example 2.20a:

Example 2.20a  (Mộ Từ Cung - Health Information and Translation Services – NSW Department of Health, 1986)

Mộ từ cung là việc cắt lấy tử cung ra, một thủ thuật rất phổ biến trong giới phụ nữ, nhưng tác thay lại thường bị hiểu lầm nhất.

1. Mộ từ cung là việc cắt lấy tử cung ra,
Lit: Operate (on) uterus be (n.mk) cut [and] take uterus out
Eng: Hysterectomy is the act of cutting and removing the uterus,

2. một thủ thuật rất phổ biến trong giới phụ nữ,
Lit: one manual technique very popular among group woman,
Eng: a technique which is very popular among women,

3. nhưng tác thay lại thường bị hiểu lầm nhất.
Lit: but unfortunately also often suffer misunderstand most.
Eng: but unfortunately [it] is also the most misunderstood.
The diagram below shows how text cohesion is maintained in the TT:

Among other issues such as the ambiguous translation of the term ‘hysterectomy’ as ‘mổ tử cung’ (‘operate on uterus’), the watering down of the superlative degree of the adjectival group ‘common’ by degrading it from ‘most’ to ‘very’, and thus makes this specific operation seem less significant, Clause (2) also sounds ambiguous, because the material process ‘perform’ in the passive has been omitted. The passive structure clearly indicates that many ‘women’ are ‘patients’ or ‘sufferers’ of hysterectomy. In Clause (3), however, the foregrounding of the textual adjunct ‘nhưng’ (‘but’ or ‘however’) provides a more emphatic effect to the interpersonal mood adjunct ‘unfortunately’ as it supposedly contrasts ‘the most common operations’ in Clause (2) with ‘the most misunderstood’ in Clause (3). In the attempt to change Clause (2) into an embedded clause as well as to avoid the passive construction, and also to make Clause (3) become a dependent clause, the translator has somehow created more differences than similarities, both in terms of the structure as well as the meaning of the translated text.

This can be seen more clearly if it is back translated in full:
Example 2.20b  
(Mỗ Tứ Cung - Health Information and Translation Services – NSW Department of Health, 1986)

Target text
Mỗ tự cung là việc cắt lấy tử cung ra, một thủ thuật rất phổ biến trong giới phụ nữ, nhưng tiếc thay lại thường bị hiểu lầm nhất.

Back translation
Uterus operation is the cutting and removal of the uterus, a technique which is very popular among women, but unfortunately it is also the most misunderstood.

Compare the above with Example 2.20c below:

Example 2.20c

Target text
Giải phẫu cắt bò tử cung (hysterectomy) là một trong số những phẫu thuật thông thường nhất được thực hiện ở phụ nữ. Nhưng tiếc thay, phẫu thuật này cũng bị người ta hiểu lầm nhiều nhất.

Target text
1. Giải phẫu cắt bò tử cung (hysterectomy) là một trong số những
   Lit: Removal of uterus be one among (plural maker)
   phẫu thuật thông thường nhất được thực hiện ở phụ nữ,
   surgical technique common most (passive maker)
2. Nhưng tiếc thay, phẫu thuật này cũng bị
   Lit: But unfortunately, surgical technique this also (passive maker)
   người ta hiểu lầm nhiều nhất
   people misunderstand most

Back translation:
The removal of the uterus (hysterectomy) is one of the most common operations performed on women. But unfortunately, this technique is also the most misunderstood.

In Example 2.20c, the placing of the definition of hysterectomy (‘giải phẫu cắt bò tử cung’) in the Theme position helps combine the ideational meaning of Clause (1) and (2) in Text 3.2 into one clause, and thus helps eliminate its repetition. In Clause (2) of Text 3.2b, repetition of the nominal group ‘phẫu thuật’ (‘surgical technique) as well as the use of the deictic reference ‘này’ (‘this’) help maintain the cohesive tie.

These examples show the tendency of Vietnamese translators in using the deixis ‘this’ to replace the impersonal pronoun ‘it’ when it is used as a ‘referent’ in order to maintain text cohesion.
In relation to such notions as substitution and ellipsis, it may even seem more difficult to be preserved in the Vietnamese translation practice as demonstrated in the example below:

**Example 2.21a**

*(The renting guide – Office of Fair Trading – NSW Department of Commerce, January 2004 – Appendix C)*

**Source text**

Always *check* the condition report very carefully.
If you *don’t*, you may have to pay for the damage that existed before you moved in.

**Example 2.21b**

*(Tài Liệu Hướng Dẫn về Việc Thuê Nhà - Office of Fair Trading – NSW Department of Commerce, January 2004)*

**Target text**

Luôn luôn kiểm tra bản báo cáo tình trạng thật cẩn thận.
**Bằng không**, quí vị có thể phải trả tiền cho sự hư hại đã có từ trước khi quí vị đơn vào.

**Back translation**

Always *check* the situation report very carefully.
**Otherwise**, you may have to pay for the damage which has existed before you move in.

In English, ‘*don’t*’ is used here to substitute for ‘if you don’t check the condition report very carefully’. However, because Vietnamese language does not possess such ‘multipurpose’ verbal substitutes as ‘*do*’ or ‘*have*’, the translator has had to resort to the adverbial ‘*otherwise*’.

The issue of Theme-Rheme will be discussed further in **Chapter III** which provides a brief description of the Vietnamese textual metafunction from the SFL perspective.

Cultural difference is another major factor which prevents full understanding in communication and significantly challenges the process of translation. Thus, the issue of culture is essential to both translation theory and practice. Although there are intimate interrelations between culture and language from the aspect of both language development and maintenance, due to its extra-linguistic nature the issue of culture warrants a detailed and separate discussion in the following section.
2.2 THE IMPACT OF CULTURE ON LANGUAGE AND TRANSLATION

The culture of a society is defined as the shared knowledge and activities created and accumulated by a group of people ‘for perceiving, interpreting, expressing and responding to social realities around them’ (Lederach, 1995), and thus people of a language community are greatly influenced by the environment in which they live. In Lado’s view ‘Culture … is synonymous with the ways of a people’ (1968), and these include the way they use their language to express their feelings and to describe the reality of their surroundings. Seen from this perspective, language can be considered as an expression of culture and is one of the most important features that uniquely set the culture of a linguistic community apart from others, as Sapir (1956: 69) observes: “No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same worlds with different labels attached. The understanding of a simple poem, for instance, involves not merely an understanding of the single words in their average significance, but a full comprehension of the whole life of the community as it is mirrored in the words, or as it is suggested by their overtones.”

Translating involves two languages, and thus two cultures. Therefore, in order for a translator to have a full comprehension of the significance of a text written in a language, it is necessary for him to understand the culture of the language community where the text is embedded. To a translator, the linguistic and cultural knowledge of the language of a text (ST) s/he is working from (quite often it’s not one’s mother tongue) greatly affects his/her ability to comprehend and interpret the text in question. And therefore the more linguistically and culturally remote language pair is, the more difficult the translation process is, in particular at the comprehension or deconstruction stage. Because, even though we live on the same planet and share the same surroundings, observe the same phenomena such as the sun, the moon, the stars etc, but people of each culture perceive the world differently and thus use language to describe this reality accordingly to how they see it. For example, a person, who is born in a culture where things are viewed through an analytical and logical prism, may see the sun as the main source of energy which provides heat to warm the earth and is essential to the reproduction and development of all living things, most Vietnamese see the sun as ‘the face of God’ (‘mặt trời’) and the sky above them as ‘bầu trời’ (‘skydome’) where their God (‘ông trời’) lives. By the same token, in the English speaking world, people use the word ‘country’ to denote the stretch of land which is bordsred with other ‘countries’ and where their people have lived from one generation after another; the French call it ‘pays’, and it is also ‘pais’ in Spanish (of course it’s pronounced differently). Vietnamese people, however, refer to it as...
‘đất nước’ (‘soil (and) water’) and simply as ‘nước’ (‘water’) which may have come from the fact that Vietnam is bordered by almost 3500km of water to the east (Pacific Ocean) and inland, it has numerous rivers and streams. It may also have come from the reality that as an agricultural society, Vietnamese people are heavily relied on soil and water for their rice crops and other kinds of food staple. Also viewed from this reality (and similarly to any pre-industrialised society), to describe the make up of a family unit, a Vietnamese, apart from his/her immediate nuclear family (which consist of the couple and their children), may include his/her own parents and grandparents as well as other unmarried members of an extended family (i.e. one’s brothers and sisters and sometimes even cousins). A reason for this is that in such a society, where the welfare system is unheard of, people tend to rely on their own family for support; be it an extra helping hand on the rice paddy during the harvesting season; be it when one’s down and out needing shelter and food. Through generations this extension and expansion of a family unit has resulted in a complex kinship term system which is also used as forms of address in daily interactions. The use of kinship and other honorific terms to address people outside one’s family not only reflects the complex socially hierarchical system in the Vietnamese culture but also shows respect and creates a sense of belonging or inclusiveness.

2.2.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Language functions primarily as a means of communication, and communication usually involves at least two people; speakerwriter or hearerreader.

In one of his seminal papers on the study of language and linguistic issues, Firth (1968: 13), discusses the impact of the environment and the participation of language users on a communicative instance.

Indeed, language needs an environment where it can be developed and enriched through the interaction of people who share the language and hence the culture in which the language is embedded. As observed by Snell-Hornby “... language is not seen as an isolated phenomenon suspended in a vacuum but as an integral part of culture.” (1988:39)

Bassnett-McGuire supports this view pointing out the mutual relationship between language and culture “No language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its centre, the structure of natural language.” (1991: 14)
But what is culture? Goodenough (1964: 36), an American ethnologist, defines the concept of culture as consisting of:

… whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members, and do so in any role that they accept for any one of themselves. Culture, being what people have to learn as distinct from their biological heritage, must consist of the end product of learning: knowledge, in the most general, if relative, sense of the term. By this definition, we should note that culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people, behaviour, or emotions. It is rather an organisation of these things. It is the forms of things that people have in mind, their models of perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them. As such, *the things people say and do, their social arrangements and events, are products or by-products of their culture as they apply it to the task of perceiving and dealing with their circumstances.* (italics added)

From the above view, it can be said that culture embraces and influences all aspects of a society, be it its social, educational, or religious systems; be it its people’s thinking patterns, perceptions, beliefs, social values or artistic characteristics. Because language is ‘an integral part of culture’, acquired through social interactions and shared by all members of the language community, it is governed by conventions and rules just as it is in terms of social behaviours.

Nida (1975: 28), also seeing the importance in the relationship between language and culture and the impact of culture on social behaviours, strongly rejects the idea of dealing with a language outside its social context.

From the above there are some issues requiring further discussion. Firstly, language is considered as social behaviour (term used by Halliday); i.e. it is normative, thus like any other social behaviour it must be accepted by the community using the language of the community. Secondly, the use of language reflects both the social and individual characteristics of a particular speaker or speech community living in the culture. As Snell-Hornby (1991: 40) puts it “language is an expression both of the culture and the individuality of the speaker, who perceives the world through language.”

Lastly, culture embraces everything which uniquely belongs to a language community; namely social structure, tradition, knowledge and perception of the world around it, and provides a nurturing environment for the language to be expressed and developed through its function as a means of communication and social behaviour.

However, language is only one of several modes of meaning and, according to Halliday (1985b: 4), in any culture “These will include both art forms such as painting, sculpture, music, the dance and so forth, and other modes of cultural behaviour that are not classified under the heading of forms of art, such as modes of exchange, modes of dress, structures of family, and so forth. These are all bearers of meaning in the culture.”

He also defines culture as ‘a set of semiotic systems, a set of systems of meaning’.
A significant example of this is the Vietnamese extended family system, as seen from Halliday’s semiotic perspective, which is a system of meaning encompassing such values and beliefs as filial piety, respect for the aged, respect for seniority, and sacrifice of oneself for the sake of others.

Evidence for the influence of this cultural institutional system on language is found in the use of kinship terms instead of personal pronouns as a form of address, as pointed out by J. Banerian (1990) who translated a novel, entitled ‘Intact’, from Vietnamese into English: “The Vietnamese language does not use neutral pronouns to the degree that they are used in English. For example the terms ‘I’ and ‘you’ are likely to be given in the form of kinship terms, establishing a relationship as indicated by age or social position. The character Nguyen, for instance, calls the mother of her best friend ‘aunt’, even though the two are not related. In speaking of herself in this relationship, Nguyen would use the term ‘niece’. Throughout the story, characters refer to each other as ‘aunt’, ‘uncle’, ‘brother’ or ‘sister’ in the ways that show how they view each other in their social context.” (Banerian, 1990: Note regarding the translation)

This tendency not only highlights the importance of employing an appropriate form of address in daily contact amongst the Vietnamese, but also presents the translator with the daunting task of finding correct pronominals for a certain social context while translating a text from any distant language culture into Vietnamese. The second-person pronoun ‘you’, for example, has more than 20 corresponding pronouns of address in Vietnamese whose degree of formality ranges from extremely formal (eg. ‘quí vị’) to very intimate (eg. dâng ấy, mà y, etc.) and even those with a derogative effect when a particular intonation is used (eg. 'mày').

In Vietnamese society, the use of the correct form of address is crucial in daily interactions, be it in a family, social or business setting, because it not only establishes the relative degree of respect, politeness and intimacy, but also reinforces the complex hierarchical relationships fundamental to the family and society. As pointed out by Smith et al (1967: 72): “An important feature of Vietnamese is a system of personal pronouns and personal ‘classifiers’ indicating status relationships. Age, education, personal achievement and official rank command respect, and this respect is displayed in speech as well as in conduct. Many subtleties and nuances are reflected in the choice of terms, and the use of the wrong form can cause offence.” The use of various terms for ‘you’ also emphasises the degree of delicacy and appropriateness required both in forms of address and in references in official documents or literary texts, as shown in the table below:
The use of form of address is considered as the use of a certain form of fixed expression. Baker classifies ‘Ladies and Gentlemen’ as an exemplar of this category in English. This is corresponding to ‘Quí Vị’ (or ‘Quý Vị’ as a matter of choice) in Vietnamese.

Many Vietnamese readers (or listeners) have commented on the inappropriate use of forms of address which often occur in most translations of Australian government information pamphlets or documents. Here’s an example of this kind:
Example 2.22

Target Text (BỆNH TIỂU ĐƯỜNG, NSW Health Department, 1989: 1 – Appendix D)

BỆNH TIỂU ĐƯỜNG

Khi trong máu bạn có quá nhiều chất đường đó là tình trạng có thể bạn bị bệnh tiểu đường. Lá lách là một cơ quan thực phụ như tăng của bạn có nhiệm vụ kiểm soát lượng chất đường trong máu và sản xuất một thể chất có tên là in-su-lin. Nếu lá lách không hoạt động đúng mức và không sản xuất đủ số lượng in-su-lin cho cơ thể của bạn, bạn có thể trở thành một bệnh nhân tiểu đường.

Source Text (DIABETES, NSW Health Department, 1989: 1 – Appendix D)

Diabetes is a condition that can occur if you have too much sugar (glucose) in your blood. The amount of sugar in your blood is controlled by the pancreas, a body organ which produces a substance called insulin. If the pancreas is not working properly and if it does not produce the correct amount of insulin for your body, you may become a diabetic.

Therefore, in relation to forms of address, when doing translation from English into Vietnamese depending on contexts, a translator will have to make a decision as to which of the above is more appropriate for a certain context, as well as a choice of language use (register).

Now, to return to Example 2.22. Amongst other linguistic and discoursal issues which will be discussed in due time, as far as register is concerned, Example 2.22 is a semi-technical and formal text, the use of ‘bạn’ or ‘các bạn’ (friend or friends) as a form of address in this context makes many Vietnamese feel uncomfortable and unpleasant. Such an expression ignores the delicate complexity of hierarchical social relationships amongst the Vietnamese language speaking community where age and seniority (both in terms of age and social status) plays an important role in establishing social relationships through the appropriate use of forms of address. The use of an informal form of address (eg. ‘bạn’ may cause offence to readers who feel it actually undermines their social status and mores. For most of them, ‘quí vị’ (messieurs/mesdames or ladies and gentlemen) is preferable and therefore more appropriate in such a text type. While in English such kinship terms as ‘uncle’ or ‘aunt’ can be used generically to indicate the relationships between a child and his/her parents’ brother or sister respectively, in the Vietnamese culture these relationships have to be specifically shown in the use of forms of address. Thus, we have ‘chú’ for one’s father’s younger brother or mother’s younger sister’s husband (in the southern dialect, ‘duống’ is used to address one’s mother’s younger sister’s husband). By the same token, ‘dì’ is used to address one’s mother’s younger sister, but ‘cô’ will be used if she is your father’s younger sister (and her husband will be addressed as ‘chú’). ‘Bác’ is used to address one’s father’s or
mother’s older brother/sister (in some areas of Vietnam, ‘cô’ is used to address both a younger/older sister of one’s mother.)

This hierarchical and complex system of kinship terms is brought into play in daily interactions to create and maintain a sense of belonging to a particular circle. The use of such honorific terms as ‘chú’ or ‘bác’ (‘uncle’), and ‘cô’ or ‘dì’ to address a friend or acquaintance of the same age with one’s parent is a norm, strictly observed by the Vietnamese speaking community.

In comparison with the English language which rich in mood and modal verbs, Vietnamese employs kinship terms and other lexical devices such as ‘đа’ or ‘thưa’ to compensate and create politeness.

Example 2.23 is a segment of dialogue taken from John Grisham’s novel (1993: 12), ‘The Client’, in which a boy named Mark was in a car with a ‘crazy’ man, Jerome, who wanted to kill himself. The corresponding Vietnamese version is printed on the right.

Example 2.23

1. ‘You want the gun?’ the man asked
2. ‘No sir.’
3. ‘So why are you looking at it?’
4. ‘I wasn’t.’
5. ‘Don’t lie to me kid, because if you do, I’ll kill you...’

1. ‘Mày muốn lấy cây súng hả?’
2. ‘Đã, thưa ông không à.’
3. ‘Thẽ tài sao mày nhìn nó?’
4. ‘Đã, thưa cháu đâu có nhìn à.’
5. ‘Nhãi con, đúng nói cô tao. Mày mà nói cô, ông giết mày...’

‘Mày’ in Vietnamese, in this case, is very abrupt and a rather derogative form of address used to show anger and resentment toward the addressee. In Mark’s response, in addition to using ‘Đã, thưa ... à’ a polite and respectful responsive sentence pattern to show respect for the addressee, and a sense of inferiority on his part, he also uses ‘ông’ (mister), another formal, rather honorific and respectful form of address, used as a second-person pronoun. In the fourth sentence, when asked whether he was looking at the gun, Mark, again, uses the same sentence pattern but refers to himself as ‘cháu’ (nephew).

In Sentence 5, the effect of ‘nhãi con’ (little devil) is increased by the choice of ‘tao’ (me), another abrupt and derogative personal pronoun often used in anger with the intention of belittling the addressee. Also ‘ông’ is repeated by the addresser, in this case as a first-person pronoun, to show he has the upper hand and control of the situation.

The subtlety of expression which is available through such a wide choice of pronominals and kinship terms both reflects the social hierarchy which is essential to Vietnamese society and maintains it through the use of language. Use of kinship terms as
pronominals automatically establishes the level of politeness appropriate to the hierarchical relationship between speakers, thus precluding the need for modal verbs such as could, would, etc.

‘Em’ (‘younger brother’ or ‘younger sister’) is a kinship term used as some type of ‘currency’ to break ice and pull down barriers in daily interactions within the Vietnamese speaking community. It can be used by a wife to address her husband not only to indicate the power imbalance inherent in traditional Vietnamese marriages (submissiveness and obedience), but also to imply among other things (i.e. intimacy, affection, etc.) the protective nature of an ‘older brother’. In such a collective culture as Vietnamese, ‘em’ can also be used to show respect to an older or more senior member of a group as well as strengthen its stability through an unwritten socially hierarchical appointment.

The use of this kinship term in an official correspondence, however, often causes headaches for translators. Presented with a letter containing such a sentence as ‘Tôi muốn xin bảo lãnh cho em tôi đến Úc’, a translator may not know whether the writer is referring to his/her younger brother or younger sister, and may resort to using the term ‘sibling’ without specifying the gender of the sponsored person, and thus ‘I would like to sponsor my sibling to Australia’.

Another practice which reflects this tendency of placing great importance on social status is the use of professional titles as forms of address. Thus, professional titles are often used instead of first names or personal pronouns. For example ‘Giáo Sư Colin’ (‘Professor Colin’), ‘Luật Sư Phong’ (‘Lawyer Phong’), ‘Kỹ Sư Hoàng’ (‘Engineer Hoàng’), ‘Nha Sĩ Long’ (‘Dentist Long’), etc. are honorific forms of address which define one’s status and power. This tendency can cause loss in translation, particularly into a language such as English whose culture does not place such importance on status.

It is not only kinship terms and titles that reflect the correlation between language and culture. And as Nida (1975: 7-8) astutely points out: “The correlation between language and culture is perfectly obvious when we are dealing with isolated words which reflect unusual objects, activities, or attitudes.”

Every language in the world has a stock of terms to indicate universal elements and facts of life such as parts of the human body, human actions, personal feelings, animals, and almost universal artefacts or objects (eg. house, table, clock, etc.). However, no language contains enough words to express all the gradations of human emotional and intellectual existence. Some languages are richer than others in terms of describing shades of feelings, or abstract concepts. Biguenet and Schulte (1989: Introduction) have the following to say about culture: “Human emotions hardly change from one culture to another; what changes is the
way one perceives these emotions and how one places them within the natural environment of a country. A word approximates its synonym without ever replacing it. A cultural situation - whether in the realm of social, ethical, educational, legal, or political realities - never finds its exact equivalent in another country... As in the case of words, the comparative study of cultural situations will prominently display the different ways in which we perceive and create our cultural reality...”

An example of this is the Vietnamese term ‘ruột’. This term is normally used in an anatomic sense to mean a particular internal organ, human or animal; thus we have ‘ruột già’ (large intestines) and ‘ruột non’ (small intestines). When ‘ruột’ goes with ‘gan’ (liver) to make the compound noun ‘ruột gan’, it indicates the internal organs inside the lower central part of the human body as a whole, i.e. the bowel (or offal in animal). Many Vietnamese expressions make reference to this part. For instance, ‘he thinks he is the navel of the universe’ (‘nó nghĩ nó là cái rốn của vũ trụ’) simply means ‘he thinks he is the centre of the universe’. A Vietnamese would think with his tummy and not his head ‘nghĩ bụng’. ‘To display someone’s bowel’ (‘phơi bày ruột gan’) means ‘to confide a secret’; when someone’s ‘bowel is in a tangle’ (‘ruột gan rối bời’) s/he is ‘greatly confused’ or has a lot ‘to be worried about’. However, ‘ruột’ is also used collocatively with ‘thịt’ (‘flesh’) to indicate a blood relationship, as in ‘anh/chị em ruột thịt’ (‘siblings’).

When this part of an animal (i.e. ‘ruột’) is used as a kind of food the term ‘lòng’ is used instead; thus, ‘lòng heo’ (pig’s intestines), ‘lòng bò’ (cow’s intestines), ‘lòng gà’ (‘chicken’s chitterlings’), and so forth. In English, the heart is thought to be the centre of feelings and emotions, in Vietnamese it is the bowel. Thus, what an English speaker feels in ‘his heart of hearts’, a Vietnamese will keep ‘secret in his bowel’ (‘giấu kín trong lòng’), and instead of saying ‘to keep something close to one’s heart’ they would say ‘to cherish it in one’s bowel’ (‘cấp ủ trong lòng’). The term ‘lòng’ is also used as a headword to form various abstract nouns in the following contexts: ‘lòng người’ (human mind), ‘lòng mẹ’ (mother love), ‘lòng yêu nước’ (patriotism), ‘lòng dân’ (people’s will), ‘lòng tham’ (greediness), ‘lòng thành’ (sincerity), etc. Commenting on someone’s brutality, a Vietnamese would describe that person as having ‘a wolf’s heart and beast’s feelings’ (‘lòng lang đá thú’); while speaking of someone as having a ‘dark or black heart’ (‘lòng dạ đen tối’) means he is cunning or deceitful.

Chen Hongwei (1999) divides culture into three categories with institutional culture referring to various systems such as social, religious, educational, linguistic, etc; mental culture referring to values, beliefs, thinking patterns, worldview, etc; and material culture to artefacts, products (either environmentally or culturally specific), and things which are
invented or manufactured by members of the culture. Rice, for example (using Chen’s example), is an essential food staple in many Asian countries and can be classified as a specific product of many Asian material cultures including Vietnamese. When rice (‘gạo’) is still in the husk it is called ‘thóc’. If this grain is used to grow rice, it’s called ‘thóc giống’ (‘seed’ or ‘paddy’). ‘Thóc giống’ is sown and produces ‘mạ’ (‘rice seedling’) which grows to become ‘lúa’ (‘rice plant’). When ‘lúa’ is ripe for harvesting its ‘fruit’ is ‘thóc’. ‘Thóc’ is then removed from ‘lúa’ and is ground to separate it from its husk (‘trấu’) to become ‘gạo’ (‘rice’). ‘Gạo’ when cooked will become ‘cơm’ (‘cooked or boiled rice’). All in all, there is only one word in English to denote this particular kind of grain; namely ‘rice’.

Another example from Chen’s category of material culture is the generic term ‘xe’, which is synonymous to the English word ‘vehicle’ and is used to indicate any means of transport by land; English people are very specific about types of vehicle and their specific purposes of use. For example ‘xe ngựa’ (a horse drawn cart), ‘xe bò’ (an ox(en) drawn cart), ‘xe lửa’ (steamed engine train), ‘xe điện’ (tram), ‘xe buýt’ (bus), ‘xe hơi’ or ‘xe ô tô’ (automobile or auto-car), ‘xe tang’ (hearse), ‘xe chở lửa’ (fire engine), etc. A Vietnamese translator may have great difficulty to find corresponding words in Vietnamese for such terms as mini-van, coupé, sedan, utility, wagon, hatchback, flat deck truck, trailer, semi-trailer, caravan, lorry, etc; to name just a few.

Therefore, a translator is required to possess not only the knowledge and skills shared by any communicator in relevant language speaking communities, but also the competence in at least two linguistic systems as well as knowledge of the cultures associated with the languages. Without competence in relevant linguistic systems, it would be impossible for a translator to fully comprehend the meaning of a text coded in one language, let alone to reconstruct it in another. By linguistic competence we mean, as observed by Bell (1991: 36-37):

(a) how propositions are structured (semantic knowledge),
(b) how clauses can be synthesized to carry propositional content and analysed to retrieve the content embedded in them (syntactic knowledge), and
(c) how the clause can be realised as information-bearing text and the text decomposed into the clause (pragmatic knowledge). Lack of knowledge or control in any of the three cases would mean that the translator could not translate.

By the same token, without a knowledge of the cultures of both the SL and TL, translators would not have communicative competence or ‘competency for use’ which would make their work not ‘communicatively appropriate in both SL and TL communities’ (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 33). In other words, their linguistic knowledge would only be of ‘language-as-system rather than language-as-communication’ (ibid). Neubert and Shreve (1992: 37) also
support Hatim & Mason on this point, saying that: “The competence of the translator is not just a knowledge of the two language systems, but also a communicative knowledge. Communicative knowledge is knowing how to use language in specific interactional situations.”

Possessing only a knowledge of the culture of the SL community, but not of the TL, translators might run the risk of assimilating the text to the familiar cultural characteristics of their own, as pointed out by Grosman (1994: 54): “Some texts presuppose a well-defined knowledge of culturally specific phenomena, such as a specific social structure, on the part of the reader or rather the translator. In case translators do not possess the knowledge of such an underlying social structure, or are unaware of its fundamental differentness and the importance of such differentness for the appreciation of the text, they are likely, without realising it, to assimilate the text to the familiar social structure of their own different culture and thus lose the otherness of the original, reducing its interpretative potential.”

But before returning to our discussion, let us consider the following simple sign:

Example 2.24a

Different cultures employ different sign or symbol systems to realise communicative acts. Familiar with a western culture, one can immediately recognise and understand what the above sign stands for due to the conventional use of it to indicate something everybody can relate to through their real-world experience and through the knowledge of linguistic and cultural contexts (or using Halliday's term 'set of semiotic systems'; or 'set of systems of meaning').

What makes a person take the symbol of a knife and a fork to denote a restaurant is not the 'surface' meaning (or semantic sense) it expresses, but the communicative and pragmatic values (the message) it conveys.
To be able to understand the above sign is not simply to decode the meaning of it in coded form, but rather to infer the intention of the sign producer within a given social context. It is not the sign or the text itself, but the intention of the sign producer (or speaker/writer) or the purpose of a communicative act that gives a sign or a text its communicative and pragmatic value.

Transferring this sign into the language of another culture such as Vietnamese may be inappropriate, because a different semiotic system is employed and a knife and a fork are rarely used for eating but rather a bowl and a pair of chopsticks. Thus the sign may not produce the same communicative effect. Therefore, the use of the following sign (or simply ‘Tiềm Ăn’ for restaurant) is more appropriate in the Vietnamese culture. (Example 2.24b)

Example 2.24b

Example 2.25

The significance of cultural appropriacy is well illustrated in Example 2.25 and advertisement by HSBC published in Time Magazine, September 2003, which closely shows the concept of cutlery expressed through different cultures.

Therefore, translation is not as simple as replacing words (symbols) in one language with words (or symbols/scripts) of another language, but involves trying to re-express a message expressed in the language of one culture into the language of another culture.
Now, let's consider another communication instance where the following utterance is produced:
Example 2.26

May I help you?

This is one of many possible choices of language a speaker uses to offer help. However, in a particular setting, when the above utterance is produced, the hearer knows exactly what the other party means or refers to. For example, an English speaking customer enters a shop where the shop assistant, who is also an English speaking person, gives a greeting and offers help. Conventionally, in a situation like this, it is appropriate for the vendor/service provider to ask such questions as:

a. May I help you (sir/madam)?

or if s/he wishes to be less formal:

b. Can I help you?

or something to that extent (i.e. Can I be of any help?)

The above goods and services transaction is commenced in a variety of ways in Vietnamese depending on the gender of the customer, the degree of formality, and type of transaction, i.e. selling goods or providing service (setting). This is also an example of Chen’s institutional culture category (1999).

If the customer is male and the transaction is of selling/buying goods, the question will be:

(a’). ‘Thưa ông cần/muốn mua gì ạ?’
(lit. What do you need/want to buy, sir?)

With the same scenario, but a female customer, the question will be slightly different (note the highlighted):

(a’’) ‘Thưa bà cần/muốn mua gì ạ?’
(lit. What do you need/want to buy, madam?)

If the transaction involves services, then the questions will be modified accordingly:
(a''') ‘Thưa ông cần gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a man)
(lit. What do you need, sir?)

or

(a''') ‘Thưa bà cần gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a woman)
(lit. What do you need, madam?)

If the customer is already known to the shop-keeper or if s/he is less senior than the latter or the shopkeeper decides to make it less formal then:

For a goods transaction:

(b’) ‘Anh cần/muốn mua gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a man)
(lit. What do you need/want to buy, brother?)

(b’’) ‘Chị cần/muốn mua gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a woman)
(lit. What do you need/want to buy, sister?)

and for service provision:

(b’’) ‘Anh cần gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a man)
(lit. What do you need, brother?)

(b’’’) ‘Chị cần gì ấy?’ (if the customer is a woman)
(lit. What do you need, sister?)

Functionally, we can say that (a’), (a’’), (a’’’), and (a’’’’) serve the same purpose as (a) because they have the same communicative value as (a) in the above situation. By the same manner, (b’) (b’’), (b’’’) and (b’’’’) convey the same communicative effect as (b). From a linguistic point of view however, the above pairs differ greatly. In:

(a’) ‘Thưa ông cần/muốn mua gì ấy?’
(a’’) ‘Thưa bà cần/muốn mua gì ấy?’
(a’’’) ‘Thưa ông cần gì ấy?’
and:

(a’’’) ‘Thưa bà cần gì a?’

‘Thưa’, an initial element in Vietnamese, is used to show the respect of the addressee towards the addressee for his/her seniority (either of age, family hierarchy or of social status) or in a formal situation. By the same token, ‘a’ is a final element normally added to the end of a sentence not only to signal a question but also to indicate the speaker’s respect for the addressee.

‘Cân’ (in this context meaning ‘need’) is used in the provision of service; whereas both ‘căn’ (‘căn mua’) and ‘muôn’ (‘muôn mua’ or ‘want to buy...’) can be used interchangeably in the case of selling goods.

To politely address a male customer ‘ông’ is used, and ‘bà’ for a female and these can be seen as ‘equivalents’ of second personal pronoun “you” in English; while in:

(b) ‘Anh cần/muôn mua gì a?’
(b’) ‘Chị cần/muôn mua gì a?’
(b’’) ‘Anh cần gì a?’

and

(b’’’) ‘Chị cần gì a?’

‘anh’ and ‘chị’ are used but with a lesser degree of formality.

From the above examples of goods and services transaction, we can see that such factors as gender of customer (participant) and type of transaction (setting) have little effect on language choice in the English speaking environment unless exceptional circumstances (for example a VIP) but have significant effect on choices of language use in Vietnamese.

Thus, language choice (meaning potential) is made depending on such factors as:

1. the setting where the utterance occurs;
2. characteristics (i.e. gender, status, etc.) of participants involved in the communicative act;
3. purpose(s) (or topic) of the communicative act.

In terms of purpose, let's examine further the function of 'May I help you?', an offer of help, made in different settings:
a. Seeing a mother with two children, one in a stroller and the other clinging to her leg, and with a heavy shopping bag in her hand, trying to make her way up the stairs.

Bà de tôi giúp a?

(May I give you a hand, madam?)

b. Seeing an elderly lady trying to cross the road.

Cụ de tôi đưa sang bên kia đường a?

(May I help you cross the road, madam?)

c. Arriving home from work, seeing someone about to knock at the door as though looking for someone.

Ông cần/muốn gặp ai a?

(Whom do you wish to see, sir?)

In addition to such factors as setting, participants and purpose(s), as well as cultural aspects of language which have been discussed at length, Examples 2.24a and 2.24b, 2.25 and 2.26 provide us with another aspect for discussion; namely the relationship between language and its context of utterance or the pragmatic dimension of language which will be discussed in detail at a later stage.
CHAPTER III

TEXTAL METAFUNCTIONAL PROFILE OF VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR

3.1 BRIEF EXAMINATION OF THE VIETNAMESE TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION: SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

3.1.0 INTRODUCTION

As stated in the Introductory Chapter, the reason for choosing to focus mainly on the thematic structure of the translated texts came from the realisation that efficacy of a text subtly rests with the textual metafunction. It has been found that in terms of truth function; namely ideational meaning, this is relatively easy to be managed effectively in translation. However, the truth function does not necessarily convey the message successfully, because there is more to a message than just the meaning. For example, a message often contains discourse topicality, which helps audience recognize the text producer’s intended organisation of discourse realised through thematic organisation. Thematic organisation also provides a set of priorities for the information to appear in sequential patterns which aim to assist the audience with text comprehension. Dooley (2007: 2) refers to the maintenance of discourse topicality in text as “knowledge management”, and the management of priority in text construction as “attention management”. In Dooley’s own words “Knowledge management results in schemas which create expectations that certain concepts will be thematic, and attention management often confirms or redirects that kind of expectation… Attention management has to do with expressing the speaker’s current interest in, and directing the addressees’ attention to, particular concepts as a strategy for construing their comprehension in a particular way. Attention can be directed both locally/ sequentially, from one concept to a following one, and globally, being sustained for an entire discourse unit. The local, sequential aspect of attention management has largely to do with what is commonly called “information structure” (Lambrecht 1994). Globally, over an entire discourse unit, attention can be sustained on discourse themes (and topics). Managing attention on this global level is therefore equivalent to thematic (and topical) construal.”

Therefore, the main focus of the chapter is the textual metafunction of Vietnamese clauses examined from the Systemic Functional perspective. Systemic Function Grammar (or widely known as Systemic Functional Linguistics or SFL for short) views language as a
A resource for making meaning by way of wording (Halliday, 1985; Eggins, 1994; Butt et al, 2000; Halliday & Mathiessen, 2004). When put in use, language simultaneously performs three types of speech function corresponding to three types of meaning: interpersonal, ideational, and textual. The main systems involved in the realisation of the three functions or meanings are MOOD, TRANSITIVITY and THEME.

This chapter will only deal with the thematic system of the language whereas MOOD and TRANSITIVITY systems of Vietnamese grammar will be explored in Chapter IIIIB in Part Two of the research.

To facilitate the discussion on the translation practice of Vietnamese and English, it is proposed that a common currency should be agreed upon in order to help identify the similarities and differences between the two languages in relation to the syntactic and textual structures as well as the discoursal and generic structures.

First, a brief review of work by different scholars on Vietnamese grammar will be carried out with the main focus being on the Theme-Rheme (Topic-Comment) structure of Vietnamese. This review will be discussing the notion of thematic structure from the point of view of several authors whose works were published from the 1960’s – 1990’s, both within and outside Vietnam, either in English or Vietnamese, and will be presented in chronological order. Although there has been discussion among authoritative Vietnamese grammarians as to whether Vietnamese should be categorised as a topic-prominent language (notably Cao Xuân Hao, 1991), there has been no specific research which can shed light on the issue. In Thompson’s study of Vietnamese grammar (1965), however, he does allude to the fact that Vietnamese is not a subject-predicate language. Clark (1992: 91) also avoids touching on the issue of topic prominence versus subject prominence, by simply stating, “… I will assume subjects, not topics, in ordinary Vietnamese sentences.”

3.1.1 DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES ON THE VIETNAMESE THEME-RHEME STRUCTURE

3.1.1.1 Topic and Theme

As far as theme-rheme is concerned two of the most authoritative scholars in Vietnamese language who should be mentioned here are the colleagues Chình and Lê. On the topic of Theme, the authors (1963: 530) devote an entire chapter (Chapter 19) to discussing the function of theme under the heading “chủ đề” (‘exposé du sujet’) which is defined as: “[Exposé du sujet] is a word placed at the beginning of the sentence to describe the ‘theme’
‘chú(dè)’ [of the sentence], but it may not be its subject."

The term ‘exposé du sujet’ (or ‘theme’) is a notion the authors borrow from *Sin kouu wen* (‘Nouveau manuel de langue chinoise écrite’ or ‘New manual of written Chinese’), a work by H. Lamasse.

In this, Lamasse contends that ‘theme is unique to the Chinese language; and it can be said that if one understands its structures, then for a large part one thoroughly grasps the essence of the language.’ (Chính & Lê, 1963: 541, my translation) According to Lamasse (quoted in Chính & Lê, 1963: 540) “the word ‘exposé’ means ‘fronted’ and ‘sujet’ is the topic of the utterance (‘sujet’ as it is used here is not ‘subject’ of a sentence); therefore, ‘exposé du sujet’ means ‘thematisation’, [or] bringing [a word] to the initial position.” (my translation)

In response to this observation, Nguyễn Hiền Lê and Trương Văn Chính (ibid: 541) provide their own view, saying that the concept of theme is not unique to Chinese language:

“The notion of ‘theme’ is not applicable to the Chinese language only, but also to Vietnamese: Vietnamese people tend to use theme structure (in their daily interactions). However it’s also not correct to say that theme structure is unique only to the Chinese or Vietnamese language, but not to others.” (my translation)

To support their argument, the authors point out that French, for example, has theme-rheme structure as well, which is called ‘thème-énoncé’ or ‘thème-proposé’ and is mentioned in the work of C. Bally (1944), a French linguist. And Chính and Lê (ibid: 543) explain the structure of this French “thème-énoncé” as follows “[In] each sentence, except for words or phrases used as theme, the remainder together forms “propos” or “énoncé” which we may translate as “thuat dè” (predication [or rheme]).” (my translation)

Also using a two clause French sentence (taken from Bally) as an example, the authors point out that the first clause (subordinate clause) is ‘thème’ (‘theme’) and the second (main clause) is ‘énoncé’ (‘rheme’):

**Example 3.1**

Si vous désobéissez, vous serez puni
(Nêu anh không nghe lời, anh sẽ bị phạt),

or

If you disobey, you’ll be punished. (ibid)

More importantly, Chính and Lê emphasise the significant difference between ‘topic’ and ‘theme’, saying “‘thoại dè’ (‘topic’) and ‘chú dè’ (‘theme’) are two distinct concepts.” (ibid: 547).
As far as the notion of ‘topic’ in Vietnamese is concerned, according to the authors, each sentence in Vietnamese has a ‘topic’ which is referred to as ‘thoại dề’ (meaning the ‘goal of the utterance’) (ibid: 529). They provide the following examples to explain the position of ‘topic’ in the clause:

Example 3.2

(A) Question: Giáp / đâu?
Lit. Giap where?

(B) Answer: Giáp / di gửi thu.
Lit. Giap go send letter

In (A) and (B) above, “Giáp” (a person’s name) is ‘topic’; however in (C) and (D) below, “thu” (or ‘letter’) is ‘topic’:

Example 3.3

(C) Question: Thu / đâu?
Lit. Letter where?

(D) Answer: Thu / Giáp / di gửi rôi.
Lit. Letter Giap go send already

They (ibid: 529) further explain:

In (A) and (C) the two questions have the same structure, and the ‘topic’ coincides with ‘subject’. In (B) and (D) [however] the answers have different structures. (B) has the same structure as (A) and (C); i.e. its topic [“thu” or ‘letter’] is also its subject.

However, in (D) the word that is used as its topic is not the same as its subject. The topic is ‘thu’ (‘letter’) and the subject of the sentence is ‘Giáp’. Semantically, ‘thu’ is the object of ‘gửi’ (‘send’) (i.e. What does Giap send? – [He] sends a letter.); grammatically, however, ‘thu’ stands alone and has no subordinate or coordinate relations with any constituents of the sentence. Therefore, in (D), ‘thu’ has its own function which may be referred to as theme. (D) has ‘theme’ whereas (A), (B), and (C) have no ‘theme’ and are a normal type of sentence. (my translation)

Another important observation made by Chinh and Lê concerns the position of topic in the sentences. Apart from differentiating the distinct difference between ‘chủ dề’ (‘theme’) and ‘thoại dề’ (‘topic’), they also point out that although in the above sentences topics are placed in the initial position, only (D) has theme. The other three, (A), (B), and (C), have no theme and their topics are also their subjects. As far as the position of topic in a sentence is
concerned, they stipulate: “it’s not necessary that the topic is placed in the initial position of the sentence, [but, the theme always is].”

The following examples will illustrate their argument. Imagine that two people are discussing a book they are both interested in reading. There are several ways to make questions in Vietnamese, but the forms below are relevant to our discussion:

Example 3.4

(D) **Anh** [past marker] dâ [classifier] đọc cuốn sách ấy chưa?
You [past marker] read [classifier] book that yet

Have you read that book?

or

(E) **Cuốn** [classifier] sách ấy anh dâ [past marker] đọc chưa?
That book, have you read it?

And the answer can either be:

(F) Tôi dâ [classifier] sách ấy rồi.
I read [classifier] book that already.
I’ve read that book.

or

(G) **Cuốn** [classifier] sách ấy tôi dâ [past marker] đọc rồi.
That book, I’ve already read it.

In conclusion, Chinh & Lê (ibid: 547-548) contend that: “In whichever way the wording is arranged, the topic of these sentences is always ‘the book’. However in (E) and (G), the element used as topic being placed in the initial position is ‘theme’; whereas in (D) and (F) the topic [‘sách’ or ‘book’] does not appear at the beginning of the sentences and the sentences do not have ‘theme’. Therefore, theme is a grammatical concept that relates to sentence structure; while topic is not a grammatical concept, but a semantic one.” (my translation)

It seems that Chinh and Lê’s treatment of Theme in Vietnamese is slightly different to the Hallidayan notion of Theme in English. By saying that only (E) and (G) have Theme, but (D) and (F) don’t, it is believed that the authors may be referring to what is considered by Halliday as a ‘marked Theme’. The tables below explain the above view:
Example 3.4 (E)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative structure</th>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>THEME (marked)</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>Cuốn sách ấy anh đã đọc chưa?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>[Class.] book that you [past marker] read yet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>That book have you read [it]?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Example 3.4 (E) the Complement “cuốn sách ấy” is brought to the initial position in the clause (or fronted) to give it more communicative ‘effect’; as in 3.4 (G)

Example 3.4 (G)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative structure</th>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>THEME (marked)</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>Cuốn sách ấy tôi đọc rồi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>[Class.] book that I read already</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>That book I’ve already read [it]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as 3.4 (D) and (F) are concerned, my understanding is that leaving Theme aside, the Topic of these two clauses becomes part of the Comment because that is what both the speaker and listener of the communicative event are concentrating on, as indicated in the following:

Example 3.4 (D)

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anh đã đọc cuốn sách ấy chưa?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You [past marker] read [classifier] book that Yet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal/Topical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you read that book yet?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In another study on the Vietnamese written form, Lê (1988) discusses how placing different constituents at the beginning of a clause will change the communicative effect. The following example is provided to illustrate his point:

**Example 3.4 (G):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Eng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sách <em>đó,</em> tôi vừa mua ở tiệm Khai Trí</td>
<td>book that I just buy at shop (store) Khai Trí</td>
<td>That book, I’ve just bought from Khai Tri bookstore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And he explains the important position of ‘exposé du sujet’ in a clause (1988: 70):

“Sách (‘book’), which is placed at the beginning of the sentence as the theme (‘topic’), immediately draws our attention to this very item.” (my translation)

In addition to Chinh and Lê’s perspective on the Vietnamese theme and rheme structure, there have been other scholars whose works also examine the thematic structure in Vietnamese. And the most comprehensive and thorough study on the subject outside Vietnam is possibly the work of Thompson (1965).

### 3.1.1.2 Focal elements

Thompson (1965), in his seminal work on Vietnamese grammar, notes a lack of ‘grammatic subject’ (in a traditionally European grammatical sense). Instead, there are linguistic constituents which may be seen as themes in Vietnamese sentences. He refers to these as ‘focal elements’ which are classified into more than a dozen categories. However, for the purpose of this study the proposed categories will not be discussed in detail.
Moreover, not all the categories proposed by the author can be agreed with, for example such adverbial of time as ‘bao giờ’ (‘when’) or the adverbial used to ask questions about quantity i.e. ‘bao nhiêu’ (‘how many’) are placed under the category of Focal Complements. By the same token, adverbials of manner, time, place, etc, are classified under the Focal Complexes category; whereas personal pronouns as well as several adverbials of place and time are under Focuses, and so on. Nevertheless, it is fair to say that these categories are not influenced heavily by the grammatically analytical traditions and terminology of Europe reflecting the originality of Thompson’s work (for more information see Thompson, 1965). Furthermore, these also indicate the capacity in Vietnamese to place any linguistic elements of the sentence in the initial position to make theme or thematisation.

Thompson also points out the order of relationships among initial elements within a sentence (known as ‘multiple theme’ in the Hallidayan terminology and as ‘focal complexes’ in Thompson’s) in which adverbials of manner, time, and place precede the subject (or ‘topic’ in Thompson’s terminology) of a sentence respectively in this order. As he states (1965: 244): “Focal complexes show elements in certain rather consistent orders. Three general types are observed: those displaying the relative order manner-time-place-topic; those in which outer complements are more general and inner complements more specific; and those in which the outermost complement is the central topic of discussion for the sentence.”

The following example illustrates this order:

**Example 3.5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>Manner</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>Nhừ thể</td>
<td>hôm qua</td>
<td>tài cho</td>
<td>tôi</td>
<td>mua nhiêu đồ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>So</td>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td>at market</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>bought a lot of things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>So it was yesterday at the market I bought a lot of things</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also using the concept of focal elements and in particular focal complements, Thompson can explain the tendency of favouring the active voice as opposed to the passive construction in Vietnamese; for example: ‘Nhà cháy rồi.’ literally means ‘The house has burned already’, instead of ‘The house has been burned.’

**3.1.1.3 The ‘Em. Sector’**

Đương Thanh Bình (1971) in her book on ‘*A tagmemic comparison of the structure of English and Vietnamese sentences*’, examining Vietnamese in its written form, divides a
sentence into various sectors, one of which is called the ‘Em. Sector’. From a tagmemic point
of view, Binh defines it as (1971: 212):

The ‘Em.’ (or ‘emphatic’) sector is the position for elements which are shifted from other sectors for the
purpose of giving them an emphasis or ‘focus’ that they would not have if they remained in their
normal positions. (In speech, stress also helps to express emphasis.) The ‘Em.’ sector occurs at the
beginning of a sentence; a unit from any one of the following sectors may shift to the ‘Em.’ sector: the
subject, the verbal, the object, the complement, and the negator sectors.

From the above definition it can be said that:
- The ‘Em.’ sector falls in with Theme if seen from the SFL perspective.
- The purpose of shifting a linguistic element to the ‘Em.’ is to give it an emphasis or
‘focus’ as seen by Binh. This can be considered as the process of thematisation.
- Any linguistic element in a sentence may be moved to this sector.

Binh also observes that for the sake of emphasis the lexeme ‘thì’ or ‘là’ may be used
after an element placed in the ‘Em.’ sector as well as maintained in its usual position in the
sentence. This is exemplified as follows:

**Example 3.6**

Ãn thì ông Ba ăn khỏe lắm
Eat TM* Mr Ba eat healthy very.
Mr Ba has an enormous appetite

(*TM: thematic or emphatic marker)

This is agreed by Hảo (1991: 124) whose work will be reviewed shortly and who
makes this observation: “To mark the division between Theme and Rheme, in cases where
structures and features of Theme and/or Rheme do not clearly indicate this division, or to
highlight this division or the emphasis (or “marked” as generally understood in linguistics; i.e.
highlighting the “markedness”) either on Theme or Rheme for pragmatic purposes, in
Vietnamese either of these two particles ‘thì’ or ‘là’ is used.” (my translation)

We will leave Binh for now and move on to the work by Hảo.

### 3.1.1.4 Topic and Setting

In one of his studies on Vietnamese language and grammar, *Tiếng Việt: Số Thân Ngữ Pháp Chức Năng* (Vietnamese language: An Outline of Functional Grammar), Cao Xuân Hảo
(1991) employs theories and techniques of functional grammar, proposed by such linguists as
Danes (1964, 1967, 1970), Firbas (1958, 1964, 1966), Halliday (1967, 1970, 1985), Halliday & Hasan (1976), and Dik (1978), to name but a few. In particular, using the findings by Li & Thompson (1976: 459), which categorise languages of the world into four basic types: (i) languages that are subject-prominent; (ii) languages that are topic-prominent; (iii) languages that are both subject-prominent and topic-prominent; and (iv) languages that are neither subject-prominent nor topic-prominent, he argues strongly that like Chinese, Vietnamese is one of the topic-prominent languages (1991: 28).

From the outset it should be noted that Hào appears to use the word ‘Chữ Đề’ in referring to both ‘theme’ and ‘topic’, and ‘Đề-Thuyết’ to both ‘Theme-Rheme’ and ‘Topic-Comment’ (ibid: 10, 37, and following). Especially when commenting on Dik (1978) and Dooley (1982) and their use of terminology that is analogous to Theme and Topic (or ‘Đề’), Hào also mentions ‘Rheme’ and ‘Comment’ referring to them as ‘Thuyết’ (ibid: 40).

As far as the topic-comment structure, its function, and the position of topic and comment in a sentence are concerned, Hào (1991: 79) states “When producing an utterance, language users provide a Topic then say something about this Topic or within the scope of that Topic.” (my translation)

He also quotes Chafe’s definition of ‘topic’ as “what the sentence is about…” (Chafe, 1976: 50). In addition, he coins the term ‘Khung Đề’ which is defined as “the part of a sentence that highlights situational, temporal, and spatial conditions in which what is said in the Topic is valid” (ibid: 83 - translated). ‘Khung Đề’ literally means ‘thematic frame’, however, in an article written in English Hào (1992) refers to this notion as ‘Range Theme’.

It is believed that this notion may have come from Dooley’s proposal of the concept of pragmatic structuring which involves “showing how different parts of the sentence relate to the context - and, conversely, identifying items in the context which relate most directly to the interpretation of the sentence” (Dooley, 1982: 307). In his study, Dooley also refers to the concept of ‘themes’ used by Halliday (1967) and ‘topics’ used by Chafe (1976) which, in his view, are “pragmatic components whose function is ‘to limit the applicability of the main predication to certain restricted domain’ in the addressee’s cognitive inventory” (ibid: 310). From this point of view, pragmatic components can be divided further into Settings and Topics, of which, “A setting is a delimiting component which restricts the applicability of its primary concomitant to some area in the addressee’s framework of time or space…” (ibid)

According to Hào, in Vietnamese words that are used as ‘Khung Đề’ (‘Range Themes’, known as ‘Settings’ in Dooley, 1982) are subjects (including nouns, personal pronouns and anaphoric references) which are preceded by a preposition; phrases containing such nouns indicating time as ‘mai’ (tomorrow), ‘chiều’ (evening), ‘khi’ (when), ‘lúc’ (when),
and so on; nouns indicating place such as ‘noi’ (place) and ‘chỗ’ (place); phrasal verbs (with or without a preposition), and phrases with a deictic or anaphoric component such as ‘dây’ (here), ‘thế’ (then), etc. (1991: 82)

With reference to ‘Chủ Đề’ (or ‘theme’ or ‘topic’), Hào (ibid: 83) contends that: “Words that are used as Topics are mainly nouns, including personal pronouns, anaphoric references, as well as verbs and clauses not preceded by a preposition.” He also adds “Topic (theme) is mainly a syntactic concept whose function is to express subjectum or thema (or logical subject), and is not synonymous to ‘subject’ which is a semantic concept… It also does not have anything to do with “subject” seen from a perspective of traditional grammars and often used to describe Vietnamese grammar.” (ibid)

He goes further to divide topics into ‘Ngoại Đề’ (literally, ‘Outer Topic’) and ‘Nội Đề’ (‘Inner Topic’) with the former being characterised by its position and its function in a sentence. This concept is also similar to that proposed by Dooley (1982) in which he divides pragmatic components into ‘inner’ and ‘outer’ Settings, and ‘inner’ and ‘outer’ Topics. Dooley admits the borrowing of this notion from the semantics of case frames (Halliday, 1970). However, due to the scope of the study, this will not be discussed in detail. For further information, see Hào (1991), Dooley (1982), Chafe (1976) and Halliday (1970).

In terms of the position of ‘Chủ Đề’ (‘topic’ or ‘theme’) in a sentence, Hào (1991: 90) maintains “in Vietnamese language as in most of the languages which do not belong to the VOS (Verb-Object-Subject) and VSO (Verb-Subject-Object) categories, Topic usually precedes Comment (or Theme precedes Rheme)… This is the most natural position which a [linguistic] element, carrying such a function as Theme, may occupy… However, there are cases where Theme is placed after Rheme. This is not a normal order, [or is called] ‘marked’, it makes the sentence have a profound emotive sense.”

From the above statement it seems Hào’s view on the Vietnamese Theme-Rheme structure is influenced by that of the linguists from the Prague School of Linguistics, or the Functional Sentence Perspective, whose representatives include Danes (1964, 1967, 1970), and Firbas (1958, 1964, 1966), to name the most influential ones.

The following are the exemplars, provided by Hao (ibid: 91), indicating this influence:

**Example 3.7a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. Dep</th>
<th>bèt bao</th>
<th>những</th>
<th>lời</th>
<th>chân thà</th>
<th>áy!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>know how</td>
<td>[pl. marker]</td>
<td>word</td>
<td>sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>How beautiful are those sincere words!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hảo claims that in these poetic expressions or exclamations, Theme can be placed after Rheme to make a ‘marked’ Rheme (ibid: 90), and that “This reverse order of Theme-Rheme may be a general feature of all languages which share the same characteristics.”

3.1.1.5 S & P sentence

In Study on Vietnamese Grammar, Nguyễn Kim Thân (1997) one of the most well-known contemporary linguists in Vietnam, criticises the traditional way of defining a sentence as comprising a subject, a verb and an object, saying that very often there are sentences in Vietnamese in which “we can’t find their subject, or are not able to locate where their subject or predicate is” (1997: 503). To illustrate his point, he offers the following examples:

Example 3.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Có khách.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>Have client/visitor (or ‘clients/visitors’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>There’s a client/visitor [here]!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Những người là người.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>(Plural marker) human be human.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>It’s so crowded! Or can be understood as ‘There are so many people!’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.8 is an ‘existential’ clause in Vietnamese in which the possessive verb ‘có’ (‘have’) takes the position of the subject of the clause; while in English an existential clause typically begins with ‘there’ as its subject (or ‘empty’ subject). Pragmatically, if Example 3.8

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is translated into English it should be understood as ‘Can someone see if there’s a client/visitor out there?’ or ‘There’s a client/visitor here! Is there anybody available?’; whereas in Example 3.9, it’s an exclamation. Linguistically however, in both cases the sentences in Vietnamese have no subject.

Structurally, Thân divides Vietnamese sentences into two types: substantive and predicative; where the former “defines an object and the latter involves a process.” (ibid: 508)

For example:

**Substantive:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Tôi là học sinh</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit</td>
<td>I be student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng</td>
<td>I am a student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Predicative:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Tôi học</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit</td>
<td>I study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng</td>
<td>I study (or I’m studying)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He also points out that in the case of a substantive (may be seen as an attributive in the SFL terminology) sentence, sometimes the relational process ‘là’ (‘be’) may function as a predicative, for example (ibid):

**Example 3.10**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Tham quan cùng là học.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit</td>
<td>Visit also be learn (study)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng</td>
<td>Excursion is also seen as a learning process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, from the SFL perspective, this may be more like a relational identifying process than a relational attributive or predicative.

Moreover, Thân categorises the Vietnamese sentences into: ‘divisible’ and ‘indivisible’ sentences; where divisible sentences can be further divided into single and two-part sentences. Due to the limited space of the study, only the structure and function of the two-part sentence will be examined.

According to Thân, two-part sentences are the most frequently used ones, and “comprise two essential parts, [which are] usually dependent on each other for their existence” (1997: 531, my translation). Thân calls these two parts S and P respectively. And
although he uses the term ‘chữ ngữ’ instead of ‘chữ tướng’ which is widely known as ‘subject’ in traditional grammar and which he has strongly criticised, S and P may be understood as ‘Subjectum’ or ‘Thema’ and ‘Praedicatum’ or ‘Rhema’ (as proposed by Hao, 1991), or ‘Theme’ and ‘Rheme’, as Thàn (ibid: 533) defines:

“Chữ ngữ” (the theme) of a Vietnamese two-part sentence, occupying the first position in the sentence, expresses the related object of the rhyme and possesses features ([such as] activities, states, attributes, properties, categories, etc.) that are expressed by the predicate. (ibid: 532)

Also according to Thàn, word classes usually used as themes in Vietnamese two-part sentences are substantives and pronouns (especially pronouns). He further posits that it is common knowledge that nouns are usually used as theme; “however, such temporal and locational adverbs as ‘tomorrow’, ‘above’, ‘below’, ‘inside’, ‘outside’, and so on… which are used as theme have never been mentioned before”; and he provides this example (in spoken form) to support his point. (my translation)

Example 3.11a

| Viet       | Trên treo một tâm ảnh … |
| Lit        | Above hang one [n.classifier] photo … |

Without a defined context, it will be hard to pinpoint the exact meaning of the above sentence. Therefore, according to Thàn, if the above sentence is converted into the written form, there are two possibilities:

1. If someone is describing an object he or she is facing, and above the object there is a photo, then “trên” (‘above’) is an adverbal of location, which must be followed by a comma and the Vietnamese possessive verb “có” (‘have’) should be used:

Example 3.11b

| Viet       | Trên, có treo một tâm ảnh |
| Lit        | Above, have hang one [n.classifier] photo |
| Eng        | Above, there is/was hung a photo … |

Or [On the wall] there was a photo…

2. The writer may choose to construct the sentence in the active form, in this case, the Vietnamese impersonal pronoun ‘người ta’ is added before the verb “treo” (‘hang’):
Example 3.11c

Viet: Trên, người ta treo một tấm ảnh
Lit: Above, people hang one [n. classifier] photo
Eng: Above, someone has hung a photo.

In both cases, however, ‘trên’, which is an adverbial of location, is the theme of the sentence. Thán uses the rest of the chapter (1997: 531-595) to discuss theme of simple, complex, and compound sentences in Vietnamese, however, due to the scope and purpose of the research his work will not be discussed further.

To broaden the scope of the research, it would be beneficial to briefly review studies by some Vietnamese scholars who have implemented the SFL theoretical framework and techniques in their research on Vietnamese grammar.

It should be admitted, however, that relevant published works on the subject are rare and difficult to access, given Vietnamese grammar has been widely examined from the perspective of other more widely known linguistic traditions such as transformational grammar, structural grammar, and tagmamic theory. The only works from the SFL perspective available for review are those conducted by peers from the same institution.

3.1.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR FROM A SFL PERSPECTIVE

The first study will be discussed in this section is an unpublished doctoral thesis by Hoàng Văn Vân (1997), entitled “An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause: A Functional Description” which was later translated into Vietnamese and the 2nd edition was published in Vietnam in 2005. In his research Vân mainly looks at the Transitivity system of Vietnamese grammar as described in the title of his thesis. However, in the chapter dedicated to the review of works on Vietnamese grammar (Chapter II), he devotes almost half a chapter discussing the theme and rheme structure of the Vietnamese clause, largely based on the discussion found in Hao’s work published in 1991 (see 3.2.4).

According to Văn, Hao has explicitly claimed that ‘theme-rheme is the basic structure of Vietnamese” and has provided the following evidence to support this claim:

1. the use of examples of French and Russian sentence structures to prove that because of the placement of theme in “the syntactic structure of the sentence of inflectional languages is similar to that of isolating languages such as Chinese and Vietnamese”;

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2. the study by Li & Thompson (1976) who claim that languages in the world can be classified into four categories; namely: (i) languages that are subject-prominent; (ii) languages that are topic-prominent; (iii) languages that are both subject-prominent and topic-prominent; and (iv) languages that are neither subject-prominent nor topic-prominent. According to Vân, Hảo has claimed that Vietnamese and Chinese belong to the second category; i.e. topic-prominent;

3. statistical evidence provided by Hảo to back up his claim that “only about 15% of the Vietnamese sentences are of subject-predicate type while about 85% of them are of the theme-rheme type”

Văn also refers to the method of theme-rheme word test proposed by Hảo to identify the boundary between theme and rheme in a sentence in which the latter claims that “[it] is or may be marked by the presence of THÌ or LÀ.” (Hảo, 1991: 125; original emphasis)

However, Văn says because of this method, Hảo has become a subject for criticisms by other scholars who point out that most of the examples provided by Hảo for testing are ‘context-free’ and that “Hảo’s approach to theme–rheme distinction is inconsistent” (Văn, 2005: 76)

Personally, Văn does not provide any view as to whether he agrees with Hảo’s claim of Vietnamese being a topic-prominent language. Moreover, he also does not provide the source for his reference to Hảo’s third claim, namely the statistical evidence to support the above claim.

In his contributing chapter to Language Typology: A Functional Perspective (2000), Thái Minh Đức uses the SFL theory to describe Vietnamese grammar in terms of metafunctions. As far as Theme is concerned, Đức claims that it is “the textual organisation and resources for presenting the clause as a message in Vietnamese.” (2000: 399)

With reference to the function of Theme in Vietnamese, Đức (ibid: 399-400) maintains “The Theme in Vietnamese sets up the local environment of the clause, relating it to the development of the text; it provides the addressee with a “point of departure” for interpreting the message… In Vietnamese, Theme is realised by initial position and Rheme is realised by non-initial position.”

Referring to the earlier research for his doctoral thesis (1998), Đức reiterates that the Theme in Vietnamese “extends up to and includes the first ideational element” (ibid: 401) and he divides Theme into a network of single and multiple Theme which includes ideational, interpersonal and textual Themes.

Ideationally, in unmarked cases, the topical Theme is conflated with the Subject of the clause. An unmarked topical Theme may be a nominal group, or a nominal group with nominal Head and clause as Modifier (ibid: 402). The following example is provided by Đức:
Example 3.12

Viet: Người mà tôi yêu thương nhất trong đời là mẹ tôi.

Lit: Person that I love most in life be mother I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eng: “The person who I love most in my life is my mother.”

He also claims that a marked topical Theme may be a prepositional phrase, or a verbal group. According to Đúc, textual Themes can be Continuatives, and/or Structural and/or Conjunctives. As he explains:

While Continuatives signal a new move or indicate the continuity of what the speaker said in the preceding discourse, Structurals are elements that serve to link the clauses together in a clause complex. They set up not only the semantic but also the grammatical relationship between the present clause and the preceding one. Structurals include conjunctions. These tend to occur in thematic position and are treated as textual Themes. (ibid: 405)

Đúc (ibid: 401), however, seems to be cautious about what comes first in the clause, saying that it is not the only criterion for Theme “Although it was stated above that the theme in a Vietnamese clause is realised in initial position, saying that “theme is what comes first in the clause” is not a sufficient recognition criterion for Theme. There is no overt marker in Vietnamese, but a minimal Theme typically contains an experiential element. This may be a process, participant or circumstance…”

By claiming that “there is no overt marker in Vietnamese” in relation to Theme, Đúc inadvertently contradicts other scholars who believe that the use of such particles as ‘thì’ or ‘là’ is an overt signalling of Theme in Vietnamese. As Hào points out:

To mark the division between the two parts of a sentence into Theme and Rheme, in cases where structures and characteristics of Theme and/or Rheme do not clearly show this division, or to highlight the division and emphasise the “markedness” either on Theme or Rheme for pragmatic purposes, Vietnamese uses either the particle “thì” or “là”…

“Thì” is a specific word whose only function is to define the boundary between Theme-Rheme. It can be seen as an actant used to mark Theme (both Theme and Thematic Frame)... Although “là” can play different functions ... its most essential and widely used function is to show the boundary between Theme-Rheme. However, while “thì” is used to mark Theme, “là” is used to emphasise “Rheme” (1991: 124-125)

Clark (1992) also discusses the importance of ‘thì’ in a Vietnamese sentence, but while Hào sees ‘thì’ as a theme marker, Clark considers it as a conjunction having a discourse function rather than syntactic function (1992: 93). As far as the thematic effect is concerned, she also confirms the impact of ‘thì’ on the subject of a sentence “The subjects set off by the conjunction [“thì”] are clearly topicalised in a discourse context… Additional topicality can
be given to a noun phrase by preposing it to its sentence, setting it off by thi, and then allowing the same NP or anaphoric reference to it repeated in its proper place within the sentence…” (ibid: 96)

The following examples (derived from Clark 1992) will illustrate her point:

**Example 3.13**

Viet: Tôi thi tôi đồng ý
Lit: I then I agree
Eng: As for me, I agree.

**Example 3.14**

Viet: Thiằng bé này thì tôi biết nó làm.
Lit: boy little this then I know he very.
Eng: This little boy, I know him well.

Referring to the studies on Vietnamese language by such authors as Nguyễn Đình Hòa (1974), Huffman & Tran (1980) and particularly Dyvik (1984), Clark (ibid: 106) contends that: “Considering that thi marks both subordinate and non-subordinate clauses as well as NP’s, and considering the fact of similar judgment of meaning, the argument for identity of [topic] marking is very sound for Vietnamese thi.”

According to Clark (1992: 97), in addition to its topicalisation function, ‘thì’ (in italics) is also used for different purposes, for example, to mark a contrast as illustrated in the example below:

**Example 3.15**

Viet: Sáng nay tôi bận nhưng trưa thì gặp anh được.
Lit: morning today I busy but noon then meet you able
Eng: I’m busy this morning but at lunchtime I can meet you

However, other functions of ‘thì’ are not within the scope of this paper and will not be discussed here.

On the role of ‘thì’ and ‘la’ in Vietnamese clauses, Bình (1971) further confirms Hao’s view on the use of ‘thì’ or ‘la’ after the subject of a sentence to mark the emphasis (see 3.2.3 above); whereas Thompson (1965: 257) identifies many roles ‘thì’ plays in various types of Vietnamese sentences, in particular its role as an emphasis on what is seen as a ‘topic focal complement’ “That Vietnamese grammar groups focal complements into one large class (with little to distinguish subject-like entities from temporal, locational and manner
complements) is emphasised by the fact that the focal head particle “thì” appears as often setting off a topic focal complement as it does with other types.” Moreover, Chinh & Lê (1963) also refer to another term ‘chính’ which is normally used “to complement a substantive” (this substantive can be a noun or a pronoun). They classify ‘chính’ as ‘phó tử’ or a ‘subordinate word’ (SW) which may be placed at the beginning of a clause before the subject or after it to draw the attention to the subject/participant. The following examples are borrowed from Chinh & Lê (1963: 358)

**Example 3.16**

Viet: Chính Giáp nói với tôi chuyện ấy.
Lit: [SW] Giáp speak with I story that.
Eng: It was Giap who told (spoke to) me that story.

‘Chính’ when placed after the subject/participant is normally accompanied by the copula ‘là’ (be):

**Example 3.17**

Viet: Giáp chính là người nói với tôi chuyện ấy.
Lit: Giáp [SW] be person speak with I story that.
Eng: Giap was the person who told me that story.

or: Giap himself told me that story.

In **Example 3.16**, ‘chính’ has a similar function as a cleft-sentence (anticipatory-it) or predicated Theme in English; however in **Example 3.17** ‘chính’ plays an emphatic function having the effect of drawing the attention to the subject/participant and can be seen as having a similar function of a reflective pronoun in English.

‘Chính’ can be replaced by ‘tự’ both in the initial position in the clause as well as after the subject. In this case, however the copula verb ‘là’ (be) is not needed, as exemplified below (also borrowed from Chinh & Lê, 1963: ibid):

**Example 3.18a**

Viet: Tự Giáp làm bài toán này.
Lit: [SW] Giáp do [Classifier] mathematics this.
Eng: It was Giap who solved this mathematic problem.

**Example 3.18b**
In the above examples, except for Example 3.16 where the initial element ‘chính’ has the same function as ‘it is/was in English’, ‘chính’ and ‘tử’ are considered as a type of reflexive (reflective pronoun) which provides constrastive or emphatic effect to Subject.

Most importantly, in Vietnamese there are ‘overt markers’ signalling Theme which are termed ‘Focal Particles’ by Thompson (1965). According to him ‘Focal Particles’ are that which “identify clauses serving as focal complements” (ibid: 263). The following examples are provided by the author:

Example 3.19
- **Vì** = because

Eng:  Because the boat would dock in Japan and Hong Kong, the two fellows also requested visas from the Japanese and British embassies as well.

- **Dù (or dâu, dâu)** = although; whether; whatever; however; even …

Viet:  Dù ông helt sức muốn đi, người ta không cho phép.
Eng:  Although you want very much to go, they won’t give [you] permission.

In addition, Thompson also mentions the existence of ‘focal complements’ in Vietnamese which are used as “points of reference in terms of the specific person, thing, or concept, the exact place, the point in time, the precise quality, the distinctive manner” (ibid: 240)

Example 3.20

Viet:  Cái này tôi ăn được...
Lit:  [class.]* [thing] this I eat all right...
Eng:  This I can eat
Example 3.21

Viet: Cái cột đồng ấy ngày dã mặt mà hồ Tây vẫn còn
Lit: [class.]* pillar bronze that now [PM] lost but lake West still exist
Eng: That bronze pillar today is lost, but West Lake still exists.

*[class.]* = classifier

The author particularly emphasises the clausal element which he terms ‘emphatic topic complex’, that is “a word or phrase which identifies the principal topic of the sentence”. He also adds “Such emphatic topics as outermost complements account for apparent irregularities in the normal [word] order...” (ibid: 245 – emphasis added); for example:

Example 3.22

Viet: Cái này tiếng Việt gọi là gì?
Lit: [class.]* this language Vietnam call be what?
Eng: What’s this called in Vietnamese?

Example 3.23

Viet: Đi Sàigòn, tôi đi mỗi tuần ba lần.
Lit: Go Saigon, I go every week three time
Eng: As for Saigon, I go three times a week.

Thematically, moving a complement to the initial position in the clause makes these focal elements and especially emphatic topic complexes become ‘marked Themes’. In terms of structure, this is analogous its English counterpart. The notions of marked and unmarked Themes in Vietnamese will be discussed further in Section 3.3.2, in particular Sub-Section 3.3.2.1.

Going back to viewing Vietnamese grammar from a SFL perspective, as far as ideational or topical Theme is concerned, Đức (2004: 401) posits: “The ideational or topical Theme consists of elements/or an element that represent(s) a process, a participant in the process or a circumstance. In other words, the ideational phase of Theme conflates with a function from the transitivity structure of the clause. In unmarked cases, the topical Theme is conflated with the Subject of the clause. A topical Theme which does not conflate with the Subject is considered to be marked.”

According to Đức marked Theme may be a prepositional phrase, or a verbal group, and to illustrate marked Theme in Vietnamese, he (ibid: 402) offers the following examples:
Example 3.24a

- **Prepositional phrase**

  Trên trời có dậm mây xanh
  On sky have cloud blue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme: marked</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

“In the sky there is a blue cloud” (sic)

Example 3.24b

- **Verbal group**

  Cậm bàn đồ trong tay chúng ta sẽ không bị lạc
  Hold map in hand we will NEG PASS lose (sic)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme: marked</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

“It with the map in our hand, we won’t get lost”

It seems that Đức’s treatment of Vietnamese marked Themes is very much similar to marked Themes in English as indicated in **Figure 3.1** which is adapted from Halliday:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unmarked</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Nominal group: pronoun as Head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Nominal group: common or proper noun as Head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Nominalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marked</td>
<td>Adjunct</td>
<td>Adverbial group: prepositional phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complement</td>
<td>Nominal group: Nominalisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3.1** - (adopted from Halliday 1985: 46)

If Đức’s notion of markedness in the thematic classification of Vietnamese clauses were accepted, one would expect that such Vietnamese Themes as interpersonal and textual might have similar features to their English counterparts. However, as far as the position of an adverbial group in Vietnamese clauses is concerned Binh (1971: 89) points out that they may occur in the initial position in the clause (in the F position) or at the end of the clause (in the E...
position). She also claims that: “The usual order for such adverbials in the F position is time-place, while their usual order in the E position is place-time. [However] adverbials of time and place occur in the F position more frequently than they do in the E position.” (emphasis added)

Chính & Lê (1963:554) also observe that “There are cases where circumstantial, temporal and spatial adverbs must be placed at the beginning of a sentence, but not after another adverb or a substantive… Conversely, they may not be placed at the end of the sentence”. (emphasis added)

They provide the following example to explain their point:

Example 3.25a

Viet: Hôm qua trời nóng quá.
Lit: Day past heaven hot exceeding
Eng: “Yesterday, it was so hot.”

While in English, it is common to make such a statement as ‘It was very hot yesterday’, Chình & Lê (ibid) point out that it’s not appropriate to use the same structure in Vietnamese:

Example 3.25b

Viet: Trời nóng quá hôm qua*.
Lit: Heaven hot exceeding day past*.
Eng: “It was so hot yesterday.”

Moreover, as previously discussed, Độc has used the prepositional phrase ‘Trên trời’ (‘In the sky’) as an example of marked Theme in Vietnamese. However, as Bình (1971: 83) explains, the identification and function of a preposition in Vietnamese is completely different to that in English: “A preposition is distinguished by its position before a word or group of words which functions as its object. It is also distinguished by the fact that the preposition and its object together function as a single unit on the next higher level of the sentence.”

Seen from this perspective, we can infer that, unlike an English preposition which can be flexibly placed in various positions in a clause, a Vietnamese preposition is rather fixed. Let’s look at the example provided by Độc (2004: 402):

Example 3.26

Viet: Trên trời có đám mây xanh
Lit: On sky have (Classifier) cloud blue
Eng: In the sky there is a blue cloud (sic).
As far as the position of an English prepositional phrase or adverbial group is concerned, there may be at least three possibilities:

a. either it can be placed between the verb and its object. In this case, it creates some kind of ‘suspending effect’:

   *There is, in the sky, a blue cloud.*

b. or, it can be brought to the end of the clause:

   *There is a blue cloud in the sky.*

c. or to the initial position in the clause, and in this case according to the SFL perspective, it gives a ‘marked’ Theme:

   *In the sky there is a blue cloud.*

According to Butt et al (2000: 139) who posit that what is defined as ‘markedness’ is something unexpected “When linguists say that some state of affairs is UNMARKED, they mean it is the most expected, common and unremarkable case. Conversely, when they say that something is MARKED, they mean that it is unusual and should be noticed because of the way it stands out.” (original emphasis)

This echoes what is stated by Halliday when discussing Theme “A Theme that is something other than Subject, in a declarative clause, we shall refer to as a MARKED THEME. The most usual form of marked Theme is an adverbial group… functioning as ADJUNCT in the clause. Least likely to be thematic is a COMPLEMENT, which is a nominal group that is not functioning as Subject – something that could have been a Subject but is not.” (1985: 45; 2004: 73; original emphases)

So ‘markedness’ is defined as something ‘unusual’ and in English the most usual form of marked Theme is an adverbial group functioning as an Adjunct, and particularly a nominal group functioning as a Complement. But as pointed out by Chinh & Lê (1963), it is conventional that “circumstantial, temporal and spatial adverbs must be placed at the beginning of a sentence” in Vietnamese.

Therefore, from the above and taking Binh’s view on Vietnamese prepositional phrases into account, ‘Trên trời có dầm mây xanh’ does not establish a ‘marked’ Theme. Moreover, with significant structural and grammatical differences between English and Vietnamese, what is considered as marked in English may not be the case in Vietnamese, and vice versa. The issue of marked Themes in Vietnamese will be discussed further in Sub-Section 3.3.2.1.
3.2 SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS: THEME-RHEME IN ENGLISH

3.2.1 THEME-RHEME

In contrast to the formalist approach which sees a sentence as a basic unit for grammatical analysis, SFL deals with texts as a whole and not as single sentences. However, SFL also views sentences or clauses as the most important units in the semantic analysis of a whole text. Seen from this perspective, a clause is a message. And as will be discussed later, from an SFL perspective a message in English comprises theme and rheme with theme being the element placed in the initial position of the clause and rheme is the remaining elements of that clause. Also, it can be said that the theme-rheme or topic-comment structure plays a significant role in the Vietnamese language at the sentence level, not only in spoken but also in written Vietnamese (Lê & Chinh, 1963; Thompson, 1965; Binh, 1971; and Hào, 1991).

Therefore the notions of theme and rheme and topic and comment will be briefly discussed and will introduce some important concepts relevant to a full discussion of register and discourse analysis later in the chapter. This study will also explore to what extent the notion of theme-rheme and topic-comment is relevant to the translation practice of the language pair in question.

In English “the textual meaning is expressed largely through the ordering of constituents in clauses” (Eggins, 1994: 274). Syntactically, if we consider a simple sentence or a clause - which normally consists of at least a subject, a verb, and perhaps an object or complement - as having the characteristic of a message, then each linguistic element of the clause may be placed in a particular position to produce a certain communicative effect. In a communicative event, it is this communicative effect that motivates a user to select which element should be given a particular position in the clause.

It is the initial position in the clause that is considered as ‘the point of departure of the message’ in English (Firbas, 1967, 1974; Halliday, 1985, 1994, 2004). This first element is referred to as Theme, and in the view of Halliday, Theme serves as ‘the starting point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about’ (1985: 39). However, he also warns that ‘The first position in the clause is not what defines the Theme; it is whereby the function of Theme is realised’ (ibid; original emphasis).

Following Halliday, Fries (1994: 229) also carefully differentiates between the identification and definition of theme in the English clause, saying “The statement that Theme occurs in first position in English is a realisational statement of English, not a definition of the notion of Theme.” (italics added)
From a functional sentence perspective, (FSP) as proposed by Mathesius (1939) and developed further by several linguists of the Prague School of Linguistics, notably Firbas, the choice of theme reflects a speaker’s or writer’s motivation in conveying a certain message across to his/her audience. As Danes (1974: 109) points out: “the choice of themes of particular utterances can hardly be fortuitous, unmotivated, and without any structural connexion to the text… [T]he choice and distribution of themes in the text reveal a certain patterning…”

Moreover, the choice of what should go first in a clause is also very much dependent on a speaker’s or writer’s intention either for the purpose of emphasis or of making the message clearer, as observed by Baker (1992: 120) “Of the numerous formulations available for expressing a given message, a speaker or writer normally opts for one that makes the flow of information clearer in a given context.”

Furthermore, to maintain the cohesion and thus the coherence of a text, it is essential to pay close attention to its thematic organisation. Butt et al (2000: 151) consider theme ‘as an anchor that secures the clause to what has gone before so it is not set adrift aimlessly in the text.’ This view also echoes that expressed by Whittaker (1995: 105) in her study of the possible implications of Theme on reading and comprehension among non-native readers of academic texts “[T]here is a considerable agreement among linguists that information in first position has two important functions – it links up with the previous text and guides readers’ comprehension of subsequent segments.”

Seen from this perspective, the thematic pattern of a text also contributes to the text cohesion and coherence and maintains the attention of the reader on what gradually unfolds in the text. Moreover, Brown & Yule (1983: 143) observe that speakers and writers employ thematic organisation “to provide a structural framework for their discourse, which relates back to their main intention, and to provide perspectives on what follows”.

It may also bear some stylistic values because it normally reflects the writer’s intention as well as his/her point of view (Brown & Yule, 1983; Martin 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003).

It is universally agreed that the most common choice for the Theme of a clause in many languages, including English, is the Subject (Martin & Rose, 2003: 178). And if a clause is considered as a message, then Theme is the starting point for the communication of information which a speaker or writer wants to get across to an intended listener or reader.

And Rheme is the explanation or statement about Theme. The placing of a linguistic element (a word or a group of words) in the initial position of a clause to make it Theme is called
'thematisation'; i.e. the giving of a thematically significant emphasis, as illustrated in 1.1 below:

**Example 3.27a**

1.1 *Each year in Australia* thousands of children are killed or injured travelling in cars.

As far as thematisation is concerned, the wording of the above clause can be re-arranged to give the message different focuses by placing certain elements in the first position (in italics); thus:

**Example 3.27b**

1.1a *Thousands of children* are killed or injured each year while travelling in cars in Australia.
1.1b *Travelling in cars* [not buses] kills or injures thousands of children each year in Australia.
1.1c *It is in Australia* where thousands of children are killed or injured while travelling in cars each year.
1.1d *It is (the act of) travelling in cars* [not buses or another type of vehicle] that kills or injures thousands of children each year in Australia.

In the above examples, it seems that all the clauses have the same propositional content; i.e. it’s about children travelling in cars in Australia and the risk of having accidents. However in 1.1.a the emphasis is on the number of young victims who suffer death and injury from car travelling; whereas in 1.1.b and 1.1.d, a cause of death or injury to children in Australia is travelling in cars. While in 1.1.c, Australia is where the above incident happens. This has shown that different choices of Theme provide different types of meaning focus and thus, communicatively, have different effects on the orientation of listeners or readers.

This change in thematic structure may seem to affect the meaning only at the syntactical level. However, as will be discussed later when the whole text is examined, a shift in thematic patterning also affects the text at discourse and genre levels. An examination of the thematic patterning of a text using the concept of thematic progression can identify text cohesion that is a crucial factor contributing to text coherence. This will be looked at in *Section 3.2.2*. 

*Linguistic Theory and Translation Practice*
3.2.2 THEMATIC PROGRESSION

The Theme-Rheme structure may only account for the internal arrangement among linguistic elements within a sentence or between individual sentences.

In order to find out the significance of these elements within a text, we may need to look at the way Theme-Rheme is structured not only within individual sentences, but also at the level beyond the sentence. For this purpose, Danes (1974:114) proposes the notion of thematic progression which is referred to as “the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units (such as the paragraph, chapter, etc.), to the whole text, and to the situation. Thematic progression might be viewed as the skeleton of the plot.”

Hatim and Mason (1990: 217-218) also see the close relationship between the notion of thematic progression and how it helps in analysing the way discourse works within a text: “We shall use Danes’s term thematic progression to refer to the way subsequent discourse re-uses previous themes or rhemes according to an overall text plan. Thematic progression relates the way themes and rhemes concatenate within a text to the hierarchy organisation of the text and ultimately to rhetorical purpose.” (original emphasis)

Danes (1974) identifies three major types of thematic progression; namely:

1. **Simple linear theme:** where the rheme of the previous sentence becomes the theme of the next (Figure 3.2)

![Figure 3.2](image)

**Example 3.28**  
DIABETES (NSW Health Department, 1989: 1 – Appendix D)

a. Diabetes is a condition that can occur if you have too much sugar (glucose) in your blood.

b. The amount of sugar in your blood is controlled by the pancreas, a body organ which produces a substance called insulin.
c. If the pancreas is not working properly and if it does not produce the correct amount of insulin for your body, you may become a diabetic.

The Rheme of Clause (a) ‘sugar in your blood’ becomes the Theme (in italics) of Clause (b); in turn, the Rheme of this clause, i.e. ‘pancreas’ now becomes the Subject as well as the topical Theme of Clause (c).

(2) **Constant (continuous) theme:** where the Theme of the previous clause becomes the Theme of the following ones.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
T_1 
\rightarrow R_1 \\
\downarrow \\
T_1 
\rightarrow R_2 \\
\downarrow \\
T_1 
\rightarrow R_3; \text{ etc.}
\end{array}
\]

**Figure 3.3**

**Example 3.29**  
TETANUS (Immunisation – NSW Health Department, 1993: 10 – Appendix E)

a. **Tetanus** is an acute, often fatal, disease caused by the toxin produced by bacterium which is present just about everywhere, but mostly in soil, dust, manure, and in the digestive tracts of humans, as well as in many animals.

b. **Tetanus** is not transmitted from one person to another.

Here, **tetanus**, being the Theme of Clause (a), appears again as Theme of Clause (b).
(3) **Derived theme:** where Themes of sequential clauses are derived from a hypertheme.

![Diagram showing thematic progression]

**Example 3.30** POLIOMYELITIS (Immunisation - NSW Health Department, 1993: 12 – Appendix F)

a. **Polio** is an acute illness resulting from the invasion of the gastrointestinal tract by the polio virus.
b. The **incubation period** is commonly seven to 14 days for paralytic cases.
c. Many **people** who are infected by the polio virus have no symptoms but may still spread the infection to others.
d. The **milder forms of polio** usually begin abruptly and last, at most, a few days.
e. When **symptoms** are present, they include fever, sore throat, nausea, headache and gastrointestinal disturbance.
f. Sometimes, the **patient** will feel pain and stiffness in the neck, back and legs.

In **Example 3.30**, the hypertheme T (**polio**) is linked with T1 (**incubation period**) in the 2\(^{nd}\) clause, with T2 (**people** who are infected by the virus [polio patients]) in the 3\(^{rd}\) clause and so on. However, all of these themes are derived from the main theme ‘poliomyelitis’. However, according to Hatim and Mason (1990: 218): “there is no need for the link between themes and rhemes to be explicit. The association is often perceived on cognitive grounds as part of text comprehension.”

Apart from the above major types of thematic progression, there have been identified other rhematic patterns that can exist within a text. Bloor & Bloor (1995: 91) mention the Split Rheme pattern that occurs when the Rheme of a clause has more than one component with each, in turn, becoming Theme of a subsequent clause. Crompton (2004: 240) also argues that ‘there are similar kinds of cohesive patterning in Rheme’ as they are in Theme. Adapting the Danesian thematic progression typology in the classification of rhematic progression patterns, he proposes:
1) **Constant (continuous) Rheme:** where the Rheme of the previous clause appears in the Rheme of the following clauses.

![Figure 3.5](image)

2) **Linear (Mirror) Rheme:** where the Theme of the first clause is also the Rheme of the following clause; and the Theme of the second clause becomes the Rheme of the third clause and so on.

![Figure 3.6](image)

3) **Derived Rheme:** where Rhemes of sequential clauses are derived from a hyper-rheme; etc.
However, due to the scope of this study, the notion of rhematic progression will not be discussed in detail, and will only be mentioned where a relevant issue concerning the translation practice arises.

3.2.3 **COHESION**

Cohesion a very important notion in translation practice because, as Halliday and Hasan observe (1976: 8) “Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it.” (italics added)

However, as pointed out in Chapter II, due to its semantic relations as well as its textual consequences, cohesion was discussed along with other issues which have textual implications. Section 2.1.3 of Chapter II examined cohesion and its implications in translation practice, in particular, the cross-linguistic and structural issues between the language pair English and Vietnamese. Therefore in the current chapter other translationally relevant concepts such as information structure will be discussed.

3.2.4 **INFORMATION STRUCTURE**

3.2.4.1 **Given - New**

Thematic structure and the notion of cohesion in text also lead to another relevant concept; i.e. information structure which is organised into Given and New information. Butt et al (2000: 146) observe that when communicating, speakers or writers divide their texts into units of information which contain ‘new and exciting bits of information’. For Fries (1994: 230), ‘Information structure includes the division of what is said into the units of information

Figure 3.7
and the signalling of which portions of those information units are important’. It is which
“information units are important” in a particular clause and how these units correlate to others
in the adjacent clauses of a text is an interest to the translator. Fries elaborates further by
claiming that in the spoken language ‘the location of tonic prominence’ indicates the
culmination of the information which is being presented as New information; whereas, in the
written form, apart from using graphic signals (i.e. underlining, capitalisation, different type
face or font size, etc) to indicate what is seen by Fries as ‘newsworthiness’, writers “tend to
place New information towards the end of the clause, thus strengthening the correlation of
New with Rheme” (ibid: 233; italics added).

This view is also shared by Halliday (1985, 2004), and particularly Firbas (1964,
1966, 1974, 1986, 1992), whose theory of communicative dynamism (henceforth CD) has
been explored by not only the Prague School linguists and other functionalists, but also by
translation scholars (see 2.3).

Translation scholars such as Hatim & Mason (1990) and Baker (1992), to name just
two, have commented on the usefulness of thematic and information structure analytical
techniques, as well as on the notion of Givenness and Newness, in their work on the
translation practice.

However, as will be discussed below, there are different views in relation to the two
related concepts which are that of Theme-Rheme and that of Given-New.

3.2.4.2 Hallidayan view on Theme-Rheme and Given-New

According to Halliday (1985), semantically there is a close relationship between
thematic structure and information structure. In fact, there has been some confusion between
the two yet, as Halliday (1985: 278, 2004: 93) points out “although they are related, Given +
New and Theme + Rheme are not the same thing”. For, while thematic organisation is
speaker/writer-oriented because it is based on which piece of information s/he wants to use as
the point of departure and proceeds from that point, information structure is hearer/reader-
oriented. It is based on what is already known to the hearer/reader, and what s/he needs to
know. What is already known to the hearer/reader is called Given and what is not yet known
is New. As Baker (1992: 145) explains “The organisation of the message into information
units of given and new reflects the speaker’s sensitivity to the hearer’s state of knowledge in
the process of communication.”
She also points out that similar to thematic structure, information structure is a “feature of context rather than of the language system” (ibid); indicating that both thematic structure and information structure are context-dependent.

Her view is confirmed by Halliday (2004: 89) who firmly believes that “Information… is the tension between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable”. This has several implications in translation practice whose primary aim is to reproduce the intended message contained in the SL text of one language culture into the TL text of another language culture. It requires a translator’s knowledge and sensitivity to work out and decide what is already known to the TL audience and what is not yet known in order to do justice to the TL text.

Referring to the work of Halliday & Hasan (1976) on cohesion in English that describes information structure as being a feature of spoken rather than written English, Baker (ibid: 148) argues that many devices used to signal information status are “common to both spoken and written language … for example definiteness is generally associated with given information and indefiniteness with new information.”

To support her argument, Baker uses the examples provided by Firbas (1974):

a. The girl walked into the room
b. A girl walked into the room

In these examples, the definite article ‘the’ in (a) suggests that the identity of the girl has already been established (known); while the indefinite article ‘a’ in (b) signals the introduction of ‘a new entity into the discourse’. Therefore, in (a) the Subject the ‘girl’ (also Theme) is ‘old’ and thus ‘Given’; whereas in (b), the Subject (and Theme) ‘girl’ is a newly introduced participant, thus ‘New’.

Fries also observes that many linguists have proposed the use of “the indefinite article as introducing a referent which is not recoverable from the context, while definite articles are said to introduce referents which are recoverable from the context.” And for Halliday, what is recoverable is Given information and what is not is New. However, Fries raises his concern that the use of recoverability and irrecoverability to refer to indefiniteness and definiteness, respectively, is ambiguous, because these concepts have already been used to indicate Givenness and Newness. Instead, he proposes ‘newsworthiness’ for ‘New information’ and borrows from Martin (1992) the notion of ‘presenting reference’ for ‘indefiniteness’ and ‘presuming reference’ for ‘definiteness’ (Fries, 1994: 231)
As far as translation practice is concerned, Baker (1992: 149) warns: “Failure to appreciate the function of specific syntactic structures in signalling given and new information can result in unnecessary shifts in translation.”

According to Halliday, in an unmarked Theme clause (a declarative clause where the Subject is a nominal group), Theme often “falls within the Given, while the New falls within the Rheme” (2004: 93). And he contends that ‘(i) the New is marked by prominence; (ii) the Given typically precedes the New’, “the typical sequence of informational elements is thus Given followed by New”. (ibid: 89).

However, Halliday also emphasises that the above ‘rule’ only applies in a typical clause where “the unmarked position for the New is at the end of the information unit. But it is possible to have Given material following the New…” For him, what of greater significance is what is recoverable and what is not recoverable to the listener/reader, because this will decide the Givenness and Newness of the information. He (ibid: 91) further expounds what is defined as recoverable and what is non-recoverable:

… What is treated as recoverable may be so because it has been mentioned before; but that is not the only possibility. It may be something that is in the situation, such as I and you; or in the air, so to speak; or something that is not around at all but that the speaker wants to present as Given for rhetorical purposes. The meaning is: this is not news. Similarly, what is treated as non-recoverable may be something that has not been mentioned; but it may be something unexpected, whether previously mentioned or not. The meaning is: attend to this; this is news.

Halliday’s view of Theme-Rheme and Given-New, however, is significantly different from the view expressed by linguists of the Prague School, and their theory of Functional Sentence Perspective.

3.2.4.3 Prague School of Linguistics: Functional Sentence Perspective and Communicative Dynamism

Thematisation or making an element of the clause thematic is also closely related to the notion of Functional Sentence Perspective (henceforth FSP) proposed by the Prague School linguists, most significantly, Vilém Mathesius (1882-1945) and other scholars such as Frantisek Danes, and particularly Jan Firbas, who has introduced the concept of communicative dynamism or CD (1964).

As observed by Halliday (1974): ‘FSP is concerned with the organisation of the sentence as a message…’ and it attempts to explore ‘how the grammatical and semantic structures function in the very act of communication’ (Danes, cited by Halliday, 1974: 44). He also claims (ibid: 48): “The study of FSP was at first directed just to the structure of
sentence and clause. Subsequently, it has been extended to other units having a “communicative” element in their structure: to various classes of the phrase … as well as to units which…may have no equivalent in the grammatical hierarchy…”

The FSP theory is very closely related to the notion of ‘information structure’ and ‘thematic structure’ proposed by Halliday (1967, 1985, 1994 and 2004). However, while Halliday has distinctively differentiated the concept of Theme-Rheme and the concept of Given-New and maintains that even though ‘they are related … they are not the same thing’ (1985: 278), the Prague School scholars have a different view, as depicted by Baker (1992: 160): “Since information focus normally falls on the rheme or part of it, and since unmarked information structure involves placing the given element before the new one and unmarked thematic structure involves placing theme before rheme, it is not surprising that theme often coincides with given, and rheme often coincides with new. This probably why, for most Prague linguists, part of the definition of theme is that it is given and part of the definition of rheme is that it is new.”

Moreover, while Halliday’s ‘information structure’ approach focuses more on ‘spoken rather than written English… [because] it appears to rely heavily on phonological evidence’ (Baker, ibid: 147), FSP is more applicable to translation because “[it seems] helpful in explaining the interactional organisation of languages other than English, particularly languages with free or relatively free word order.” (ibid)

We will look more closely at Baker’s comments when implementing both the SFL and FSP approaches to Theme-Rheme and Given-New to text analysis and text reconstruction during the translation process.

As far as the thematic structure is concerned, while Hallidayan thematic structure consists of Theme and Rheme, the Prague School linguists propose the Theme-Transition-Rheme sequence with “transition [containing] elements that actually belong to the rheme, but occur at its periphery and in this way intermediate between theme and rheme” (Mathesius, quoted by Firbas, 1974: 13).

Referring to the 1878 work of Henry Weil, a French classic scholar, on the order of words in ancient and modern languages, Firbas (1974: 12), one of the most influential figures of the Prague School of Linguistics, comes up with the following observation: “A sentence contains a point of departure (an initial notion) and a goal of discourse. The point of departure is equally presented to the speaker and to the hearer; it is their rally point, the ground on which they meet. The goal of discourse presents the very information that is to be imparted to the hearer. Weil claims that the movement from the initial notion to the goal of discourse reveals the movement of the mind itself. Languages may use different syntactical
constructions, but the order of ideas remains basically the same. Weil finds that the modern languages tend to make the grammatical subject express the point of departure. The reverse order, which puts the goal of discourse first and the initial notion last, also occurs…”

From the above observation, there are several points that are relevant to our discussion:

- **a)** the point of departure of a sentence (initial notion) can be seen as Theme;
- **b)** the goal of discourse is the information the speaker wishes to convey to the hearer, and what Theme orients to, and can be seen as Rheme;
- **c)** if Theme is also known to the hearer, then by definition it is Given information; and thus Rheme (goal of discourse) coincides with New;
- **d)** there may be structural differences among languages yet the order of ideas are basically the same. This leads to an assumption that correspondence in the ideational function or propositional meaning between languages is achievable even though there are structural differences among languages;
- **e)** the subject-predicate structure may be universal among languages;
- **f)** Rheme may precede Theme, or New information may be followed by Given information.

Another influential Prague School linguist, Frantisek Danes, also proposes the notion of ‘three-level approach to syntax’. Danes observes that the most common grammatical structure of a sentence in English is SVO or in the traditional grammatical terminology Subject, Predicate, and Object. Functionally, however, Danes distinguishes three levels of a sentence; namely the grammatical level, the semantic level and the third level concerning the organisation of utterance. As he explains (1967: 227): “the organisation of utterance pertains all that is connected with the processual aspect of utterance (in contrast to the abstract and static character of the other two levels), that is to say, the dynamism of the relations between the meanings of individual lexical items in the process of progressive accumulation, as well as the dynamism of all other elements of utterance…”

According to Firbas (1974) the third level of a sentence from the functional perspective is its communicative function and is contextually relevant. Seen from this perspective each sentence or clause has a communicative effect achieved through a progression of information from old to new.

This observation is, to some extent, related to the concept of communicative dynamism (CD) first proposed by Firbas (1966: 270). By communicative dynamism he means “the extent to which any sentence element contributes to the development of the communication, to which it ‘pushes the communication forward’, as it were”.

In his later work Firbas (1986: 42) provides a more detailed description of CD, calling it “a quality displayed by the development of information toward a particular communicative goal. The degree of CD carried by a linguistic element is the relative extent to which this element contributes toward the further development of the communication.”
In addition, he also strongly believes that communication is not static, but rather ‘a
dynamic phenomenon’. As far as the distribution of degrees of CD in written language is
concerned, as Firbas points out this is impacted upon by the interplay of three factors: ‘linear
modification’ of the sentence (or word order), its semantic structure and the context in which
the sentence is created. Also citing the view of Bolinger on linear modification, Firbas (ibid: 43) claims that when there are no interfering factors the “gradation of position [of a syntactic
element] creates gradation of meaning”. And the interfering factors, from his point of view,
are “the context and the semantic structure, which under certain conditions are capable of
working counter to linear modification”.

Discussing the impact of context upon degrees of communicative dynamism, Firbas
contends that if the information is retrievable from the immediate context (i.e. known
information or context-dependent information) then it is communicatively less important. He
sees ‘immediate context’ as (i) the immediately relevant preceding verbal context (ii) and/or
the immediately relevant situational context. As far as the thematic structure and information
structure is concerned, Firbas introduces various notions to indicate what are widely known as
known (given) vs. not yet known (new) information, or theme vs. rheme. For example, he
postulates that some elements in the sentence ‘provide a foundation for the remaining
elements to complete the information as well as to fulfil the communicative purpose’ (ibid:
51). According to Firbas, “information-completing elements” constitute the core of the
information. He also states ‘All elements that are retrievable from the immediately relevant
context – all context-dependent elements – are foundation laying.’ Therefore, what is termed
‘the foundation-laying element’ can be considered as Theme and ‘the core of information’ as
Rheme. As Firbas (ibid: 54) explains: “The foundation-laying elements form the theme. The
core-constituting elements form the non-theme. The non-theme comprises the transition and
the rhyme. The transition consists of elements performing the linking function. The TMEs
[temporal and modal exponent of the finite verbs] are the transitional element par excellence:
They carry the lowest degree of CD within the non-theme and are the transition proper. The
highest degree of CD on the other hand, is carried by the rhyme proper.” (original italics)

The following example will illustrate the contrast in the way the thematic structure is
described from a systemic functional perspective and the linear sequence of Theme-
Transition-Rheme of a clause as proposed by Firbas (taken from Williams 1988: 77).
Example 3.31

When he rang, I was in the bath.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{SFL} \\
\text{Theme} / \quad \text{Rheme} \\
\text{Diatheme} / \quad \text{Transition} / \quad \text{Rheme}
\end{array}
\]

\* f: foundation-laying element
\** TME: temporal and modal exponent of the finite verb
\*** c: core of the message

With reference to the relationship between semantic structure and linear modification of the sentence, Firbas (ibid: 46) propounds that in the case of context-independent sentences “Context and semantic structure are then capable of working counter to linear modification under certain condition and in doing so replace linear modification in signalling degrees of CD. They cannot be regarded as interfering factors; rather, with linear modification, they enter into interplay that determines the distribution of CD over sentence elements.”

Another not less important observation made by Firbas is the distinction between static and dynamic semantics. For him, from the static perspective, the sentence structure is viewed as unrelated to any particular context, and in effect, it does not result in “any flow of communication” (ibid: 47). From the dynamic point of view, however, it seems to be linked with certain contextual factors. Seen from the static angle, such elements as verbs and adjectives express characteristics, with “the former tending to express transient, the latter permanent characteristics”. He also points out that the most relevant characteristic of the verbal class may be described as “existence or appearance on the scene”; for example those clearly depict this action ‘come into view; come on the scene; etc’, and those do so implicitly ‘a wave of the azalea scent drifted to her face; a fly settled on his hair; etc’ (ibid: 48)

From the dynamic point of view, if a verb of appearance/existence occurs in a sentence together with a context-independent subject and an adverbial of place and/or an adverbial of time, it introduces the phenomenon expressed by the subject into the flow of communication. The verb then performs the dynamic function of expressing appearance/existence (App/Ex), and the adverbial elements perform the dynamic function of expressing the setting (Set). The subject, on the other hand, performs the dynamic function of expressing a phenomenon that appears or exists on the scene (Ph). The functions constitute a scale that reflects rising degrees of communicative importance, and hence a gradual rise in CD. The scale constituted by these dynamic functions is the Existential Scale: Set-App/Ex-Ph. This formula reflects an interpretative arrangement, not necessarily corresponding to the linear arrangement.
In answering to the question “which bit of information in the sentence or which element(s) of the sentence carries a higher degree of CD; i.e. a higher degree of communicative importance?” Firbas postulates (1986: 43): “the communicative importance of the sentence elements gradually increases with movement toward the end of the sentence, the final element becoming the most important because it completes the communicative purpose of the sentence. Communicative importance determines the degree of CD: An element with a higher degree of communicative importance contributes more to the further development of the communication than an element with a lower degree of communicative importance.” (italics added)

Therefore, in such a clause as ‘Here comes the bride!’, according to Firbas, the rising degree of communicative importance will move from the demonstrative pronoun ‘here’ to the complement ‘bride’ as illustrated in the following diagram (indicated by the direction of the arrow):

**Example 3.32**

**Existential Scale:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Appearance/Existence Phenomenon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Here</em></td>
<td><em>comes</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>the bride</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FSP:**

- **Rheme** (marked)
- **Transition**
- **Theme**
- **New**
- **Given**

**SFL:**

- **Theme** (marked)
- **Rheme**
- **New**
- **Given**

As indicated in the above diagram, the main difference between FSP and SFL is the position of Theme and Rheme in the clause. From the viewpoint of FSP linguists, Theme always coincides with Given and Rheme with New and ‘rheme can precede theme’ (Firbas, 1992). The element ‘here’ is marked and New, because ‘the’ (the definite article preceding the nominal group ‘bride’) indicates the information is Old or Given. In contrast, SFL scholars believe that by placing the demonstrative pronoun ‘here’ in the initial position of the clause instead of placing the expected Subject ‘bride’ (in a typical declarative clause the Subject which is normally a nominal group is usually placed at the beginning of the clause; i.e. ‘The bride is here!’) the speaker renders this element its significance or markedness.
Communicatively and pragmatically, one can assume that if the ‘bride’ is who everybody at a wedding is expecting to appear on the scene, then the linguistic element ‘here’ in such an announcement as ‘Here she comes!’ or ‘Here comes the bride!’ is a ‘presuming reference’ (Martin, 1992), and thus New.

Also stemming from the Functional Sentence Perspective theory and considering the view expressed by both Halliday and the linguists of Prague School in relation to Theme-Rheme, Given-New, and the notion of communicative dynamism, we can make the following observations:

- Although Theme-Rheme and Given-New are the result of a choice made by the text producer on the text structure, they are influenced by contextual features and not the grammatical structure;
- It appears that the Prague School of Linguistics equates Theme with Given and Rheme with New or to use the term coined by Fries (1983) ‘combining approach’. Whereas, Halliday and other linguists of the Systemic School prefer a ‘separating approach’; i.e. separating thematic structure (Theme-Rheme) from information structure (Given-New). And as mentioned early, Halliday always maintains that Given-New and Theme-Rheme are related, but they are not the same.
- Given-New concerns the way information is arranged according to the text producer’s assumption about the awareness of the audience, or the intention of the former in relation to how the message should be structured; while Theme-Rheme concerns the way a certain linguistic element of the text is organised or structured to achieve the communicative purpose set out by the text producer. However, they are both communicatively and pragmatically motivated.
- In the case of an unmarked Theme (where the Theme of the clause is conflated with its Subject and is usually realised by a nominal group), Theme often precedes Rheme, and the former coincides with Given and latter with New. As Halliday (2004: 89 - 91) observes “the typical sequence of informational elements is thus Given followed by New… [And] the unmarked position for the New is at the end of the information unit.” However, as Danes (1974: 108) points out: “what makes the investigators differentiate between ‘known’ and ‘theme’ is the fact that there exist cases where the theme does not convey known information or where the ranges of both do not fully coincide”. In such cases (referred to by Halliday as ‘marked theme’) the Theme containing New information precedes the Rheme carrying Old information (from the SFL perspective). This is in contrast to the view expressed by Firbas who believes that
New always coincides with Rheme, and thus Rheme can precedes Theme (1966; 1974; 1986; 1992)

• In terms of communicative dynamism, New information bears more communicative value than Given (or Old) information.

The below example will help explain this concept and also illuminate what is considered by Firbas as communicatively important elements in a clause.

**Example 3.33**  
**Women and tranquillisers – Pills for feelings**  
(Women’s Co-ordination Unit, NSW Premier’s Department, April 1986 – Appendix G)

Many women in Australia take drugs like Valium, Serepax, Murelax, Ducene, Mogadon, Euhypnos, Normison and Rohypnol. In 1983-1984, doctors wrote approximately four million prescriptions for these drugs for Australian women. They are prescribed twice as often for women as for men. These drugs are known as minor tranquillisers and [they] belong to the benzodiazepine group of drugs.

The above passage comprises five independent clauses:

1. Many women in Australia **take drugs like Valium, Serepax, Murelax, Ducene, Mogadon, Euhypnos, Normison and Rohypnol.**
2. In 1983-1984, doctors **wrote approximately four million prescriptions for these drugs for Australian women.**
3. They are **prescribed twice as often for women as for men.**
4. These drugs are **known as minor tranquillisers**
5. and [they] **belong to the benzodiazepine group of drugs.**

Implementing Firbas’ analytical technique and categorisation (see Firbas, 1986; 1992), in Clause (1) the Subject ‘many women’ which can be derived from the context (from the title of the brochure) has the lowest value (or CD), whereas the Verb ‘take’ (in italics) has more communicative importance. The Object ‘drugs’ (in bold) has a higher degree of communicative dynamism as compared to the Verb and its Subject (in this order of importance). However, the names of the drugs (in bold and underlined), which are placed toward the end of the clause, give the most communicative effect.

Clause (2) begins with the temporal Adverbial ‘in 1983-1984’ which, according to Prague linguists, functions as a ‘local setting’ and in this case is contextually independent. The Subject ‘doctors’ is also context-independent because it’s mentioned for the first time and therefore, according to Firbas (ibid: 45) ‘it carries the most important piece of information’. The Indirect Object ‘Australian women’ could be expected to have a high degree of CD,
however because it can be retrievable from the context (it has appeared in the title and also in Clause 1), thus its communicative value is less important than ‘four million prescriptions’. The communicative value of the Verb ‘write’ is somewhere between that of the Subject and the Direct Object. Finally the Adverbial of Time, which is used to set a contextual frame, is the least important element of all, according to Firbas.

Examining Clause (3), (4), and (5) from a functional sentence perspective, we find that all the ‘core constituting elements’ (underlined) in these clauses possess a higher degree of CD than other clausal elements because they fall into the end of the clauses.

Textually and at a discourse level the implementation of the thematic and information structure theory proposed by Halliday and the Prague School linguists can help reveal both the text producer’s intention and the information focus of a text under examination.

For example in Clause (2), the adverbial of time “In 1983-84” which is considered as ‘marked Theme’ by Halliday, has a ‘scene setting’ effect (i.e. providing a ‘temporal frame’ for, not only the rest of the clause, but also the subsequent clauses, and implying ‘in this period only…’), and immediately draws the reader’s attention to the quantitative figure of doctor’s prescriptions (e.g. ‘four million prescriptions…’; ‘twice as often for women as for men’). Whereas from a practical point of view, the notion of communicative dynamism propounded by Firbas can assist a translator to draw significantly important pieces of information woven in a text through the text structure which the text producer wishes to impart to his/her text receivers.

In Example 3.33 the information focuses at the end of Clauses (1) to (3) provide the names of the most commonly used tranquilisers among Australian women; the number of prescriptions issues to this group during the year 1983-84; and the quantitative comparison of female and male users of these drugs. Clauses (4) and (5) provide the information about the drugs and their generic name.

The implementation of New and Old notions as well as the significance of thematic and information structure in translation practice will be discussed in more detail in Chapter V in which these notions will be applied to the analysis of texts and their findings.

3.3 TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION OF VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR: THE VIETNAMESE THEME – RHEME SYSTEM

In this section discussion will be focused on textual metafunction of the grammar of Vietnamese within the SFL framework. This includes the Theme-Rheme structure, information structure, the notion of thematic progression and cohesion. However, before
setting out to discuss the Vietnamese Theme-Rheme structure it is necessary to return to the claim made by Hao (1991) that Vietnamese belongs to the group of topic-prominent languages.

In English Theme-Rheme is flexible as any element can be brought to the initial position as Theme. Hence, markedness can be a strategy to reflect the writer’s style, intention and the generic structure of the text.

Theme-Rheme does exist in Vietnamese, but if Vietnamese can be shown to be a topic-prominent language, then what is seen as marked in English may be the norm in Vietnamese. While undertaking a translation task, this factor may impact on the cohesion of the translated text in Vietnamese. It may also affect the generic structure of the text. Consequently the translator may need to use a range of strategies to achieve similar textual meaning.

3.3.1 VIETNAMESE: TOPIC-COMMENT VERSUS SUBJECT PREDICATE – SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

In a study on Vietnamese sentences published in the Journal of Mon-Khmer Studies, Hao (1992), again confirms his view, suggesting that Indo-European languages used to be “theme-rheme languages before they became the subject-predicate languages we know nowadays”. (1992: 137) To support his perspective, he points to the morphological characteristics of Vietnamese which make the language a theme-rheme language:

The appearance of a grammatical subject was due to the morphologization of the features which formerly characterised the logical subject and gradually attached themselves to the argument which most frequently expresses it. This process does not take place in languages without such morphololization, e.g. Chinese or Vietnamese. In these languages, the syntactic structure of the sentence expresses univocally its logical structure, and there is nothing in them that might be called a grammatical subject. What is commonly called “subject” in these languages is rather the prime actant of the predicate nucleus – an element of the semantic level, not of the syntactic level. The first immediate syntactic member of the sentence always represents the logical subject (the Theme), while the second one always represents the logical predicate (the Rheme), so that these languages may be called theme-rheme languages. (Hao, 1992: 137-138)

Whether this morphologization process has had any impact on the development of a language from a subject-predicate type of language to a theme-rheme one, though it is important, is not within the scope of this study. However, to classify a language as belonging to the subject-predicate category or the theme-rheme (topic-comment) type will require a broader set of criteria, not its morphological features alone.
In the systemic functional model, as suggested by Hasan and Fries, “the categories of subject and theme have been interpreted as relating to interpersonal and textual meaning…” (1995: xvii). The authors, referring to an observation made by Halliday (1985) in relation to the role of Subject in English in which he roughly describes the meaning of the grammatical category of Subject as “the resting point of the argument” (1985), point out that: “So long as the experiential meaning of the (declarative) clause initiating a dialogic exchange remains constant, any subsequent dialogic move e.g. acknowledging, contradicting, accepting, rejecting, or enquiring into the why, how, when of the case, if realised by a major clause, will involve invoking the same entity as Subject.” (ibid: xviii)

As far as the identification of Subject is concerned, Hasan and Fries propose the following five major features of constituent which are “typically regarded as Subject in English” (ibid: xxi):

(i) The English Subject is a nominal group or nominalisation;
(ii) it is anaphorically presupposed by the pronoun in the Mood-Tag; if the latter occurs, its pronoun will be co-referential with Subject
(iii) Subject occurs in close contiguity with the element Finite; if an intervening element occurs at all, it will prototypically be a Modal Adjunct e.g. usually, normally, surely...
(iv) when Subject is instantiated by a pronoun, in some cases the pronoun will be marked for case (nominative); and
(v) under certain conditions, the Subject nominal will display person and number concord with the primary tense, i.e., with the Finite element.

The interpersonal organisation of the Vietnamese clause may possibly be the only feature shared between Vietnamese and English by what is traditionally known as Subject as discussed in the first category (i). In some cases, Subject in Vietnamese is a nominal group or nominalisation. However, as pointed out by Hasan and Fries (1995: ibid), “a nominal group/nominalisation clearly does not have to be Subject”. Concerning other criteria proposed by Hasan and Fries, the Vietnamese clause may meet criteria (ii) to (v). The following example, borrowed from Hao (1992), will illustrate the point.

Let’s imagine two people are examining a painting, one turns to the other and expresses:

Example 3.34a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Đẹp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>Beautiful [QM]* Mood-Tag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>It’s beautiful, isn’t it?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Linguistic Theory and Translation Practice
Or, in another situation, the low temperature makes one of the interlocutors complain:

**Example 3.34b**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lạnh nhỉ?</td>
<td>It’s cold, isn’t it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cold Mood-Tag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above show that a formal pattern containing the features of Mood-Tag cannot be found in the sentences. By the same token, the use of question-tag maker “phải không” in Vietnamese sentences may also prove that Vietnamese is not a subject-prominence language, as illustrated by this example (provided by Binh, 1971: 210):

**Example 3.35**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ông Ba về Việt Nam rồi, phải không?</td>
<td>Mr Ba has gone back to Vietnam, hasn’t he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Ba return Vietnam already Mood-tag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown, the “subject” of the sentence (Mr Ba or he) is not repeated in the question-tag as it is in English. As far as criteria (iii), (iv), and (v) are concerned, a Vietnamese sentence does not have a Finite element, only a Predicator, because Vietnamese verbs do not change whether the sentence is in the past, present or future, and regardless of its person or number; nor does a pronoun change whether it is used as subject or object.

The above examples also show that a formal pattern containing the features of Mood-Tag cannot be found in the sentences. With respect to feature (iii), because a Vietnamese sentence may only have a Predicator but no Finite (a verb in Vietnamese does not have tense and number) this feature may not be applicable. However, hypothetically if the Finite element did appear after the Subject element in a Vietnamese sentence there would be two possibilities:

1. Subject and Finite would occur in contiguity in Vietnamese as in English. In such a case a Modal Adjunct would normally appear at the beginning of the sentence, unless it were used to emphasise the state of the process. Compare the following examples:
Example 3.36

(a) Thường sáng nào nó cùng dậy sớm.
Lit: Usually morning any he [emphatic marker] get up early.
Eng: Usually he gets up early every morning.

(b) Sáng nào nó cùng thường dậy sớm.
Lit: Morning any he [emphatic marker] usually get up early.
Eng: He usually gets up early every morning.

(c) Sáng nào nó cùng dậy sớm.
Lit: Morning any he [emphatic marker] get up early
Eng: He gets up early every morning.

In (b) the Subject and hypothetical Finite elements could be intervened by the emphatic marker “cùng”, used to draw the focus on the act of getting up early of the actor. Whereas (c) would more likely be used if this act reflected a habit.

2. Subject is preceded by Object or Complement which is used as Theme to draw attention to the latter; for example:

Example 3.37

Question: Ai chịu trách nhiệm việc gửi thư đi?
Lit: Who suffer responsibility [noun marker] send letter go
Eng: Who is responsible for the mail out?

Answer: Thư thường là do Giáp đi gửi.
Lit: Letter usually [emphatic marker] [passive marker] Giap go send
Eng: Giap is usually responsible for the mail out.

or

Eng: ‘The mail out is usually Giap’s job’ (or ‘The mail out is usually done by Giap’).

In the above example, again, the emphatic marker ‘là’ intervenes between the ‘logical Subject’ ‘thu’ and the rest of the sentence. In the case of feature (iv), such Vietnamese personal pronouns as anh, tôi, hân, chúng tôi, các anh, chúng nó, etc, if instantiated as Subject will remain the same no matter whether they display the nominative or objective case; whereas in English the conditions are not similar except for it, and you.

Finally, with regard to feature (v), as mentioned earlier in (iii) the Subject nominal in Vietnamese won’t be in agreement with its Finite element in relation to person and number.
Therefore, it can be said Vietnamese does not meet all the criteria for the category of Subject-prominence language. Furthermore, Thompson (1965: 255), in his study on Vietnamese grammar, only mentions logical subjects and makes this observation: “By far the most common focal complements are those in topic position… In a large number of cases these resemble the *subjects of sentences* in English and other western European languages. However, although a simple subject-predicate (actor-action) kind of translation is appropriate for many such sentences, it is important to remember that the relationship between the focal element and its predicate head is fundamentally different from the relationship between subjects and their predicates in English.” (italics added)

And he provides the following example to support his argument (1965: 256):

**Example 3.38**

**Vietnamese:** Hai thằng ăn trông với ra bờ ruộng và khiêng chum vàng về nhà định mở ra chia nhau. Nhung vàng chẳng thấy đầu chỉ thấy toàn là rắn độc.

**English:** The two thieves hastened out to the edge of the rice field and together carried the pot of gold home, intending to open [it] up and divide [the gold] between them. But gold [they] saw nowhere – [they] only saw [it was full of] poisonous snakes.

The elements in square brackets need to be added to give the text cohesive in English. In the first sentence of the Vietnamese version, the Direct Object ‘chum vàng’ (‘pot of gold’) and ‘vàng’ (‘gold’) are omitted; in the second, however, because ‘vàng’ (‘gold’) is placed at the beginning of the sentence as ‘topical Theme’, the personal pronoun ‘they’ which is required as grammatical Subject in English is not necessary, nor is the Direct Object ‘chum vàng’ (‘pot of gold’).

Moreover, in the above example, once the Topic ‘hai thằng ăn trông’ (‘the two thieves’) and the Direct Object ‘chum vàng’ (‘pot of gold’) have been established repetition of these constituents is in fact redundant in Vietnamese.

Thompson also observes that the use of Vietnamese verbs, for him, does not “imply a clear notion of “voice” in the grammatical sense.” He (ibid: 217) points out that while in English “a (transitive) verb must be either active or passive”, in Vietnamese this distinction is unnecessary and that “As a matter of fact, the actor and the goal or object of Vietnamese verbs are regularly not formally marked; these relationships are generally clear from the context, and if they are not there are ways in which they can be made clear…”
And to conclude he (ibid: 257) states, “For the implicit lack of a regular distinction between active and passive verbs… [it] is consistent with the character of topic focal complements…”

As far as the definition of passive voice is concerned, according to Alves (1998) European and American have based their view on either syntactical or semantical aspect of a passive clause to define what passive voice is. Syntactically, ‘passive’ refers to “the placing of the object in the subject slot along with additional morphological marking of voice, sometimes through verbal conjugations”; whereas semantically the goal of an action “becomes the recipient or experiencer of [that action]” (1998: 113)

He also points out that the semantic interpretation of a Vietnamese ‘passive’ clause being based upon European grammatical terminology and structure “may have led to the belief that Vietnamese has passive voice since translations of passive constructions in European languages into Vietnamese may require the use of certain lexical elements which appear to share some semantic features of passive voice.” (ibid)

Instead, referring to the studies conducted by Thompson (1965) and Clark (1971), Alves (ibid) posits “Vietnamese does not have passive voice and that the words which have been considered markers of passive voice actually constitute a class of “affective” verbs with shared syntactic distributions and semantic functions.”

Due to the scope of this research, whether Vietnamese does possess a passive form will not be examined further. However, what has been claimed by Alves confirms the observation made by Thompson about the unclear distinction between active and passive forms among Vietnamese verbs. This also confirms the fundamental difference in the relationship between the focal initial element and its predicate in Vietnamese in comparison with the relationship between the subject and its predicate in English.

Considering this structural characteristic of the Vietnamese language, Alves (ibid: 114) hypothesises “This might be considered more along the lines of topic-comment structures in which the initial noun of a sentence, the “topic” is given with a following predication, the “comment”.”

Resulting from the above discussion, and having implemented Hasan and Fries’ Subject identification criteria (1995) to determine which language category Vietnamese should go under, it can be concluded that Vietnamese is a topic-prominence language.

My next step is to look at the textual metafunction of Vietnamese grammar. Textual metafunction is referred to by Halliday as “the text forming component of the semantic system” or one “having an enabling role” in facilitating ideational and interpersonal meanings to “take on relevance to some real context”. (1979: 60)
3.3.2 TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION OF VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR

Since text is not only the object, but also the goal of the translation process and context is essential in the interpretation of meanings of a text, an examination of the textual metafunction of Vietnamese language may shed light on what has been widely seen as the main purpose of the translation process: focusing on the ideational meaning of a text. Vietnamese does have modality (see previous section), but not as rich as its English counterpart. Vietnamese doesn’t have the aspect of tense which plays an important role in expressing interpersonal metafunction in English.

Therefore what would be productive is to look at how these two metafunctions are realised in textual metafunction in Vietnamese because textual metafunction reflects the expression and organisation of both ideational and interpersonal metafunctions in a language. In examining the textual metafunction of Vietnamese grammar, I will base my theoretical framework on the notion of Theme-Rheme and Information Structure as two separate systems as proposed by Halliday or the notion of “separating approach” as opposed to “combining approach”, as termed by Fries (1981) (see 3.3.2.1).

The ‘separating approach’ views the thematic structure and information structure as two separate but interrelated concepts where the former is “the point of departure from which a speaker or writer proceeds in the enunciation of the message; whereas the latter “is what is known or given” (Cloran: 2004). Also, according to Cloran (ibid: 382-3): “The two elements – theme and information – are … the output of two distinct systems, each construing a distinct semantic choice for the speaker, and each being realised in different ways. The separation of the Theme Rheme structure from the Given New one is therefore justified both by lexicogrammatical evidence as well as by their separate functions.”

If Theme is defined as “the point of departure of the message” (Firbas, 1967, 1974; Halliday, 1985, 1994, 2004), then Theme should always precede Rheme. If for whatever reason a constituent is atypically brought to the initial position from its usual position in the sentence, then it will be considered as a “marked” Theme.

As far as the information structure is concerned, in a typical Vietnamese declarative clause or sentence, Given may coincide with Theme, New with Rheme. Furthermore, New may precede Given, but it does not mean that Rheme will precede Theme.
3.3.2.1 Identification of Theme in Vietnamese

Earlier, I have discussed the use of two emphatic elements frequently used to mark the theme or the boundary between topic and comment of a sentence in Vietnamese; namely ‘thì’ and ‘là’. Moreover, they can be used as a verb (similar to ‘be’ in English) to indicate a relational relationship between elements in the clause, or imply some degree of contrast or comparison (Clark, 1992). Chinh & Lê (1963: 603) classify them under the category of ‘suppletive’, saying they have no real meaning and are normally used as function words. According to the authors ‘thì’ and ‘là’, especially the former, are also used to separate the “Theme” from the “Subject” of a sentence (“thematic separator”). The examples used in this section are taken from the work of Chinh & Lê (1963: 603-608):

Example 3.39

Vietnamese: Sự thì hai người ngang nhau
Lit: Strength [division marker] two people equal each other.
Eng: As far as physical strength is concerned, both are on a par with each other.

In addition, ‘thì’ and ‘là’ are used to emphasise a verb or process; for example:

Example 3.40

Vietnamese: Ai thì cũng nâng anh ấy.
Lit: Who [emphatic marker] also have high regard he.
Eng: Everyone holds him in high regard.

However, if the sentence is in the negation, “mà” will be used instead:

Example 3.41

Vietnamese: Ai mà chẳng nâng anh ấy.
Lit: Who [emphatic marker] not have high regard he.
Eng: There is nobody who does not hold him in high regard.
(Everybody holds him in high regard)

Clark (1992), in contrast, considers ‘thì’ as some kind of conjunction similar to ‘then’ in English which “appears to introduce predicative clauses by setting off the units of speech immediately preceding [it].” In addition, she (1992: 91) also sees ‘thì’ as having “a general discourse-related topicalising function, explicitly marking background for the main proposition which the speaker wishes to communicate, and that it is this explicit marking allowing for ‘immediate’ communication that makes this conjunction so popular.”
If ‘thì’ plays the role of a conjunction as proposed by Clark, then it should have a linking function just as ‘then’ does in English; for example: “He held his hand to direct the water spray across his face, then dipped his head and drank.” (Colins Cobuild, 1990: 375).

Here, ‘then’ paratactically links two clauses together. However, in the case of ‘thì’, as shown in the example provided by Clark below, it functions more like the relational process ‘be’

Example 3.42

Viet: Máy thì gầy, nó thì béo
Lit: You (informal) [?] thin he [informal] [?] fat.
Eng: You are skinny, and he is fat.

And as pointed out by Chình & Lê, and confirmed by Hòa, it may serve to separate the topic from the comment, as stated by the latter (1968: 143, quoted in Clark) “[Vietnamese] grade-school teachers admonish children for overusing the particle thì … but actually [it] occurs very frequently in natural speech, serving as [a] marker separating the comment from the topic.” For example:

Example 3.43

Viet: Nếu chị thích thì chúng mình sẽ đi thăm Seattle
Lit: If older sister like then we (inclusive) will go visit Seattle.
Eng: If you like, we’ll go to visit Seattle.

The above sentence shows ‘thì’ functioning as a pause in spoken form and as a comma in written language.

Thompson (1965: 257), however, sees ‘thì’ and ‘là’ as “focal head particles” which are used to emphasise a topic local complement, because, as he observes, “[the language has] little to distinguish subject-like entities from temporal, locational and manner complements”; whereas Hảo (1992: 141) maintains that the use of ‘thì’ is obligatory “The necessity of using thi as a marker of the boundary of the two parts of the sentence varies with types of sentences. It is obligatory or nearly so in sentences composed of two predicative constructions following each other. It is rare with noun-verb or noun-adjective sentences ("typical predication"). Between those extremes there is a whole gamut of different grades. The more thi is unnecessary, the more it marks the preceding part as contrastive.”
And he concludes: “From what is said above, it is evident that what follows ṭhi expresses something which fits the classical definition of the logical predicate (Categoreme, or Comment, or Rheme) of the sentence, and what precedes it expresses something which fits the definitions given by Chafe (1976) or McCawley (1972) for what they call the Topic of the sentence. I will call it the Theme of the sentence, following an older tradition (Aman 1928, Karcevski 1937, Mathesius 1939). The function of ṭhi is then that of a Theme-Marker (TM).” (1992: 141)

Given the unique characteristics of Vietnamese sentences in which participants (grammatical Subjects or Complements) are often elided, especially in the spoken form, and processes or modal adjuncts are usually used instead, it may be sensible to include these ideational elements in Theme; i.e. in a declarative sentence Theme may include everything up to and include the first ideational elements which may be a nominal group, verbal group and/or modal adjunct.

Bình (1971: 217), in the section discussing what are seen as “minor sentences” which, in her view “occur more in spoken and informal Vietnamese than in formal written Vietnamese”, points out that these sentences can occur both with or without subjects. In addition she also includes what are termed as ‘half questions’ in this category. As shown in the following examples:

**Example 3.44**

Viet: Chưa ān com chura?
Lit: [Eat] rice yet?
Eng: “Have you had lunch (or dinner) yet?”

**Example 3.45**

Viet: Chị đi đâu dây?
Lit: Older sister go where [QM]
Eng: “Where are you going?”

**Example 3.46**

Viet: Ān không?
Lit: Older brother [QM] want eat [QM]
Eng: “Do you want to eat?”

All of these questions do not have a subject. However, this practice is not only found in the declarative interrogative form, but also in the negative as well as affirmative constructions:
Question 1

**Viet:** Ėm chūa? or Ėn čom chūa?
**Lit:** [Eat] rice yet? or Eat rice yet?
**Eng:** Have you had lunch (or dinner) yet?

**Negative:**

**Viet:** Ėm, cðò bâ xã đî chọp vè.
**Lit:** Not yet, still wait missus go market return.
**Eng:** Not yet, I’m still waiting for my wife to come home from shopping.

**Question 2**

**Viet:** Đì dâu dây?
**Lit:** Go where[question maker]?
**Eng:** Where are you going?

**Affirmative:**

**Viet:** Đì bác sî khám xem sao cû mật ngû hoài.
**Lit:** Go doctor examine see why again lose sleep often.
**Eng:** I’m going to see the doctor about my chronic insomnia.

Or “I’m going to see the doctor to find out why I often can’t sleep.”

As far as elliptical clauses are concerned, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) categorise them into two types; namely anaphoric and exophoric ellipses. Before discussing further how this classification of elliptical clauses is relevant to Vietnamese, let’s look at some examples provided by the above authors:

**Example 3.47a**

“Thirsty?”

Rheme

**Example 3.47b**

“Of course.”

Rheme

According to Halliday & Matthiessen Example 3.47a is an ‘exophoric ellipsis’, because it “is not presupposing anything from what has gone before, but simply taking advantage of the rhetorical structure of the situation… Such clauses have, in fact, a thematic
structure; but it consists of Rheme only. The Theme is (part of) what is omitted in the ellipsis.” (2004: 100)

Let’s assume that the answer to the question is positive (‘Yeah.’ or ‘Of course.’ as in Example 3.47b) and this is an example of ‘anaphoric ellipsis’ (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004). This type of clause has “no thematic structure, because [it presupposes] the whole of the preceding clause…”

In both cases the above authors say the linguistic elements appearing in the communicative event are rhematic, and thus, can be seen as New information. As far as the above examples are concerned, there is significant difference in relation to the thematic and information structure due to the fact that Vietnamese is a topic-prominent language. In addition, there is a difference in syntactic structure, particularly since a Vietnamese interrogative often requires a question maker (normally as a final element). Semantically, an utterance with similar communicative effect will look like this in Vietnamese:

**Example 3.48a**

Viet: “Khát không?”
Lit: Thirst [QM]
Eng: “Thirsty?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Khát</th>
<th>không?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the spoken form, unlike an English interrogative in which a rising tone may fall somewhere in the end of the question depending on the bit of information the speaker wants to obtain, in Vietnamese the rising tone places a stress on the first syllable “khát” and falling tone drops on the question maker “không”.

Or

**Example 3.48b**

Viet: Có thấy khát không?
Lit: Have feel [of] thirst [QM]
Eng: [Are you] feeling thirsty?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Có thấy khát</th>
<th>không?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This tendency of omitting Subject and/or Actor/Participant, and placing Predicator in the Theme position of a clause may be compared with the structure of an English imperative clause; and thus:

**Example 3.49**

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anh/chị</th>
<th>Làm</th>
<th>bài xong</th>
<th>rôi</th>
<th>chú?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>Make</td>
<td>lesson complete</td>
<td>already</td>
<td>[QM]?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Eng:** Have you done your homework?

This seems consistent with the English clause except that in Vietnamese there is no Finite, only Predicator; and therefore:

**Example 3.50**

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Com</th>
<th>chưa?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Eng:** Have you had lunch (dinner) yet?

The above clause has a thematic structure because of the presence of a question maker which indicates clearly what sort of information has been sought out by the speaker.

The following examples highlight the important role of the question maker in Vietnamese interrogatives:

**Example 3.51**

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Com</th>
<th>rỗi chú?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Eng:** Did you have lunch (dinner) already?
Example 3.52

Viet: Ān rôi
Lit: Eat already
Eng: I’ve already eaten.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ān</th>
<th>rôi.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Given</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rôi.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the answer is negative, there may be two possibilities:

Example 3.53

Viet: Chura ān.
Lit: Not yet eat.
Eng: I haven’t eaten yet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chura ān</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Or

Viet: Chura.
Lit: Not yet.
Eng: Not yet; or I haven’t.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chura</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In **Example 3.51**, the assumption is that the question is put to the listener around lunch or dinner time. Culturally the question may have the same function as a greeting (hi; hello; etc.) or asking about someone’s health (how are you?; how are you doing?; etc) in some western culture. From the way the language is used, we can also assume that the people who are involved in this communicative event are well known to each other and there is a certain degree of intimacy between them. Therefore, the utterance is informal, and no form of address
is needed. Thus, the Subject of the utterance is elided or understood. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 100) this is an instance of exophoric ellipsis; whereas **Example 3.52 and 3.53** are possible answers to the above question.

As far as an exophoric elliptical clause is concerned, “it consists of Rheme only”, because the Theme “is (part of) what is omitted in the ellipsis” (ibid)

Going back to **Example 3.51** above, however, if the answer also provides an explanation, in terms of the difference between English and Vietnamese Theme-Rheme structures, an utterance with the same communicative effect may have different thematic or rhematic structures as illustrated in **Example 3.54**:

**Example 3.51**

**Vietnamese:**

| Cóm | chura?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[Eat] rice</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theme** | **Rheme**

**English:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you</th>
<th>had lunch (dinner) yet?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Theme** | **Rheme**

**Example 3.54**

**Vietnamese:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chura.</th>
<th>Còn chờ bà xã đi chợ về.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not yet.</td>
<td>Still wait missus go market return.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theme** | **Rheme**

**English:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not yet,</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>’m still waiting for my wife coming home from shopping.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Textual Theme** | **Topical Theme**

**Theme** | **Rheme**

Chính & Lê (1963: 508) refer to this type of sentence as ‘câu lược ý’; i.e. ‘elliptical sentence’ or ‘ellipsis’. For them, a sentence in Vietnamese consists of two parts, namely Subject and Predicate. In an elliptical sentence a speaker may make a choice of using only either the former or the latter. For example, instead of asking ‘Anh đi đâu thế?’ (literally: ‘You go where [QM]?’ or ‘Where are you going?’), the speaker may simply ask ‘Đi đâu thế?’ (‘Go where [QM]?’), and in this case the Subject of the sentence is ‘left out’. Whereas in
answer to the question: ‘Quyền sách nào của anh?’ (‘Which book is yours?’) the speaker may choose to say ‘Quyền này’ (‘This one’) and leave out the Predicate.

In addition, Chinh & Lê reject the classification of sentence types proposed by Jespersen (1958: 306) in The philosophy of grammar in which what is normally considered as ellipsis being referred to as “one-member-sentence”. For them, a ‘one-member-sentence’ in Vietnamese is that which has no Subject, “because the participant [Subject] is unknown” (ibid: 509). They contend that in many cases, both Subject and Predicate is left out and only an adjunct is used. For example:

**Question**  
Viet: Bao giờ anh đi Long Hải?  
Lit: When you go Long Hai?  
Eng: When are you going to Long Hai?

**Answer**  
Viet: Mai.  
Eng: Tomorrow.

In relation to thematic analysis, the above example may not cause any problem, although there are some major structural difference between the English and Vietnamese Wh-interrogative type of sentences (which will be discussed shortly). The use of adverbial adjunct ‘Mai’ (‘tomorrow’) as a marked theme expecting a polarity (yes/no) response may provide some point for discussion:

**Example 3.55**

(a) Viet: Mai anh đi Long Hải hà?  
Lit: Tomorrow you go Long Hai [QM]?  

Or

(b) Viet: Mai ⌀ đi Long Hải hà?  
Lit: Tomorrow [you] go Long Hai [QM]?

Eng: Are you going to Long Hai tomorrow?

Note the omission of Subject in (b). The following table shows the difference between the thematic structure of the above clause in Vietnamese and in English:

**Vietnamese:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Cir: Temp</th>
<th>Actor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mai</td>
<td>anh</td>
<td>di Long Hải hà?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomorrow</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>go Long Hải [QM]?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, while Chinh & Lê view ‘minor sentences’ as ‘ellipses’, Thompson (1965) divides them into independent and dependent minor sentences; with independent containing no clause head and dependent being fragments of various kinds. Independent minor sentences consist of interjections, for example: Ái chà! (Ouch!); vocative elements, for example: Mai ơi! (Hey, Mai!); demonstrative markers, for example: Nhìn này! (Look!); etc. Dependent minor sentences are divided into five types:

- **Predicative fragments**: containing “a predicate element which does not appear as predicate head” (1965: 285). They are used to respond to a polarity type of question, for example:

**Example 3.56**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet: Anh còn ở Đà-lạt không?</td>
<td>- Còn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: You still live [in] Dalat [QM]?</td>
<td>- Still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Do you still live in Dalat?</td>
<td>- Yes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Substantival fragments**: containing “a substantival element which does not constitute a clause”. They are “substantives or substantival phrases repeated from the immediate preceding context, sometimes with certain additions or logically replacing some element in a preceding sentence or utterance” (ibid: 286); for example:
Example 3.57

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet: Cái này giá bao nhiêu?</td>
<td>- Sáu mười lăm đồng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: [class.]* [thing] this price how much?</td>
<td>- Six ten five piastres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: How much does this cost?</td>
<td>- Sixty-five piastres.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* [class.] = classifier

- **Focal fragments**: consisting of a focus as head. This type of sentence serves as an opening response to a question which may require an elaboration. Sometimes they may occur as “exclamation or vocative elements” (ibid)

Example 3.58

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet: Đên phiên ai nói đây?</td>
<td>- Tôi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: Come turn [of] who speak here?</td>
<td>- I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Who’s going to speak now?</td>
<td>- It’s me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Particular fragments**: containing a particle as head. This particle usually consists of an element of the verbal group such as a preposition or an adjunct; for example:

Example 3.59a:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet: Anh định ở đây luôn à?</td>
<td>- Luôn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: You intend live here always [QM]</td>
<td>- Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Are you intending to live here permanently?</td>
<td>- Permanently.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.59b:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet: Chỉ ấy nói chuyện với ai thế?</td>
<td>- Vô bạn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: She talk with who [QM]</td>
<td>- With friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Who’s she talking with?</td>
<td>- With [a]* friend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Clausal fragments**: consisting of restrictive clauses which are referred to as “focal complements” by Thompson (1965: 281). A focal complement may contain a predicate as head, or may only comprise a predicate. Restrictive clauses usually occur as dependent sentences.
Example 3.60a:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Viet:</strong> Mai ảnh đi xem hát không?</td>
<td>- Nếu có thì giờ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lit:</strong> Tomorrow you go see play [QM]</td>
<td>- If have time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eng:</strong> Are you going to see a play tomorrow?</td>
<td>- If [I]* have time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.60b:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Viet:</strong> Sao anh ta không đến?</td>
<td>- Bị ốm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lit:</strong> Why he not come</td>
<td>- Suffer sick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eng:</strong> Why didn’t he come?</td>
<td>- [He was]* sick.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Elements enclosed between square brackets have been added to make ‘sense’ in English.

The above Vietnamese ‘minor sentence’ types can potentially become problematic for the process of thematic analysis, in particular the last two.

Following Chinh & Lê (1963), Fries (1981), Downing (1991), and Huddleston (1988), it should be noted here that the Theme of a Vietnamese clause is not necessarily the Topic of that clause, i.e. Topic does not always occupy the first position in the clause, as has been strongly argued by Chinh & Lê (1963: 547): “‘Thoại đề’ (‘topic’) and ‘chủ đề’ (‘exposé du sujet’ or ‘theme’) are two distinct concepts.” However in most cases (in declarative clauses) Topic and Theme may coincide, just as Theme may be conflated with Given, and Rheme with New.

Similarly, the thematic structure and information structure of Vietnamese are two separate though closely interrelated systems, with the thematic structure comprising Theme, which is the point of departure for the message, and Rheme consisting of what is left of the clause. While the thematic structure ‘is part of the clause and other grammatical structures’, the information structure, consisting of Given and New elements, ‘is only indirectly associated with the clause’ (Fries, 1995: 3).

To avoid confusion between Theme and Topic, I’ll adopt the proposal made by Downing (1991) who does not agree with Halliday’s view that the first ideational element or the topical Theme (which is quite often a nominal or pronominal group and functions as Subject or participant) is the most essential to the clause and what follows it is seen as the Rheme. Instead, Downing suggests the disassociation of Theme (as ‘initial element’) from Topic and she also makes the following points: “Theme may coincide with topic in the same wording… Topic will identify what a particular part of the text is about, while Theme (or
initial element) represents the point(s) of departure of the message. We would still have the advantage of ‘multiple Themes’, with the difference that the first ideational element need not represent the cut-off point between Theme and Rheme. In other words, while all topics would still be ideational, the first ideational element is not necessarily the topic.” (ibid: 127)

And to develop further this approach, she adopts the notion proposed by Chafe in which the initial element provides “the spatial, temporal or individual framework within which the main predication holds” (1976: 50). Her reason for this is that such notions as spatial, temporal and individual frameworks prove to be useful in embracing “all ideational points of departure, including fronted Adjuncts and Attributes” (ibid: 128). Downing also adopts Lowe’s notion of the ‘situational framework’ (1987) to refer to the function of “initial clauses of condition purpose, and means, as well as initial participle causes, all of which function as initial elements within a wider span.”

In her view, Downing sees initial elements of the clause as having the function of setting up different types of framework; and thus participant Themes set up individual frameworks; spatial, temporal, and situational Themes set up circumstantial frameworks. In addition, to account for extra-clausal initial elements which are seen by Halliday as continuative, structural, conjunctive, vocative, modal and relational, she classifies them under the ‘discourse Theme’ category. And thus discourse Themes concern “subjective and logical frameworks.” (ibid)

Furthermore, what is seen by Hao (1991, 1992) as ‘Khung Đệ’ (or ‘Range Theme’), and Thompson (1965) as ‘Focal Complex’, or by Halliday as Multiple Theme, will be considered as ‘Contextual Frame’ following the model presented by Davies (1996: 55).

In Davies’ words:

Contextual Frame is … seen to serve the function of signalling changes in real-world, fictional, or discourse circumstances.

Thus Topical/Subject theme is equated with the intuitive notion of “what the clause/sentence is about” and is the basic ideational element. In discourse, likewise, the repeated occurrence or re-occurrence of the same topical element or a related element as Subject is seen not only to specify topic, what a particular stretch of text is about, but also to be the primary means by which the continuity and hence cohesion of coherent discourse is achieved.

Non-Subject and hence marked thematic elements, by contrast, are seen to serve the distinct function of providing a wide range of Contextual Frameworks for the development of topic as the discourse proceeds. They are thus resources which are available not only for specifying the “where”, “when”, “why” and “how” of the message, but also for signalling changes in topic focus. Unlike topic elements which are the recurring elements of coherent discourse, these framing elements are typically non-recurrent and as such signal changes/shifts or stages in the progression of the discourse. (ibid)

Another reason for me to adopt Downing’s stance on the function of Theme (as Subject) in declarative clauses is the concern expressed by Fries. The latter observes that
Halliday’s description of Theme as “that with which the clause is concerned” (Halliday, 1985: 38) or even more clearly stated as “what the clause is going to be about” (ibid: 39) has often caused misunderstanding among linguists – notably Gundel (1977), Huddleston (1988) and Downing (1991). For these scholars the above description has been understood as ‘topic’ leading to many articles insisting on proving that ‘what occurs first in clauses is not often the topic’ (Fries, 1996: 318). Instead, in a series of articles (see Fries 1981, 1994, 1995, and 1996), Fries (1996: 318) maintains that: “Theme is not topic (or given or even necessarily nominal). Rather, Theme functions as an orienter to the message. It orients the listener/reader to the message that is about to be perceived and provides a framework for the interpretation of that message.”

Picking up on Fries’ view on the function of Theme at text and discourse level, Thompson (2004: 165) contends that in English within a text the choice of Theme reflects “[the text’s] underlying coherence, and […] its ‘method of development’” which is revealed by successive Theme choices. He identifies four main, related functions of Theme:

- Theme signals the maintenance or progression of ‘what the text is about’ especially through the choice of Subject as unmarked Theme;
- It provides the framework for the interpretation of the following clauses mostly through the choice of marked Theme, particularly through the use of Adjunct or subordinate clause;
- It signals the boundaries of sections in the text through changing from one type of Theme choice to another;
- It reflects a speaker/writer’s view on what is deemed to be an “important starting point” for him or her through a repeated choice of a particular element as Theme.

Furthermore, to avoid the term ‘topic’ which is referred to by Thompson (2004) as a “notoriously shifty concept” I will simply adopt the label ‘Theme’ - instead of ‘topical Theme’ – to refer to any ideational constituent (a participant, process, or circumstance) which takes the first position in the clause.

As far as marked Theme is concerned, what will be considered as ‘markedness’ includes:

- Any adjuncts, except for temporal, spatial, locational, situational, and conjunctive, as well as adverbials of manner, etc for reasons given above. (see Chinh & Lê 1963; Thompson 1965; Binh 1971; Hao 1991, 1992) The most marked of all will be what is known as “emphatic topic complex” which is “a word or phrase which identifies the
principal topic of the sentence.” (Thompson 1965: 245) This clausal constituent normally functions as the complement but is brought to the first position in the clause to draw the attention of listeners/readers to what is explained in the predication. The following example will illustrate this point:

**Example 3.61:** (Thompson 1963: 241)

Viet: Những gi trong thùng, tôi không muốn khui ra

Lit: [pl.m.]* what in box I not want prise open

Eng: “Whatever is kept in the container, I don’t want to open it.”

[pl.m.]* = plural marker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Những gi trong thùng</td>
<td>Whatever kept in the container</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tôi không muốn khui ra</td>
<td>I don’t want to open it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Complement: Theme (marked) Rheme**

**Example 3.62:** (provided by Thompson 1965: 241)

Viet: Ba cây số nữa xe sẽ phải lên gi

Lit: Three kilometre more car [TM]* must go up slope

Eng: Three kilometres further ahead the car will have to climb a slope

[TM]* = Tense Marker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ba cây số nữa</td>
<td>Three kilometres further ahead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xe sẽ phải lên gi</td>
<td>the car will have to climb a slope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Contextual Frame: Cir: Locative Theme (marked) Rheme**

**Example 3.62** is considered as having a ‘marked structure’ due to the fact that it can be expressed unmarkedly as follows:

**Example 3.63a**

Viet: Trong vòng ba cây số nữa xe sẽ phải lên gi

Lit: About three kilometre more car [TM]* must go up slope

Eng: About three kilometres further ahead the car will have to climb a slope

[TM]* = Tense Marker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trong vòng ba cây số nữa</td>
<td>About three kilometres further ahead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xe sẽ phải lên gi</td>
<td>the car will have to climb a slope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Contextual Frame: Cir: Locative Rheme**

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Note that the only change made to the clause is the presence of the preposition ‘trong vòng’ (‘about’ or ‘around’) in the Theme position. In addition, it is also acceptable in Vietnamese to move the preposition phrase ‘trong vòng ba cây số nữa’ to the end of the clause and thus ‘xe’ (‘car’) will be Subject of the clause.

Example 3.63b

Viet:  Xe sẽ phải lên giốc trong vòng ba cây số nữa.
Eng:  The car will have to climb a slope about three kilometres further ahead.

3.3.2.2  Theme in Vietnamese: from the perspective of English - Vietnamese translation practice

Therefore, for the purposes of the current study and following the above views, in particular the model proposed by Davies (1997: 55), I would propose that:

• Theme in Vietnamese declarative clauses includes everything up to the verb;
• Theme has two potential functions:
  o identifying Participant realised by the Subject of the clause; and
  o providing Contextual Frame realised by elements preceding the Subject.

These elements may include spatial, temporal, and situational adverbials, as well as modal and conjunctive adjuncts (or simply Adjuncts) and conjunctions.

In this section, I’ll be looking first at Theme in Vietnamese declarative and non-declarative clauses (i.e. interrogative and imperative clauses) followed by Contextual Frames which include adverbial, modal and conjunctive adjuncts and what is termed by Halliday as ‘multiple Themes’. Examples used to accompany each category will be derived from various sources. In addition, an example in Vietnamese will be coupled with its English counterpart to illustrate the structural difference.

3.3.2.3  Theme in declarative clauses

3.3.2.3.a  Subject as Theme

In most cases Theme is conflated with Subject; or the position of Subject in the clause is a ‘normal’ position for Theme. And in such a case Theme is said to be ‘unmarked’; for example:
Example 3.64  


Viet: Tôi ngạc nhiên về câu hỏi là lùng của hắn.
Lit: I surprise about question strange of he.
Eng: “I was surprised at his strange question.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tôi</td>
<td>was surprised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngạc nhiên về</td>
<td>at his strange question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>câu hỏi là lùng</td>
<td>of him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>của hắn.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subject ‘tôi’ can be seen as a ‘Participant Theme’ (or ‘Experiential Theme’ as proposed by Thompson 2004).

The following exemplars are derived from the work of Dương Quảng Hạm (1968), and Phan Kế Bính (1914-15) and have been included by Chình & Lê (1963) in their study of Vietnamese grammar and language usage.

3.3.2.3.b Nominal Group as Theme

Example 3.65

Vietnamese: Học trò mỗi người vác một bộ lều chiếu có deo ông quyên, bâu nước, vai deo một cái trap chúra đồ ăn thức dùng phải chắc chắn ở ngoài cửa trường từ đêm (Phan Kế Bính, in Chình & Lê 1963: 534)

Literal: Student each person carry a set tent mat, neck wear bamboo book, bottle water, shoulder wear a box contain food, consumable, must wait ready at outside gate school from night.

English: Students – each carrying a rolled up tent and jute mat, around their neck dangling a water bottle as well as a section of bamboo containing their writing paper, on their shoulder a wooden box storing their meals and other consumables – must wait outside the front gate of the school overnight.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Học trò mỗi người</td>
<td>phải chắc chắn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vác một bộ lều chiếu</td>
<td>ở ngoài</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>có deo ông quyên, bâu nước</td>
<td>cửa trường</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vai deo một cái trap chúra đồ ăn thức dùng</td>
<td>từ đêm.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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In the above example the Participant Theme (‘Topical Theme’ in Hallidayan terminology) is a nominal group with ‘students’ as Head. The descriptive phrase succeeding it functions as an attribute to provide a full description of ‘students’ used as Head as well as Subject of the clause.

3.3.2.3.c **Complement as Theme**

**Example 3.66** (adopted from Chình & Lê 1963: 558)

| Viet: | Chữ Nho, hiện nay ở nước ta, ít người học. |
| Lit: | Word [of] Han at present in country [of] we few person study |
| Eng: | “With respect to the current trend of Chinese language learning in Vietnam, only few study it.” |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chữ Nho, hiện nay ở nước ta, ít người học.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thematised Complement (marked)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above example, ‘Chữ Nho’ (the Complement of the clause) is brought to the initial position and thus given significance. I refer to it as Thematised Complement, or Thematised due to its salient function in the clause. It may signal discourse topic introduction or change, depending on the location of the clause in its co-text or in the text as a whole.

3.3.2.3.d **Subordinate clause as Theme**

**Example 3.67** (unmarked Theme)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sau khi Tây Sơn đứt hào Trịnh, ngoài Bắc, bổn cấp thần nhà Lê kẻ phó tàn triều, người thì đi ăn lành các nơi … (Dương Quảng Hằm, in Chính &amp; Lê 1963: 557)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After Tây Sơn finish family Trinh, out North, group former high ranking official [serving] family Lê person then support new court, person then go hide [plural marker] place...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English:
After the Tây Sơn Group eliminated the Trịnh Family, in the North the former high ranking officials of the previous Lê dynasty some stayed to serve the new Court, others went into hiding…

Vietnamese

Sau khi Tây Sơn dứt hổ Trịnh, ngoài Bắc, bốn cửu thân nhà Lê (1) kẻ thì … phó tần triều (2) người thì … đi ăn lãnh các nơi.

CF: Situational + Locative
Participant Theme

THEME
RHEME

The above is an example of parallelism which often occurs in Vietnamese writing, the subordinate clause being used as Theme to provide the background (the elimination of the Trịnh Family by the Tay Son Group) for two different approaches to the new regime by the former mandarins of the Lê dynasty.

The use of nominal group ‘người’ (literally ‘person’ but in this context it means ‘some [of them]’) and ‘kẻ’ (literally ‘person’, but in the context it simply means ‘others’) emphasises the contrasting attitudes among the group.

English

After the Tây Sơn Group eliminated the Trịnh Family, in the North the former high ranking officials of the previous Lê dynasty some [of them] stayed to serve the new Court, (2) others went into hiding.

Cir. Adj: Situational + Locative
Topical Theme

THEME
RHEME

Example 3.68

Vietnamese:
Gióng như các chứng bệnh khác, nếu khám pha ra sớm, bệnh tâm thần có thể trị được dễ dàng.

Literal:
Similar to [plural marker] disease other, if detect early, disease mental able treat [pass. marker] easy.

English:
Like other illnesses, if it is detected early, mental illness can easily be treated.

Vietnamese

Gióng như các chứng bệnh khác, nếu khám pha ra sớm, bệnh tâm thần có thể trị được dễ dàng.

CF: Comparative + Conditional
Participant Theme

THEME
RHEME
Like other illnesses, if it is detected early mental illness can easily be treated.

In Vietnamese such subordinate clauses as conditional, causal, etc. by convention are placed in the initial position in the clause. Therefore, while in English such clauses may follow the main clause, and thus by being fronted they are deemed marked this is not the case in Vietnamese as seen in the above example.

3.3.2.3.e **Existential Theme**

While in English an existential construction begins with what is termed by Quirk & Greenbaum (1979) as the ‘empty’ subject ‘there’, in Vietnamese, on the other hand, it is typically formed using the existential process ‘có’ meaning ‘exist’. ‘Có’ is also used in other contexts to mean ‘to possess’ or ‘to have’, for example ‘Nhà có chó dữ’ (literally meaning ‘House have ferocious dog’) or ‘Beware of the dog’.

Within the Hallidayan framework the word ‘there’ in the existential construction ‘there + be’ is considered as topical Theme, the point of departure of the message (Halliday 1994: 37-38). In contrast, Thompson (1996, 2004) argues that in experiential terms it has ‘no representational function’ (quoted from Halliday and Matthiesen 2004: 257) and thus it does not satisfy “the thematic criterion of expressing experiential meaning” (Thompson 2004: 162). Instead he proposes that not only ‘there’ but the existential process (normally realised by the verb ‘be’) should be included. However, Thompson (2004: ibid) also observes that “existential clauses typically take as the starting point the simple fact that some entity exists…”

This observation, in fact, has led Fries (1981) to adopt a different approach to the existential Theme. For him, not just ‘there + be’ should be treated as Theme, but the entity or phenomenon introduced by the existential process should also be included. This view is also shared by Vande Kopple. In an article written for the Written Communication journal (July 1991: 311-347) he uses the following example provided by Fries for his thematic analysis:

… and **there are closets** all around … (1991: 336)
Vande Kopple labels the existential construction and the nominal group ‘closets’ (underlined items) as ideational Theme. This practice is also applied to another example in page 337:

There was, however, a large cupboard… (ibid: 337)

Adopting the above views and because of the characteristics of the Vietnamese language (see the section on Vietnamese as a topic-prominent language), I would propose a similar approach to existential Theme to Fries (1981), the following example indicating the reason for such an approach:

Example 3.69

Question:

Viet: Có rác rưởi gì không?
Lit: Have problem *QM? (*Question Maker)
Eng: Is there any problem?

| Vietnamese | 
|---|---|
| Có rác rưởi | gì không? |
| Existential Theme | Rheme |

Answer:

Lit: No. No have [problem] whatsoever.
Eng: No. There is no problem at all.

| Vietnamese | 
|---|---|
| Structural Theme | Existential Theme | Rheme |

‘Gì cả’ is an emphatic device normally placed at the end of a sentence to make a statement more affirmative or forceful, whereas ‘chuyên’ (‘problem’ or ‘matter’) may be elided. As will be discussed in Chapter IIIB (Metafunctional Profile of Vietnamese Grammar: Ideational and Interpersonal Metafunctions), when communicating in Vietnamese, a topic-prominent language, the speaker often announces the topic of the utterance by placing it in the thematic area to draw the attention of the listener and signal his/her intention on the chosen topic. In addition, because verbs are not conjugated, and there
is no auxiliary to be used in conjunction with a main verb in the interrogative mood, a Vietnamese question is usually made by way of a tagging question marker.

In English, on the other hand, if Thompson’s (1996, 2004) approach to existential Theme is accepted, the thematic structure of the above examples will look as follows:

**English (Question)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there</td>
<td>any problem?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**English (Answer)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Theme</th>
<th>Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>There is</td>
<td>no problem at all.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examplars provided below taken from Dương Quảng Hàm illustrate the major difference between Vietnamese existential Theme and its English counterpart:

**Example 3.70 (Unmarked Theme)**

**Vietnamese:** (adopted from Dương Quảng Hàm, in Chinh & Lê 1963: 567)

Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kề cứu, có nhiều vấn đề chưa ai giải quyết được.

**Literal:**

Because still lack information for cross-reference, have many problem not yet anybody able to solve.

**English:**

Due to a lack of data for cross-reference, there are many issues for which no one has been able to offer any solution.

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal</th>
<th>Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kề cứu, có nhiều vấn đề chưa ai giải quyết được.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the above to its English version it can be said that the structural differences between the clausal systems of the two languages in relation to the existential and multiple Themes generally are made more obvious through the use of thematic analysis.
Due to a lack of data for cross-reference, there are many issues for which no one has been able to offer any solutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal Adjunct: Causal</th>
<th>Existential Theme</th>
<th>Topical Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME: EFFECT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above propositional content can be expressed differently as follows:

**Example 3.71 (Marked Theme)**

**Vietnamese**:
Những vấn đề, vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kể cười, chưa ai giải quyết được.

**Literal**:
Many issues, because still lack information for cross reference, not yet anybody able to solve.

**English**:
There are many issues for which, due to a lack of data for cross-reference, no one has been able to offer any solutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematised Complement + Causal (marked)</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME: EFFECT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, ‘những vấn đề’ (‘many issues’), the Complement of the clause, is fronted followed by the circumstantial phrase functioning as a causal adjunct explaining the reason for the problem. This textual strategy has the effect of drawing the attention of the reader to the topic of the utterance (‘many issues’) before providing the cause and its effect; thus making it significant. In English, however, this structure may not be acceptable and an existential construction may be more appropriate as illustrated below:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Many issues for which,</th>
<th>due to a lack of data for cross-reference,</th>
<th>no one has been able to offer any solutions.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Existential Theme</td>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
<td>Cir: Adj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME: EFFECT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The nominal group ‘những vấn đề’ (‘many issues’) may also be placed somewhere else in the clause; for example toward the end of the clause:
**Example 3.72**

**Vietnamese:**
Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kè cù, nhiều vấn đề chưa giải quyết được.

**Literal:**
Because still lack data for cross reference, many issue no one yet able solve [pass. maker]

**English:**
“Due to a lack of data for cross reference, many issues no one is able to offer any solution”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kè cù, nhiều vấn đề chưa giải quyết được.</td>
<td>Due to a lack of data for cross reference, there are many issues [for which] no one is able to offer any solution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the prepositional phrase ‘vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kè cù’ functions as a circumstantial adjunct in the contextual frame, it is not marked in Vietnamese. However, it is considered ‘marked’ in English, as indicated below.

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Due to a lack of data for cross reference,</th>
<th>there are</th>
<th>many issues [for which] no one is able to offer any solution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Circumstantial: Cause (marked)</td>
<td>Existential Theme</td>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to English and Vietnamese translation, another point which needs to be taken into consideration is the approach taken by many translators in using an active construction instead of a passive one. Therefore, such a clause as ‘nhiều vấn đề chưa giải quyết được.’ (literally meaning ‘many issues not yet anybody able to solve’) may also be rendered as ‘many issues have not been [satisfactorily] addressed’ depending on the co-text and the context where the clause is embedded.

**3.3.2.4 Theme in non-declarative clauses**

**3.3.2.4.a Interrogative clauses**

One of the main types of Vietnamese non-declarative clauses is interrogative. Thompson (2004: 146) points out that in all languages “The basic reason for asking a question is to elicit some ‘missing’ information”.

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In spoken Vietnamese, questions are made by “means of sustaining intonation, sometimes by itself, but more often in combination with indefinite words…” (Thompson 1965: 307) For Thompson, such words as “nào” (‘whichever’), “đâu” (‘whenever’), “chưa” (‘yet’ or ‘not yet’) etc are indefinite words, because their classification is characterised by “their denial of specific reference to any particular entities or concepts” (ibid: 312) There are many types of interrogative clauses in Vietnamese, but in this section only three main ones are discussed. They are general interrogative, Wh-like interrogative, and Yes/No (or polarity) interrogative clauses.

- General interrogative clauses

This type of question provides a person being asked with an opportunity for an open-ended answer. The question may be signalled by the use of an interrogative word or element (see Chapter V in this study) that is placed either in initial or final position in the clause. For the scope of the discussion, only the initial elements will be considered. However, excluded are what may be referred to as Wh-like interrogative clauses (i.e. questions using words which have similar function as such English interrogative pronouns as ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘what’, ‘how’, etc.) which will be explored separately in the next subsection.

Example 3.73

Viet: Có bao giờ em nghĩ về bên này bờ đại dương?
Lit: [QM] ever you think back [to] side this shore [of] ocean
Eng: Have you ever thought of what’s happening on this side of the ocean?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Có bao giờ em nghĩ về bên này bờ đại dương?</td>
<td>Have ever you think about side this shore [of] ocean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Theme | Rheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you</th>
<th>ever thought [of what’s happening] on this side of the ocean?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above example ‘có’, which is termed ‘emphatic lexeme’ by Binh (1971), and viewed as a ‘particle’ by Thompson (1965), functions as a question maker used to make questions about the temporal aspect of the information sought. Compare the above question with the following:
Example 3.74
Viet: Bao giờ anh lại đi?
Lit: When you again go
Eng: When will you go again?

‘Có’ can be combined with other particles – such as ‘phải’ and ‘không’ to make the formula ‘Có phải … không’ which requires a Yes/No answer, for example:

Viet: Có phải bây giờ là mùa cưới không?
Lit: [QM] now be season wedding [QM]
Eng: Is now the season for marriages?

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Có phải</td>
<td>bây giờ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is now the season</td>
<td>for marriages?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If placed in the initial position, ‘không’ by itself can make an interrogative clause requiring a clarification or confirmation:

Example 3.75

Viet: Không biết mấy giờ ông ấy mới đến?
Lit: No know several hour he [QM] come
Eng: Does [anybody] know what time he will come?

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Không biết mấy giờ</td>
<td>ông ấy mới đến?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No know several hour</td>
<td>he [QM] come</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the tendency of asking ‘no one’ as above is typically an informal conversational style in Vietnamese in which the information seeking is directed to everybody involved in the conversation. Below is how the above utterance should be understood in English:
English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Does [anyone]</th>
<th>know what time he will come?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Or

**Example 3.76**

**Viet:** Không đi à?
**Lit:** No go [QM]
**Eng:** [Are you] not going/coming?

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Không</th>
<th>đi à?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The question maker ‘không’ placed in the initial position warrants the elision of Subject ‘anh/chị’ (‘you’) of the clause. The question should be understood as having the effect of the following utterance:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[Are you]</th>
<th>not going/coming?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the above question makers, there are also many other initial and final question makers (or question particles or elements) that can be used to form interrogative clauses. However, the limited space of the study does not permit detailed discussion.

In addition, an interrogative clause can be simply formed by combining a predicator with an indefinite word or a question maker (or a question particle) such as chua (‘yet’ or ‘not yet’). For example:

**Example 3.77**

**Viet:** Đi chua?
**Lit:** Go yet?
**Eng:** Are we going now?

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Đi</th>
<th>chua?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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And thus the process indicating a human movement ‘di’ (‘go’, ‘walk’, etc.) can be seen as combining both the finite and Subject in English:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are we going now?</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the omission of Subject or Actor of a clause, the Predicator becomes Theme just as it does in an English imperative clause:

**Example 3.78**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet:</td>
<td>Làm bài xong rôi chữ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>Make lesson complete already [QM]?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>Have you done your homework?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vietnamese

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[Anh/ch]</td>
<td>Làm bài</td>
<td>xong rôi chữ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[You]</td>
<td>Make lesson</td>
<td>complete already [QM]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This seems in consistence with the English clause except that in Vietnamese there is no Finite, only Predicator:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you done your homework?</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Wh-like interrogative clause**

The structure of this type of clause is very similar to its English counterpart, except those questions about a characteristic or an identity. In this type of question, a person (or thing) whose identity or characteristic is sought (or the subject of the question), or the person at whom the question is directed, is placed in the Theme position. For example:

**Example 3.78**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet:</td>
<td>Anh là ai?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>You be who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>Who are you?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In contrast, an utterance having a similar communicative effect in English may have different thematic structure, as well as information structure, to that in Vietnamese. While in English the use of Wh-interrogative element, especially in echo questions, signals a request for New information, and usually is placed at the beginning of the clause, in Vietnamese it is a norm to place it in the final position. Bubenik (1979), and particularly Firbas (1966), consider the Wh-interrogative element rhematic; i.e. it contains New information. However, in Halliday’s view, “for non-polar questions, the unmarked theme is the WH-word” and thus, in this sense it contains Given or Old information.

Discussing the intonation of a Wh-question sentence, Quirk et al contend that “falling intonation, not rising intonation, is usual for wh-question” (1972: 197). And the reason for that is that in this type of sentence, by placing the Q-element (or Wh-element) in the initial as well as by inversing subject and operator, it upsets “the normal statement order of [linguistic] elements”. Therefore the information focus (New information) falls on the Wh-element.

Costa (1996), in a study looking at differences between word order and discourse function across languages, observes that in many languages among them Portuguese, subjects with different discourse functions occupy different positions. He refers to work conducted by Adger (1994,1995), and by Pinto (1994), which shows quite convincingly that “the difference between the distribution of subjects in Italian and English follows from the possibility of Italian subjects to stay in situ or to move, depending on the discourse function they play”. To illustrate his point, Costa uses the following examples provided by Adger:

**Example 3.79**

A: Who arrived?
B: *Arrived the postman
B’: The postman arrived.

**Example 3.80**

A: Mario wrote a letter to me.
B: The letter arrived yesterday.

Costa argues that in declarative clauses, because English subjects are obligatorily placed before verbs, there is always some ambiguity between new and old information. Compare the above with the examples in Italian (provided by Pinto 1996):

**Example 3.81**

A: Chi é arrivato
who arrived
B: É arrivato il postino.
is arrived the postman

**Example 3.82A**

A: Mario mi ha scritto una lettera.
Mario to-me has written a letter
B: La lettera è arrivata ieri.
the letter is arrived yesterday

In (3.81A) the subject (‘Chi’ or ‘Who’) is New information, so it has to stay in its base position. In (3.82B), it is Old information hence it has to move to the initial position. This is basically the same pattern found for Portuguese and Costa offers this examplar to highlight his point:

**Example 3.82B**

A: What did you do?
B: *You did what?

To conclude, he argues that: “Wh-phrases have contradictory properties: on the one hand they are operators, which requires them to scope over the sentence; on the other hand, they are new information, which makes them stay in their base position in order to get focal stress. In English, the scope requirement takes wh-words out of the position in which they get sentential focus stress …” (Costa 1990: xxx)

In recent private consultation with Yallop and indirectly with Fahey (2010), who are co-authors of a coursebook on systemic functional grammar (Using Functional Grammar), I was provided with the following analysis of the English Wh-question:

```
Who
Subject Complement
Theme  Rheme
Identifier Identified
Value  Token
New  Given
```

However, they warn that while the above clause contains an unmarked Theme, there are also marked versions, such as “You are WHO?”, or “Who are YOU?” in which the intonation is informative. In these marked versions the item made prominent by intonation may stand out as New.
The below tables show the difference between the English and Vietnamese thematic and information structures of the same utterance:

**Example 3.83**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td>Anh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thematic structure</strong></td>
<td>Theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information structure</strong></td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Subject** | Who | are you? |
| **Thematic structure** | Theme | Rheme |
| **Information structure** | New | Given |

**Vietnamese**

| **Subject** | You | be who |
| **Thematic structure** | Theme | Rheme |
| **Information structure** | Given | New |

**Example 3.84**

Viet: Cái dó là cái gì vậy?
Lit: [class.]* [thing] that be what [QM]
Eng: What’s that? [class.]* = classifier.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Vietnamese</strong></th>
<th><strong>English</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td>[class.] [thing] that be what [QM]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thematic structure</strong></td>
<td>Theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information structure</strong></td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Subject** | What is that? |
| **Thematic structure** | Theme | Rheme |
| **Information structure** | New | Given |

As Vietnamese is a topic-prominent language in such a question, it’s logical to place Subject (the interlocutor whose identity is in question) or an object that the speaker refers to in the first position in the clause or in Theme position and the element of which the speaker wishes to seek information in Rheme position; that is, New information follows Old or Given information. In English, however, the information sought (unknown or New information) is brought to the initial position in the clause. By the same token, a third party about whom the information is sought is also referred to first in the Wh-like type question in Vietnamese:
Example 3.85a

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Nó</th>
<th>là ai?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>Given</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>is s/he?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.85b

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Nó</th>
<th>làm gì ở đây?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>Given</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>What</th>
<th>is s/he doing here?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore it can be said that what may be considered as ‘marked’ Theme in English, may not be the same in Vietnamese and vice versa. However, similar to the Wh-question structure in English, in the case where ‘bao giờ’ (‘when’) is used to form a question, this interrogative element is placed in the initial position to signal the information sought, and thus it is New:

Example 3.86

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Bao giờ</th>
<th>anh môi làm xong?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>you [QM] do complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>will you finish [this]?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thematic structure</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information structure</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>Given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Yes/No (polarity) interrogative clause

The purpose of this type of questions is mainly to invite, or provide the other interlocutor with an opportunity to confirm the correct of two possibilities: positive or negative. In English this type of question is realised by placing either an auxiliary verb, or a finite verbal operator in Theme position. In Vietnamese, however, in most cases, the predicator will be used and thus it is usual for this to occur in Theme position, unless the speaker prefers to include Subject, or because of the requirement of language register.

Example 3.87

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>An com</th>
<th>chura ?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematic struture</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information structure</th>
<th>Given</th>
<th>New</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finite + Subject</th>
<th>Have you</th>
<th>had lunch [or dinner] yet?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematic struture</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information structure</th>
<th>New</th>
<th>Given</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

But if the context requires a certain degree of politeness or respect, Subject is normally used in Theme position. In this case a more formal language register will also be used as shown in the following examplar.

Example 3.88

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Ông</th>
<th>dùng com xong chura ả?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematic struture</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information structure</th>
<th>Given</th>
<th>New</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Compare it with similar expression in English (derived from Thompson 2004: 147).

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finite + Subject</th>
<th>Have you</th>
<th>finished your meal, sir?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thematic struture</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information structure</th>
<th>New</th>
<th>Given</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
3.3.2.4.b  **Imperative clauses**

According to Binh (1971: 158) commands and requests are made up by minor sentences which are more frequently found in spoken than in formal written Vietnamese.

- **Declarative Imperative**

  A Vietnamese declarative imperative clause can be formed using the imperative maker ‘hãy’ (Thompson 1965 considers it as a ‘preverb’) or without it; for example:

  **Example 3.89a**
  
  **Viet**: Hãy ngủ đi em! Ngủ cho yên!
  **Lit**: [I.M.]* sleep [I.E.]** darling! Sleep peacefully
  **Eng**: Sleep, my darling! Sleep soundly!

  [I.M.]* = imperative maker
  [I.E.]** = imperative emphasis

  However, without ‘hãy’, the clause still has the same meaning:

  **Example 3.89b**
  
  **Viet**: Ngủ đi em! Ngủ cho yên!
  **Lit**: Sleep [I.E.]** darling! Sleep peacefully
  **Eng**: Sleep, my darling! Sleep soundly!

  Another frequently used imperative maker is ‘xin’ which can be considered as having the same function as ‘please’ in English and which occurs in a formal context.

  **Example 3.90**
  
  **Viet**: Xin mời ông ngồi!
  **Lit**: [IM]*** invite you sit
  **Eng**: Please be seated! Or Please take a seat!
  [IM]*** = Imperative maker

  In Vietnamese the role of the imperative maker ‘xin’ is to change an invitation into something both more polite and stronger; hence ‘I beg you to take a seat’, and so the thematic structure of this clause is as follows:

  **Vietnamese**: Xin mời ông ngồi!
  
  | Experiential | Process: material |
  | Interpersonal | Predicator |
  | Textual | Theme |
English: Please take a seat!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Process: material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above sentences may occur without subjects and may have the same thematic structure as their English counterparts:

Example 3.91

Viet: Ngủ đi! Ngủ cho yên!
Lit: Sleep [I.E.]! Sleep peacefully
Eng: Sleep! Sleep soundly!

Vietnamese:

Ngủ di! Ngủ cho yên!
Sleep [I.E.]! Sleep peacefully

English:

Sleep! Sleep soundly!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Process: behavioural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.92

Viet: Xin chờ một chút ạ!
Lit: [IM] wait one moment [Pol. M]****
Eng: A moment please! or Please, wait for a moment!

[Pol. M]**** = Polite maker

- Negative Imperative

Negative imperatives are formed using such negators [N] as đừng, chờ (archaic), cấm or không được or không nên.

Example 3.93

Viet: Đừng để tay ra ngoài nguy hiểm!
Lit: [N] put hand outside danger
Eng: Don’t reach out of the window!
Example 3.94

Viet: Chớ làm chứng dối!
Lit: [N] make evidence false
Eng: You shall not bear false witness against your neighbor!

Example 3.95

Viet: Không nên thức khuya! or Đừng thức khuya!
Lit: [N] awake late night [N] awake late night
Eng: [You] shouldn’t stay up late! or Don’t stay up late!

Example 3.96

Viet: Không được nói dối! or Đừng nói dối!
Lit: [N] speak lie [N] speak lie
Eng: [You] shouldn’t tell lies! or Don’t tell lies!

Example 3.97

Viet: Cấm hút thuốc! or Cấm không được hút thuốc!
Lit: Forbid smoke cigarette Forbid not able smoke cigarette
Eng: Smoking is forbidden! Smoking is not allowed! (No smoking!)

When Subject is included in the imperative clause, it makes a marked Theme:

Example 3.98

Viet: Con không được nói dối!
Lit: Son/daughter not able speak lie
Eng: You shouldn’t tell lies

Vietnamese:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Theme (marked)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare the above with its English version:

English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Theme (marked)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 3.99

Viet: Đền phi trường, nhỏ gọi điện thoại cho tôi ra đón!
Lit: Come airport, remember call telephone for I [go] out welcome
Eng: On arrival at the airport, remember to ring me immediately!

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual Frame</th>
<th>Experiential Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare the above with its English version:

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On arrival at the airport,</th>
<th>remember to ring me for a pick up!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME (marked)</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2.4.c Vietnamese Pseudo “Predicated Theme”

According to Thompson (2004: 151), one of the key characteristics of a thematic equative clause is that it can group “more than one element of the message into a single clause constituent that can then function as Theme…”; whereas a predicated Theme “allows the speaker to pick out a single element and give it emphatic thematic status”. (ibid)

In English, a predicated Theme, or a ‘cleft sentence’ as known in traditional grammar, is formed using ‘It’ as Subject (termed ‘Anticipatory’ or ‘Invisible Subject’ by Davies 1997); however, in Vietnamese the word ‘chính’ (precisely/exactly/actually) is used.

While Bình (1971: 138) calls it a ‘construction modifier’, Chinh & Lê (1963: 358) define the function of ‘chính’ as a “subordinate word which is used merely to complement a substantive”; for example:

Example 3.100a

Viet: Chính Giáp nói với tôi chuyện ấy.
Lit: [SW] Giap speak with I story that
Eng: It was Giap who told me that story

Example 3.100b

Viet: Người kia chính là ông Giáp.
Lit: Person that [SW] be Mr Giap.
Eng: That man [there] is actually Mr Giap.
In Example 3.100a, the Vietnamese clausal structure has a similar function as a predicated Theme with the placement of “chính” in the initial position immediately before Subject ‘Giáp’, in effect, giving the proper noun ‘Giáp’ a thematic status. In Example 3.100b, although ‘chính’ is not placed in the first position of the clause, it still draws a clausal focus on the person who is the topic/subject of the communicative event.

It should be noted that in contrast to the claim by Đức (2000: 401) that “the theme in a Vietnamese clause is realised in initial position… [But there] is no overt marker in Vietnamese”, as discussed in Section 3.1.2 and as observed from the above examples, Vietnamese language does have some specific devices to signal thematic significance. In terms of labelling, it’s preferable to call this type of linguistic element ‘focal element maker’ a term proposed by Thompson (1965) instead of that coined by Bình (‘construction modifier’) or defined by Chinh & Lê (‘subordinate word’). Example 3.101 will illustrate the reason for this preference:

Example 3.101

Vietnamese:
Chính cái văn hóa của người Tầu ấy đã chi phối tu tuồng, học thuật, lý luận, chính trị, phong tục của dân ta. (Đặng Quang Hảm, in Chinh & Lê 1963: 231)

Literal:
[Focal element maker] culture of Chinese people [past marker] influence thought, learning, morality, politics, customs of people we.

English:
It is the culture of Chinese people that has influenced our people’s [way] of thinking, learning, morality, [and] political beliefs as well as custom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chính cái văn hóa của người Tầu ấy đã chi phối tu tuồng, học thuật, lý luận, chính trị, phong tục của dân ta.</td>
<td>It is the culture of Chinese people that has influenced our people’s [way] of thinking, learning, morality, [and] political beliefs as well as custom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In contrast to English predicated Theme, the clause constituent occupying the initial position in Vietnamese pseudo predicated Theme seems to be Subject of the clause; whereas in English predicated Theme it functions as Complement.

3.3.2.4.d Preposed Theme

In English, the preposed Theme is “normally a nominal element; and it is most commonly Subject” (Thompson 2004: 153). However, as will be seen, a preposed Theme may be Subject (Example 3.102a), Complement (Example 3.102b), Predicator (Example
3.102c), or Adjunct followed by Complement (Example 3.102d). This type of Theme may be signalled by the use of the emphatic particle ‘thì’. The following examples are derived from Binh (1971: 212-215)

Example 3.102a
Viet: Tôi thì tôi chỉ muốn về Việt Nam
Lit: I [EP] I only want return Vietnam
Eng: I only wanted to return to Vietnam

Example 3.102b
Viet: Quyền truyện đó tôi đọc rồi.
Lit: [Class.] novel that I read already
Eng: That novel I’ve already read.
Or “I’ve already read that novel.”

Example 3.102c
Viet: Làm việc ấy thì ông Ba không dám làm.
Lit: Do work that [EP] Mr Ba not dare do.
Eng: Doing that job Mr Ba doesn’t dare.
Or “Mr Ba doesn’t dare to do that job.”

Example 3.102d (adopted from Chinh & Lê 1963: 558)
Viet: Hiện nay, ở nước ta, chữ Nho ít người học.
Lit: At present, in our country, word [of] Chinese few people study
Eng: Nowadays in our country, [in terms of] Chinese language few people study [it].
Or “Nowadays in our country, few people study Chinese language.”

3.3.2.4.e **Marked and unmarked Theme**

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 73) in English any element occupying the initial position of the clause other than Subject (declarative clause) is seen as ‘marked’. Usual forms of marked Theme includes an adverbial group, a prepositional phrase, or a subordinate clause functioning as Adjunct. The most ‘marked’ of all is a Complement placed in the thematic position.

In Vietnamese, however, there has been no mention of what can be considered as ‘marked’, but following such studies by Chinh and Lê (1963), Thompson (1965), Binh (1971), Hào (1991), Clark (1992), etc. it can be said that other thematic elements, except a nominal group functioning as Subject in a declarative clause (similar to English), an adverbial group, a prepositional phrase, or a subordinate clause (functioning as an adjunct) occupying the initial position of the clause, are ‘marked’.
The following examples will illustrate this point:

a. **Unmarked Theme in Vietnamese thematic system**

**Example 3.103**

**Vietnamese:**
Hiện nay, ở nước ta, chữ Nho ít người học. (Chính & Lê 1963: 558)

**Literal:**
At present, in country [of] we, word [of] Chinese few person study.

**English:**
1) At present in our country, [in terms of] Han scripts few people study [it].
2) Nowadays in our country [the learning of] Han scripts few people study [it]

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hiện nay, ở nước ta, chữ Nho</th>
<th>ít người</th>
<th>học.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CF:</strong> Cir: Temp + Locative + Topic</td>
<td>Participant Theme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME</strong></td>
<td><strong>RHEME</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>English</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At present in our country, [in terms of] Han scripts few people study [it]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cir: Temp. Adjunct</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME (marked)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In **Example 3.103**, in the contextual frame the circumstantial factors include temporal, locative and topic elements. ‘Topic’ is included in the contextual frame of the clause, because contextually ‘chữ Nho’ is actually what the clause is going to be about. Therefore it can be said that as Chinh & Lê (1963) observe, in Vietnamese ‘topic’ can take any position in the clause depending on the context.

b. **Marked Theme in Vietnamese thematic system**

**Example 3.104**

**Viet:**  Chữ Nho, hiện nay ở nước ta, ít người học. (Chính & Lê 1963: 558)
**Lit:**  Word [of] Han, at present in country [of] we, few person study.
**Eng:**  As far as [the learning of] chữ Nho (‘Chinese language’) in our country is concerned, few people study [it].

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>chữ Nho, hiện nay ở nước ta</th>
<th>ít người</th>
<th>học.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CF:</strong> Topic + Cir. Temporal + Locative (marked)</td>
<td>Participant Theme: Subject</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME</strong></td>
<td><strong>RHEME</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Linguistic Theory and Translation Practice
**Example 3.104** typically reflects the characteristics of a topic-prominent language in which ‘Chữ Nho’ being a Complement is brought forward to the thematic position to draw attention of the listener/reader to the ‘topic’ of the message. It is followed by temporal and locative adjunct.

A comparison of the above to a similar expression in English shows some similarity as well as difference in the thematic structure of the two languages:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As far as the current learning of Chinese script in our country is concerned,</th>
<th>few people</th>
<th>undertake [it]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub. Clause functioning as Cir. Adjunct (marked)</td>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However instead of the subordinate clause functioning as circumstantial adjunct, it can be replaced by a prepositional phrase as follows:

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With respect to [the learning of] Chinese scripts at present in our country</th>
<th>few people</th>
<th>study [it]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cir. Adjunct (marked)</td>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.2.4.f Exclamative clause

While English can take advantage of the adverbial ‘how’ in making exclamative expressions, Vietnamese relies on the exclamative maker (excl. maker) ‘thay’ which follows the adjective it modifies. For example:

**Example 3.105a**

Viet: Ðâu dön thay phán dân bà! (Nguyễn Du)  
Lit: Pain [excl. maker] lot woman  
Eng: How painful is the lot of women!

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ðâu dön</th>
<th>thay</th>
<th>phán dân bà!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>[excl. maker]</td>
<td>lot woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How painful is the lot of women!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.105b

Viet: Thương thay cũng một kiếp người! (Nguyễn Du)
Lit: Pity [excl. maker] also one fate person
Eng: How pitiful is such a human fate!

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thương thay cũng một kiếp người!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pity [excl. maker] also one fate person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How pitiful is such a human fate!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the exclamative maker ‘thay’ seems to function also as a ‘hinge’ that links the adjective used as Theme of the exclamative expression with the remainder of the clause. Note also that in the current usage, this type of expression rarely happens or may only appear in such literary forms as poetry, satire, irony, etc.

3.3.2.4.g Thematic equative

Example 3.106

Viet: Văn đề sẽ được đưa ra bàn là phương tiện đi chuyển dành cho việc thăm viếng tù nhân.
Lit: Matter [TM] [pass. maker] bring out discuss be means transport for [NM] visit prisoner.
Eng: What is going to be brought up for discussion is the means of transport to visit inmates.

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Văn đề sẽ được đưa ra bàn là phương tiện đi chuyển dành cho việc thăm viếng tù nhân.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matter [TM] [pass. maker] bring out [to] discuss be means transport for [NM] visit prisoner.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| THEME | RHEME |

Structurally, it seems that at least the thematic structure of the Vietnamese thematic equative share some commonality with its English counterpart.
What is going to be brought up for discussion is the means of transport to visit inmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I simply wish to say is that you either pay the amount of rent in arrear or move out.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 3.107**

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vân đề tôi muốn nói chỉ gián đi là anh trả số tiền thuê còn thiếu hay đơn đi nơi khác.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lit: Matter I want speak only simple be you pay amount rent owe or move to place different.

Eng: What I simply want to say is that you either pay the amount of rent in arrears or move out.

**3.3.2.4.h Passive voice in Vietnamese**

Earlier in this chapter the issue of a passive structure in Vietnamese has been briefly discussed with the view proposed by Alves (1998: 113) that there is no passive voice in Vietnamese, but that what have always been considered as passive voice markers in Vietnamese are actually “affective” verbs ‘which share syntactic distributions and semantic functions’. His observation (ibid) is that “Vietnamese has a class of extension verbs (i.e. verbs that require predicate complements) that link the sentence-initial, nominatively-marked noun in sentences to the dependent clauses of affective verbs. These verbs have specific semantic functions that indicate the positive, neutral, or negative effects of those verbs on nominatively-marked nouns, hence the term “affective” (a subclass of extension verbs) is used.”

Before Alves, other Vietnamese grammarians among them Chình & Lê (1963: 359), refer to such passive markers as “bi” , “được”, “phải”, etc… as ‘subordinate elements’ which are used to complement a verb. Binh (1971: 171), however, calls these elements ‘passive particles’; while Thompson (1965) refers to them as ‘momentary action verbs’ which function as head and take a descriptive complement. According to the author, this type of clause resembles “English passive expressions and the phenomenon is so labelled in traditional grammars” (1965: 229) However, Thompson also warns that “it is important to remember that basically Vietnamese verbs are neither active nor passive” (ibid)
Thompson (ibid: 228-229) lists three most common ‘momentary action verbs’:

- **Bị** meaning suffer, undergo, be affected adversely by some action, state or factor
- **Do** meaning be accomplished, caused, effected by, be dependent on, the result of
- **Được** receive, get, obtain; be benefited by, affected favourably by some action, state or factor, be permitted.

Keenan & Dryer (2006), however, consider these passive maker elements as ‘passive auxiliary verbs of experiencing’. The Subject of a clause with ‘bị’ as passive auxiliary will be affected negatively; whereas that with ‘được’ as passive auxiliary will be affected positively and with ‘do’ the affect on the Subject will be neutral. For example (borrowed from Thompson 1965: 229):

1. **Passive auxiliary verb of negative experience: ‘bị’**

**Example 3.108a**

Viet: Trong khi bị giam, Thế bị khó sờ, ăn uống thiếu thốn, sáng bị đốn, tối bị tra tấn…

Lit: During [pass. m.] detain, Catfish [pass. m.] hardship, eat drink inadequate, morning beat, evening torture…

Eng: While he was detained [in police custody], Catfish suffered hardships – his food and drink were entirely insufficient, by morning he was flogged, by night he was tortured…

2. **Passive auxiliary verb of positive experience: ‘được’**

**Example 3.108b**

Viet: Nam được thầy giáo khen

Lit: Nam [pass. m.] teacher praise

Eng: Nam was praised by the teacher.

3. **Passive auxiliary verb of neutral experience: ‘do’**

**Example 3.108c**

Viet: Tài liệu này do Bộ Y Tế NSW soạn thảo và án hành

Lit: Information this [pass. m.] Dept. Health NSW compile and publish

Eng: This information was compiled and published by the NSW Health Department.

If we accept the view posited by Thompson (‘momentary action verbs’), and Alves (‘affective verbs’), or by Keenan & Dryer (‘passive auxiliary verbs of experiencing’) in
reference to these particular linguistic elements, then it is obvious that Vietnamese does possess a syntactic structure that has a similar semantic function as the ‘passive structure’ in English. But the question is why has it become common practice for many Vietnamese translators to translate a passive structure in English into an active one? This practice, as will be discussed in detail in the next chapter, may cause changes not only to the cohesion of a text, but also to its generic properties. This tendency becomes more evident in an agentless clause. For example:

**Example 3.109**

**Source Text:** *The renting guide*  
(Office of Fair Trading - NSW Department of Commerce, January 2004 – *Appendix C*)

**Eng:** Written notice must be given if a tenancy agreement is to be ended  
**Viet:** Nếu muốn hủy hợp đồng thuê nhà, thì phải có giấy thông báo.  
**Lit:** If want [to] abolish agreement rent, then must have *paper notice*  
“If one wishes to terminate a tenancy agreement, one must give notice in writing”

In **Example 3.109**, ‘written notice’, Subject and Theme of the clause, is replaced by an ‘if’ clause in which the subject of the clause ‘someone’ is elided. This is a widespread practice particularly found in official or legal documents. In **Example 3.110**, however, the material process in passive construction in the original is changed to a nominal group in the target language text as shown below:

**Example 3.110**

**Source Text:** *Child Sexual Assault*  

**Eng:** Finding out that a child has been sexually assaulted is always a shock.  
**Viet:** Phát hiện ra rằng một đứa trẻ là nạn nhân của những hành động đối mặt thì nhiên là một chấn động tâm thần lớn.  
**Lit:** Discover that a child be victim of [plural marker] action indecent of course be one shock mind great.  

“Discovering that a child has been a victim of indecent acts is of course a great shock.

Whereas in **Example 3.111**, in order to avoid having to use passive voice in Vietnamese, the translator resorts to changing the material process ‘write’ into the relational process ‘be’ (copular verb).
Example 3.111

Source Text: Fish oils
(Australian Rheumatology Association – 2010: 1 – Appendix I)

Eng: This sheet has been written to provide general information about the use of fish oil supplements as a treatment for arthritis.

Viet: Trang này là các thông tin tổng quát về cách dùng dầu cá để chữa bệnh viêm khớp (arthritis).

Lit: Page this be [pl. m.] information general about way [of] use oil fish for treatment [of] inflamed joint (arthritis).

“This sheet provides general information about the use of fish oil to treat arthritis.”

One of the reasons for the avoidance of using passive constructions may have something to do with tone and tonality which is a distinctive feature of Vietnamese language. As Duffield (1999) observes such affective preverbs as ‘bi’ or ‘dước’ possesses a low and broken tone (“heavy”). He also offers an explanation for the “unpopularity” of these elements in Vietnamese sentences (especially in spoken form) as follows “a sequence high or high broken tones followed by a low broken tone sounds better than when the low broken tone interrupts the sequence. Of course, these are only preference rules which depend on the particular lexical items chosen; in many instances, there is no choice but to use a dispreferred sequence.” (1999: 125-126).

This phenomenon, however, does not only exist in Vietnamese and English translation, but also seems to be common in other languages such as Arabic, Spanish, German, Thai, and Chinese (see for example Al-Jarf 2007 on Arabic-English; He 1996 on Chinese-English; Weissenborn 1992 on German-English; etc.)

The passive is used in English, in some cases because of the requirement of a particular text genre (for example research abstract, technical report, etc), the writer selects passive to maintain, for example, the starting point of the text; in other cases, a particular Theme choice necessitates passivisation within a clause. As pointed out by Thompson (2004: 154): “In most cases, there will be a complex web of reason for choosing passive rather than active, but there are some cases where the influence of Theme choice is relatively dominant. This is clearest where the Agent (the ‘doer’ of the action) is explicitly mentioned in a prepositional phrase with ‘by’, since in these cases both potential Subjects are present.”

In addition, according to Hinds (glossa 9:1, 1975: 89) the use of a passive construction in English is important not only in terms of sentence structure, but also in relation to the semantic aspect of a text. The decision by a writer to use a passive form essentially allows “the sentence to comply with the word order principle” as well as to
provide “the background for the focused element” (or rheme) of the sentence. As Hinds further explains, “A function (i.e. purpose) of the passive transformation is to alter the normal theme-rheme relationships of a sentence by moving elements out of the subject-verb-object progression. Often this transformation is used to place a rhematic subject into the sentence final position, or to place a thematic object into the sentence initial position, or both” (ibid: 90).

Reinhart (1981: 64) even proposes that the use of passive structure is one of the textual strategies a writer uses to signal an introduction (or change) of discourse topic in the text, as she explains, “Passivisation is another option available in the language to mark the topic structurally. The subjects of passive sentences are generally used as topics…”

Seen from this perspective, the use of passive construction is strongly associated with the textual organisation of a text, in particular, its thematic and information structure. Any change made to thematic structure of a clause in a text will strongly impact on the development of a text.

In English genres, passive constructions are more frequently used in abstract and technical genres, especially in official documents and academic writing; they are typically used to produce an impression of objectivity and formality. Vietnamese passives in general, however, do not share the same function as their English counterparts. Instead, Chinh & Lê (1963) have noted that in Vietnamese government official documents such as public notices, decrees, directives, and so on, there are sentences or clauses without a grammatical subject (see also Example 3.112a and 3.112b where an Agentless clause in English has been changed into a Subjectless clause in Vietnamese); for example:

**Example 3.112a**

**Viet:** Nay sửa đổi điều … nghị định số … ngày …
**Lit:** Now amend article … directive No … date …
**Eng:** “[It] hereby [declares] the amendment of Article …, Directive No … [issued on] …(date)

**Example 3.112b**

**Viet:** Nay thiết lập đại sứ Việt Nam tại …
**Lit:** Now establish embassy Vietnam at/in…
**Eng:** “[It] hereby [declares] the establishment of a Vietnamese Embassy in …”
Before leaving the discussion on the so-called ‘passive structure’ in Vietnamese, it is necessary to ponder the label used to describe the ‘passive making elements’ (pass. m.), or in Thompson’s view (1965) ‘momentary action verbs’, or in Alves’s (1998) ‘affective verbs’, or ‘auxiliary verbs of experiencing’ as coined by Keenan & Dryer (2006).

First, ‘bị’ may be accompanied by an adjective or a noun, and not necessarily by another verb, to express a state of being, for example:

**Example 3.113**

| Viet | Y bịnh ốm, nên không đi làm được. |
| Lit: | He [pass. m.] sick, therefore not go work able. |
| Eng: | ‘He was sick, therefore [he] was not able to go to work.’ |

By the same token, ‘được’ may be used both as a pre-verb or post-verb. As a post-verb, it expresses an ability or possibility; as indicated in the above example or illustrated in the following:

**Example 3.114**

| Viet | Cái này ăn được không? |
| Lit: | [class.] [thing] this eat able [QM] |
| Eng: | ‘Is this edible?’ |

For this reason, the classification of these linguistic elements as ‘auxiliary verbs of experiencing’ (by Keenan & Dryer), or their labelling as ‘momentary action verbs’ (coined by Thompson) may not be appropriate in this case. Following Alves’ suggestion, I would propose ‘affective pre-verb’ when these elements are used in a passive-like construction, and ‘post-verb’ when used to mean ‘ability’ or ‘possibility’.

### 3.3.2.5 Contextual frame

Earlier in the chapter, an adaptation has been proposed of the view by such Vietnamese grammarians as Chinh & Lê (1963), Thompson (1965), Hao (1991, 1992), as well as SFL scholars such as Fries (1981, 1994, 1995, and 1996), Huddleston (1988), and Downing (1991), and particularly Davies (1996) on the identification of Theme in Vietnamese clauses. Therefore, I will subsume non-Subject elements such as circumstantial and modal adjuncts as well as subordinate clauses in initial position that may impact on discourse or change the textual framework to some extent.
a. Contextual Frame: Circumstantial: Situational

Example 3.115

Viet: Trong các trào lưu tư tưởng của người Tàu tràn sang bên ta, có ảnh hưởng sâu xa đến dân tộc ta nhất là Nho giáo (Duong Quang Ham, in Chinh & Le 1963: 514)

Lit: Among [plural marker] trend [of] thought of people China spread [to] side [of] we, have influence profound to people [of] we most be Confucianism.

Eng: Among many trends of Chinese thinking introduced to Vietnam [the one that] has had the most profound influence on our people is Confucianism.

The prepositional group ‘trong các trào lưu tư tưởng của người Tàu tràn sang bên ta’ (literally meaning ‘among many trends of Chinese thinking spread to our country’) is used as adverbial adjunct orienting the audience to the topic of discussion (‘trends of Chinese thinking’) or the domain of discourse topic. And instead of repeating ‘trào lưu tư tưởng’ (‘trend of thought’), the subject of the clause which is elided, it uses the possessive verb ‘có’ functioning as a ‘hinge’ to link the contextual frame with the Rheme of the clause.

b. Contextual Frame: Circumstantial: Causal

Example 3.116:

Viet: Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kết cấu, có nhiều vấn đề chưa giải quyết được.

Lit: Because still lack data for cross-reference, have many problem yet anybody able to solve.

Eng: Due to a lack of data for cross-reference, there were many issues for which no one could offer any solution.

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF: Causal</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME: Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vì còn thiếu tài liệu để kết cấu, có nhiều vấn đề chưa giải quyết được.</td>
<td>Chưa giải quyết được.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The preposition ‘vì’ (‘due to’ or ‘because of’) provides the reason for the interpretation of what follows in the clause which is ‘tiểu tài liệu đề kế cứu’ (‘a lack of data for cross-reference’). This is followed by the existential verb ‘có’ which is used to introduce the ‘real’ subject of the clause and functions as a link between the contextual frame and Rheme.

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Due to a lack of data for cross-reference,</th>
<th>there were many issues for which no one could offer any solution.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cir. Adj. (marked)</td>
<td>Existential Theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME</strong></td>
<td><strong>RHEME: Effect</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.117

Viet: Xem sách này ta có thể nhận được tư tưởng của Mạnh Tử về các vấn đề sau này …
(Đồng Quốc Hấn, in Chình & Lê 1963: 513)

Lit: See book this we able receive successful thought of Mencius about problem follow

Eng: By reading the book we are able to recognise Mencian thoughts on the following issues …

Vietnamese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Xem sách này ta có thể nhận được tư tưởng của Mạnh Tử về các vấn đề sau này …</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CF: Discourse Scope</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>By reading the book we are able to recognise Mencian thoughts on the following issues …</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cir. Adj (marked)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THEME</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is considered as a non-finite clause in English (Example 117) is often used as Contextual Frame in Vietnamese to provide a scope for the audience to interpret what follows in the clause. This strategy is consistent with the characteristics of a topic-prominent language.

Example 3.118 (adopted from Chình & Lê 1963: 558)

Viet: Hiện nay, ở nước ta, chữ Nho ít người học.
Lit: At present, in country [of] we, Han script few person study/learn
In terms of marked and unmarked Themes, Contextual Frames in Vietnamese particularly those functioning as temporal, locative, and situational adjuncts are conventionally unmarked. This is in contrast to the thematic structure of the same expression in English which is made a marked structure, as illustrated as follows:

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF: Temp + Locative + Domain</th>
<th>Participant Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td></td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 3.119** (borrowed from Dương Quang Hài, in Chinh & Lê 1963: 535)

Viet:  Về đường văn học dân ta học chữ Nho, theo đạo Nho, thâu thập dân tư tưởng và học thuật của người Tầu.

Lit:  About language study people we learn word [of] Han, follow Confucianism, collect gradually thought and learning of people Chinese.

Eng:  With respect to language studies our people learned Han scripts, adopted Confucianism, [and] gradually acquired Chinese thinking and teachings.

**Vietnamese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF: Domain</th>
<th>Participant Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cir: Restrictive (marked)</th>
<th>Experiential Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 3.120

Viet: Đại đề phép thi của ta cụ năm nào đến khoa thi thì quan đọc học các tỉnh sát hạch học trò ...
(Phan Kế Bính, in Chình & Lê 1963: 541)
Lit: Roughly [speaking] rule [of] exam of we any year come round examination then officer in charge education [plural marker] province assess student.
Eng: Generally speaking, in relation to our exam procedures when it came to examination time in any particular year, it was the officer-in-charge of each provincial education department who would organise assessments for students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Đại đề phép thi của ta cụ năm nào đến khoa thi thì</td>
<td>Generally speaking, in relation to our exam procedures when it came to examination time in any particular year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quan đọc học các tỉnh</td>
<td>it was the officer-in-charge of each provincial education department who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sát hạch học trò ...</td>
<td>would organise assessment sessions of students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF: Cir: Subject viewpoint + Situational</td>
<td>CF: Cir: Restrictive + Situational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant Theme</td>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>THEME (marked)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RHEME</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2.6  **Interpersonal Theme**

As in English, interpersonal Theme in Vietnamese can be realised through the use of a modal adjunct expressing a personal feeling or view on a certain issue. The following example borrowed from Thompson (1965) will show how interpersonal Theme is expressed in a clause.

Example 3.121

Viet: Tôi nghĩ cho anh ta, lúc trở về, trong khi bay qua bể, chim [bi] nặng quá không chồng nổi, liên đề anh ta theo với túi vàng rồi tum xuống biển. (Thompson 1965: 231)
Lit: Pity for him, on return, while fly over sea, bird [passive marker] heavy very not carry-on-back- successful, so let he follow with bag gold fall down sea.
Eng: Unfortunately for him, on the way back, while flying across the sea, the bird found [its load] too heavy [and] could not carry [it], [so] promptly let him and the bag of gold fall down into the sea.
### 3.3.2.7 Thematised Comment

As earlier discussed Vietnamese language does not possess such a structure as the anticipatory/introductory ‘it’-structure, nor does it have an impersonal pronoun which can be used in such expressions as ‘It’s reported that…’, ‘It’s alleged that…’, etc. Therefore, when faced with such constructions, a translator may use the common noun ‘người ta’ which literally means ‘people’ or ‘human beings’ to refer to that anonymous identity. Often, particularly in news reporting, the fixed expression ‘dước biết’ (lit. ‘it’s known’) is employed to render such expressions as ‘it’s reported that…’ or ‘it is alleged that…’. Alternatively ‘người ta được biết’ (lit. ‘it’s known to people that…’) or ‘người ta cho biết’ (lit. ‘people/someone inform(s)’) is used. Similarly, what is termed ‘thematised comment’ by Thompson (1996, 2004), which is normally used to express personal view or provide evaluative comment, can cause a lot of difficulties for English-Vietnamese translators. This issue will be discussed at some depth in Chapter V. The following are some examples to help illustrate with discussion.

Above it was said that thematised comment is a textual strategy employed by speakers/writers to provide an evaluative comment, and the use of the anticipatory ‘it’ structure aims to make the statement sound objective. By comparing the ST with the TT it is shown that Vietnamese lacks a corresponding structure to deal with such textual strategy.
Example 3.122

Eng: It is much better to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help.

Viet: Tốt nhất quý vị nên liên lạc với bác sĩ hiện đang điều trị cho thân nhân của mình, hoặc toàn chuyên môn về bệnh tâm thần thuộc bệnh viện hay trung tâm y tế công đồng địa phương để nhờ họ giúp đỡ.

Back translation:
The best way [is that] you should approach the doctor who treats your relative, or [to contact] a mental health team at the hospital or at the local community health centre for their advice.

Source Text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introductory - it</th>
<th>link verb</th>
<th>Evaluative Category adjectival group</th>
<th>Thing evaluated to-infinitive clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>much better</td>
<td>to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Target Text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tốt nhất [là] quý vị</th>
<th>nên liên lạc với bác sĩ hiện đang điều trị cho thân nhân của mình, hoặc toàn chuyên môn về bệnh tâm thần thuộc bệnh viện hay trung tâm y tế công đồng địa phương để nhờ họ giúp đỡ.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[The] best way [is that] you</td>
<td>should approach the doctor who treats your relative, or [to contact] a mental health team at the hospital or at the local community health centre for their advice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3.123

Eng: It’s important that families in this situation don’t try to cope with the problem alone.

Viet: Vẫn đề quan trọng là những gia đình có thân nhân mắc bệnh tâm thần đúng nên đừng dầu với những khó khăn một mình, mà nên tìm nơi giúp đỡ.

Back translation:
What is important is that families with a mentally ill relative should not deal with these problems themselves, but [they] should seek help.
In terms of thematic structure and with respect to types of Theme, despite differences in word order Vietnamese and English seem to share certain commonalities in relation to experiential/participant Themes (topical Themes), structural/textual Themes (including continuatives, certain types of conjunctive, conjunctions, etc.), and some Wh-elements functioning as Themes (except for the corresponding elements of what, where, and who which become tagging elements in question, instead of fronting as in English). Moreover, similar to its English counterpart, a thematised complement is also considered as marked in Vietnamese. The fronting of other types of element such as subordinate clauses, disjuncts or adjuncts in general, also give them thematic status but do not make them marked in Vietnamese because the initial position in the clause is usually the conventional position for such elements.

Another grammatical characteristic of the Vietnamese language which should be taken into account is that a lack of auxiliary verbs to assist with the construction of interrogative mood makes Vietnamese dependable on question or interrogative makers which are often used as tagging elements.

These differences, no doubt, impact on the thematic structure of the translated text as well as affect the flow of information due to the thematic shifts in relation to its original. Therefore, in order to maintain the textual function of the ST as well as its communicative
effect, a translator needs to consider these thematic similarities and differences and may need to explore other strategies which help bring the TT as close to the ST as possible.

Although the above is not an exhaustive examination and discussion of textual metatfunction of Vietnamese grammar, especially its thematic structure, it has looked in some depth at the textual component of Vietnamese, particularly its thematic networks, and pointed out similarities and differences in comparison to those pertaining to English grammar. The similarity and differences between the thematic systems of the two languages under investigation will be explored further in Chapter IV and Chapter V when discussion moves to cover the actual practice of English and Vietnamese translation.
CHAPTER IV

FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE – IMPLEMENTATION OF THEORETICAL NOTIONS TO TRANSLATION PRACTICE

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will examine the differences and similarities between two closely related texts (Example 4.1); i.e. a source language text in English (henceforth ST) and the back translation of its Vietnamese version (hereafter labeled as target text or TT). It starts by looking at how the theoretical notions or concepts discussed in the earlier chapters impact on translation practice in a concrete sense and how these can, in turn, be used to handle or provide solutions to the common issues raised in Chapter II. Further, these can be implemented to translation quality assessment in evaluating and appraising a TT against its original.

The main focus of the chapter, however, will be a comparison of the thematic structure of the TT against that of the ST (Example 4.1). Close examination will show how a change to the thematic structure of the TT will impact on its overall discourse structure as compared to its original. The examination will also show how any change made to the thematic structure of the TT will inadvertently make it become a variant of the ST instead of providing a truthful parallel of the original’s intent.

In earlier chapters we have discussed the three metafunctions of language and how they are realized in text, which is a product of language in use. Using SFL as an analytical tool to compare the realization of the metafunctions in the ST and the TT would enable us to accurately identify many surface features of the texts as well as detect any changes made to the TT at the metafunction level. Subsequently we will be able to hypothesize the reasons for these changes.

In addition, according to Munday (2002:184), the SFL model can reveal the systematic link between the lexico-grammatical, discourse-semantic and generic dimensions of the ST and the TT and the detection of shifts in the discourse-semantic and generic dimensions can also help to highlight any divergence in the Contexts of Culture and Contexts of Situations between the texts.
As far as the three metafunctions of language are concerned, a common belief among many translators and translation theorists is that translation mainly deals with ideational meaning (or propositional content) of a text; that is, as long as the translator can carry the meaning expressed in the ST over to the TT, then the task is successfully fulfilled. In contrast, textual meaning, which reflects through thematic and information structures and which is the realization of both ideational and interpersonal meanings of the text, is less likely to be paid attention to. It should be repeated that textually, thematic structure is responsible for the cohesion of a text; whereas information structure concerns the flow of information throughout the text.

As will be shown in this chapter, however, the prioritization of ideational meaning in translation is not always satisfactory. Attempts by the translator to match the meaning of the TT against the ST at lexical and syntactic levels, ignoring differences in thematic structure, may textually or discursively distort the message reproduced in the TT or may create an effect not intended by the text producer. The findings of a detailed examination of the texts in question will illustrate this point.

Later in Chapter V, the discussion will concentrate mainly on the thematic structure of a corpus of a further three informative texts with the view that it is of utmost importance for translators to maintain as closely as possible the thematic structure of the original by ascertaining the effect of the change to thematic structure on the information flow in the text.

As explained in the Introductory Chapter the reasons for putting the texts under question through several analytical models are manifold:

a) Each model is used to explore certain features of the texts in response to the specific aim and objectives of the investigation. For example register analysis helps identify the context in which the text is produced, the purpose for which the text is produced as well as potential users of the text.

b) Even though the main focus of the investigation is the impact of possible thematic shifts of the TT resulting from the translation process, any relevant theoretical insights and methodological approaches will benefit translators with respect to informing and addressing issues in translation theory and practice.

c) The exercise may lead to the formation of an eclectic model comprising the most effective analytical tools which help tease out particular textual features and meanings that may be hidden under the multi-level and multi-layered structure of a text, or may be overlooked by other models, and yet are essential in the process of textual comparison and contrast.
4.1 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

4.1.1 CLAUSE AS A BASIC UNIT FOR ANALYSIS

Any element which functions as Theme, in either a clause or clause complex presented in all the texts presented in this chapter, will be analysed.

In terms of thematic structure in English, Theme operates at various levels, as observed by Halliday (1985: 56) who holds that “we find thematic organisation appearing in different guises throughout the system of the language, with manifestations both above the clause and below it.”

Martin (1992) sees Theme existing in larger units and proposes that Theme should be analysed at the level of clause, clause complex, and paragraph, and even at the level of text.

However, as Fries and Francis (1992: 47) point out “the choice of unit to investigate must be governed by the purposes of the investigator”. And since the purpose of this study is to explore how a shift in thematic structure of the TT may impact on meaning in general, and probably on the level of discourse semantics and genre, therefore following Fries (1981, 1983, 1992, 1995), and Fries & Francis (1992), only independent clauses within a clause complex are chosen for analysis. That means only paratactic sequences and primary clauses in hypotactic sequences, with beta (subordinate) clauses forming part of the Rheme, are analysed. This will make it easier to examine the method of development and thematic pattern of a text, because “the structure of beta clauses, including their thematic structure, tends to be constrained by the alpha clauses.” (Fries & Francis 1992: 47)

Another reason for adopting this approach is explained by Thompson (2007: 680) that “only independent clauses realise moves in the exchange in interpersonal terms and therefore Themes at this level signal more visibly the way a text is unfolding.”

Clause complex, as referred to in the current research, is any independent clause which may be preceded or followed by one or more than one dependent clause; i.e. an alpha ^ beta (a ^ b), or a beta ^ alpha (b ^ a). In addition, in a clause complex which comprises two or more paratactic clauses, for example two alpha clauses (a ^ a), or an alpha followed by a beta, and by another alpha clause (a ^ b ^ a), thematic structure of each alpha clause will be examined separately.

Fries and Francis also advise text analysts to ignore the thematic structure of any subordinate clause if it follows an independent one; i.e. if a b follows an a clause, then its Theme should not be analysed. As they explain “the structure of beta clauses, including their thematic structure, tends to be constrained by the alpha clauses” (1992: 47).
However, in the case of a hypotactically related clause complex, if the dependent clause precedes the independent, then the former will be identified as Theme. This is because in such a case the dependent clause functions similarly to an adjunct, and because “the way in which the Themes work to signal the ‘method of development’... of the text emerges more clearly if dependent clauses in initial position are taken as the point of departure for the whole clause complex” (Thompson 2004: 155).

For the same reason, no embedded or relative clause will be included in the analysis, because “such a clause functions inside the structure of a nominal group and its contribution to discourse is minimal.” (Thompson: ibid) Thompson also contends that a clause-by-clause approach has an emphasis on “experiential continuities of the text” because it mainly focuses on the main participants; whereas “an analysis by T-unit or sentence will typically reflect the overall organisation and changes of direction more strongly.” (2007: 681)

The comparative and contrastive analysis of the texts will incorporate the analysis of both thematic structure and information structure and adopt the ‘separating approach’ to thematic and information structure proposed by Halliday (1985, 1992) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). In this approach, patterns of Given and New are considered as separate from those of Theme and Rheme (see Chapter IV for discussion in detail).

One of the reasons for the selection of such an approach instead of the notion of Theme proposed by linguists of the Prague School of Linguistics (notably known for their theoretical notion of Functional Sentence Perspective or FSP) is the consistency of the conception of Theme as ‘the point of departure of the message’ as well as its unique position as the initial element in the clause. Another reason for this selection is the semantic and contextual aspects of Theme in Halliday’s view of the information system in which a thematic element can carry New information, and is not always Old (or Given) as proposed by FSP linguists. In a declarative clause, Theme tends to conflate with Given (or Old) information and Rheme, containing New information, tends to be moved toward the end of the clause.

However, as far as the principle of end-focus (see Greenbaum and Quirk 1990) is concerned, the FSP approach to Theme-Rheme will be followed with its theory of Communicative Dynamism pioneered by Firbas (1974, 1987). This is due to the characteristics of Vietnamese as a topic-prominent language (see next section for further discussion), because, according to Johns (1991: 27) “In terms of the theory of Communicative Dynamism… topic-prominent language follows the FSP linearity principle far more closely than does a subject-prominent language.”
As will be discussed in due course, this flexibility will make the translation of English texts into a language whose word order and syntactic structures are not as flexible as that of English more achievable. Such flexibility also helps provide an explanation for ‘markedness’ that accounts for the prominence of any linguistic elements other than Subject occupying the first position in the clause.

The notion of ‘markedness’ is important in translation because any change to the word order of a text will result in changes to its thematic structure, and this structure may suggest an underlying motif of the text producer in selecting a particular element as the point of departure for the translated text. As Halliday (1985: 67) rightly observes “by analysing the thematic structure of a text clause by clause, we can gain an insight into its texture and understand how the writer made clear to us the nature of his underlying concerns.”

An awareness of the way in which thematic structure and information structure are organised in different working languages will help translators make appropriate considerations to reflect truthfully in the TT the motivation and intention of the ST producer.

4.1.2 SELECTION OF TEXT FOR ANALYSIS

To explore the divergence and convergence of thematic structure and information structure of texts in different languages, a pair of parallel texts is chosen for the first analysis (Example 4.1) with the assumption that one mirrors the other. The original (ST, in English) is a paragraph long text appearing with its translation (TT, in Vietnamese) in the health and beauty news section of the in-flight bi-monthly and bilingual Vietnam Airlines magazine, Heritage Fashion. The primary aim of the magazine is to provide its passengers with information concerning tourist attractions in Vietnam and promoting local products, hotel services, handcrafts and other artifacts. It also contains advertisements promoting foreign imported products carrying popular brand names such as Cartier, Rolex, Louis Vuitton and Chanel.

The contents of this glossy coloured magazine does not list the particular section headed health and beauty news, leading to an assumption that this section is used to serve as a ‘filler’ which helps entertain passengers during their long distance flights. The section comprises ten very short articles in English (with their corresponding translations in Vietnamese) ranging from 50 to 200 words long and covering diverse topics from the benefits of doing exercise and eating green vegetables and turmeric, to the harmful effects of mobile phone usage among men.
From the outset, it should be stressed that for convenience of discussion an English back translated version of the Vietnamese translation is provided. In an effort to reflect truthfully the thematic structure of the text in Vietnamese, and as far as thematic structure is concerned, the back translated text is kept as structurally close to its Vietnamese counterpart as possible. This practice may cause some structural clumsiness, although it clearly helps with the detection of any change made to the thematic structure of the TT. The chosen article for the present examination is about preventing the common cold. It has been selected for thematic analysis because:

1) the text is concerned with an everyday health issue which everyone can relate to;
2) the common cold is a health condition which is easily contracted and its symptoms and complications are easily recognized. It has both individual and social impact because its complications do not cause only discomfort to patients, but also loss of working days, and thus it affects individuals’ income as well as causing consequences to a nation’s economy. Therefore any information concerning potential preventative measures/methods will attract a lot of interest;
3) the text is written in a non-technical, simple language and although it comprises several clauses complex they are mainly paratactic and relative clauses. Thus, it is easy to understand.

To assist with ease of reading, the text will be divided according to its punctuated sentences and numbered. And as discussed, a back translation of the Vietnamese translated version will also be provided and will be labelled as Target Text.

Example 4.1:


SOURCE TEXT

COLD PROTECTION

1. A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women, claim researchers in the United States.
2. The study revealed that post-menopausal women who worked out regularly had about half the risk of colds as those who did not exercise.
3. The study involved 115 overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before the trial.
4. Half the women were assigned to exercise moderately, such as walking on a treadmill or walking outside, for 45 minutes a day, five days a week.
5. The other half were told to take part in once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions.
6. Over 12 months, the risk of colds decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers.
7. In the last three months of the study, the women who were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising.

TARGET TEXT (BACK TRANSLATION)

COLD PROTECTION

1. American researchers claimed that a long-term exercise program of moderate degree could reduce the risk of contracting colds [and/or] flu among older women.
2. This study was published in the American Journal of Medicine and concluded that post-menopausal women who exercised regularly [could] reduce the risk of having colds [and/or] flu by half as compared with those who did no exercise.
3. The study examined 115 post-menopausal women who were overweight [and who did not do] any exercise before the trial.
4. Half of the women were given [an opportunity to be involved in] some types of moderate exercise such as walking, working on an exercise bike, or walking outdoors for about 45 minutes a day, five days a week.
5. The other half participated in supine relaxation sessions once [a week], each time about 15 minutes (sic).
6. After 12 months, the risk of having a cold [and/or] flu reduced among the exercisers and increased among the relaxers.
7. In the last three months of the study, those who only did supine relaxation had three times more risk of contracting a cold [and/or] flu than those who exercised regularly.

4.2 TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

There are various theoretical notions and frameworks that are deemed to be able to assist translators in their dealing with text, the fundamental object of their work. This current study aims to explore various text analysis models to determine which are best to serve this purpose.

There may be some overlapping findings varying from model to model. However, given the purpose of the present study, this overlapping is necessary and significant for a comparison of the effectiveness of individual models. The exploration will provide an insightful perspective into which models are most effective to employ in text analysis for the translation purpose as well as in detecting similarities and differences between the ST and the TT for the purpose of translation evaluation and criticism.

This section will start with the notion of register and its contextual variables.
4.2.1 REGISTER ANALYSIS

Register is defined as “variation [of language] according to use” (Halliday & Hasan 1985: 89) and its technique is based on the observation that in a certain context particular recognisable configurations of linguistic resources are used (Thompson 2004). Register comprises three contextual variables Field, Tenor, and Mode.

At the discourse-semantic level, register analysis helps discover the context of situation. This includes the information about where the texts were produced, the purpose for which the texts were produced, and the audience for whom the texts were written (as well as the role relations between the text producer and the reader).

FIELD

Field of Discourse is realised by the Transitivity system which includes participants, processes and circumstances, and in particular, semantic fields. Even though both the source language and target language texts share many aspects of Field (research report on benefits of exercise), each expresses it in different ways.

In the ST the main participants of most clauses complex are either the ‘exercise program’ or the ‘study’ (inanimate actor), with the ‘women’ (the subject of the study) as recipients of actions imposed by it. The ‘risk of colds’, which is the ‘Goal’ of the ‘study’, is also the participant of one of the clauses in the ST.

On the other hand in the TT, the participants of its clauses vary from the ‘American researchers’, the ‘study’, the ‘women’, to the ‘risk of having a cold/flu’. This, to some extent, weakens the focus of the text, given it is about the study, at the same time making it harder for the reader to comprehend.

Lexically, there are some significant differences between the ST and the TT, for example ‘stretchers’ has been translated as ‘supine relaxers’ and ‘stretching’ becomes ‘supine relaxation’. Moreover, there are also some omissions in relation to the content of the TT, for example ‘walking on a treadmill’ is simply rendered ‘walking’, etc; as well as some additional information which is not included in the original text, for example the ‘American Journal of Medicine’, ‘working on an exercise bike’, etc.

In terms of circumstances, there is a change from Circumstance: Duration (‘Over 12 months…’) into Circumstance: Location: Temporal (‘After 12 months…’) as well as the omission of Circumstance: Manner: Degree ‘modestly’ which may influence the view of the reader (to be discussed further in the section on Tenor). Furthermore, ‘regularly’ (Circumstance: Extent: Frequency) is also added to Clause 7.3.
**TENOR**

Tenor of Discourse reflects the relationship between the text producer and the reader; it also indicates the role relations of participants involved in the text. At the level of discourse semantics, the ST text producer draws the attention of the reader to the outcome and the credibility of the ‘study’ by giving it the main participating role of Subject/Actor/Carrier (the first three clauses) in the text. In addition, the use of passivisation and pseudo-causative processes to involve the target group in the study further highlights its control over the ‘program participants’.

In the TT, on the other hand, the emphasis of the translator (or producer of the TT) is on the researchers and the target group (i.e. the older women). And while the ST producer employs an impersonal tone of language to create an objective, and thus authorial stance through the use of the nominal group ‘*A long-term moderate exercise program*’ as Subject in the first clause (followed by ‘the study’ in the two subsequent clauses), the TT focuses on the individuals involved, promoting the role of ‘researchers’ as experts and, thus, authoritative and credible figures. It also engages the target group actively in the study by allowing them to take part directly in the text through the use of an active material process ‘participate’.

Moreover, while in the ST the ‘study’ plays an active role of observer reporting on the activities of the women during the 12 months’ period of the program and using the past continuous tense to describe their actions, the TT uses a narrative voice (simple past), describing the ‘researchers’ as observers and the ‘women’ as direct participants.

In addition to this, in order to make the claim more persuasive, the translator even adds a piece of information not found in the ST, “The study was published in the American Journal of Medicine”. By the same token, to strengthen the credibility of the findings of the study the verb “conclude” is used (“and [the study] concluded that…”). This element, again, is not found in the original.

Tenor of Discourse is realised through the Mood system which includes modality. In English, text producers normally use modal verbs, modal adjuncts, and particularly mood adjuncts to express their view on a certain issue. Further, according to Martin (1992, 1997) and White (1995), whose theory of APPRAISAL has significantly enriched text analysis methodology, there are other lexical and grammatical resources a speaker/writer can tap into to position him/herself in relation to the listener/reader or to express a viewpoint. In the ST, this is exploited through the frequent use of circumstantial elements.

Using the circumstantial adjunct of frequency ‘regularly’ (Clause 2) and of degree ‘moderately’ (Clause 4) to refer to the extent to which the target group were doing their...
exercise, the ST writer seems to imply that “You don’t need to exercise vigorously to benefit from it. The only thing you need is to do it ‘regularly’”.

In the same vein, when referring to the outcome of the research into the exercise program, the ST writer, perhaps with reservation or to reassure the reader, uses the circumstantial adjunct of extent “modestly” to describe the increased potential risk of catching colds in the group of stretchers as compared with the group of exercisers (Clause 6).

Finally, in making a statement concerning the superior benefit of one method of physical activity in comparison to the other, the circumstantial element ‘only’ is employed to emphasise the ‘limited activities’ performed by the stretchers (Clause 7), and the modal adjective ‘likely’ refers to the increased potential risk of catching a cold this group may face as opposed to the group of exercisers.

In the TT, however, the translator, as target language text producer, asserts his/her influence using different strategies. First, to give the text an authoritative stance and thus its persuasiveness, the translator chooses to make the ‘researchers’, the experts, Subject of Clause 1, followed by the ‘study’ as Carrier of the material process ‘publish’ in passive construction. This strategy perhaps inadvertently moves the focus of the reader’s attention onto the researchers rather than to the study itself.

The first three sentences of the TT give the impression that the text is about a group of American researchers reporting on their study into the benefits of exercise against colds. The study has been published in a prestigious journal; i.e. The American Journal of Medicine, and its outcomes are supported by statistical evidence. The later informational element is not included in the original (ST), thus shows an evidence of the intervention of the translator in the TT.

Moreover, the change in the participating role of the target group in Clauses 4 and 5 also causes an unexpected disruption to the flow of information (to be discussed further in Mode of Discourse). To make one sub-group (‘exercisers’) Recipient of an action and the other (‘supine relaxers’) Actor of a process in the successive clause not only causes confusion to the reading and comprehension process, but also diverts attention from the main subject of the text; i.e. the study.

Finally, although the translator successfully transfers many of the circumstantial elements from the ST over to the TT, the rendition of Circumstance: Extent: Duration ‘Over 12 months…’ into Circumstance: Location: Temporal ‘After 12 months…’ not only distorts the meaning but can potentially cause a misinterpretation of the outcome of the study. In addition to this, the omission of ‘modestly’ (Circumstance: Manner: Degree), which is used by the ST writer to describe the insignificantly increased risk of catching a cold among the
stretchers, negatively influences the reader’s judgment concerning the outcome of the study for the less active group. Of still greater impact is the addition of ‘regularly’ (Circumstance: Manner: Frequency) to Clause 7c which clearly shows the view taken by the translator in relation to the two types of physical activity and their health benefits.

**MODE**

Mode of Discourse is realised through the choice of Themes as well as through the maintenance of the cohesion of the text. As earlier discussed, all the clauses of both the ST and TT are in declarative Mood, and there are no interrogatives, nor imperatives. They also contain neither minor nor elliptical clauses which are typically characteristic of a spoken language text. Therefore, it can be said that both texts are written-to-be-read, but each is organised and structured differently.

In the ST, the foregrounding of the projected clause in Clause 1 makes it a marked Theme and immediately draws the reader’s attention to the information provided. Similarly, the temporal adjuncts of Clause 6 and Clause 7, although they can be placed in other positions, are brought to the initial position of the clauses, making them also marked. This markedness serves two purposes:

- It reflects the intention of the ST writer to emphasise the benefits that can be derived from the program within the delineated timeframe.
- At the discourse-semantic level, it signals the change in the direction of the text as it provides a contextual frame (timeframe) for the final stage of a text of this type; i.e. evaluation of the study outcome.

In the TT, however, there is no marked Theme because unlike in English, the foregrounding of such elements as temporal adjunct, or a similar grammatical element (spatial, locative, etc.), is conventionally required in Vietnamese. Also, while both texts are cohesive and share many lexical elements of the same semantic field, and many common syntactical and textual characteristics, due to a difference in the thematic structure they appear to be about two different but related topics. The following basic schematic structure (Figure 4.1) shows similarities and differences of these two texts:
Figure 4.1 shows some discrepancy in the relationship between the ST and its Vietnamese translation, the TT; for example the study is introduced in Clause 1 of the ST; whereas, this is announced in Clause 2 of the TT (“The study was published…”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEGINNING</td>
<td>BEGINNING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. A long-term …, claim researchers in the US.</td>
<td>1. American researchers … among older women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(The benefits of regular exercise and cold immunity as revealed by a US study of older women.)</td>
<td>(Claims made by American researchers concerning the benefits of regular exercise among older women.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE</td>
<td>MIDDLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY, ITS TARGET GROUP &amp; FINDINGS</td>
<td>INTRODUCING THE STUDY &amp; FINDINGS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &amp; 3. The study revealed … before the trial.</td>
<td>2. The study was published … who did no exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Further information regarding the findings of the study, its target group, and their characteristics.)</td>
<td>(Source of the study and summary of its finding.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE</td>
<td>MIDDLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND ITS TARGET GROUP</td>
<td>DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND ITS TARGET GROUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. &amp; 5. Half the women … 45-minute stretching sessions.</td>
<td>3. The study examined … before the trial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Tasks/activities assigned to participants).</td>
<td>(Further information about the group targeted by the study and their characteristics.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 &amp; 5 Half the women … each time about 15 minutes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Tasks/activities given to those who participated in the study.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END</td>
<td>END</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION</td>
<td>FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. &amp; 7. Over 12 months, … who were only exercising.</td>
<td>6. &amp; 7. After 12 months … those who exercised regularly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Effects of the exercise programs over 12 months on the risk of catching colds.)</td>
<td>(The results of the study findings among the target group after 12 months.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are also some commonalities between the two in particular the information about the findings of the study and the characteristics of the target group. However, a close look reveals that although the purpose of the two texts appears to be similar: ‘providing information about a research study into the benefits of exercise for post-menopausal women’, the way they express it differs significantly.

**Beginning**

While in the ST, the *benefits of exercise* are brought to the fore along with the intended beneficiaries (older women group) in Clause 1, in the corresponding clause the TT gives the *information about the findings of a research* into the benefits of exercise conducted by American researchers. This observation is consistent with the way the texts unfold in their successive clauses.

In Clauses 2 and 3 of the ST further information about the study, its findings, its target group and their characteristics, is provided; Clause 2 of the TT however, first introduces the study and provides information about its findings among the target group, then Clause 3 provides further information about the group.

**Middle**

The remaining content of the two texts is much the same despite the difference concerning the activities between the two sub-groups; i.e. exercisers vs. stretchers in the ST, and exercisers vs. supine relaxers in the TT.

Note also that the Middle section of the ST includes Clauses 2, 3, 4, and 5, whereas in the TT it starts with Clause 3.

**End**

This section of the two texts comprising Clauses 6 and 7 provides similar information about the study outcome except that the ST describes the effect of the exercise program as observed within a certain period of time (“Over 12 months…”); whereas the TT indicates this effect as only being observed at the end of that period (“After 12 months…”).

**4.2.2 GENRE ANALYSIS**

With regard to genre which includes such features as textual function (or purpose) and textual structure, as discussed above, although both texts seem to have a similar function; i.e. providing information about the health benefits of exercise among the older women group,
but each looks at the issue from different perspective. The following tables (Figure 4.2a & 4.2b) illustrate their differences and similarities:

**Figure 4.2a**  
The generic structure of the ST (Cold protection)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 1:</strong> Statement of Benefits</td>
<td>1. A long-term ... the United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 2:</strong> Confirmation of Statement of Benefits</td>
<td>2. The study revealed... those who did not exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 3:</strong> Target group</td>
<td>3. The study involved ... before the trial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Stage 4:** Methods | 4. Half the women ... five days a week.  
5. The other half ... 45 minutes stretching sessions. |
| **Stage 5:** Evaluation | 6. Over 12 months ... the group of stretchers.  
7. In the last three months... those who were exercising. |

**Figure 4.2b**  
The generic structure of the TT (Cold protection)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 1:</strong> Claim made by researchers</td>
<td>1. American researchers claimed ... among older women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 2:</strong> Source of information &amp; Findings</td>
<td>2. The study was published... did not do any exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 3:</strong> Target group</td>
<td>3. The study examined... before the trial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Stage 4:** Methods | 4. Half the women ... five days a week.  
5. The other half ... each time about 15 minutes (sic). |
| **Stage 5:** Outcomes of the study | 6. After 12 months ... among the relaxers.  
7. In the last three months... who exercised regularly. |

**Figure 4.2a** and **Figure 4.2b** show there is some convergence between the two texts, particularly in the stages made up by Clauses 3 – 7. However, differences are also evident in Clauses 1 and 2; especially in Clause 1 of the ST where the writer’s intention in promoting the benefits of exercise among the intended group is expressed through the choice of linguistic elements placed in the initial position of the clause: with the fronting of the nominal group ‘a long-term moderate exercise program’ as Subject of the clause. As the text unfolds, the semantic content is gradually revealed with each stage of the generic configurations:
SOURCE TEXT:

- **Statement of Benefits**: the introductory clause announces the benefits of exercise in preventing colds and briefly mentions its target group, as well as a description of the study;

- **Confirmation of Statement of Benefits**: the results of the study are reiterated, and more details are given;

- **Target group**: provides characteristics of the target group who have participated in the research; for example how many people have been involved in the study, their age range, their health (or potential) problems, etc;

- **Methods**: describes how the research was carried out and what activities were involved;

- **Evaluation**: more details are given concerning the duration of the study and the outcomes recorded over the period.

In summary it can be said the function of the ST is to promote the benefits of exercise among older women in relation to the prevention of colds. This is realised by referring to a research study among the target group, the timeframe of the study and the evaluation of the study outcomes.

In contrast, the target text seems to be the variant of a different text as illustrated in the following generic patterns:

TARGET TEXT:

- **Claim made by researchers**: the introductory clause reports on claims made by researchers concerning a study that can help reduce incidents of colds among older women.

- **Source of information & Findings**: the source of claims concerning the research study and a summary of its findings are provided.

- **Target group**: provides characteristics of the target group who have participated in the research; for example how many people have been involved in the study, their age range, their health (or potential) problems, etc;
• **Methods:** describes the methods used in the study and activities involved by participants in the study.

• **Outcomes of the study after a certain period:** more details are given concerning the duration of the study and the outcomes recorded after the period.

In brief, the TT purports to provide information about a research study conducted by a group of American researchers into the benefits of exercise among post-menopausal women. It starts with a claim by the researchers and gives the source of the information (*American Journal of Medicine*). It also describes the characteristics of the target group, the methods used in the study, and the study outcomes within a certain timeframe.

The above analysis shows the consistency between the two approaches to text analysis explored so far; i.e. schematic structure analysis and genre analysis: they indicate the similarities and differences between two texts, of which one (the TT) is supposed to mirror the other (the ST) in a different language.

Also with reference to genre, according to Halliday, to a large extent genre is realised or expressed in textual metafunction through such textual strategies as cohesive devices and particularly through thematic structure. However, it is also “displayed in patterns of ideational and interpersonal meaning.” (Halliday 1978: 136)

We can conclude that in terms of genre both texts share similar stages except **Stage 1 and 2**.

In **Stage 1** of the ST the benefits of exercise in preventing colds among a group of older women is announced, followed by statistical facts to support this claim in **Stage 2**.

In the TT, however, a claim made by researchers concerning health benefits of exercise is reported (**Stage 1**) and the source of this claim is given along with statistical facts (**Stage 2**). There is also a discrepancy between the two texts in **Stage 5** in relation to the reporting on the evaluation of the study with the study outcomes being recorded during the study in the ST (‘Over 12 months…’) and after the study in the TT (‘After 12 months…’).

From the above observation, it can be concluded that the shift in genre of the TT (as opposed to the ST) has been caused by a shift in its thematic structure; especially by the use of the projected clause as marked Theme in the ST, and the projecting clause as unmarked Theme in the TT. In other words, the shift in the thematic structure of the TT has caused some “perceived differences in the interpretation” of the TT (Fries & Francis 1992: 49)
In order to account for similarities and differences between the ST and the TT at both lexico-grammatical and discourse semantic levels, the texts can be looked into by the ways language being used to make meaning for a certain purpose and in a particular context.

4.2.3 METAFUNCTION ANALYSIS

According to Halliday (1985, 1994) when put in use, language simultaneously realises three kinds of meaning corresponding to three metafunctions of language: ideational, interpersonal and textual.

A hypothesis is that if the TT is the ‘true’ image of the ST, then it must reflect the same meaning and serve the same function as its original in the latter’s context. An exploration of the three metafunctions realised in each text will provide information about its propositional content or its ideational meaning (thus will clarify what the text is about). It will also reveal information about the text producer (the writer’s view of him/herself, of his/her readership as well as his/her view about the subject/matter of the text; etc) and the audience (who they are; their concerns or interests; etc.). In brief, it illuminates the interpersonal meaning of the text. Finally, the analysis will provide information about how the text is organised or constructed to express what the writer wishes to mean, as well as how effective or successful the text is in relation to its purpose.

First, the content of the texts will be analysed through the exploration of the ideational metafunction of language.

4.2.3.1 Ideational Metafunction

Examining the texts clause by clause, it is revealed that the semantic content of the TT is very much similar to that of the ST. It’s about a study of overweight post-menopausal women conducted by researchers in the US and published in the American Journal of Medicine (although the original text does not indicate the source of the article it was published in The American Journal of Medicine Volume 119, November 2006 – see Appendix J). It highlights the benefits of exercise against the risk of catching colds among the target group.

Syntactically, however, there are some structural differences between the TT and the ST; for example Clause 2 of the TT, a clause complex, contains two paratactic and two hypotactic clauses; whereas in the ST, there is only one paratactic and two hypotactic clauses.
Similarly, in Clause 3 of the TT there are one paratactic and two hypotactic clauses; while the ST consists of only a paratactic and a hypotactic clause and so on.

In Clause 5, there is a change from passive in the ST (i.e. “The other half were told to participate…”) to active in the TT (“The other half participated…”); and there is also, perhaps, a typographical mistake in the temporal phrase (which should be 45 minutes, not 15 minutes).

Despite differences, we can say that experientially and in terms of content, the TT carries the meaning of the ST in another language.

4.2.3.2 **Interpersonal Metafunction**

This section focuses on the interpersonal component of the texts illustrating how the ST producer and the TT translator use their linguistic choices to express the same or similar experiential meaning but in two distinctly different languages.

(a) **Analysis of MOOD system**

At the lexicogrammatical level, the unit of analysis is the clause, which involves the Transitivity and Mood systems. The Mood system comprises two interconnected subsystems: the clause structure and the pattern of Modality. It is the Mood system that realises the Interpersonal meaning; i.e. the relationship between the text producer and reader, with the choice of Mood reflecting the former’s social status and the role s/he assigns to the latter. On the other hand, the choice of Modality pattern indicates his/her attitude toward self and toward the reader or the subject in discussion. Also through the Mood system, the writer expresses the view s/he holds on a particular issue that is of concern, as Halliday points out (1970: 335):

> Modality is a form of participation by the speaker in the speech event. Through modality, the speaker associates with the thesis an indication of its status and validity in his own judgment; he intrudes, and takes up a position.

With respect to Mood, all the clauses of both the above texts are in declarative mood; there are no rhetorical questions or commands, and also no minor or elliptical clauses. This is characteristic of written texts, and we can also deduce that they are informative texts; i.e. their function is information giving.
In relation to the Modality patterns, both the ST and TT use a modal verb of ability (‘can’ in the ST; ‘could’ in the TT). However, in terms of degree of ability, the use of ‘can’ in present tense in the ST makes the statement about the outcome of the study more credible and persuasive, because it is a ‘statement of fact’.

McCabe et al (2007), referring to the work by White (2005), state that: “the use of modality is a key way in which writers provide either a monoglossic or a heteroglossic slant on the proposition they encode” (2007: 146). A monoglossic proposition suggests “there is no other view in existence” (ibid: 145) and it is realised through an unmodalised clause. On the other hand, a heteroglossic proposition indicates, “there are other possible interpretations, or points of view, either similar or different, with respect to the proposition encoded in the utterance” (ibid). Apart from using modal verbs, there are other ways to express a heteroglossic point of view; for example the use of quotation (either through reported or indirect speech), and the use of modal adjuncts, modality and rhetorical questions (ibid: 145-6).

In the original text, the ST writer presents the outcome of the study findings in the form of a statement through the realisation of a projected clause (also the topic sentence of the text) before revealing the source of the claim (researchers in the United States). In addition, by the use of the nominal group ‘a long-term moderate exercise program’ and subsequently, the ‘study’ as Subject of the clauses, the writer’s intention is clearly to ‘let the study speak for itself’. Moreover, making the target group (the women) the recipient of the action by utilising the pseudo-causative processes (Clauses 4.1 and 5.1), the ST writer renders the text more objective and thus credible and persuasive.

However, in a culture such as Vietnamese, where quoting from an authoritative figure or official source is encouraged as a means of boosting credibility, this textual strategy may not work. For this reason, the TT translator has settled for ‘American researchers’, the experts, as the statement maker or the information source. Further, to make the text more authoritative and thus more credible and persuasive, the translator even adds to the TT the name of the journal in which the text has been published (the American Journal of Medicine). This information is not included in the original.

As far as the interpersonal metafunction is concerned, one of the most effective ways to identify a writer’s point of view on an issue is by analysing the use of modal verb and modal adjunct, particularly mood adjunct. The use of mood adjunct is a textual strategy through which a text producer asserts his/her view or opinion. There is no mood adjunct found in either the ST or the TT. And this is characteristic of an informational text; i.e. ‘providing factual information’.
However, Halliday (1970: 335) postulates that within a clause modality is not necessarily located in a particular place or position, and that “There are many other ways in which the speaker may take up a position, and modality is related to the general category that is often known as ‘speaker’s comment’, within which a number of other types have been syntactically distinguished; like modality, these are typically, though not uniquely, expressed by adverbs of different classes…”

Indeed, to promote the potential benefits of exercise as well as to encourage a more active lifestyle among the target group, the ST writer has used such comment adjuncts as regularly (in ‘worked out regularly’) and moderately (‘exercise moderately’) to refer to one subgroup (the exercisers), and modestly (‘increased modestly’) and only (‘were only stretching’) to another (the stretchers), with likely (‘three time as likely’) attesting to the superiority of one method of exercising against the other. These adjuncts are not modal adjuncts; they are adverbials, ranging from adverbials of manner to that of extent, etc. Their function in the ST is to provide additional information about how the exercise is done, and to what extent it helps reduce the risk of colds among the target group, in a factual manner. However it seems that they offer more than just factual information, helping to persuade or, in fact, functioning as modality, and thus revealing the writer’s position on the benefits of exercise.

By re-reading the original, one can find the message is clearly expressed, “If you regularly do exercise even if moderately, the risk of catching a cold is three times less likely than if you do only stretching (or don’t do any exercise at all)”.

In contrast, the translator in the TT expresses a markedly different view. Besides the fact that exercise ‘could help reduce the risk of catching a cold’ the TT claims that it could also help reduce the risk of having ‘the flu’ as well. Moreover, instead of the other half of the target group being assigned stretching activities, the translator gives them ‘supine relaxation’.

Even more significant differences are evident through the use of the temporal adverbial phrase ‘After 12 months…’ (As opposed to ‘Over 12 months…’ in the ST), the deletion of the circumstantial adjunct ‘modestly’ in the TT, and the translation of the method of exercising ‘stretching’ into ‘supine relaxation’.

This choice of terminology may have come from the translator’s view of ‘exercise’ as a health-benefit activity for both physical and mental purposes. Coming from a culture where meditation is strongly promoted due to the teaching and practising of Buddhism as well as of Taoism, it is widely practised by people from all walks of life, and relaxation is one of many similar techniques of exercise for the mind. Therefore, ‘stretching’ is not considered an exercise, but only a ‘warm-up’ activity, whereas relaxation is.
In the ST, the use of the adjunct ‘modestly’ (‘the risk of colds … increased modestly…’) helps alleviate the negative impact of the research findings on the group of stretchers. The removal of ‘modestly’ from the TT (Clause 6.2), however, makes the findings concerning the group of supine relaxation practitioners definitely more negative.

In addition, as discussed in Chapter III, there is no definite article in Vietnamese, therefore it is a tendency for a Vietnamese translator to replace the definite article ‘the’ in English with the demonstrative adjective ‘this’ in Vietnamese as shown in Clause 2 of the TT.

The above points clearly show the interference of the translator in the TT.

(b) Analysis of TRANSITIVITY system

With respect to TRANSITIVITY, according to Teich (2001) it indicates the types of process expressed in the clause, the participants involved in the process as well as the circumstance in which an event occurs. In terms of similarities and differences, there are 17 clauses in the TT and only 16 in the ST. Among these clauses there are also some differences with regard to process types, as shown in the diagram below.

As far as the Process is concerned, in the TT there are 12 material processes, whereas in the ST there are only nine. However, while in the ST both the verbal process ‘tell’ and the relational process ‘assign’ are in passive voice and, in effect, perform the function of a pseudo-causative process (to make someone do something/to make things happen), there are no such processes in the TT. (Figure 4.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process type</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo-causative</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, in terms of Participants, while the main participants in the ST are the exercise program (the method of the study), the study itself, and the group of overweight, post-menopausal women (the subject of the study), the TT assigns a more active role to those who were involved in the study; i.e. researchers and their target group.

The use of ‘program’ and then ‘study’ as Subject in the ST gives the impression that the article is about the ‘study’, and that the ‘study’ plays an active role in “coordinating” the group of ‘older women’. This is reflected in the use of such material process as ‘reveal’ in
active voice, and relational attributive process ‘involve’ (in Clauses 2.a and 3.a) linking the study with the target group. And as already discussed, it is further evident in the use of two pseudo-causative processes ‘were assigned’ and ‘were told’ to make the target group of the study carry out the planned activities (‘to exercise’ and ‘to stretch’ in Clauses 4.a and 5.a respectively). This personification also helps create an authoritative image of the study (or the researchers behind the study) toward the target group.

In contrast, the foregrounding of ‘American researchers’ as Subject of Clause 1 of the TT, and the use of a passive construction in Clause 2 with the ‘study’ as the recipient of the action or the ‘affected participant’ (‘the study was published’), highlights the active role of the ‘researchers’ and also implies that the ‘study’ is not the main participant of the text. The use of ‘American researchers’ as Subject may be due to the fact that the personification of terms such as ‘study’, and ‘program’ is rare in Vietnamese, but it may also come from the tendency of using authoritative figures to make the intended message more credible and reliable. Moreover, despite at one stage the translator bringing ‘the study’ back to its dominant position by resorting to the material process ‘examine’ (in Clause 3.a, ‘The study examined…’), and using the passive voice to make the women recipients of the action (‘Half of the women were given…’ in Clause 4), the overarching impression is still that the ‘researchers’ are the ones who conduct and coordinate the study.

In addition, the translator uses the term ‘đựơc’, a positive passive voice marker, to link one subgroup of women with the action; while the active material process ‘participate’ is used to emphasise the direct involvement of the other sub-group (Clause 5) instead of a pseudo-causative process to direct them as in the ST. This choice of linguistic approach severely diminishes the participating role of the study in the text.

Returning to the Process of the TRANSITIVITY system, both texts share the most common process type expressed in the clauses; that is the material process. This is consistent with the subject and content of the texts; i.e. exercising. However as has been discussed earlier in the section, the TT possesses more material processes (12) than the ST (9). In other words, it has more involvement of human participants in the process.

As far as Circumstance is concerned, most of the circumstantial elements contained in the ST and the TT belong to either the extent or manner types as illustrated in Figure 4.4:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Circumstantial Element</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accompaniment</td>
<td>… among older women (Clause 1)</td>
<td>… among older women (Clause 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (frequency)</td>
<td>… regularly (Clause 2.b)</td>
<td>… regularly (Clause 2.c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner (comparison)</td>
<td>… about half the risk (Clause 2.c)</td>
<td>… by half as compared (Clause 2.d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location (temporal)</td>
<td>… before the trial (Clause 3.b)</td>
<td>… before the trial (Clause 3.c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner (degree)</td>
<td>… moderately (Clause 4.a)</td>
<td>… some type of moderate exercise (Clause 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (duration)</td>
<td>… for 45 minutes a day, five days a week (Clause 4.b)</td>
<td>… for about 45 minutes a day, five days a week. (Clause 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (frequency)</td>
<td>… once-weekly, 45 minute stretching sessions (Clause 5.b)</td>
<td>… once [a week], each time about 15 minutes (sic) (Clause 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (duration)</td>
<td>Over 12 months (Clause 6.1)</td>
<td>After 12 months (Clause 6.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accompaniment</td>
<td>… in exercisers … in the group of stretchers (Clause 6.a)</td>
<td>… among the exercisers … among the relaxers (Clause 6.a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner (degree)</td>
<td>… modestly (Clause 6.b)</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (duration)</td>
<td>In the last three months (Clause 7.a)</td>
<td>In the last three months (Clause 7.a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner (degree)</td>
<td>… only (Clause 7.a)</td>
<td>… only (Clause 7.a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner (comparison)</td>
<td>… three times as likely … (Clause 7.b)</td>
<td>… three times more risk of … (Clause 7.b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent (frequency)</td>
<td>(Clause 7.c)</td>
<td>… regularly (Clause 7.c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the ST and TT share almost the same number of circumstantial elements, the majority of elements fall into the Extent and Manner categories. It is also interesting to find more elements of Extent: Frequency and Extent: Duration, as well as of Manner: Degree among other circumstantial elements. This is consistent with the subject of the text (exercise), the material processes accompanying the methods of exercise, and the duration of time it takes for the practitioners to benefit from their activities.

However, there are some differences that need to be addressed here.

In the ST, discussing the benefits of exercising against the risk of having colds, Clause 2.c gives a rough estimation, using the preposition ‘about’ (‘about half the risk’), whereas the
TT provides a more exact estimation; i.e. ‘by half’ (Clause 2.d). Similarly, while in the ST the stretchers are required to practise ‘once-weekly 45 minute sessions’ (Clause 5.b), in the TT the women are only asked to practise ‘once, and each time about 15 minutes’ (Clause 4). Also, due to a structural difference between the two languages, the circumstantial element ‘moderately’ in the ST (Clause 4.a) has been re-expressed through a nominal group in the TT ‘some type of moderate exercise’ (Clause 4).

In Clause 6.a of the ST, ‘Over 12 months’ denotes a time duration within which something happens; whereas the TT signals a location in time using the temporal phrase ‘After 12 months’ (Clause 6.a). This may create some interference with the reader’s processing and comprehension of the TT due to the information provided in the subsequent and the final clause of the text referring to ‘the last three months of the study’. The use of the temporal adverbial phrase ‘after 12 months’ implies the final stage of the study.

Further, as earlier discussed, in the ST the text producer, with some reservation while expressing statistical probability concerning the result of the study, resorts to the modal adjective ‘likely’ (‘three times as likely to catch a cold as …’) to provide an opinion about the research outcome. As far as APPRAISAL theory is concerned (to be discussed in more detail in the next section), according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) the use of the modal adjective indicates a sense of “objectivity” often found in a medical and technical research report. In the TT, on the other hand, following the omission of the circumstantial of manner ‘modestly’ (implying an insignificant quality), thus creating a negative impression about the ‘supine relaxers’ (who are actually ‘stretchers’ in the ST), the translator further reinforces the message by using the superior comparative intensifier ‘more’ (‘three time more…’) to indicate the greater risk of catching a cold among the ‘supine relaxers’. To emphasise this view, the TT producer adds the circumstantial element of frequency ‘regularly’ to the material process ‘exercise’ when referring to the activity of the other participating group (‘exercisers’).

In summary, the examination of the TRANSITIVITY system in the ST and TT, which involves such elements as processes, participants and circumstances, has revealed different strategies used by the text producer and translator in their text production process.

There are also some mistranslations that cause considerable change to the meaning of the TT as compared with the ST. For instance, the ST describes specific exercise techniques assigned to each sub-group of the participants. It divides the target group into ‘exercisers’ and ‘stretchers’. In the TT, however, these change into ‘những người tập luyện thường xuyên’ (‘the regular exercisers’) and ‘nhóm nằm thư giãn’ (‘the group of supine relaxers’). Whether this change is deliberate is not within the scope of the current research and therefore not to be discussed further. Nevertheless, given the aim of the study in question being to find out how
intensively the group would have to exercise and what types of exercise would be more beneficial, this is definitely misleading given that stretching and relaxing are two totally different approaches purporting different health outcomes.

In addition, with respect to insertion and omission, there are some mistranslations including the translation of ‘walking on a treadmill’ simply as ‘walking’, and the insertion of ‘working on an exercise bike’ to the TT.

4.2.3.4 Textual Metafunction

The textual component or textual metafunction of a language is thought to be responsible for introducing semantic structure into discourse or initiating a communicative event by producing text. Halliday (1967: 50) defines it as “the grammar which specifies the choices that speakers and writers make when they introduces structures into discourse.”

The textual metafunction of a text is realised through its thematic and information structures with the former indicating the method of development of the text (Fries 1983) and the latter, the flow of information from known to unknown or from Given to New. According to Thompson (2007: 636) “Theme-Rheme is oriented towards the addressee”; while the Given-New structure of a clause containing elements of the information unit is “oriented towards the addressee”.

Therefore, an examination of the thematic structure of the clauses will reveal how the textual metafunction is realised in text and how its semantic content is organised. An analysis of the thematic structure also reveals the text producer’s intention as expressed through the choice of elements placed in the initial position of the clause.

The purpose of examining the ways in which Theme functions in text is to discover its thematic structure, and the motif for its organisation. According to Thompson (2007), there are three major types of analysis normally used to carry out this task: either examining its Theme types, or identifying its thematic content, or exploring the thematic progression of the text.

For the scope and purpose of the present study, the thematic structure of the ST will be analysed followed by the thematic analysis of the TT. Finally the findings of the thematic analysis of the two texts will be compared and their similarities and differences will be discussed.

But first, a general comment about the cohesion of the texts and their Theme-Rheme pattern will be made, starting with the ST. In the ST, the text begins with the nominal group
‘A long-term moderate exercise program’, the first participant in the discourse, which provides a statement about the outcomes of the study, and is the locution of a projection clause.

As far as the structure of a project clause, or clause complex, is concerned, the normal structure (or the unmarked order) is the projecting clause followed by the projected clause (or, projecting clause ^ projected clause). Here, the projected clause is brought to the initial position. By placing this nominal group first in the clause, the writer’s intention is to create an immediate impact: drawing the attention of the readership to the benefits of the exercise program, and thus persuading the reader to read further. From a SFL viewpoint, by doing this the text producer is motivated by a purpose; and in Halliday’s words “the motive is thematic” (1985: 57). In addition, the use of indirect speech and, particularly, the use of verbs in present tense make the claim a ‘statement of fact’ and thus more credible and persuasive to text receivers. The clause is also used as a topic sentence or introductory sentence (using Martin’s terminology), signalling what is going to be developed throughout the text.

With respect to the Theme-Rheme pattern, the ST follows a well-planned textual strategy typically found in an informative text type. This not only reflects through its thematic structure, but also its rhematic structure, making the text cohesive and easy to understand. In terms of texture, which is realised through textual cohesion, the ST achieves this mainly through the use of lexis or content words (concerning topic of the text), and conjunctions (logical connection of the text). There is no pronominal reference. To achieve cohesion the ST writer exploits such lexical resources as repetition, (e.g. ‘study’, ‘exercise’, ‘post menopausal women’, etc), and lexical relations and replacements (e.g. ‘study’ for ‘program’, ‘exercisers’ and ‘stretchers’ for ‘women’, ‘work out’ for ‘exercise’, etc).

Furthermore, the ST also contains lexis of the same semantic field such as ‘walking’, ‘stretching’, ‘exercising’, etc, as well as synonyms (e.g. ‘reduce’, ‘decrease’, etc.), antonyms (‘decrease’ vs. ‘increase’) and relational opposites (‘exercisers’ vs. ‘stretchers’; etc.) In addition, the use of pre-determiners ‘Half’ (in ‘Half the women’) and ‘The other half’ in Clauses 4 and 5 to link back to the preceding clause (Clause 3) not only renders the text cohesive, but also signals a change in the direction of the text at the discursive level; i.e. the move from the study to the subject of the study.

More important is the method of development of the ST where cohesion is largely achieved through the use of lexical repetition and lexical relation. One way to keep a text on track is to employ theme-reiteration; that means the reuse of a particular linguistic element as Theme in the text. As Eggins (1994: 303) propounds, “Having the same participant made Theme on a regular basis provides the text with a clear focus.”
However, before discussing the method of development of the TT and comparing it against that of the ST, we should look at how Theme-Rheme patterns are organised in the two texts under consideration.

First, let’s look at the types of Theme arranged in both texts.

a. Theme Type

An analysis of Theme type aims to determine whether Themes are marked or unmarked, simple or multiple for the purpose of discovering the function of each type of Theme in the text, as Thompson (2007: 681) explains:

Marked Themes are hypothesised to signal textual breaks or transitions of some kind, whereas unmarked Themes are seen as functioning primarily, though far from exclusively, to signal maintenance of a topic.

Instead of using Topical Theme to indicate participants (either humans or entities) involved in the discourse, this analysis will adopt the terminology proposed by Thompson; i.e. experiential or ideational Theme. Other experiential elements related to circumstances such as time, place, manner, etc, will be labelled accordingly as temporal, locative, situational, etc. (Figure 4.5)

There are commonalities between the ST and TT in terms of the sequence of experiential, textual (or structural) and circumstantial (temporal) Themes appearing in both

Figure 4.5 Types of Theme of the ST and the TT (Cold protection)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF THEME</th>
<th>TYPE OF THEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLAUSE</td>
<td>SOURCE TEXT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>Cir: Temporal (marked) + Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>Structural (Conj.) + Experiential (elided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cir: Temporal (marked) + Experiential</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
texts, however there is no marked Theme in the TT, whereas in the ST there are three marked Themes which comprise one Experiential (or Topical in Halliday’s terminology) and two Circumstantial: Temporal (or Contextual Frame: Temporal). As mentioned elsewhere in this current research, in Vietnamese it is conventional to place such elements as adverbials of time, location, etc in the initial position in the clause, and thus these elements are not thematic.

b. Thematic content

In order to account for similarities and differences in relation to thematic content of the two texts, it is important to find out which linguistic elements are placed in the thematic region (or ‘thematic sphere’) of the clauses. Treated as Theme will be everything that precedes the verbal group (lexical verbs) of the main clause – and where a dependent clause precedes the main clause, this too will be included in the analysis. Thematic content analysis takes into account both experiential and interpersonal functions of the text and focuses on the distinction between participant and contextual as well as clausal Themes. As far as types of Theme are concerned, terminology, as discussed in Chapter III, will be used to label the Themes of the texts. Such a labelling will also be incorporated with terminology suggested by Berry (1995: 64) who refers to ‘informational Theme’ as any word/phrase having “an aspect of the topic”. She also proposes ‘interactional Theme’ as any word/phrase referring to the writer/reader of the text or to “a group of people which included the writer or reader(s)”. For example, in the ST and TT ‘exercise program’ and ‘study’, etc. can be regarded as informational Themes, because they refer to the subject of the text; whereas ‘researchers’, ‘women’, ‘exercisers’, etc. are interactional Themes, because they presumably allude to the writer or writer group and to the prospective reader or reader group.

At other times, where appropriate, such thematic elements will be treated as ‘participant Theme’ or ‘topic Theme’. However, to account for any change made to Themes in the TT and also to reflect change to the Mood system in relation to the role of Subject, and especially to voice which is quite often not picked up by current labelling of Theme, ‘affected’ may be added to the Theme of a clause in passive construction. It should be stressed that as far as Berry’s classification of Theme into informational and interactional is concerned, although such nominal groups as ‘researchers’, ‘women’, etc, do not carry the same degree of interactional or interactive characteristics as a personal pronoun, they at least indicate a level of human interaction, and thus provide an interpersonal perspective on the clause.
In order to justify the labelling of the thematic elements appearing in the ST and the TT, some explanation is needed.

In Clause 1 of the ST, the foregrounding of the projected clause with the nominal group ‘A long-term moderate exercise program’ as Subject renders it thematic. Following Berry’s Theme classification, this nominal group forms an Informational Theme (a participant in discourse) and is also a marked Theme. In Clause 1 of the TT, on the other hand, ‘researchers’ is placed in the position of Subject of the clause and functions as an unmarked Theme. Because ‘researchers’ in this case may be seen as the producer (or is represented by the producer) of the text, therefore it is treated as an Interactional Theme.

The Theme of Clause 1 of the ST evokes the idea about the text: it’s about a study concerning the benefits of exercise against colds (which is reinforced by the use of the definite article in Clause 2); whereas, that of the TT seems to highlight the researchers and their work. And the expectation is further enhanced with the use of a passive construction in Clause 2a of the TT where its Theme is labelled Informational and ‘Affected’ to reflect the status of its Subject.

In Clause 4 of both the ST and TT, ‘women’ is Recipient (Carrier) of a pseudo-causative process in a passive construction in which the ‘study’ is the Actor of the pseudo-causative process ‘assign’. This implies ‘women’ does not play an ‘interactional role’, but is merely the ‘subject’ of the study. For this reason, it is labelled Informational Theme and also ‘Affected’ because it functions as Subject of a passive construction. Similarly, the Theme of
Clause 5 of the ST is ‘informational’ and ‘Affected’; however its counterpart of the TT is an ‘Interactional Theme’ due to the fact that ‘women’ is now conflated with the Subject of the clause in which the material process ‘participate’ is in active voice. Again, the use of ‘women’ here can be inferred as an indication of the existence of members of the prospective readership of the text.

Clause 6a of both the ST and TT starts with a Contextual Theme (or Contextual Frame) depicting the timeframe of the study. However, while in the ST the contextual Theme denotes duration of time (‘Over 12 months’), the TT implies a point or location in time (‘After 12 months’). This is followed by an ‘Informational Theme’.

By the same token, the Theme in Clause 7 of both ST and TT is a Contextual Theme: Temporal: Duration and followed by Interactional Theme (‘women’ in the ST and ‘those who’ in the TT).

It should be noted here that while in Clauses 6a and 7 of the ST the contextual Themes (temporal) are marked, because structurally in English they can be placed either after Subject (before verb) or at the end of the clause, the ST writer has chosen to thematise these elements and use them as pointers to signal the timelines of the study.

In the TT, on the other hand, the usual position for such elements is at the beginning of the clause, therefore they cannot be seen as being thematically emphatic, and thus are not marked. This practice, however, does not diminish the role of these contextual Themes whose function, as held by Lowe (1987: 7), is to “set the spatial, temporal, situational or individual framework within which the ensuing discourse holds”. Being a topic-comment language, this textual resource is often employed by Vietnamese addressers to signal to their addressees the context of ensuing discourse through which they wish their message to be interpreted.

However, the cohesion of a text and the analysis of the thematic patterning of a longer stretch of text is best examined using a model proposed by Danes (1974), i.e. thematic progression patterning.

c. Thematic Progression

In the previous section of the chapter it was argued that the cohesion of a text is best maintained using a textual strategy which can help keep the text ‘on track’; namely theme-reiteration or the reuse of particular lexical items or items belonging to the same semantic field.

In the ST this strategy has been exploited successfully by the writer to focus the reader’s attention on the topic under discussion, first by the fronting of ‘program’ as Subject
of Clause 1 and then the reiteration of ‘study’ (substitute for the ‘exercise program’ and with reference to ‘researchers’) in the Theme position of the first three sentences of the text. Moreover, to maintain the cohesion of the text, and thus its coherence, the ST writer also utilises a textual strategy suggested by Danes (1974), i.e. thematic progression, including constant Theme (i.e. Clause 2 and 3; and also Clause 4 and 5) and derived Theme (i.e. Clause 6) patterns, an example of what is termed ‘gapped development’ by Dubois (1987).

In addition to the thematic progression, the text also achieves its cohesiveness through ‘rhematic progression’, which will be discussed in more detail in a later section. The following diagram (Figure 4.7a and 4.7b) shows how the thematic and rhematic structures of the source language text are constructed to achieve cohesiveness:
Figure 4.7a

THEMATIC STRUCTURE OF THE SOURCE TEXT

SOURCE TEXT:

1. Topic Theme (marked) ——> Rheme (a) Rheme (b)
   (A long-term … program the risk … older women …)

2. Topic Theme ——> Rheme
   (The study … post- menopausal women…)

3. Topic Theme ——> Rheme
   (The study … post- menopausal women…)

4. Participant Theme ——> Rheme
   (Half the women … exercise moderately …)

5. Participant Theme ——> Rheme
   (The other half … once-weekly, …)

6. Contextual frame & Part. Theme ——> Rheme
   (Over 12 months, the risk … in exercisers and …stretchers…)

7. Contextual frame & Part. Theme ——> Rheme
   (In the last … of the study, the women … three times as likely…)

Intertextually and with reference to textual metafunction, the TT also possesses many cohesive features found in the ST, both in relation to lexical relations as well as to its internal connection. For example, linear Theme in Clause 2 (Theme of Clause 2 picks up Rheme of Clause 1; Rheme of Clause 3 is picked up and repeated by Theme of Clause 4, etc), as illustrated below:
Figure 4.7b

THEMATIC STRUCTURE OF THE TARGET TEXT

1. Participant Theme → Rheme (a) → Rheme (b)
   (American researchers a long… program … the risk of…)

2. Topic Theme → Rheme (a) → Rheme (b)
   (The study … post …women … risk of having cold…)

3. Topic Theme → Rheme
   (The study … post-menopausal women…)

4. Participant Theme → Rheme
   (Half the women … were given … five days a week)

5. Participant Theme → Rheme
   (The other half … supine relaxation…)

6. Contextual frame & Part. Theme → Rheme
   (Over 12 months, the risk … the exercisers and …the relaxers…)

7. Contextual frame & Part. Theme → Rheme
   (In the last … of the study, those who … who exercised regularly)

However, by choosing to place ‘American researchers’; i.e. the experts, in the first position in the clause and thus making it prominent, the translator has diverted the focus of the text from ‘program’ or ‘study’ to ‘researchers’ and, in effect, changed the focus of the message.
This choice is reflected in Clause 2, through the translation of the verbal group in active voice into passive construction (‘The study revealed…’ into ‘The study was published…’); and also the translation of two clauses in pseudo-causative, Clauses 4 and 5, into one in passive and the other into active form (‘Half the women were told…’ into ‘Half the women were given…’; and ‘The other half were assigned…’ into ‘The other half participated…’).

Given that the purpose of the ST producer, when selecting the nominal group ‘a long-term moderate exercise program’ as the point of departure of the first sentence (also of the whole text), is to set a framework for the ensuing discourse, the choice made by the TT producer has caused not only a loss/change in meaning, but also reduced the dynamism and integral focus of the message.

As far as thematic progression is concerned, Thompson points out that the focus of this type of analysis is on experiential meaning (or ideational meaning) while “textual and interpersonal meanings are generally not picked up…” (2007: 686) Therefore, in order to account for other types of meaning, a text researcher or analyst should explore other approaches.

Referring to the function of language and its meaning potential as well as to Halliday’s notion of three variables of register, namely field, tenor, and mode which dictate the choices made through the realisation of ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings, Couture (1989: 76) points out that “These choices express a speaker’s [or writer’s] involvement … in the roles of observer of a situation, intruder in social concourse, and manipulator of text. In other words, they express a speaker’s [or writer’s] intention to assert him/[her]self as the dominant controller of the discourse as it relates to a subject, an audience and appropriate language codes.”

She further elaborates the relationships between the functions of language reflected through the role played by a text producer in the text production process, with “the ideational function expressing the author-observer’s argument, the interpersonal function expressing the author-intruder’s relationship to audience, and the textual function expressing the author-text manipulator’s selection of ‘voice’.” (ibid)

Seen from this perspective and looking at the extent to which the writer of the ST imposes his/her view on the audience, it can be said that the ST producer has tried to minimise his/her visibility through the use of such lexicogrammatical features as:

- **Personal**: through the use of nominal groups ‘program’ and ‘study’ as subjects which are impersonal and the least interactive linguistic devices;
• **Tense, mood, and modality:** the use of present tense in the first clause with the study as Subject gives an impression of letting the study speak for itself, and thus provides the text with not only credibility, but also objectivity. This is followed by the use of passive voice construction which, according to Smith (1989: 245), is intended “to focus on the object of an activity and to delete any mention of agency… [This] construction masks the presence of the writer in the text, thereby giving the text a more “objective” (and less interactive) quality…”

In addition, the use of such verbs as ‘reveal’ and ‘involve’ in active voice, linking the study with the group, gives an impression that the women are really the object of the study or they are coordinated and organised by the study, and not by the researchers.

• **Attitudinal adverbials and evaluative modifiers (including adjectives):** in contrast, in Clauses 6 and 7 of the ST, there seems to be judgment made about the findings; for example in the use of circumstantial adjunct: ‘modestly’ (‘increased modestly’), and the adjective of probability ‘likely’ (‘three times as likely to catch a cold’); as well as the extent and manner to which the participants conducted themselves; for example: ‘moderately’, ‘regularly’, and ‘only’ (‘only stretching’). This indicates the visibility of the ST writer.

In the TT, however, the first clause indicates the involvement of agents (researchers) who have conducted the ‘study’ and reported on its findings; and thus what follows is seen through the eye of these observers.

Semantically, from the Firthian point of view, Halliday (2001) contends that the meaning of a text is woven through various layers of texture and expressed at all linguistic strata. For him, when discussing translation one also discusses equivalence. And as Catford (1965) points out, equivalence is not restricted to the semantic stratum (i.e. that of content), but is also revealed through other strata (i.e. those of expression).

As far as equivalence in translation is concerned, Halliday (2001: 15-16) states that, “equivalence at different strata carries differential values... [and] the value tends to go up the higher the rank... with the ideational carrying by far the highest value overall.”

Moreover, he (ibid: 17) asserts that: “In metafunction, high value may be accorded to equivalence in the interpersonal or textual realms – but usually only when the ideational equivalence can be taken for granted...”
Seen from this view, ideational meaning is valued highest in the translation equivalence scale.

Ideational meaning comprises two major semantic components: experiential and logical meanings. In Halliday’s view (1986), experiential meaning depicts the world as it is perceived through a language user’s own experience rather than depicting reality itself. Therefore in order to have successful communication, there should be “shared experience of those participating in the speech situation” (Halliday 1968: 209). That means, for communication to be effective and successful, participants should have shared ideas, values, beliefs and other cultural conventions (including linguistic conventions).

From a systemic functional perspective, experiential meaning is realised in text through transitivity, whereas “logical components are embedded in the structure of the language… [and they] reflect the manner in which the world is organised by the addressers and the addressees. They relate the experiential units amongst themselves. Often certain text forms are associated with specific logical relations.” (Mason 2007:29)

Interpersonal meaning, however, reflects the role relationship between an addresser and an addressee and how the former perceives the latter, as explained by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 26-7): “The interpersonal component is concerned with the social expressive and conative functions of language, with expressing the speaker’s ‘angle’, his attitudes and judgments, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation and his motive in saying anything at all.”

With reference to Clause 1 of the ST in Example 4.1, when choosing to place the projected clause, ‘A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women’ in Theme position (and in effect making it the topic sentence), it’s obvious that the text producer possesses a knowledge and understanding of not only the health needs of this specific group (older women of post-menopausal age), but also of their values and beliefs in relation to health issues (ideational component).

From this understanding the text producer is able to make judgment on what should be included in the writing and how to make the message persuasive (interpersonal component). This, in turn, is organised and structured to form the text in question using textual strategy that includes thematic and information structures (textual component).

Drawing from the notion of transformations in text proposed by Hodge and Kress (1993) which involves three levels of text structure, namely syntactic, lexical and discursive, Mason (2007: 31) posits that the textual component may express experiential meaning through “three particular kinds of syntactic transformation due to their repetitive and effective
use during the communicative exchange…”; whereas, logical meaning may be realised through the use of cohesive ties and devices.

With respect to interpersonal meaning, also according to Mason (ibid: 32), it may be realised in text via thematisation “because it reveals what the speaker considers is going to be important or new to the addressee.”

And this echoes the view expressed by Halliday in which he sees interpersonal meaning as “enacting social relationship”, while textual meaning is seen as “creating relevance to context” of use (1985: 36). It can, therefore, be said that thematic structure does not only express textual metafunction, it also fulfils an interpersonal metafunction.

Most importantly, it can also be said that an analysis of the thematic structure of a text alone may help us understand how all the three types of meaning are structured and organised in the text to communicate the message intended by the writer. Because as Lores Sanz (2000: 113) points out: “The basic idea is that the thematic portion of a clause carries the main weight of the interpersonal and textual meaning, while the rhematic portion of the clause carries the main weight of the ideational meaning.”

Therefore, Theme should be viewed as the point of contact, put up by the text producer in order to provide readers with a window into what is going to transpire in the text. At the same time the text producer manipulates the reader’s reactions to text by making a conscious choice of which information should be placed in the thematic position to achieve maximal effects. Theme, then, acts as a pointer to the direction onto which the writer wants the message to head. In the meantime the segment of information contained in Rheme, the destination of the message and the communicative goal, is used to expand the message further for this purpose.

At the level of discourse-semantics, by selecting the projected clause ‘A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds...’ as the Theme of Clause 1, the ST writer signals his/her choice of linguistic elements used as the point of departure from which the unfolding discourse will be extended to include one or more clause, or may be expanded to cover the whole text.

Discussing the role of sentence topic in extended texts, Witte and Cherry (1986: 129) identify four major functions, which can be summarised as follows:

(1) [It announces] what an individual sentence or t-unit is about.
(2) [It provides] for the smooth introduction of new information into a text.
(3) [It helps] to create local coherence between individual sentences or t-units.
(4) [It guides] readers in constructing “gist” and identifying discourse topics for the texts they read.
In the above sentence, the nominal group ‘A long-term moderate exercise’ is considered not only as the Theme, but also the topic of Clause 1 of the ST. It, in turn, becomes the discourse topic of the whole text.

In the same vein Martin (1992), referring to the notion of thematic progression suggested by Danes (1974), labels this type of Theme ‘hyper Theme’ which is Theme of a paragraph. For him, “a hyper-Theme is an introductory sentence or group of sentences which is established to predict a particular pattern of interaction among strings, chains and Theme selection in following sentences…” (1992: 437). Martin also proposes the term macro-Theme to refer to “a sentence or group of sentences (possibly as paragraph) which predicts a set of hyper-Themes…” (ibid)

Therefore, Clause 1 of the ST ‘A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women’ is the introductory sentence or hyper-Theme of the whole paragraph. The same lexical elements of the clause (in italics) or their semantic relations, which are mainly nominal groups, are later repeated and made thematic in the succeeding clauses of the text.

At the same time in the same clause, the nominal group ‘A long-term moderate exercise program…’ functions as a launching pad, with the remainder of the clause (Rheme) as its destination, from which a message is sent. As far as the rhetorical configuration of a projection clause is concerned, it is normally realised by a projecting clause followed by a projected clause. Or as pointed out by Cloran (1996), the projecting clause introduces the preface of the message and what it projects is the prefaced, as illustrated in Figure 4.8a:

Figure 4.8a The projection structure of Clause 1 of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preface (Projecting)</th>
<th>Prefaced (Projected)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American researchers claimed that</td>
<td>a long-term exercise program of moderate degree could reduce the risk of contracting colds [and/or] flu among older women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, in the ST the order is reversed; i.e. the prefaced is brought forward and thematised, and thus draws the attention of the reader to the opening line which is prominently presented in an inverted clause complex foregrounding the statement in lieu of the preface (Figure 4.8b).
Moreover, by placing the projecting clause (or the ‘preface’), with ‘researchers’ as
Subject after the projected clause this can also mean that the ‘participant’ does not play a
major role in the discourse and may appear only once. And this will soon become evident
throughout the whole text: it’s about ‘solution for a problem’ (benefits of exercise against
colds) as stated in the introductory sentence, and not about the ‘researchers’ (or the ‘study’)
who is immediately pushed into the background.

Thompson (1996, 2004), however, proposes an alternative analytical approach to the
thematic structure of Clause 1. For him, in an indirect speech the projecting clause serves as a
contextual frame identifying the source of information provided in the projected clause, as can
be illustrated in Figure 4.9a:

Whereas the thematic structure of Clause 1 of the ST is as follows:

Choosing either Cloran’s or Thompson’s model of analysis we still receive the same
result: the thematic significance of the nominal group depicting the approach to preventing
cold in Clause 1 of the ST is highlighted; whereas in the TT this element loses its markedness.
(at least in English), because the source of the information (or the contextual frame of the clause), i.e. ‘American researchers’, to attracts more significance due to its being chosen as the ‘point of departure’ of the clause.

The process of thematisation of the projected clause of Clause 1 seems to achieve two purposes: (1) highlighting what is seen as significant in the clause and thus, adding value to the communicative force; (2) pointing to the direction from which the text will take off or expand.

In addition, the change in the rhetorical configuration of Clause 1 also affords change to the rhetorical force of the clause and what follows. The assigning of thematic value to the projected clause of Clause 1 and the nominal group ‘A long-term moderate exercise program’ is a result of the writer’s text planning process and reflects his/her method of text development to be revealed in each of the successive clauses. And this also reflects the intention of the writer in making this piece of information salient and thus blurring the information provided by the projecting clause (‘claim researchers in the US’) which is only mentioned once in the whole text.

Therefore, Clause 1 carries the most important message that the ST writer wishes to convey to the audience; that is ‘Exercise can give your body immunity against colds, and this is proven by medical research’.

Subsequently, Clause 2 reinforces this message by providing a statistical probability showing the benefit of exercise. And except for Clauses 3 to 5 which describe the characteristics of the target group and the methods used in the study, the rest of the text confirms what has been stated in the opening line, or the hyper-Theme of the paragraph.

This is consistent with a pattern of thematic progression proposed by Danes (1974: 109) who clearly states that: “the choice of the themes of particular utterances can hardly be fortuitous, unmotivated, and without any structural connexion to the text. In fact, even a superficial observation of texts shows that the choice and distribution of themes in the text reveal a certain patterning; this statement also corresponds to our intuitive expectations that the progression of the presentation of subject-matter must necessarily be governed by some regularities, must be patterned.”

Ravelli (1995) shares the same view. She sees text from a dynamic perspective; i.e. a text is not static but rather unfolds on a ‘path’ which provides “a mechanism for keeping track of choices as they unfold in a text” (1995: 203). Ravelli also states that at each point on the path the text provides an environment for what may follow. That is, the choice of Theme and consequently Rheme in a text is dynamic and will impact on the way in which the text
unfolds. Therefore, the choice of a particular linguistic element as Theme can reveal the reason for which the writer has decided to make such a choice.

In the ST, by choosing the projected clause as the Theme of Clause 1, the writer wishes to introduce the findings of the study, *the benefits of exercise*, as the starting point for the message from which more information is subsequently provided. It functions as a pointer or an orienter (as proposed by Fries 1981, 1983, 1992, 1995, 1996) in setting a context for the reader to interpret the remainder of the clause. In other words, it helps set a scene for the reader to construct a certain mental representation concerning the purpose and content of the text and use this to build his/her interpretation during the process of reading and comprehension of the information provided in the text. In addition, given the inter-correlation between Clause 1 and other clauses in the text, it also points to the direction of the method of development of the text as well as the flow of information.

In the TT however, the translator, perhaps influenced by a culture of ‘respect for authority’, and either wishing to give the text an authorial stance, or perhaps not being aware of the ST text producer’s intention, has decided to place the ‘researchers’ in the Theme position. This decision, although not interfering strongly with the text cohesion nor its coherence, does affect its dynamism and has caused change to discursive meaning of the text as has been illustrated in Figure 4.5.

Moving now from the thematic structure to the information structure of a text, which, according to Fries (1992: 461), alongside with the former gives the reader an impression of “the pacing of a text and what information is emphasised in that text”. Because while Theme may be used to introduce the topic of a clause and Rheme to indicate its goal, the information structure reveals which information is known to the listener/reader (Old or Given) and which is New, the focus of a clause or its ‘newsworthiness’ (Fries 1992, 1995, 1996).

As discussed in Chapter III, Vietnamese is a topic-prominent language. However, in terms of word order (as many English translated sentences in this paper indicate), it can also be regarded as a Subject-Predicate language sharing many characteristics of such a language as English with Subject appearing in the initial position of a clause.

In addition, considering many examples in Chapter III and in the present chapter, the notion of Subject is clearly evident in the structure of most Vietnamese sentences. Furthermore, a recent research report on the realization of Information Structure in spoken Vietnamese conducted by Jannedy (2007: 212) has suggested that “Vietnamese shows properties that are often associated with intonational phrasing and prosodic prominence in intonation languages: it has pitch range effects of the same sort seen in the intonational
marking of emphasis and it also has pausing and other rhythmic effects of the sort associated with intonational phrasing observed in English and German.”

More importantly, it is believed that languages universally express their information structure in the same way; i.e. from Given to New, from known to unknown. And despite the fact of being classified as Topic-prominent or Subject-prominent, in terms of thematic structure and information structure, most languages share many commonalities. Therefore, this can also be applied to the language pair Vietnamese and English.

Given syntax is language-specific, however, and word order is more restricted in Vietnamese than its English counterpart, the issue becomes complicated. The rather more flexible word order and complex sentence structure of English language has caused many obstacles to Vietnamese translation practitioners whose language does not possess similar flexible word order and sentence structure.

Returning to the text in question, perhaps faced with structural restriction in Vietnamese language, the TT producer has decided to dispose of the thematic organization of the ST in favour of the TL word order conventions. This decision has greatly hindered the information flow of the TT as well as interfered with its communicative dynamism or communicative force.

Up to this point, I have been exploring the relationship between the ST and the TT using various linguistic notions and linguistic techniques to examine the two semantically and assumingly generically related texts. In other words, we can say that semantically one is the mirror of the other in another language. I have been implementing notions and techniques drawn mainly from SFL and FSP in the analysis of texts for translation and translation evaluation purposes and have shown the divergence and convergence of the texts in their semantic, structural as well as generic aspects. And as it has been shown, there are several approaches to rhetorical structure analysis of a text which allow us to analyse how the text is written, for whom and why and to evaluate its effectiveness and success in serving the purpose for which it’s intended.

Before moving to the next stage of the research, which is to concentrate wholly on the thematic structure of a small corpus of informative texts, I will explore some additional analytical tools which have been used widely in text analysis by several linguists (for further reading see Hoey 1983; Winter 1986) to determine why the texts have been written in the ways that they are.

This analytical approach to text is by way of its Problem-Solution structure. The purpose of this exercise is to find out whether the model will also help reveal the rhetorical structure of texts of certain genres.
4.2.4 **PROBLEM-SOLUTION STRUCTURE**

In order to understand how the decision of the TT producer to uphold the Vietnamese syntactical convention does not only go against the ST writer’s intention, but also obscures the information flow of the text, one should explore the texts using what is termed by linguists as ‘Problem-Solution structure’ (Grimes 1975; Winter 1976, 1986, 1996; Hoey 1979, 1983, 1996; Fries 2002).

According to Hoey, Grimes (1975) in his study on the structure of fairy tales has identified similarities between the structure of fairy tale plots and scientific writings, as he explains (quoted in Hoey 1996) “Both … are built on a response pattern. The first part gives a problem and the second its solution. The solution has to be a solution to the problem that was stated, not some other; and the problem is stated only to be solved.”

In the field of medical or technological research the ‘Problem-Solution’ structure has inspired and provided premises for many research/study projects such as the one whose report is under examination. Generally speaking, a medical research, for example, can either take a proactive or reactive approach. The former aims to address a potential problem which may occur under certain conditions or in certain circumstances; for example, the trial of a new type of drug to identify any potential side effects or health risks before it is put in use.

A reactive approach, on the other hand, aims to find a solution for an existing problem. With respect to the research report writing format, commonsense dictates that a report tends to present the problem (reactive approach) first then moves on to describe the newly found-solution.

Below, a brief description of the Problem-Solution model and its implementation will assist with the current discussion. According to Hoey (1996) in terms of discourse the basic Problem-Solution structure comprises the following elements:

*Situation*

*Problem*

*Response*

*Evaluation*

Logically in a Problem-Solution text the situation should precede the problem, and only an aspect of the situation (from which a problem arises) requires a response; and the response results in a solution and its expected outcomes. As far as a solution for a problem is concerned, it always “contains within it an evaluation of a particular response as successful”
Therefore, with some modification, the Problem-Solution structure will appear as follows:

**Situation → Problem → Response (→ Solution) → Result/Evaluation.**

Implementing this schematic structure to the above excerpt (Example 1) and using relevant questions and answers to identify its logical and rhetorical structure, we can postulate that a piece of temporary text may be organized as responses to the following questions:

**Situation**
Q. What was the situation?
A. Concerns regarding overweight, post-menopausal women who didn’t exercise. (Clause 3)

**Problem**
Q. What was the problem?
A. They had high risk of having colds (Clause 2)

**Response (→ Solution)**
Q. What was the response?
A. A study was conducted to find out whether exercise could help prevent the risk of having colds. (Clause 1, and Clause 4 – 5)

**Result/Evaluation**
Q. What was the result? How successful was this?
A. The study showed a reduction in relation to the risk of catching colds among the group of exercisers and a slight increase among the group of stretchers who only did a minimal amount of stretching. (Clause 6 – 7)

Using the above questions and answers as a guide and with some syntactic modification particularly to Clause 1 – 3, the variant text appears as below:

**Situation → Problem**

It was identified that overweight, post-menopausal women who didn’t exercise had a higher risk of catching colds.
Response → Solution

A study conducted by researchers in the US involving 115 overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before the trial, found that a long-term moderate exercise program could reduce the risk of colds among older women. It also revealed that post-menopausal women who worked out regularly had about half the risk of colds as those who did not exercise.

Method of Study

Half the women were assigned to exercise moderately, such as walking on a treadmill or walking outside, for 45 minutes a day, five days a week. The other half were told to take part in once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions.

Result → Evaluation

Over 12 months, the risk of colds decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers. In the last three months of the study, the women who were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising.

However, in the text under investigation (Example 4.1) which is considered a piece of health information coming from the summary of a medical research report, instead of describing the situation and problem first, the opening line presents the reader with the found-solution. This has the immediate effect of appealing to the reader’s curiosity. Thus the discourse structure appears as below:

Response → Solution

A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women, claim researchers in the United States.

The study revealed that post-menopausal women who worked out regularly had about half the risk of colds as those who did not exercise.

Situation → Problem

The study involved 115 overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before the trial.
**Method of Study**

Half the women were assigned to exercise moderately, such as walking on a treadmill or walking outside, for 45 minutes a day, five days a week. The other half were told to take part in once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions.

**Result → Evaluation**

Over 12 months, the risk of colds decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers. In the last three months of the study, the women who were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising.

Generally speaking, in the ‘Problem-Solution structure’ the problem is normally mentioned first and thus will appear in the Theme position; whereas the attempt to solve this problem or possible solution will be placed in the Rheme position.

The following diagram shows the direction of the information structure of the clause (Given-New) as well as that of the Problem-Solution structure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Given</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td>Solution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However in Clause 1 of the ST, this order is reversed; i.e. the solution is mentioned first and then the problem. This textual strategy makes the text more appealing to the reader; particularly to those who potentially fit the profile (inactive, older or post-menopausal women). As far as information structure is concerned, according to Firbas (1964, 1966, 1974, 1989) the information contained in the first clause of a text is all New because it has not been mentioned anywhere in the text previously. Moreover, the reporting clause is left unanalysed by some researchers, but as Thompson (2004: 173) points out: “since it is the Subject of the reported clause that, in many cases, serves the primary continuative function”. Referring to
the above text it is obvious that the reporting clause, being the first clause in the text and also its topic sentence, structurally plays a crucial role in the method of development of the text, and semantically contributes greatly to the interpretation of the whole text. If it were left out of the analytical process, the use of the definite nominal group (i.e. ‘the study’) in the second clause would be hard to justify.

Moreover, since the title, which is considered as ‘Super-Theme’ (‘Ultra-Theme’ or Mega-Theme’) by some researchers (for example Martin 1992), has already implied ‘cold’ (‘Cold protection’) as being a problem, the information about ‘cold’ provided by Clause 1 is no longer New. Thus, the nominal group placed in the initial position of the clause is considered New information because the nominal group ‘A long-term moderate exercise program’ is the information which has not been mentioned before. It is also a marked Theme because it is part of a projected clause which is supposed to follow a projecting clause (see discussion in the earlier section).

Thus, Figure 4.11 will illustrate this point:

Figure 4.11 The Problem-Solution structure of Clause 1 of the TT

| A long-term moderate exercise program | can reduce the risk of colds among older women… |
| THEME (marked) | RHEME |

At the paragraph level, Clause 1 of the ST is also used as the introductory clause, or hyper-Theme, which provides a mental space to help readers interpret what is about to be unfolded in the text. It also helps predict Themes of other clauses in the paragraph. Clause 2 of the ST confirms this observation. It starts with the ‘study’ as Theme, a salient piece of information picking up from both ‘program’ and ‘researchers’ in the previous clause, as it also does in Clause 3.
Thus, the themes of the first three clauses form a constant theme pattern (or theme-iteration pattern), helping increase the accessibility and comprehensibility of the text. Similarly, the Rheme of Clause 1, containing such lexical elements as ‘risk of colds’ and ‘older women’, in turn functions as either the Theme or Rheme of the successive clauses. In addition, the lexical element ‘exercise’ as well as its semantic relations (walking, stretching, etc), is repeated throughout the text. Therefore, it can be said that Clause 1 functions both as hyper-Theme and hyper-Rheme of the whole paragraph.

Textually, the thematic structure of Example 4.1 renders it cohesive and thus greatly contributes to its coherence.

With regard to the interactional aspect of the text, an interesting observation is the use of the lexical verb ‘reveal’ in Clause 2 to describe the findings of the study instead of more conventionally formulaic language such as ‘It is found …’, or ‘It is reported …’, as if a ‘secret’ were disclosed by the study. In Clause 3, ‘involve’ is employed to give the impression that the study actively interacts with its target group.

Most of these specific features do not appear in the translation. Therefore, this raises the question whether a shift in the thematic structure of the target language text has also caused a shift in the three metafunctions of the TT.

As far as the information structure is concerned, in a written text important information is normally placed toward the end of the clause. According to Fries (1995, 1996), this information is presented as newsworthy and is the focus of the reader’s attention. However, in Clause 1 this information is brought to the initial position and thus is made prominent. And as discussed, this textual strategy serves two purposes: (1) setting up a context in which the remainder of the clause will be interpreted; (2) providing a ‘topic entity’ which may become the Theme for successive clauses of the paragraph or perhaps, of the whole text.

This intention is shown when the Theme of the next two clauses is the ‘study’, and the subject of the study (‘older women’) is put on the receiving end of the action generated by the ‘study’. Furthermore, in terms of text genre, by placing the projected clause as Theme the writer can avoid subjectivity, since the foregrounding of the projecting clause ‘Researchers in the US claimed that…’ in the introductory sentence will give the impression of an intrusion on the part of the writer (or researchers), and thus will be less objective.
4.2.5 **TOPICAL STRUCTURE ANALYSIS**

Still on Theme-Rheme structure and with translation practice in mind, the above text will be explored from the perspective of topical structure analysis proposed by Lautamatti (1978, 1987) and implemented by other ESL researchers (see Witte 1983, Connor & Schneider 1988, Schneider & Connor 1990). Lautamatti employed topical structure analysis to examine coherence in texts, through the semantic relations “between sentence topics and the overall discourse topic.” (Schneider & Connor 1990: 413)

Implementing the thematic progression notion developed by Danes (1974) in the analysis of text structure, Lautamatti identified three different types of topic progression in sentences; namely: parallel progression, sequential progression, and extended parallel progression. While parallel progression shares characteristics of a constant Theme in Danes’ classification, the other two types are somewhat different. In sequential progression, topics of sentences can be variously different, while extended parallel progression describes the return of “an earlier topic that has been temporarily interrupted by sequential progression” (ibid: 416). This can be seen as ‘gapped development’ in Dubois’ terminology (1987).

Looking again at **Example 4.1**, we will see that the topics of Clauses 1, 2, and 3, and also Clauses 4 and 5, are instances of ‘parallel progression’ because they are either semantically identical or repeated; whereas Clauses 6 and 7 can be seen as an example of ‘sequential progression’, with the topic of Clause 7 being an ‘extended parallel progression’ due to the return of the nominal group ‘women’ in the Theme position.

However, there is a major difference between the notion of ‘topic’ proposed by Lautamatti and her colleagues, and the notion of Topic, which is sometimes seen as a type of Theme by Halliday and others. According to Schneider & Connor (1990) topic, from Lautamatti’s view, does not always coincide with the grammatical subject of the sentence and in a text it is expressed by a nominal group. The nominal group which expresses topic “can occur in many places of the sentence – beginning, middle, and end…” (ibid: 416)

As will be seen from the nominal groups found in the Theme position of the above text, at least 60% of its topics are parallel and are about the study, and the rest are sequential. However, because the latter are directly related to the topics of previous clauses (about exercise and the target group), the text still maintains its coherence.

Moreover, if the elements found in the Rheme positions, which convey New information, are also taken into account, it can be said that they often contain the expanding or elaborating pieces of information about the topics. These also help enhance the coherence of the text and reinforce its discourse topic.
As far as the number of re-occurrences is concerned, in a text of less than 150 words in length the topic ‘study’ occurs five times (including in other forms of semantic relations such as ‘exercise program’, ‘trial’); ‘women’ recurs seven times (also as ‘exercisers’ and ‘stretchers’), and ‘risk of colds’ four times; whereas “researchers” only appears once in the analysis.

With respect to the functions of ‘given’ and ‘new’, Halliday (1970: 162) makes the following remark:

These are often conflated with theme and rheme under the single heading ‘topic and comment’; the latter, however, is (like the traditional notion of ‘subject’) a notion, and the association of theme with given, rheme with new, is subject to the usual ‘good reason’ principle already referred to – there is freedom of choice, but the theme will be associated with the ‘given’ and the rheme the ‘new’ unless there is good reason for choosing some other alignment. (Italics added)

From a discourse semantic perspective, there is a ‘good reason’ for the ST writer to select the projected clause and particularly the nominal group ‘a long-term moderate exercise program’ of the ST as Theme. According to Brown and Yule (1983: 133) Theme has two distinct functions: (i) it connects back and links in to previous discourse, and thus helps maintain the text coherence; (ii) it serves as a point of departure for the further development of the discourse of the text.

Also referring to the notion of thematisation, these authors point out that this term has a discoursal perspective rather than simply a sentential one. As Brown and Yule (1983: 133-34) explain “What a speaker or writer puts first will influence the interpretation of everything that follows. Thus a title will influence the interpretation of the text, which follows it. The first sentence of the first paragraph will constrain the interpretation not only of the paragraph, but also of the rest of the text.”

Therefore, looking back at the title of the text ‘Cold protection’, there is ‘good reason’ for the ST writer to make the choice of the projected clause as Theme of the clause complex as s/he did above, because it links back to the previous discourse which is dictated by the title and it also points forward to the way the text is going to be developed.

4.2.6 RHEMATIC PROGRESSION

Moving now from thematic structure to information structure of the text which according to Fries (1992: 461), along side with the former gives the reader an impression of “the pacing of a text and what information is emphasised in that text”. While Theme may be used to introduce the topic of a clause and Rheme indicate its goal, the information structure
reveals which information is known to the listener/reader and which is New or is the focus of a clause, i.e. its “newsworthiness” (Fries 1992, 1995, 1996).

Little research has been conducted into the function of Rheme in general, as well as into how much is the notion of rhyme is relevant or important to translation practice although, no doubt, it is an integral part of the clause structure.

Just as Theme, Rheme plays a significant role in the construction of textual meaning and the distribution of information within a clause and of the whole text, as Danes asserts when contrasting the relationship between Theme and Rheme. For him (1974: 113), while Theme plays an important ‘constructional role’ in a communicative event, “rheme shows its significance as the conveyor of the “new””.

Fries is one among a few linguists who have extensively studied rhematic structure, and he is the one who has coined the term N-Rheme (1993, 1995 and so on) to refer to the last constituent(s) of a clause.

As far as text production is concerned, word order is a textual resource available to text producers to organise their message in order to communicate their ideas and intentions. The choice of Theme is one of the strategies employed by the text producer as a pragmatic and textual function in providing an orientation to the direction of the clause or in creating the topic continuity in the text.

**But what then, is the function of Rheme?**

Thompson (2004: 165) provides a description of the function of Rheme by contrasting its function against that of Theme “One way of looking at the different functions of these two elements is to see the Themes as building up the framework of the text, the organisation within which the content is fitted, or the angle from which the content should be seen; the Rheme, on the other hand, provides the content, the main information that the writer or speaker wants the addressee to know.” (emphasis added)

So, the function of Theme is to create an environment and provide a perspective from which and within which the content of a text (its Rheme) will be developed and expanded further. Halliday (1994: 145-6), in acknowledging the importance of the textual elements of Theme and Rheme in the realisation of textual metafunction, points out the crucial role they play in maintaining textual continuity and its discursive relevance:

… the ongoing selection of elements functioning as Theme, and elements functioning as New [Rheme], throughout a portion of text is a major source of continuity and discursive power… Any motif that figured regularly as clause Theme could be seen to function as ‘method of development’ in the text, while any motif figured regularly as Rheme was likely to be functioning as ‘main point’… [And] what constitutes the ‘main point’ of the discourse is any motif that figures regularly as New.
Thus, there is a correlation between the thematic structure and the information structure of a text such that any change to the thematic structure will result in change to the information structure, and hence its rhematic structure as well. This will be revealed when comparing and contrasting the information structure of ST against that of the TT, as exemplified in the following diagrams:

**Figure 4.12a**  
Elements in the Theme zone of the ST and the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS IN THEME ZONE (ST)</th>
<th>ELEMENTS IN THEME ZONE (TT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 A long-term moderate exercise program</td>
<td>1 American researchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The study</td>
<td>2 This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The study</td>
<td>3 The study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Half the women</td>
<td>4 Half the women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 The other half</td>
<td>5 The other half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Over 12 months, the risk of colds</td>
<td>6 After 12 months, the risk of having a cold [and/or] flu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 In the last three months of the study, the women who</td>
<td>7 In the last three months of the study, those who</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.12b**  
Elements in the Rhematic zone of the ST and the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS IN RHEME ZONE (ST)</th>
<th>ELEMENTS IN RHEME ZONE (TT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 can reduce the risk of colds…</td>
<td>1 claimed that a long-term …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 revealed that post-menopausal women who worked out regularly…</td>
<td>2 a was published in the American..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Involved 115 overweight …</td>
<td>3 b (and) concluded that …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 were assigned to exercise…</td>
<td>4 examined 115 post-menopausal …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 were told to take part …</td>
<td>5 participated in …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 decreased in exercisers and increased …</td>
<td>6 reduced among the exercisers…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 were only stretching …</td>
<td>7 only did supine relaxation …</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A close examination of the thematic and rhematic elements in the above diagrams shows there are a number of divergences among the rhematic elements between the two texts; whereas the main change made to the ideational elements of the whole text occurs in Clause 1, or the topic sentence of the paragraph. Knowledge of the rhematic notion and how Rheme operates within a sentence and beyond is useful in text analysis particularly for translation purposes. This is because the rhematic field is where rhematic elements, containing what is seen as “newsworthy” information, are located.

And as discussed, there has been a great deal of attention paid to thematic analysis and many studies have been conducted into the impact of thematic pattern as a strategy for text continuity and text cohesion and coherence. However, it seems that there has been little interest in the effect of Rheme or rhematic pattern on the text structure, as critiqued by Danes (1974: 113): “It is obviously not by chance that the studies of FSP predominantly concern the problems of theme (and not those of rheme – of the frequent term ‘thematisation’ and the rarely used term ‘rhematisation’), in spite of the fact that it is just the rheme that presents the core of the utterance (the message proper) and ‘pushes the communication forward’…”

Leong (2005) mentions only two scholars who have studied the role and significance of the rhematic element; namely Enkvist (1973) and Fries (1994, 1995). The author is also very critical of the neglect of this important component of the Theme-Rheme bipartition in the study of text, commenting: “text-based studies should give adequate attention to the continuation of both theme and rheme rather than be confined to only one or the other element.

There is a much to be gained, perhaps even more, in exploring the rhematic thread of discourse as there is in the thematic thread. After all, it is the rhematic, not thematic, element that carries the body of the message and pushes the discourse forwards.” (ibid: 715)

Leong’s view is shared by Baker (1992) in her discussion of ‘word order as a textual strategy’ as well as the role of clausal linear arrangement in processing and organising information at text level. Baker views rheme as “the goal of discourse”, and important because it is the piece of information containing the message a writer wants to communicate with his/her reader. She also strongly emphasises the key role played by rhematic elements in an utterance, saying: “It is the rheme that fulfils the communicative purpose of the utterance.” (ibid: 122)

As far as rheme types are concerned, Enkvist proposes two, namely rheme iteration and rheme regression. The following examples are taken from Enkvist (1973) to illustrate the difference between two types of rhematic progression:
(a) **Rheme iteration:**

Eg: John loved Margaret. I also admired her enormously.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
T1 & \rightarrow & R1 \\
\downarrow & & \\
T2 & \rightarrow & R2
\end{array}
\]

(R1 = Margaret) 
(R2 = her)

In Rheme iteration, the rheme of the previous clause is repeated as the rheme of the following clause.

(b) **Rheme regression:**

Eg: Margaret published a book. But no one believed her.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
T1 & \rightarrow & R1 \\
\downarrow & & \\
T2 & \rightarrow & R2
\end{array}
\]

(T1 = Margaret) 
(R2 = her)

In Rheme regression, the theme of the previous clause is picked up as the rheme of the following clause.

Earlier, Danes (1974), along with a category of thematic progression patterns, also proposed what was termed as ‘split rheme’ pattern in which the preceding clause may contain multiple rhematic elements which are picked up and used as themes by successive clauses. For example in Clause 1 of the ST the rhematic elements the ‘risk of colds’ (Rheme (a)) and ‘older women’ (Rheme (b)) are used as Theme in Clause 6 and Clause 4 and 5 respectively as illustrated in **Figure 4.13:**
Figure 4.13  The ‘Split Rheme’ pattern of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT:**

1. Topic Theme (marked)  
   (A long-term … program)  
   Rheme (a)  
   Rheme (b)  
   the risk … older women…)

2. …

3. …

4. Part. Theme  
   (Half the women …)

5. Part. Theme  
   (The other half…)

6. Contextual frame & Part. Theme  
   (Over 12 months, the risk …)

Leong on the other hand, following a study conducted by Dubois, provides a more detailed typology of rhematic progression (for further information, see Leong 2005). In this section, only relevant types are used to examine the rhematic pattern of **Example 4.1:**

(a) **Box development:** where elements appearing in both the theme-rheme pair of the previous clause are linked to corresponding elements in the following pair.

Figure 4.14  The ‘Box Theme-Rheme’ pattern of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

1. **Clause 1**  
   A long-term … program  
   older women …

2. **Clause 2**  
   The study …  
   post-menopausal women…

3. **Clause 3**  
   The study …  
   post-menopausal women…
The above text segment can be expressed as follows:

```
T1 → R1
↓  ↓
T2 → R2
↓  ↓
T3 → R3
```

(b) **Gapped development:** occurs when the rheme of a clause is picked up and repeated as theme of another clause after being interrupted by intervening clauses.

Thus, in **Example 4.1**, a piece of information ‘the risk’ which is contained in the Rheme (a) of Clause 1 reappears as the Theme of Clause 6 after being interrupted, as illustrated in the below diagram:

**Figure 4.15**

**SOURCE TEXT**

1. Topic Theme (marked) → Rheme (a) Rheme (b)
   (A long-term … program the risk … older women …)

2…

3….

5….

6. Contextual frame & Part. Theme → Rheme
   (Over 12 months, the risk … in exercisers and stretchers…)

Dubois (1987) also proposes another type of thematic progression which she terms *multiple progression*. This, in turn, comprises two sub-types, namely: *separation* and *integration*. Multiple progression implies the information making up a thematic property is derived from more than one source. However, her classification of thematic progression may
overlap with what is referred to by Danes as semantic inference or implication through hyponymy, hyperonomy, and association.

Due to the purpose and scope of the present research, discussion will not go further into Dubois’ classification of thematic and rhematic progression.

With reference to Leong’s category of thematic and rhematic progressions, his classification of ‘box development’ can be seen as the pattern of constant theme and rhyme where the same theme and rhyme in the preceding clause are picked up and repeated by the succeeding clauses.

From the above discussion, a question has arisen: how can knowledge of rhyme help with translation practice? What implications are there for translators in relation to following the thematic and rhematic patterns of source language text? Given structural differences, rigidly following the source language text structure may interfere with or even jeopardise the semantic content of the text as a whole (and the opposite may also be true).

The first impression of Rheme is the various views of its function in a clause as opposed to that of Theme. Baker (1992) sees Rheme as the “goal of discourse”, because it is Rheme that helps achieve the purpose of a communicative act; whereas Thompson (2007) contends that Rheme is the “main [piece of] information” that the addressee wants to know.

Fries (2009: 267), who has coined the term N-Rheme (for New Rheme) to emphasise the ‘newsworthiness’ of this particular element (“the focus of attention”) of the information structure of a clause, also stresses the important role Rheme plays in text: “N-Rhematic information contains the newsworthy information, information which is in focus in that message. As a result the N-Rhemes are likely to contain information which is directly relevant to the goals of the text or text segment.”

Therefore, it is in the rhematic region (or rhematic sphere) that the most important pieces of information of the ensuing discourse are deposited. As far as a written text is concerned, it is also where a text receiver more likely finds a message fully developed and expanded.

Returning to the ST of Example 4.1 and examining the rhemes of the text, it appears that most of the essential information a reader wants to know is concentrated in or around the rhematic region (Figure 4.16a):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>THEMATIC REGION</th>
<th>RHEMATIC REGION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A long-term moderate exercise</td>
<td>can reduce the risk of colds among older women…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NEW</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The study</td>
<td>revealed that post-menopausal women who worked out regularly had about half the risk of colds as those who did not exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The study</td>
<td>involved 115 overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before the trial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Half the women</td>
<td>were assigned to exercise moderately, such as walking on a treadmill or walking outside, for 45 minutes a day, five days a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The other half</td>
<td>were told to take part in once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Over 12 months, the risk of colds</td>
<td>decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>In the last three months of the study, the women who</td>
<td>were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLD</td>
<td>NEW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And if we implement the Problem-Solution structure model to the text with the assumption that there will be features of language indicating what the problem is, then a solution to that problem will also be referred to in the text. The Rheme of Clause 1 of the text refers to the problem, which is ‘the risk of colds’, and it is matched with what seems to be the proposed solution ‘a long-term moderate exercise program’ located in the thematic position of the clause.

Because the introductory sentence of the text (Clause 1) announces the proposed solution as an ‘exercise program’ we should be able to use what has been described as the problem (‘the risk of cold among older women…’) to predict what meanings will be stressed when the proposed solution is presented. We also should be able to predict that since this is a
study into the benefits of exercise, exercise methods will be mentioned somewhere within the rhematic region of the text.

As the text unfolds the rhemes of the successive clauses provide more information concerning the problem as well as the solution. The rhemes of Clause 2 and 3, for example, ‘reveal’ the problem being ‘the risk of colds’ among ‘overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before…’ This is matched with the proposed solution (‘exercise program’) which is elaborated and confirmed as well as further developed in the rhematic region of Clause 4 and 5 with one group of women ‘walking on treadmill’ or ‘walking outside’; and another group just doing some ‘stretching’, with the results compared.

Furthermore, given the proposed solution is a medical research study the reader will expect it to be supported by statistical evidence as well as a program evaluation within a given timeframe.

This information is given in Clause 6 and 7 of the text with temporal adjuncts placed in the theme position to provide a temporal framework. On the other hand the outcome of the program (the ‘solution’ to the ‘problem’) and its implications, are concentrated in the rhematic region of these clauses. Thus, the risk of colds ‘decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers’; and women who ‘were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising’.

Since the text is about the outcome of a study on the benefits of exercise, we can predict that its main goal is to persuade the reader to change their sedentary lifestyle and take up exercise to improve their potential health problems. And as discussed in the earlier sections, in order to convince the intended audience the text producer has used various features of language including different types of circumstantial elements (‘regularly’, ‘moderately’, etc.) to promote the benefits of exercise. This information mainly concentrates in the Rhemes of the text.

As far as translation practice is concerned, as it has shown, the rhematic region contains the essential information, which is referred or alluded to at the beginning of the clause. A question arises: given a change made to the Theme of a clause does this cause change to its Rheme as well? In other words, has the thematisation of the projected clause of Clause 1 impacted on its rhematic pattern as well as on the rhematic progression of the whole text?

To answer this question, perhaps we should have another look at the rhematic region of the text in Example 4.1 (Figure 4.16b)
Figure 4.16b

The ‘Old-New’ structure of the TT

**TARGET TEXT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>THEMATIC REGION</th>
<th>RHEMATIC REGION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>American researchers claimed that</td>
<td>a long-term exercise program of moderate degree could reduce the risk of contracting colds [and/or] flu among older women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The study</td>
<td>was published in the American Journal of Medicine and concluded that post-menopausal women who exercised regularly [could] reduce the risk of having colds [and/or] flu by half as compared with those who did no exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The study</td>
<td>examined 115 post-menopausal women who were overweight [and who did not do] any exercise before the trial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Half the women</td>
<td>were given [an opportunity to be involved in] some types of moderate exercise such as walking, working on an exercise bike, or walking outdoors for about 45 minutes a day, five days a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The other half</td>
<td>participated in supine relaxation sessions once [a week], each time about 15 minutes. (sic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>After 12 months, the risk of having a cold [and/or] flu</td>
<td>reduced among the exercisers and increased among the relaxers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>In the last three months of the study, those who</td>
<td>only did supine relaxation had three times more risk of contracting a cold [and/or] flu than those who exercised regularly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>OLD</strong></td>
<td><strong>NEW</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ignoring the earlier discussed lexical changes made to the TT such as ‘supine relaxation’ instead of ‘stretching’, and ‘relaxers’ instead of ‘stretchers’, etc, and let us just look at the Theme of its first clause. The foregrounding of the nominal group ‘American researchers’ creates an impression on the reader concerning the overall meaning of the text: ‘it is about an American research study into exercise as a preventative measure against cold and flu’.

This is further confirmed by elements provided in the Rheme of Clause 2 in relation to the source of the information which ‘was published in the American Journal of Medicine…’
In addition, the information contained in the rhematic region of Clause 3 also indicates the active role the study plays in the whole discourse of the text, with the choice of the material process ‘examine’ used in active voice (the study ‘examined 115 post-menopausal women who were overweight...’) to replace the relational attributive process ‘involve’ in the ST. And despite the remaining portion of the TT (Clauses 4-7) containing mostly similar information found in that of the ST, the message received by the text receiver is still about ‘the study’ which is in contrast to the message intended by the ST: ‘the benefits of exercise in preventing colds’.

As indicated, the thematic choice made by the text producer of the TT has significantly influenced the meaning of the whole text as illustrated through the thematic and rhematic analysis. It’s too early, however, to come to the conclusion that a different thematic choice will result in a change to both the thematic and rhematic structures of a text. It’s also too early to claim that this change will affect the information structure of the text, and thus the semantic aspect of the text. In order to make such a claim, we will need more evidence by way of comparing and contrasting more texts of similar natures.

Given the thematisation of the projected clause of Clause 1 of the ST has come from the text producer’s motivation to highlight the benefits of exercise in cold prevention, can it be said the same regarding the intention and motivation of the text producer of the TT?

Earlier, it was argued that the projecting clause in the TT was foregrounded rather than left in the projection tagging position (i.e. at the end of the clause) as in the ST due to a motivated choice made by the translator. Hypothetically, this choice might be motivated by either the difference in Vietnamese language structure, or the tendency of a writer, in an attempt to boost the persuasiveness and credibility of the text, to make reference to an authoritative figure. This question cannot be addressed appropriately and convincingly until more texts are examined and further evidence collected. In the next chapter, Chapter V, evidence will be collected by way of comparing and contrasting a corpus of parallel texts in English and Vietnamese. The findings then will be discussed and comments made.
CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS FOR TRANSLATION PRACTICE

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will further examine the thematic choice of three pairs of texts selected from a corpus of texts of the same genre; i.e. health information pamphlets. The texts chosen for examination are selected from among a wide range of health information materials translated into Vietnamese as part of a series of information materials published in various community languages. These information pamphlets aim to promote health and wellbeing among people from a culturally and linguistically diverse background (CALD).

Interest is particularly focused on materials written on mental health issues and these have been published by various health agencies in different states across Australia.

The reasons for this decision are manifold:

a. Mental health and mental illness are abstract and complex concepts difficult for even an English speaking person to grasp when written in a language which is also conceptually abstract. They therefore require explanation in clear and descriptive vernacular language in order for the general audience to understand with ease. This study will look at how language is used in the texts to achieve this purpose.

b. Given these concepts involve internal aspects of a person; i.e. moods and feelings, it is crucial that both patients and practitioners share a “common language” which can provide a vehicle for successful communication. A research into the underutilization of mental health services of the Vietnamese community in South Western Sydney (2006) discovered that such terms as ‘stress’, ‘depression’, and ‘anxiety’ were used and understood differently by different groups of interviewees. It led to the conclusion that “differences in understanding of mental health terminology are occurring, this is likely to interfere with accurate diagnosis and referral.” (Wagner et al 2006: 264).

This is also echoed a concern raised by Gold that: “There is no equivalent word in Vietnamese for the term ‘counselor’” (1992: 292).

c. In Vietnam, it is widely believed that mental illness is characteristic of a first world industrialized society therefore not relevant to interpreting someone’s ‘out of character’ behaviour (hence ‘odd’ behaviour can be seen as eccentricity and not relevant to individual’s wellbeing). Indeed many Vietnamese still think that cases of extreme disability or mental disorder are the result of misdeeds one has done in previous lives. It is estimated that almost 80% of Vietnamese population are Buddhist who strongly hold the view that “one reaps what one has sown”
According to the Buddhist ‘cause-effect doctrine and karma’). Therefore, any mental condition is seen as shameful within Vietnamese culture and families often hide or deny this problem.

Given that a translator is a cross cultural facilitator, any effort to bring the Vietnamese community toward a clear understanding of mental health issues and encourage greater access to mental health services is essential. As far as the diagnosis and treatment of mental illness is concerned, not fully understanding mental health concepts and thus not being able to explain many manifesting symptoms clearly may exacerbate a potential mental health problem among Vietnamese patients.

The previously mentioned research conducted by a group of psychologists (Wagner et al 2006: 267) noted that their Vietnamese participants’ rating of the symptoms of all three types of mental conditions, namely ‘stress’, ‘anxiety’, and ‘depression’, were significantly similar. Moreover, somatisation, the confusion between psychological symptoms with physical ones, has often been identified among Vietnamese patients. People with somatisation view such symptoms as abdominal pains or headaches as unrelated to a psychological problem, and may approach a general practitioner for these types of complaint rather than a mental health specialist.

This concern has also been raised by Duong-Ohsutka & Ohsutka (2001: 9) in their research into the attitudes of Vietnamese and Australian-born towards psychological treatment:

Because psychological services are traditionally known to deal with emotional or psychological symptoms, potential clients who experience physical symptoms stemming from psychological distress may seek help only from medical practitioners. Clinicians who fail to recognise the psychological origin of somatised symptoms in clients may further reinforce greater somatisation on the part of the client, a vicious circle of inappropriate treatment and misuses of medical services would ensue.

The problem may be caused by the fact that Vietnamese patients have little understanding of mental health issues or may find the concept of mental wellbeing or mental illness quite foreign. A contributing factor may be the influence of their cultural values and health beliefs; i.e. karma and cause-effect.

Further, there may be confusion or even shock among patients and their families if such general concepts as mental health, mental wellbeing, and mental illness are not clearly explained and relevant symptoms or signs are not clearly described while a consultation with a medical or psychological professional is held.

As earlier mentioned, due to the foreignness of concepts and the current usage of many mental health terms which, at best, cause confusion, and at worst, misunderstanding to
both patients and their families alike, the issue which needs urgent attention may be a ‘common language’ agreed upon by medical and psychological professionals, particularly by those responsible for the treatment of mental health patients within the Vietnamese community.

The following observation (Nguyen: 2003: 27-28) highlights the deep-rooted language related issue that may have led to the reluctance of many Vietnamese patients to seek appropriate help, and thus the underutilization of mental health services as well as the potential cause of misdiagnosis of people with mental illness within the Vietnamese speaking community:

Words often hold cultural connotations that cannot be precisely replicated or are lost in translation. In the U.S., mental illness refers to a number of behavioral and psychological disorders that produce a range of mild to severe dysfunction. Mental illness, or benh tam than, as it is referred to in Vietnam, is a term approximately equivalent with madness, or severe psychiatric disorder. The severity of a disorder is defined by its potential to negatively affect those around the sufferer, rather than aspects such as curability or potential for self-harm. Psychiatrists are referred to as bac si tam than, which literally translated means “doctors who treat madness.” Benh tam than carries the stereotyped connotation of wild, unpredictable, and dangerous persons. Bac si tam than implies the ridiculousness of those obligated to care for them. Dien and khung are the colloquial terms approximately equivalent to “crazy” or “nuts.” In everyday situations they may be used to joke or tease, but when implemented in a serious tone, they evoke fear and apprehensiveness. Each of these words not only reflects Vietnamese biases, but also shapes the way they think about mental illness.

The blending of many different beliefs, values and traditions has molded Vietnamese thought with regards to mental illness. Two concepts are fundamental to the Vietnamese perception of mental illness. These are nghiep chuong: suffering and karma, which are rooted in Buddhism.

The Vietnamese explain each individual’s misfortune by linking it to misdeeds committed in a previous life. A person afflicted with mental illness is inheriting punishment for his own previous sins or for the sins of his entire family, while simultaneously penalizing the family with his dysfunctional behavior. Another supposed cause of insanity is possession by angry ancestral spirits. Families avoid offending their ancestors for fear of the consequences.

Influenced by such values and beliefs, many Vietnamese mental health patients and their families may experience isolation due to shame and stigmatization from people of their own community. This may also cause them to hide a mentally ill relative, or reluctantly seek professional psychological help only as a last resort.

Combined with the lack of knowledge about appropriate services, this can force people to resort to self-help or help from those who are deemed to be ‘knowledgeable” within their family, their network of friends, or respected figures within the Vietnamese community. These include religious or spiritual leaders in the community, and especially general practitioners.

Therefore, in order to demystify such misconceptions there must be a well-designed educational program aimed not only at mental health patients, their families, and their community in general, but also at those who treat them. And this should start first with well-
written and clearly explained information materials in a language which is easily understood.

In the next section three translated texts on such common mental health issues as depression and mental illness in general will be reviewed. The aim of the review is not so much to evaluate the translation quality, but rather to highlight areas of potential confusion to the reader. Even though it is not the intention of the present writer to concentrate on the area of terminology, nor is it the purpose of this study to comment on the quality of specific translation, the analysis of the texts in question inevitably touches on both these issues.

What will be particularly looked at in the next section is any change made to the Theme and Rheme pattern of the target language texts as compared with their originals.

The three texts have been chosen from among a corpus of more than 20 texts of the same genre, i.e. mental health information pamphlets, published or posted on the internet by such government and non-government agencies as Queensland Transcultural Mental Health Centre (Queensland Government), Multicultural Mental Health Australia, NSW Health Department, and Beyond Blue.

They have been selected for analysis because, according to statistics, depression and anxiety are the two most common mental health problems in the Vietnamese community in Australia, particularly among those who are from a refugee background.

Another reason for the choice of these texts is the divergent use of Vietnamese terms to render, for example, ‘depression’ even in the same document. This divergence reflects the widespread disagreement among Vietnamese linguistic experts (translators, checkers and linguists) and also among those working in the mental health field whose job is to facilitate the communication between Vietnamese clients and mainstream mental health professionals and agencies.

This raises the critical issue of a uniform usage of mental health terminology across all levels of the health care system in Australia, taking into consideration patient safety and wellbeing as the most important goal in any diagnosis and treatment.

In addition, it also highlights the need for a translation quality assurance policy and comprehensive guidelines for interpreters and translators working with CALD communities; particularly with those whose members are the most vulnerable and more at risk of mental illness.
5.1 **THE SELECTION OF TEXTS FOR ANALYSIS**

As discussed the texts chosen for analysis are on mental health and mental illnesses. The issue of mental health is topical, confusing and complex to a majority of Vietnamese people. The main reasons for the selection of these texts include:

- **Subject of the texts:** A lack of consensus on terminology is clearly represented in these texts providing examples with various variants and sometimes contradicting terminology that will be discussed in the next section. The challenge confronts translators and results in examples of inconsistency in the use of terminology and a literal approach to translation.

- **Text type/Text genre:** all the texts chosen belong to the mental health information genre, having the following characteristics:
  - Simple use of language
  - Simple sentence structures
  - An overarching purpose is ease of understanding and clarity leading to highly cohesive and coherent texts. This is evident in thematic structure of the texts.
  - The primary purpose of an informative text is to provide mainly factual and accurate information. This allows minimal degree of subjectivity and creativity.
  - In its educative function, this type of text is also persuasive; i.e. encouraging such action as seeking help/advice, taking medication as instructed, etc. The framework chosen to analyse such texts, therefore, needs to include some parameters that allow this aspect of meaning to be revealed.

As a result, since the purpose of the texts is to provide readers with as much information about the subject (mental health in this case) as possible, yet not to overwhelm them with medically laden concepts, the text producers try to make the texts more interactive as if it were a conversation. Applying the Q & A format, the text producers use subheadings as the questions then the answers are provided in the ensuing paragraphs (see Example 5.4 and Example 5.5).
This practice, on the one hand, gives the texts a dialogic style, starting to introduce the topic (for example, ‘What is depression?’) and providing a definition, and then going on to explain relevant symptoms. The use of short and straight-to-the point paragraphing helps maintain the reader’s attention, and thus enhances the reader’s comprehension. From a text analysis perspective, on the other hand, this causes some interference with the flow of a text as well as disrupting its thematic progression.

From among forty or so texts of this type, I have decided to use three texts of about between 450 words (Example 5.4 and Example 5.5) to 520 words (Example 5.3) each in length. Example 5.3 does not contain any subheading, but the others do have several subheadings followed by short paragraphs in interval.

The rationale for this decision is to find out to what extent this type of structural arrangement may interfere with the thematic progression of the texts, thus their cohesion and possibly their coherence, and whether this may also impact on the translation of these texts.

As far as the purposes of the ST are concerned, it would be expected that the TT should have the same communicative effect as does the original in the SL environment. It can be speculated that the choice of a different Theme in a clause will affect the propositional meaning of the message even if only subtly. This impact, in turn, will affect the co-text of the clause. In other words, different thematic choice does not only have a local impact, but also creates a chain effect to the global structure of a text depending on the function of that particular clause in the text. That means if the clause plays a major role in the global structure of the text, a different theme choice may influence the general discourse meaning of the text or even lead the reader away from the original message; i.e. the original function the text is meant to serve.

Below, I will first discuss the terminology which is quite complex and occasionally confusing due to a lack of consensus among those who are responsible both for the translation of the information pamphlets and the assurance of a simply and easily understood message for the intended audience.

Next, the thematic structure of the translated texts will be compared and contrasted with their originals for any shifts in thematic progression as well as any possible change to the meaning as compared with the intended meaning in the originals.

As discussed in Chapter IV, a different thematic choice not only causes shifts in the thematic structure of the clause, thus impacting on the text cohesion, but also has semantic consequences. This will become more evident when more texts are analyzed, their thematic principle examined, and shifts identified.
However, before embarking on a discussion concerning what is seen by Butt (forthcoming) as ‘silent legislation of thought’ or a text’s thematic principle, namely the practice of foregrounding a linguistic element for textual purposes, an issue which needs urgent attention has arisen from the text initial reading; namely, the issue of terminology. For even though the grammatical aspect of a text is important, the issue of terminology is no less crucial to the effective communication of information.

5.2 THE ISSUE OF TERMINOLOGY

This section will not delve at length into the issue of terminology translation. However, terminology is an ‘in-your-face’ or ‘overt’ issue which makes an impression on readers the instant they start reading a text. If the terminology chosen by the translator is difficult to understand or causes confusion to readers, there are two possibilities: the reader may give up completely or may fail to grasp the essential message of the text.

Regarding the texts in question, such confusing and complex terminology may cause the comprehension of the audience to be obstructed to such an extent that the purpose of the text is lost. Therefore, it can be said that the choice of terminology is a factor essential to the effective utilization of translated information materials on mental health problems.

The view of the current study is that a clear understanding of the issue will lead to empowerment of people to discuss their problems and access relevant services with confidence. It is obvious from the above discussion that mental health is an abstract concept and materials written about it may not be understood unless described in a language that clearly refers to something relevant to a person’s cognitive experience. In other words, in trying to explain an abstract and foreign concept, the language used for this purpose should refer to what is already known or familiar to the reader, and not to something they have never heard of or are unfamiliar with.

For example, ‘depression’ (or ‘depressive disorder’ - Multicultural Mental Health Australia 2005; November 2007) is occasionally translated as ‘trầm cảm’ (literally ‘feeling low’), a sino-Vietnamese term, which was introduced into usage in Australia around mid-1990s. This term has similar meaning and usage to the word ‘melancholia’ in English, which is not frequently called upon in the daily lexicon of an ordinary person. Apart from this term, there is a range of Vietnamese terms used to translate ‘depression’ including ‘tình thần suy nhược’, ‘tình thần suy thoái’, and ‘phiền muộn’.

Although, ‘trầm cảm’ is often used in both Vietnam and among pockets of health care workers within the Vietnamese communities overseas, there is still no consensus or uniform
use of this term within any national target community, for example Australia. And although many Vietnamese technical and medical terminologies have their roots in Chinese lexis, and Vietnamese people may frequently use a sino-Vietnamese term without an awareness of its origin, the term ‘trầm cảm’ may need some explanation.

According to the definition posted on the webpage of the Institute of Traditional Medico-Pharmacology of Vietnam, ‘trầm cảm’ is defined as “là một loại rối loạn khí sắc bao gồm khí sắc trầm đại dảng, mặt môi quan tâm thích thú hay metod và giảm hoạt động làm giảm khả năng thích ứng của người bệnh với cuộc sống.” (http://k2dforum.tk/site/, retrieved on 12 April 2011)

Before providing a full translation for the above, it is important to look for the meaning of ‘khí sắc’, because, according to the definition, it is an essential factor in relation to the diagnosis of ‘trầm cảm’ (or ‘depression’) in a patient. The Sino-Vietnamese Dictionary (Nguyễn Văn Khôn 1960: 488) describes the compound ‘khí sắc’ as consisting of two words: ‘khí’ meaning ‘tinh thần’ (‘mind’ or ‘spirit’) and ‘sắc’ meaning ‘sắc mặt’ (‘facial appearance’ or the ‘colour of the face’).

Moreover, the Vietnamese Language Dictionary (1994: 481) defines ‘khí sắc’ as “appearance or complexion; usually shown through the facial appearance indicating a person’s wellbeing or energy”. The Vietnamese Language Dictionary does not have any entry for the term ‘trầm cảm’, but does have two definitions for the word ‘trầm’:

(1) t. giọng, tiếng: thấp và âm (adj. voice, sound: low and warm);
(2) có biểu hiện kém sôi nổi; kém hoạt động (not lively; [or lacking enthusiasm]; inactive)

It also provides an example for (2) as ‘người trầm tính’ (‘a person with a calm manner’ or a ‘composed person’).

Another dictionary, Việt – Anh Từ Điển (Vietnamese – English Dictionary 1966: 1112) gives the following meaning of ‘trầm’ as ‘grave, deep, low’ as well as two examples ‘giọng trầm: grave accent’; ‘nốt trầm: low note’. And ‘cắm’ is defined as “sentimental; sympathy; easily moved to pity” (1966: 136)

Therefore, if the definition provided by the Institute of Traditional Medico-Pharmacology of Vietnam is accepted, ‘trầm cảm’ can be grossly translated as follows:

[A] type of appearance [or demeanor] disorder which includes [an] appearance of persistent non-reaction, loss of concern [or] interest, frequent tiredness and low level of activity [and therefore it] reduces a patient’s adaptability. (http://k2dforum.tk/site/, (retrieved on 12 April 2011)

Since the Vietnamese diasporas of post 1975, as well as with the current impact of globalization, Vietnamese language communities have developed to some extent in isolation
in such widely dispersed geographical locations as the US, Australasia and Europe. However, translators can readily take advantage of the internet as a source of knowledge exchange and enhancement and of verification of current usage. Particularly useful is the capacity to corroborate the response and reaction of peers to new coinage and to change of usage in specific contexts.

Since its inception as a free content encyclopedia in January 2001, Wikipedia has become a popular forum for people the world over, many of them are experts in their specific fields, to share information by contributing to the publication of articles on thousands of topics in almost every field of knowledge relevant to human society. With more than sixteen million articles written in over a hundred languages, Wikipedia has been referred to as a ‘sum of public human knowledge’. And although it is criticized for its inconsistent and un-authoritative contribution submission model and concerns have been expressed regarding quality and accuracy, it is still the world’s most frequently consulted resource.

Therefore, in order to find out how common ‘trầm cảm’ is in terms of its usage and how others respond to this particular term it may be beneficial to consult this popular source along with other sources having professional and academic credibility.

Wikipedia describes ‘trầm cảm’ as a ‘syndrome’ that has its cause, again, in ‘rối loạn khí sắc’ (‘appearance disorder’):


Feeling low syndrome is [a] type of appearance disorder [which is] usually come across in [the field of] psychiatry. [It] may occur among [people of] different ages but most commonly among [those who are between] 18-45 years of age… [it occurs to] more women than men in the ratio of 2:1 [i.e. one man to every two women]. [However] this ratio is only roughly estimated because [the occurrence of the illness] is very much dependent on cultural and racial [factors]… (my translation)

Note the view about cultural and racial factors held by Vietnamese mental health professionals, which implies that mental health problems may only occur among certain cultures or races. Wikipedia goes on to provide the causes of ‘trầm cảm’, which can be summarized as follows:

• ‘nội sinh’ (biological factors);
• stress (sic); and
‘bệnh thực tồn’ which is defined as “có liên quan trực tiếp đến tổn thương thực thể ở tổ chức não do nhiều nguyên nhân khác nhau. Đó có thể là các bệnh của não (u não, viêm não, tai biến mạch máu não, …)” or “… caused by any traumas which directly inflict the brain. This may be caused by some diseases occurring in the brain (tumors, encephalitis, strokes, etc.”)

‘Trầm cảm’ has been used to render the term ‘depression’ in Text 1, Understanding Depression and Antidepressant Medication, an information fact sheet published by Multicultural Mental Health Australia. However, in another information pamphlet, Text 2, Depression is never really ‘black and white’ – Some facts about depression, published by the Queensland Transcultural Mental Health Centre, the term ‘depression’ has been variably translated as ‘tình thần suy nhược’ (commonly used both in and outside Vietnam, and literally meaning ‘mental weakening’) but defined as ‘neurasthenia’ (Vietnamese-English Dictionary 1993: 818), and ‘tình thần suy thoái’ (literally meaning ‘mental recession’).

According to Mosby’s Medical Dictionary, ‘asthenia’, a psychiatric term, is defined as “lack of dynamic force in the personality”. A person with an asthenic personality is someone who “may be easily fatigued and self-pitying, and he may place the burden of his physical and emotional difficulties on others” (1990: 103). On the other hand, Mosby (ibid: 355) defines ‘depression’ as:

[An] abnormal emotional state characterized by exaggerated feelings of sadness, melancholy, dejection, worthlessness, emptiness, and hopelessness that are inappropriate and out of proportion to reality. The overt manifestations, which are extremely variable, range from a slight lack of motivation and inability to concentrate to severe physiologic alterations of body functions and may represent symptoms of a variety of mental and physical conditions, a syndrome of related symptoms associated with a particular disease, or a specific mental illness.

From the above definitions, it can be seen that there are few commonalities between ‘trầm cảm’, ‘tình thần suy nhược’ and ‘depression’, except that they are the object of psychiatry. In addition, in the same document (Text 2) and still on the issue of terminology, the Vietnamese version gives its corresponding meaning to the subheading ‘Depression – What is it?’ as ‘Bệnh suy thoái tình thần là gì?’ (literally meaning ‘Mental recession - what is it?’). That means within the heading of the same document, there are two variants for the translation of ‘depression’ into Vietnamese, namely ‘tình thần suy nhược’ and ‘suy thoái tình thần’.

The expression ‘suy thoái tình thần’ raises some interesting points for discussion. The compound ‘suy thoái’ (recession) normally collocates with the word ‘kinh tế’ or ‘economics’ as in ‘kinh tế suy thoái’ (‘economic recession’), and has, to my knowledge, never been used to indicate any type of mental illness in Vietnamese until recently.
It should be noted that over the last decade or so more terms have been used in collocation with ‘suy thoái’ such as ‘đạo đức suy thoái’ (literally meaning ‘moral recession’ and believed to be an isolated incident), and ‘hề sinh thái suy thoái’ (literally ‘ecosystemic recession’). Generally speaking, ‘đạo đức’ has more frequently occurred in collocation with ‘suy đời’ as in ‘đạo đức suy đời’ or ‘moral decline’; whereas ‘hề sinh thái suy thoái’, possible indication of emerging usage of the term, refers to the decline of the ecosystem and the endangerment of both fauna and flora species.

A search conducted on the internet gives more than two million results for the nominal group ‘suy thoái kinh tế’, but less than seventeen thousand hits for ‘suy thoái tinh thần’. Similarly, another search provides more than seventy eight thousand results for the nominal group ‘tinh thần suy nhược’ which, as explained, means ‘neurasthenia’.

According to the website of the Vietnamese Traditional Medicine, ‘tinh thần suy nhược’ or ‘suy nhược tinh thần’ (grossly, ‘mental weakening’) is defined as:

Suy nhược thân kinh (SNTK) là tinh trạng rối loạn chức năng của vỏ não do thế bạo não làm việc quá căng thẳng, sinh ra quá tải và suy nhược làm ảnh hưởng đến quá trình phục hồi và nghỉ ngơi của cơ thể.

“Mental weakening [illness] is the dysfunction of the cranium caused by overstressed brain cells [which] lead to overloading and weakening [of the nervous system and] impact on the body’s recovering and resting process.” (my translation)
http://www.ykhoanet.com/yhoccotruyen/voha/vh029.htm (retrieved 12 April 2011)

Whereas, the website Answers.com provides the following definition for ‘neurasthenia’ (or ‘tinh kinh suy nhược’ or 神 经 虚 弱 as it is known in Chinese):

“[Neurasthenia is a] psychological disorder characterized by chronic fatigue and weakness, loss of memory, and generalized aches and pains, formerly thought to result from exhaustion of the nervous system.” However, according to Answers.com the above terminology is no longer in use in the medical field. This is confirmed by Wikipedia which claims that “it is no longer included as a diagnosis in the American Psychiatric Association's Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders.” And even if it still were, it seems that the two conditions are not related in any way.

Focusing now on the word ‘tinh thần’, it is a commonly used, broad term that may be understood as either ‘mind’, ‘spirit’, or ‘morale’. This makes it hard for even a Vietnamese native speaker to differentiate, and only the contexts can help.

‘Tinh thần’, when used as a noun, normally collocates with such terms as:

- tinh thần + cách mạng: revolutionary spirit
- tinh thần + tôn giáo: religious mind
- tinh thần + thể thao: sporting spirit
- tinh thần + yêu nước (or ‘lòng ái quốc’): patriotism
- tinh thần + phe phái: factionalism
Note that in Vietnamese a noun precedes its attribute or qualifier, however, when used as an adjective it follows what it modifies.

As an adjective ‘tinh thần’ is usually found in such contexts as:

- món ăn tinh thần: food for the brain or mental food (Vietnamese – English Dictionary 1966: 983)
- bệnh tinh thần: mental illness
- Ứng hộ tinh thần: moral support
- sức mạnh tinh thần: mind power
- các nhà lãnh đạo tinh thần (or các lãnh tụ tôn giáo): religious leaders

‘Tâm’, another sino-Vietnamese term, may be used in lieu of ‘tinh thần’ and either means ‘mind’ or ‘heart’ depending on contexts. Thus, these two words may cause confusion and make translation, in general, a complicated task. For example:

- tâm linh: spirit
- thuyết tâm linh: spiritualism
- tâm thần (literally: heart and nerve): mind
- bệnh tâm thần: mental illness
- tâm não (literally: heart and brain): mind
- tâm trí (literally: mind and intellect): mind

The confusion becomes greater when ‘tâm’ is combined with ‘lý’ - the short form of ‘lý trí’ meaning ‘reason’ or ‘faculty of reasoning’ - to make the compound ‘tầm lý’ or ‘psychological’; for example:

- chiến tranh tâm lý: psychological warfare
- tâm lý học: psychology
- chuyên viên tâm lý: psychologist
- tâm lý quan chúng: mass psychology

Influenced by Chinese cultural values and health beliefs, Vietnamese people sometimes use ‘tâm’ (or ‘heart’) and ‘tri’ or ‘thần’ (or ‘mind’) interchangeably; for example: ‘to put one’s heart or focus one’s mind in/on something’, a Vietnamese would say ‘để tâm vào việc gì’ (literally ‘to place [one’s] heart in something’); ‘to have a mean mind’ means ‘có tâm địa nhỏ nên’ (literally ‘to have a small heart’). ‘Tâm’ is also used in collocation with other lexical items to indicate abstract concepts or refer to one’s feelings or mood. And it can have both medical and general usage, for instance:

- tâm hồn: soul
- tâm linh: spirit
Furthermore, ‘thần kinh’ (literally meaning ‘nerve’ or ‘nervous system’) may also be used by even a mental health professional to mean ‘mind’. The Vietnamese-English Dictionary published by the Institute of Social Sciences of Vietnam (1993: 862) provides the equivalent for the nominal group ‘bệnh thần kinh’ as ‘a nervous (mental) disease’.

Dr Trần Đại Sỹ, a health professional, who was trained in both Western and Asian medical traditions and currently practises in France, refers to anxiety and depression (anxio-depressifs) as ‘bệnh thần kinh suy nhược’ (Tran 1997) which literally means ‘mental weakening illness’.

Consequently, it is not surprising that Vietnamese people find it hard to describe their mental state, let alone trying to explain their problem to a mental health professional which may require differentiation of one type of mental condition from another and precise rating of the degree of their feelings. In addition, it seems that many Vietnamese people may perceptually and conceptually equate a mental condition with some kind of disorder in the heart and a mental illness with the malfunction of the nervous system.

Returning to the comments made by Nguyen (2003: 27-28), they reflect her concern with the use of the sino-Vietnamese term ‘bệnh tâm thần’ implying ‘madness’, which has caused anybody with a mental illness to be seen as either ‘diễn’ (‘crazy’) or ‘khùng’ (‘nuts’). I may agree with her on the point that for many Vietnamese, mental illness still has not been fully understood or clearly explained. It is considered a ‘bizarre’ condition with patients seen as physically and mentally ‘weak’, or suffering punishment due to an offensive act against a sacred force. There is also the belief that mental health patients are possessed by the devil and should be better treated by a ‘sorcerer’ (‘thày bùa’) or an ‘exorcist’ (‘thày cúng’), particularly among those who live in the rural areas of Vietnam. I also share her concern that many still hold the view of people with a mental illness as being either ‘cursed’, or punished as the result of a bad deed committed by self or family (‘karma’).

However, the term ‘tâm thần’, a compound combining ‘tâm’ (‘heart’ or ‘mind’) with ‘thần’ (‘nerve’), by itself does not evoke such a negative connotation as stated by Nguyen (2003). What may be considered as an issue in relation to the diagnosis and treatment of a mental illness is the myths surrounding a mental health condition and the lack of a ‘common language’ which can be understood by patients to discuss and describe their mental health problem.
Vietnamese people tend to name an illness or disease according to its symptoms. For example ‘malaria’ is known as ‘sốt rét’ due to an episode of fever (‘sốt’) followed by an episode of chill (‘réť’); ‘diphtheria’ is referred to as ‘bạch hầu’ (a sino-Vietnamese term literally meaning ‘white throat’) due to the existence of a grey-white membrane which can develop inside the patient’s throat. Mumps, a popular childhood disease, is graphically described as ‘bệnh quai bị’ (‘bag handle’ disease) because of the swelling of the salivary glands which may enlarge the sides of the patient’s face and make them look like the handles of a bag; whereas tetanus has its equivalent as ‘bệnh phong đòn gánh’ (literally meaning ‘bamboo pole’ illness) due to a symptom caused by the spasm of body muscles which makes the patient’s back to become arched and bent like a carrying pole made of bamboo.

For this reason, ‘depression’ is also known as ‘chứng phiền muộn’ (literally ‘feeling worried [and] sad disease’) on the basis of its obvious symptoms. ‘Phiền’ is a sino-Vietnamese term meaning ‘buồn bã’ (‘sad’), or ‘buồn bực’ (worried), and ‘muộn’, another sino-Vietnamese term, has a similar meaning (‘sad’ or ‘melancholic’). The combination of two lexical items of almost the same meaning intends to make the compound have a stronger connotation. It also indicates that the feeling or state of mind of the person is more severe than simply sad or worried.

‘Phiền muộn’ is often used interchangeably with ‘trầm cảm’ in such contexts as ‘chứng phiền muộn trong lúc mang thai’ (‘depression during pregnancy’); ‘chứng phiền muộn ở trẻ thơ’ (‘depression among young children’); etc. It is found that ‘trầm cảm’, even though it sounds “poetical” and “technical”, is more widely used than ‘phiền muộn’ in many published documents on the subject. However even if it were accepted as a formal and appropriate terminology to label ‘depression’ as a mental health issue, it would still be problematic when used in the context of manic depression or bipolar disorder. ‘Trầm cảm’ only depicts one aspect of bipolar disorder; i.e. the ‘lows’, but becomes misleading when the mood of the patient swings to the ‘highs’, and for this reason it may cause confusion to laypeople and make it hard for a professional to discuss the illness with the patient.

At a professional level, given the current lack of precise Vietnamese medical terminology-especially in the realm of mental health, there is an urgent need for more appropriate terms to be invented or created. This will address the current state of confusion and misunderstanding among patients, and the disagreement and ‘ad lib’ use of terminology among Vietnamese mental health professionals.

Just as English and many other European languages have borrowed and adapted many medical and technical terms from Greek and Latin, and given that up to 60 percent of Vietnamese lexical stock (Wikipedia 2011), particularly technical and medical terminology
have their roots in Chinese lexical stock, it may be useful to explore and exploit this linguistic characteristic for the purpose of terminology invention or coinage.

Therefore, it is suggested that such a word as ‘tâm’ may be used as an affix in conjunction with a brief description of some recognizable symptoms in order to create relevant terminology. Thus, ‘tâm phiền’ (literally, ‘mental sadness/worry) may be used for ‘depression’ as opposed to ‘phiền muốn’ (the denotative meaning of depression); ‘rối loạn tâm trạng’ (literally, ‘disorder of state of mind’) for ‘mental disorder’; ‘rối loạn tâm trạng hướng thái’ (literally, ‘disorder of state of mind two extremes’) for ‘bipolar disorder’; and so on.

Lack of consensus on the use of mental health terminology and other issues surrounding it will require further research and need the involvement and participation of both mental health professionals and workers working with mental health clients as well as relevant linguists, especially those who work as interpreters and translators. It should be a concerted and collaborative effort by all relevant parties who, with their linguistic and cultural knowledge in addition to their experience and expertise in cross cultural communication, will contribute to many productive discussions and come up with recommendations for a long awaited and most needed glossary of Vietnamese mental health terminology.

As a result, there may arise some more appropriate terminology to replace such a term as ‘Rối Loạn Tinh Thần Sau Một Biển Cố Bi Đạt’ (literally, ‘Mental Disorder After A Tragic Event’), the widespread Vietnamese version of ‘Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder’ (beyondblue 2009: 1), which, at best, only partially depicts an aspect of this mental condition, and at worst causes confusion or is even misleading. Because, while the term ‘tragedy’ may be used to refer to a ‘tragic’ accident or natural disaster which causes death, injury or loss to individuals or to someone in their family, being retrenched from work or suffering stresses due to a relationship or marriage breakup may not be defined as ‘tragedy’, either in English and Vietnamese.

There are many such a terms, which have been coined over the past decades without paying attention either to the context of use, or to the overall accuracy of meaning, or to the Vietnamese collocational conventions. For example while in English, ‘assault’ can be in collocation with a wide range of other terms, for instance physical assault, sexual assault, etc, in Vietnamese, ‘tấn công’, its ‘equivalent’ only collates with physical or verbal attack. Therefore, the recent coinage of ‘tấn công tình dục’ for ‘sexual assault’ should not be viewed as part of Vietnamese lexis.

In the field of medical terminology, the one which causes the most concern is the term ‘chụp hình ngực’ which can be glossed as ‘taking photos of chest’ or ‘chest x-ray’ and which
has been widely used among the Vietnamese ethnic health workers as a formal and acceptable usage for ‘mammography’. (see the Appendix)

5.3 TEXTUAL METAFUNCTION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TRANSLATION PRACTICE

It’s been observed that when moving from one context to another, from one culture to another, or one language structure to another, in order to maintain its meaning a text will have to suffer some structural change to meet the need of re-expression in another language. Therefore, when being re-expressed, even in the same language, it is inevitable for a message to be seen as taking on a different form or structure as compared to its original form, and this is more evident in a translated text in another language as compared to its original text. Consequently, a translated text is found either longer or shorter than the original due to linguistic characteristics of a particular language. For example, a Vietnamese version of an English text is normally longer due to the flexibility of the English word formation. (see Section ii. Morphological Level - Chapter II for more information) However, as discussed in Chapter II, morphology is only one among many such a problem, there are other structural issues which also make the translation between this language pair even seems impossible; i.e. Theme-Rheme structure of a clause.

In the earlier chapters, it was discussed that thematic choice or the selection of a particular linguistic element for the initial position in a sentence may impact on the overall meaning of not only the clause but also the surrounding sentences and perhaps, the whole text. And this choice is motivated by a speaker or writer’s intention. Furthermore, thematic choice can be seen as a reflection of competing priorities, which has to be made by text producers in relation to the purpose of the text, the message conveyed by it, and the expectation of both the text producer and the reader. This choice is not made randomly, but is the result of a well thought-out planning and careful decision making process regarding which piece of information the writer wishes to be put first to produce which effect. Because as it is revealed by Halliday “part of the meaning of any clause lies in which element is chosen as its Theme” (Halliday, 1994:38).

Seen from this perspective, it can be said that the choice of Theme of a clause plays a crucial role in the way discourse is organized as well as the impact it has on the method of development of a text. Because translation, by definition, is the reconstruction of a message created in the linguistic form of a particular language using the linguistic resource of another
language, it is expected that the message provided by the translation should have the same purpose and convey the same communicative effect as its original.

Given Theme is considered as “the point of departure of a clause” and “the peg on which the message is hung” (Halliday 1970: 161), any change made to theme of a clause may result in change to the content meaning of the message. And such a change may, consequently, cause change to adjacent sentences of a text, as it will, no doubt, alter the thematic progression or method of development of the text.

The present chapter will attempt to address the following questions:

a. In Example 4.1 of Chapter IV, it was argued that the thematisation of the projected clause of the clause complex (Clause 1) of the ST came from its text producer’s motivation in highlighting the benefits of exercise in cold prevention, could the same be said regarding the intention and motivation of the text producer of the TT?
b. Given differences in word order between the ST and the TT, particularly in thematic pattern, and thus thematic progression, would there be any possible links between this and the content meaning of the message?
c. And given structural difference, which may influence the thematic choice of the translator, to what extent would this impact on a translator’s decision to uphold the target language conventions and to what extent would this come from his/her own motivation?

As demonstrated in Example 4.1 of Chapter IV (‘Cold protection’), a change made to the thematic structure of the introductory sentence seemed to alter the thematic and even ideational meaning of the whole text. However, before arriving at a conclusion and thus answering these questions, more data should be collected; that means more texts should be analysed before an informed decision could be made.

Below are the excerpts of two short texts from the same section of the same magazine, Health & Beauty News - Heritage Fashion, Vietnam Airlines – In-flight Magazine, published in December 2006– January 2007 (pp. 80-83). For the purpose of the present discussion only the first sentence of the texts will be presented and thematic analysis will be performed and findings discussed. A copy of the whole texts can be found in the Appendix K. Thematic elements will be in bold; whereas rhematic elements will be in italic. Linguistic items between square brackets are included to comply with English grammatical conventions.
Example 5.1A


Bad call?

The use of mobile phones may damage men’s fertility, an American-led study suggests.

SOURCE TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefaced (Projected)</th>
<th>Preface (Projecting)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of mobile phones may damage men’s fertility.</td>
<td>an American-led study suggests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME (marked)</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TARGET TEXT

[Does] telephone call cause harm?

According to a study sponsored the USA, the use of mobile phones can affect men’s fertility.

TARGET TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preface (Projecting)</th>
<th>Prefaced (Projected)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to a study sponsored by the USA, the use of mobile phones</td>
<td>can affect men’s fertility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Frame</td>
<td>Theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 5.1B

SOURCE TEXT

Smart greens?

Eating two or three servings of vegetables daily might help to protect against Alzheimer’s and improve memory in old age, claim American researchers.
**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefaced (Projected)</th>
<th>Preface (Projecting)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eating two or three servings of vegetables daily might help to protect against Alzheimer’s and improve memory in old age.</td>
<td>claim American researchers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME (marked)</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**TARGET TEXT**

Intelligent vegetables?

American researchers assert that eating 2-3 serves of vegetables daily can contribute to the prevention of Alzheimer’s disease and improve memory in old age.

**TARGET TEXT**

American researchers assert that eating 2-3 serves of vegetables daily can contribute to the prevention of Alzheimer’s disease and improve memory in old age.

**Example 5.1A** and **5.1B** clearly indicating the intention of the ST producer (assuming that these two pieces of writing, as well as **Example 4.1** above, have been written by the same person) is in conflict with that of the TT producer.

In **Example 5.1A**, the nominal group ‘the use of mobile phones’ as Subject and Theme of the clause complex is not marked. However, given the projected clause is brought to the initial position and is made thematically marked, this textual strategy reflects the intention of the ST producer to stress the use of mobile phones and its potential harmful effect on men’s fertility. Similarly, the foregrounding of the projected clause in the ST of **Example 5.1B** is intended to highlight the benefits of eating vegetables against one of the most common diseases (Alzheimer’s) associated with aging and thus encourage their consumption among older people. This textual strategy is not only makes the text more persuasive, but also more dynamic. While in the originals the focus seems to be on the outcomes of the research study (i.e. the possible harmfulness caused by the use of mobile phones to men’s fertility; the benefit of eating greens in relation to Alzheimer’s disease prevention; etc), the emphasis of
the target texts is placed on the ‘study’ itself or the ‘researchers’, which are highlighted by reference to the source of the information.

Indeed, in the TT of Example 5.1A, this intention is reflected through the choice of fronting the prepositional phrase ‘according to…’ as Theme of the clause. This textual strategy brings to the fore the information source (‘the study’) and the agency/country (‘the USA’) who has sponsored the study. Consequently, the object of the study, ‘the use of mobile phones’ (and the Experiential Theme), is moved to a less significant position in the clause.

As Contextual Frame, the prepositional phrase ‘according to …’ acts as a pointer drawing the attention of the reader to what is to follow (the ‘study’) and in effect, framing their interpretation of the clause as well as pointing to the direction of the ensuing discourse.

By the same token the attention of the TT reader of Example 5.1B is drawn immediately to ‘American researchers’ which is Theme and also Subject of the clause. This is in contrast to the intention of the ST producer who has chosen to promote the benefit of ‘eating vegetables’ by placing the projected clause in the thematic position of the clause complex.

The intention is even more obvious if we look at the way language is used in the TT. For example in Example 5.3, the relational process ‘lead’ (‘American-led study’) of the ST is replaced by a more superior relational process ‘chủ trì’ (literally, ‘to be sponsored’) in the TT. Analogously, the credibility of the study (Example 5.3) is strongly enhanced by the use of the verbal process ‘khẳng định’ (‘affirm’ or ‘assert’), particularly when this verbal process is preceded by ‘American researchers’ in the TT, instead of ‘claim’ as in the ST.

The change might have resulted from structural differences between the two languages, but might more likely have caused by the mentality of a member of a less technologically advanced society who looked up to and was aspired by the USA as one of the world leaders in technological, medical and other research fields.

It might also have come from the fact that, for the translator, the approach might have been the best strategy available to deal with such a complex structure. In fact, the translator of these three texts (again, let’s assume that all three examples have been translated by a sole translator) has not exhausted all available language choices, because if the need to maintain similar thematic patterns as in the ST had outweighed the ideological inclination, the first clause of Example 1 could have been translated as:
Suggested translation for Example 4.1:

Một chương trình tập thể dục lâu dài ở mức độ vừa phải có thể làm giảm nguy cơ bị cảm lạnh ở phụ nữ lớn tuổi.
(Literal: One program exercise long-term at degree moderate can reduce risk suffer cold in women old aged)

Trên đây là kết quả của chương trình nghiên cứu do các nhà nghiên cứu ở Hoa Kỳ thực hiện.
(Literal: Above this be outcome of study by researchers in USA carry out)

Nghiên cứu này cho thấy các phụ nữ sau thời kỳ mãn kinh tập thể dục thường xuyên có nguy cơ bị cảm lạnh chỉ khoảng một nửa những phụ nữ không tập thể dục.
(Literal: Study this show women after menopause exercise regular have risk suffer cold only about one half women not exercise.)

Therefore, the thematic progression of the first three clauses of the suggested translation of Example 4.1 will be illustrated in the following table and diagram:

**BACK TRANSLATION OF SUGGESTED TEXT**

1. A long-term exercise program of moderate degree can reduce the risk of catching colds in older women.
2. The above is the outcome of a study conducted by researchers in the USA.
3. This study showed that post-menopausal women who exercised regularly had about half the risk of colds [as compared with] women who did not exercise.

**Example 4.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A long-term exercise program of moderate degree</td>
<td>can reduce the risk of catching colds in older women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The above claim</td>
<td>is the outcome of a study conducted by researchers in the USA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This study</td>
<td>showed that post-menopausal women who exercised regularly had about half the risk of colds [as compared with] women who did not exercise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the above suggestion only aims at the thematic progression patterning of the text and its cohesion. It does not look at the quality of the translation generally.

Note also that while the first three clauses of the suggested translation have a combination of linear thematic progression (Danes 1974: 113) and the ‘box development’ patterning; i.e. containing constant Themes and constant Rhemes (see Leong 2005; also see Page 275, Chapter IV of the present research for more information), the thematic structure of its counterpart (the ST) only possesses the characteristics of the latter.
Figure 5.1  The thematic structure of the first three clauses of the suggested translation

SUGGESTED TRANSLATION:

1. Information Theme  → Rheme (a) Rheme (b)
   (A long-term program … the risk … older women.)

2. Information Theme  → Rheme
   (The above claim … outcome of a study conducted …)

3. Information Theme  → Rheme (a) Rheme (b)
   (This study … post-menopausal women … the risk of colds…)

4. …

5. …

Figure 5.2  The thematic structure of the first three clauses of the ST

SOURCE TEXT:

2. Topic Theme (marked)  → Rheme (a) Rheme (b)
   (A long-term … program… the risk … older women.)

2. Topic Theme  → Rheme
   (The study … post-menopausal women…)

3. Topic Theme  → Rheme
   (The study … post-menopausal women…)

The addition of another clause between the first and the second is justifiable because it helps maintain the thematic dynamism of the text by concentrating the focus of the message on the benefit of exercise, instead of on ‘researchers’ or the ‘study’. Besides, it helps prevent
structural ‘clumsiness’, had the translator decided to keep closely to the original thematic structure of the ST. More important, this textual strategy helps bring the thematic structure of the TT back inline with that of the original.

It should be stressed that the above suggestion is only one strategy among a wide range of options. For example, a translator may choose to use the same verbal process as in the ST. In this case, the second sentence will read: “The above is a claim made by researchers in the USA following a study into the effect of exercise in preventing the risk of colds.” The thematic elements of the clause will then be included in the succeeding clauses and thus help maintain the cohesion of the text.

In the next section, a corpus of three parallel texts which are representatives of texts of the same genre will be examined and comments will be made, particularly on a text which is considered typical of this genre.

5.4 TEXT ANALYSIS

Example 5.3: Coping with mental illness in the family (Appendix L)

Structurally, the ST and TT comprise a total of 31 and 32 clauses, including 22 and 24 simplex and complex respectively. In addition, out of 31 clauses, the ST has 15 paratactic or hypotactic clauses; while there are only 12 paratactic or hypotactic clauses in the TT.

As far as contextual frames are concerned, in the ST there are 11 Themes of this type (multiple or extended Themes) which include adverbials and subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts. Among these, there are also seven marked Themes. Furthermore, there are also 12 textual/structural Themes, including such conjunctions as and, or, and conjunctive adjuncts such as yet, although, but, etc.

In contrast, the TT has 18 contextual frames, and 10 textual/structural Themes. With respect to ideational or experiential Theme, the ST contains 11 informational and 12 interactional Themes; whereas there are 12 informational and 16 interactional Themes in the TT.

In addition, while the ST includes four existential Themes and six thematised comments among its thematic elements, the TT only contains three existential Themes and two thematised comments.
Example 5.4:  *Understanding depression* (Appendix M)

Excluding the subheadings, there are 20 clauses in the ST, including 17 clauses simplex and complex, as well as 4 paratactic or hypotactic clauses. There are also seven contextual frames (adverbials, prepositional phrases, and subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts), and three textual/structural Themes.

Among the ideational/experiential Themes, there are 12 informational, seven interactional as well as one existential Theme (see Page 247, Chapter IV for discussion concerning informational and interactional Themes as proposed by Berry 1995).

In contrast, without the inclusion of the subheadings, the TT comprises 21 clauses in total, including 18 clauses simplex and complex as well as four paratactic or hypotactic clauses. It also contains seven contextual frames (adverbials, prepositional phrases, and subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts), plus four textual/structural Themes.

Moreover, as far as experiential Themes are concerned, there are 13 informational and seven interactional Themes as well as one existential Theme.

Example 5.5:  *Depression is never really ‘Black and White’* (Appendix N)

Not to mention the subheadings which will be dealt with separately to the main text, structurally the ST consists of 22 clauses in total, including 17 clauses simplex and complex, and six paratactic or hypotactic clauses. The ST also contains 23 experiential Themes (17 informational and six interactional). These do not include six contextual frames (adverbials, prepositional phrases, and subordinate clauses functioning as adjuncts) as well as four textual/structural Themes.

On the contrary, the TT comprises only 21 clauses including 17 clauses simplex and complex, and four paratactic or hypotactic clauses. An interesting point is that while there is no existential Theme in the ST, the TT contains - among other types of Theme, including 15 informational, and three interactional - two existential Themes. There are also six contextual frames and four textual/structural Themes in the TT.

The following table (Figure 5.3) will illustrate the breakdown of theme types.
Figure 5.3  The number of Themes different types of Example 5.3, Example 5.4, and Example 5.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example 5.3</th>
<th>COPING WITH MENTAL ILLNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of Theme</td>
<td>Contextual Frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source Text</td>
<td>11 (including 7 marked Themes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Text</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example 5.4</th>
<th>UNDERSTANDING DEPRESSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source Text</td>
<td>7 (including 6 marked Themes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Text</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example 5.5</th>
<th>DEPRESSION IS NEVER REALLY ‘BLACK AND WHITE’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source Text</td>
<td>6 marked Themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Text</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total ST/TT</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within this small corpus of three pairs of texts, discrepancies appear in at least two aspects i.e. clausal structures and the number of themes and theme types. There are more clauses in the target language texts (Example 5.3 and 5.5) as compared to their original versions; therefore it can be said that in Vietnamese a target language text is often longer than its source language version.

This may be caused by the difference in language structures as well as a lack of readily ‘equivalent’ words which result in definitions or explanations having to be given in the target text.

5.4.1  Comments on the thematic structure of the translation of Example 5.5

With respect to theme in general, if we start looking first into Example 5.5, we will find that though both the ST and TT have the same number of contextual frames, the ST possesses a greater number of Themes of various types than its TT counterpart (35 compared to 30 in the TT).
Additionally, while the number of informational Themes in Example 5.3 and 5.5 is slightly higher than that of their source language texts, the TT of Example 5.5 contains fewer informational Themes than the ST. Moreover, the thematised elements in the two texts are not the same; for instance, the Theme of Clause 2 of the ST is the demonstrative pronoun ‘these’; whereas in that of the TT the Theme is the nominal group ‘these periods of sadness’.

In the same vein, in the following clause (Clause 3), while ‘it’ is the subject and also Theme, and is used to refer to the cause of depression in the ST, this is replaced by the nominal group ‘the cause of this mentally lowered mood period’ in the TT. In addition, as far as contextual frames (multiple Themes) are concerned, while in the ST ‘often’ (Clause 3) implies ‘frequency’, “thông thờ” in Vietnamese entails something happening/or being done according to a certain rule or following a custom and thus possesses an evaluative sense (Clause 3a).

There is a shift from an interactional Theme in the ST (Clause 4) into an informational Theme in the TT (also Clause 4) and also a change from a cognitive process (‘experience’) into a material process (‘last’) as well as the use of the modal verb ‘can’ in the TT. This change may have been caused by the TT producer’s consciousness of the text cohesion and preference for a ‘constant Theme’ thematic structure (see the diagram of Example 5.5 in the Appendix O).

Similarly, in Clause 10 of the ST, the nominal group ‘1 in 4 women and 1 in 6 men in Australia’ is thematised highlighting the commonness of depression among people of certain demographic groups and genders; in the TT this is changed into an adjunctive group (‘Among four women or six men in Australia’) and shifted to the position reserved for the contextual frame in Clause 10. It is followed by the existential Theme “có” (‘there is’).

Although a shift has moved the initial ideational elements of Clause 10 from the position of the experiential Theme to the position of the contextual Theme, its thematic meaning is still maintained. A significant change is the use of the existential Theme that brings the focus onto the statistical illustration. This textual strategy, in effect, lessens the significance of one of the commonest mental illnesses which affects ‘1 in 4 women and 1 in six men in Australia’.

More important, in the ST the text producer has carefully planned to make an impact on the reader by pushing new information into the rhematic region (in italics) of the clause (‘one in 4 … suffer from a depressive illness during their lifetime.’) and thus making it more newsworthy.

In addition, in order to highlight the susceptibility of people to the illness and emphasize ‘depression’ as an illness and not just a fleeting state of mind, the ST producer has
substituted it with the nominal group ‘depressive illness’ and applied the notion of end-focus through placing ‘during their lifetime’ at the end of the clause. This piece of crucial information has not been included in the Vietnamese version. (see Appendix N)

While it is understandable that the Vietnamese language structure is not in favour of an adjunct being placed in the final position, the thematisation of these elements (‘during their lifetime’) may have different impact, but it would surely maintain the overall meaning of the intended message. No less important is the use of the pronominal group “Chúng ta ai cũng” (literally meaning ‘All of us’ or ‘Any of us’) to begin the introductory sentence in the TT. In so doing, the translator of Example 5.5 tries to engage the reader in a dialogue concerning the issue. By using the inclusive first person plural “chúng ta…” instead of “mọi người” (‘all people’) as in the original, the TT producer wants to make readers feel comfortable in order to continue reading about a somewhat confusing and sensitive topic.

Another point showing a dilemma with which translators are confronted is the tendency in English to use a nominal group complex with pre-modifier or post-modifiers as subject of a clause. This practice overloads the subject with information and hence, in the words of Thompson, is a ‘heavy’ subject (2004).

‘Heavy’ subjects cause a lot of difficulties in Vietnamese and English translation practice due to structural differences between the two languages. A case in point is the thematisation of the nominal group ‘Many different types of depressive illness’ in Clause 12 of Example 5.5 which is followed by the verb ‘exist’. Any attempt to maintain the thematic structure of the clause in the TT will render it awkward and thus unnatural, therefore the translator has had to resort to replacing this with an existential Theme; i.e. “Có nhiều loại bệnh suy thoái tinh thần khác nhau.” (‘There are many different types of mental “recession” illnesses’).

Looking more closely at the ST, especially the paragraph starting with the question ‘Are all types of Depression the same?’, one can make a speculation that the text producer has made a conscious decision to place the nominal group complex ‘Many different types of depressive illness’ in Theme position; while s/he could have launched an existential Theme (i.e. There are many different types of depressive illness).

Most interestingly, Clause 14a of Example 5.5 begins with the conjunctive adjunct ‘although’ as Theme followed by the adjective “understandable” which is replaced by a hypotactic clause “Although we may understand the cause of it…” used as adjunct. This translation strategy may not greatly change the meaning of the message, but the use of the first personal pronoun plural “ta” (a short form of “chúng ta” (‘we’ inclusive) clearly indicates the intention of the translator to involve potential readers in the discussion of this mental
health issue. It should be noted that this strategy has already been employed in the introductory sentence of the translation of Example 5.5.

Finally, also note that the subject and Theme of Clause 15 of the TT “Một loại khác” (literally ‘another type’) has been used in place of ‘The other major type of depression’, Theme of Clause 15a of the ST. The removal of the word ‘major’ greatly diminishes the significance of this particular type of depression which is one of the commonest types of depression, second only to reactive depression type.

However, the major discrepancy between the ST and the TT, which may severely distort the intended message, is found in Clause 16 of both texts. To highlight the shift which causes this significant change to the meaning of the TT, Figure 5.4 will be used:

Figure 5.4 The Theme-Rheme structure of Clause 16 of the TT

| TARGET TEXT |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Clause/Subheading** | **Contextual frame/Structural Theme** | **Informational/Interactional/Existential Theme** | **Rheme** |
| ST - 16 | Sometimes (CF: Restrictive) | people with this biological type of depression (Interactional Theme) | also experience periods of elevated mood of highs |
| TT - 16 | People with this biological types of illness (Interactional Theme) | often have periods of elevated feelings [and] highs (elevated mood or high) (sic) |

‘Sometimes’, being thematised, functions as a contextual frame providing a scope for the interpretation of what will follow in the clause. Here, it is used to emphasize the fact that the manifestation of conditions in people with endogenous depression as described only happens occasionally (a sense of rarity) and is not something one may expect to occur ‘often’ (a sense of frequency).

In the TT, on the other hand, this contextual frame is removed from the initial position in the clause and instead, the adverbial adjunct ‘often’ is added to the main verb, implying frequency and contradicting what has been intended in the original.

5.4.2 Comments on the thematic structure of the translation of Example 5.4

Out of the three pairs of texts under analysis, Example 5.4 (Appendix M) has the greatest parity in the number of Themes except for structural and informational Themes. Both the ST and TT have the same number of the contextual (7), interactional (6) and existential...
Themes (1). However, equal in number does not mean that they come from the same classification. For instance with respect to contextual frame, the prepositional group which functions as an adjunct appears at the beginning of Clause 3 of the ST; while in the TT, this is shifted to Clause 4. Similarly the adverbial ‘when’, Theme of the dependent clause functioning as situational adjunct in the ST, appears in Clause 17; whereas in the TT a clause with a similar function is made thematic in Clause 18. This clause also provides a framework for a following action indicating a sequential effect by the use of the adverbial item ‘then’.

Returning to experiential Themes (or informational and interactional Themes), in Clause 5 of the ST the nominal group ‘everyone’, the subject and interactional Theme of the clause, is replaced by the nominal group ‘each of us’ which again shows the TT producer’s attempt of an interactive approach to the issue of depression by engaging the audience in the discussion through the use of the first personal pronoun plural (inclusive). This could indicate that the translation of Example 5.4 and 5.5 has been done by the same translator who is apparently well aware of the complexity and sensitivity of the topic within the context of Vietnamese culture, and hence has tried to both involve the readership in the dialogue and make the texts more accessible by using simple language.

Another point that is worth noting is that despite several discrepancies concerning thematic structure in comparison to its SL counterpart, the TT of Example 5.4 does not contain many differences. One of the reasons for this may be because the text is short and many of its sentences have simple structures. Proportionally, in comparison the number of clauses of the ST in Example 5.4 is less than that of Example 5.5 (20 vs. 22); also, the ST of Example 5.4 contains less paratactic/hypotactic clauses than its counterpart of Example 5.5 (4 vs. 6).

From a practical point of view it has been agreed by text analysts that the shorter a text is and the more simple its clause structure, the easier it is to comprehend. This can also be applied in translation practice; i.e. the shorter a text and the simpler clause structure, the easier it is to be translated. Moreover, to make the text even more accessible to the readership, the ST producer utilizes a ‘Question & Answer’ format that gives the text a dialogic style, and thus maintains the reader’s interest on a subject.

I am now moving away from Example 5.4 and 5.5 to focus attention on Example 5.3 and explore the impact of thematic shifts on a longer and continuous stretch of text.
5.4.3 Comments on the thematic structure of the translation of Example 5.3

Compared to Example 5.4 and 5.5, Example 5.3 is relatively longer and structurally more complex.

Before going into a detailed thematic analysis of the TT as compared to the original version of the text ‘Coping with mental illness in the family’, just to recap some main points about Example 5.3. Both the ST and TT consist of almost twice as many Themes of various types as the source and language texts of Example 4 and 5. While the ST has a total of 33 clauses, including 23 clauses simplex and complex, in the TT, there are 34 clauses, which include 24 simplex and complex. In addition, out of 33 clauses, the ST also comprises 17 paratactic or hypotactic clauses; but there are only 14 paratactic or hypotactic clauses in the TT.

In order to highlight similarities and differences between the ST and its translated version, I will be discussing the findings according to theme types, the implication of any shifts in the thematic zone to the meaning of the text in general and in particular the impact of these changes on the rhematic region of the text.

For this reason, discussion will focus specifically on any instance where differences impact heavily on the meaning of the message be it at the level of a clause, a paragraph or the whole text. Finally, recommendations will be made concerning how to minimize the shift in the thematic structure of the TT in order to preserve the intended meaning of the ST as well as improve the quality of the translation.

As far as the number of contextual frames is concerned, the TT contains 60% more than that of the ST, but in terms of textual/structural Themes, it has almost 20% less than the ST. By the same token, even though the TT has slightly more informational Themes than the ST (12 to 11 informational Themes), it possesses over 25% more interactional Themes than its original (16 to 12 interactional Themes).

With respect to other theme types, however, the TT only comprises 75% the number of existential Themes and 25% of thematised comments as compared to its original version.

(a) Contextual frame/Structural Theme

The number of contextual frames appearing in the TT indicates the tendency of Vietnamese to managing its structural shortcomings by resorting to the use of dependent clauses where and when possible. A typical exemplary of this practice is the handling of an
instance of non-finite clause which tends to produce a ‘heavy’ subject (Thompson 2004) as shown in Clause 1a of the TT:

Figure 5.5 The Theme-Rheme structure of Clause 1a & 1b of the ST and the TT

Clause 1a & 1b (ST & TT):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/ Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/ Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactive/ Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST – 1a</td>
<td>Having someone in the family with a chronic physical illness (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>can be hard to cope with -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST – 1b</td>
<td>but (Structural: Contrastive)</td>
<td>it can be even worse (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT – 1a</td>
<td>Usually, if in [your] family (CF: Frequent + Situational)</td>
<td>there is (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>a person with chronic [physical] illness, worries, [and] care are hard to cope with;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT – 1b</td>
<td>let alone if (CF: Contrastive)</td>
<td>[your] relative (Interaction Theme)</td>
<td>suffers a mental illness, then care is even more difficult.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clause 1 (ST)

From a practical perspective, the non-finite group ‘Having someone in the family…’ presents Vietnamese translators with great difficulty due to the inflexibility of a language that does not possess the inflectional properties enjoyed by English, particularly in relation to participle phrase, non-finite clause, or nominalization.

With respect to the meaning, Clause 1a and 1b of the TT clearly show a significant difference as compared with Clause 1a and 1b of the ST in at least three aspects.

Firstly, the use of the adjunct ‘usually’ at the beginning of the clause as contextual frame implies the problem about to be discussed is considered to be a common fact and shared by everyone who is in a similar situation. Coupled with the use of the declarative indicative mood this suggests that the information given is true.

Moreover, the use of the conjunction ‘if’ to describe a situation which ‘your/our family’ may be in, again, gives the impression that the addressee of the text shares similar circumstances, with feelings and emotions similar to someone whose family has a relative with a mental illness. This is reinforced by the use of ‘người thân của mình’, literally means ‘relative of you/we’ in Clause 1b (for more information see Appendix L). This nominal
group, with the possessive adjective ‘của mình’ (literally meaning ‘of self’), can ambiguously be understood as either ‘your’ or ‘our (inclusive)’ relative, depending on the emotional state of the reader at the time of reading.

Finally, the modal verb ‘can’, (in ‘it can be even worse…’, a thematised comment) implying a possibility, is replaced by a relational process ‘be’ in the declarative affirmative mood which makes the statement mean more than merely a suggestion. In addition, while the original uses the adverbial ‘even’ and the adjective ‘bad’ in a comparative form to relate the issue of coping with a situation where one has a mentally ill relative in general, the TT makes it more ‘concrete’ and ‘explicit’ by referring to the difficulty as caused by ‘worries’ and ‘care’ for the patient.

**Clause 2 (ST)**

The contextual frame of the clause in the ST provides statistical information to back up the claim that although mental illness is common among people of all backgrounds regardless of their cultural origins, ‘it’s still misunderstood’. Although the data are provided, the emphasis is clearly not statistical, but rather the commonness of the problem.

Of the same clause in the TT however, the message focuses mainly on the statistic (‘among every four people there is one with mental illness’) and not on the idea of commonness of mental illness among people ‘from all cultural backgrounds’. The conjunction ‘and’ preceding the conjunctive ‘although’ also indicates that what is about to follow is in addition to what has gone previously ‘the issue of mental illness’, and thus makes the message stronger.

Also, the conjunctive ‘thế nhưng’ whose equivalence is ‘but’ or ‘however’ is repeated at the beginning of the main clause to mark the contrast against what has been expressed previously and to emphasize what follows. This message-reinforcement strategy may be considered as redundant and non-standard in English, yet it is very common in Vietnamese.

However, what’s more important is that while the message in the ST stresses the ‘misunderstanding’ of the issue that is ‘so common it affects one in four people’, the TT pins the problem on the ignorance of the public in relation to the issue (i.e. ‘there are many people who still do not thoroughly understand…’).

**Clause 3 (ST)**

In Clause 3 of the TT, the translator chooses the fixed expression ‘for example’ as contextual frame to highlight the misconception people have concerning people with a mental illness that they ‘are often violent’. The interactional Theme ‘people’ is followed by the
cognitive process ‘think’ which is modified by the adverb ‘often’ to indicate that what is expressed next is rather ‘common knowledge’. On the other hand in Clause 3a of the ST the ideational elements ‘one fear’ are placed in the initial position in the clause describing the text producer’s observation about the unfounded fear people express toward the perceived violent behaviors of ‘people who are mentally ill’.

In addition, to contradict the above misperception, Clause 3b of the ST implicitly admits that there may be such a problem (‘violent behaviors’), but negates this fear by stating ‘yet most people with a mental illness aren’t violent’.

Clause 3b of the TT, on the contrary, makes a contradictory remark starting the clause with the conjunctive ‘but’ followed by the demonstrative pronoun ‘this’ which refers to the view that ‘people with mental illness are often violent’ and then rejects this view by saying it is ‘not completely correct’.

Clause 4 (ST)

The adverbial adjunct ‘then’ appears in the contextual frame of Clause 4a of the ST with an intention of providing additional information to what has been stated earlier. Linearly, the existential Theme ‘there is’ then introduces this information into the discourse, namely the false belief that a person with a mental illness is still ‘weak’ even after having ‘recovered from the illness’.

In contrast, Clause 4 of the TT, with the help of the existential Theme ‘có’ (‘there is’ or ‘there are’) and the adverbial adjunct ‘lại’ (‘yet’), refers to a group of people who hold the view that even after having recovered from their illness people with a mental illness ‘are not completely cured; their mental health is still weak, etc.’

It should be noted that the piece of information concerning ‘not completely cured’ is not included in the original.

Let us skip through other insignificant mismatches and concentrate on what’s seen as major issues in the translated version, starting again with the contextual frame of Clause 10 of the ST which has Clause 9 of the TT as its corresponding:

Clause 10 (ST)

Clause 10 starts with the launch of the prepositional phrase ‘Like any illness’ which reflects a sense of comparison, and in this case, with other diseases/illnesses and the idea is about early prevention. The TT conveys the same message in Clause 9. However, the major difference is that in the ST the message is left until later and used as New information (in the
rhematic zone) having the end-focus or end-weight effect which many researchers believe will stay in the memory of a reader longer. In the TT, on the other hand, this crucial piece of information is fronted and placed within the contextual frame, and in effect, follows the logical ordering of cause-effect; i.e. early detection $\rightarrow$ effective treatment.

Another minor mismatch is the translation of the adjectival element ‘any’, which is usually rendered as ‘bất cứ’ (as in ‘like any illness’), but in this instance has been translated as ‘khác’ (as in ‘like other illnesses’).

Clause 11 (ST)

‘Sometimes’ is foregrounded to indicate the possibility that in some families the warning signs or ‘symptoms of mental illness’ of a family member are ignored (but only sometimes and it may not be common).

In the corresponding clause of the TT (Clause 10) however, the contextual frame expresses a rather strong view about this issue, stating that “Nhiều gia đình khi thấy thân nhân mình có những triệu chứng khác thường…” (‘Many families when find out that their relative have some unusual symptoms, …’). Note the use of ‘many families’ instead of ‘families’ as in the ST, and the use of the mental process ‘find out’ implies a certain degree of consciousness. This is in contrast to Clause 11 of the ST in which it simply states “Sometimes families ignore the symptoms of mental illness…”

Note also that ‘unusual symptoms’ does not appear in the ST.

Moreover, through the use of ‘often’, an adverbial of frequency, to modify the mental process ‘ignore’ expressing a sense of consciousness and deliberation, the translator makes the statement sound more critical than it was intended in the ST. For the purpose of illustration, Clause 10 of the TT is reproduced here:

Clause 10 (TT)

Viet: Nhiều gia đình khi thấy thân nhân có những triệu chứng khác thường, thường lui, hy vọng mọi chuyện sẽ qua, và tình hình sẽ biến chuyển tốt đẹp hơn.

Eng: Many families when find out that their relative have some unusual symptoms, [they] often ignore it, hoping that things would go away, and the situation would develop more positively.
Clause 12

What is placed in the initial position (contextual frame) is expressed in the context of the previous discussion (Clause 11 of the ST) concerning the issue of ignoring signs of mental illness by families. The use of the conjunction ‘but’ (Clause 12a) has the adversative effect of an objection against the above practice; i.e. ‘ignoring the symptoms’, despite being in a ‘polite’ manner ‘But the chances are…’ and with a warning ‘things will get worse’.

In addition, to make the view stronger, Clause 12b of the ST continues with another warning ‘and the person may need to be hospitalized’ rather than having the benefit of being ‘treated at home, if they had been diagnosed earlier’. Whereas in the corresponding clause in the TT (Clause 11c), the use of ‘while’ in the contextual frame and the conditional/situational clause ‘if’ only has a contrastive effect (‘while, if it is detected early, the patient can be treated at home.’)

‘When’, being fronted and placed in the contextual frame of Clause 12c, does not propose a sense of time, but rather a conditional perspective and this is confirmed by the use of a conditional clause. An important point that should be noted here is that verbs in Vietnamese are not conjugated; thus, tenses and aspects are understood according to contexts or signaled through the use of adverbials of time. Therefore such a clause as Clause 12c of the ST can be understood as ‘what might have happened in the past but didn’t happen’ or an ‘unreal condition’ (Quirk et al 1976: 324).

In the TT, using the pre-verb element ‘sẽ’ (‘shall/will’) indicating a future action, the translator gives the reader the impression that the concern is about a future event, which may be avoidable if advice is taken seriously.

Clause 14

The contextual frame of the ST puts forth a hypothetical situation (‘if’ clause) where the patients (with a mental illness) may exhibit strange behavior or refuse to take medication. The significance of this is given in the relative clause following ‘medication’; namely ‘that helps control their illness’. In the TT, however, this piece of supporting information is omitted.

Clause 15

In the ST ‘but’, functioning as a structural Theme carrying an adversative effect, aims at countering the possible action mentioned in Rheme of the previous clause (‘to hope the problem will pass’) and is followed by the warning which appears in the Rheme of Clause 15 ‘[this] can make things worse’.
The corresponding clause in the TT (Clause 14) also starts with an adversative adjunct (‘however’), but makes it stronger by repeating the possible action ‘by doing that’; i.e. by ‘ignoring it and hoping... the illness would go away’.

**Clause 18**

The conditional clause occupying the contextual frame works as a re-introduction of the issue (of having a relative with a mental illness) into the discourse, and this time it prepares readers for another aspect of the issue which is to seek help and support. Here the contextual frame signals this change by directly addressing the audience using the second person possessive ‘your’ (‘your family’) followed by the use of the verbal group ‘try’ in imperative mood which is made thematic.

In the TT this dynamic interactive attempt, however, is completely lost through the positioning of a prepositional phrase ‘In the case’ as contextual frame (Clause 16).

**Clause 20**

Still on the topic of seeking help and support, a dependent clause is thematised in the contextual frame explaining why help and support should be sought - particularly help in the form of advice and information on the issue. It fronts up the reason for this approach stressing on ‘Being informed’, that is to learn more about the issue ‘can also stop you blaming yourself …’. In the corresponding clause of the TT, on the other hand, this is replaced by the nominal group ‘understanding’ which is placed in the slot reserved for experiential Theme. And what follows is a message about ‘guilt’ caused by one’s belief that it is oneself who is the cause of the relative’s mental illness.

In Vietnamese, the use of the adjectival ‘tôi lỡi’ indicating the feeling of ‘guilt’ placed at the end of Clause 19 creates some resonance in the reader, particularly when it is used in the introductory clause of the paragraph which aims to demystify certain myths about mental illness and who should be blamed for its cause and effect.

The table below (Figure 5.6) illustrates this significant shift in the meaning:
Figure 5.6  The Theme-Rheme structure of Clause 20 of the ST and Clause 19 of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional/Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST - 20</td>
<td>Being informed can also stop you blaming yourself - (CF: Causal: Reason)</td>
<td>many families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness, but this isn’t true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT - 19</td>
<td>Understanding more about mental illness (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>also helps prevent you from feeling guilty.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following clause provides more points for discussion, but that will be tackled in the next section. In the next few clauses, there is no information occupying the contextual frame of the ST, yet in the TT such an adverb as ‘sometimes’ and conjunction ‘or’ are placed in this slot to indicate various possible factors which may cause a mental illness. In the ST, on the contrary, the existential subject ‘there’ (existential Theme) is used to introduce these factors instead.

**Clause 23**

‘But’ functions as a countering ‘force’ against what has been mentioned in Clause 20 ‘many families feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness…’. It is placed in the contextual frame of Clause 23 of the ST to conclude the discussion about misplaced blamed for the mental illness of a relative.

‘But’ is followed by the nominal group ‘no one’, Subject and Theme of the clause, which has the effect of a complete rejection of any responsibility, either of oneself or of one’s mentally ill relative, for the illness.

Clause 23 of the TT also starts with an adverb of contradiction ‘nhưng’ meaning ‘but’ or ‘however’, but what it contradicts are some possible causes mentioned in Rheme of the previous clause; i.e. anxiety, stress due to unemployment, retirement, marriage breakdown, etc (Clause 22). By stating ‘But not because of these’ it clearly refers to the above factors, yet when trying to negate responsibility, it concludes ‘quỷ ví phải dó lối cho người này hay người khác’ (literally means ‘you must blame it on this person or that person’). The possible causes now are referred to as people.

More interesting is the use of ‘phải’, which has ‘must’ as its correspondence in English. As in English, ‘phải’ indicates a high degree of responsibility/obligation. It is still
unclear why the translator has decided to select this term, when ‘có thể’ (‘can’ or ‘may’) would be a more appropriate choice in this context.

Moreover, while in Clause 23 of the ST, the conclusion of the discussion about mental illness and ways to cope with the illness is made, the TT extends its conclusion over two clauses with some expansion of explanation.

The contextual frame of Clause 24 of the TT begins with the phrase ‘Bệnh tâm thần xảy ra’ which may be understood either as ‘[The] occurrence of mental illness’ or ‘Mental illness happens’. However, when placed in the co-text and context it can also be taken as a conditional clause, as illustrated below:

Viet: Bệnh tâm thần xảy ra không phải do lỗi người bệnh mà cũng không phải lỗi thân nhân họ.
Eng: Mental illness happens [it is] not the fault of the patient nor is it the fault of their family.

Whereas it could also be understood as:

English: [If] mental illness occurs [it is] not the patient’s fault nor is it the fault of their family.

Putting them together, the discrepancy in the meaning of Clause 23 of the ST, when compared to that of Clause 23 and 24 of the TT, is clearly significant:

Figure 5.7 The Theme-Rheme structure of Clause 23 of the ST and Clause 23 & 24 of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/ Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/ Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional/ Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST - 23</td>
<td>But (Structural: Contradictive)</td>
<td>no one (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT – 23</td>
<td>But, not because of these (Structural: Contradictive + Situational)</td>
<td>you (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>must (sic) blame it on this person or that person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT - 24</td>
<td>[If] mental illness occurs, (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>[is] not the patient’s fault nor is it the fault of their family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The issue of differences and similarities in meaning of the ST and TT will be discussed in more detail when experiential Themes, including informational and interactional Themes, are examined. Also looked at is the source of those elements which comprises the informational and interactional Themes.

Before discussing the above raised points however, it is essential to look first into those occupying the experiential thematic slot labelled as ‘thematised comments’ (see Thompson 1996, 2004).

(b) Thematised Comment/Evaluative Comment

Introducing a collection of papers which examines how evaluation and stance are expressed in texts, Hunston and Thompson (2000) point out the fact that through language, writers and speakers often express their evaluative opinions about a certain issue with either negative or positive viewpoints.

They also hold the view that one of the responsibilities of researchers or analysts is to ensure that this language phenomenon is taken into consideration. As they (2000: 2) expound “the expression of the writer’s or speaker’s opinion is an important feature of language … [and] needs to be accounted for in a full description of the meanings of texts.”

Researches have been conducted into this aspect of language in use, and subsequently there are various terms used to depict sometimes the same phenomena, sometimes slightly different ones. According to Hunston and Thompson, depending on individual scholars or researchers and the purpose and approach of their studies, there are well known notions such as connotation (Lyon 1977), affect, and attitude (Halliday 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen 2004).

More recently, in the mid 1990s, a branch of Systemic Functional Linguistics developed by Martin and several of his colleagues such as Iedema et al. 1994, Martin 1995a, Martin 1995b, Christie and Martin 1997, Martin 1997, Coffin 1997, and White 1998, to name but a few, proposed the Appraisal Theory. It focuses its attention intensively on the interpersonal aspect of language, and as explained in the introductory page of its website: “[it] is concerned … particularly with the language of evaluation, attitude and emotion, and with a set of resources which explicitly position a text's proposals and propositions interpersonally.” (http://www.grammarics.com/appraisal/AppraisalOutline/Framed/AppraisalOutline.htm - retrieved on 08 July 2011)

Thompson and Hunston (2000: 3) point out that writers/speakers normally express their opinion through such linguistic elements as adjectives or incorporate it into the structure of a clause ‘with its own dedicated structures’ using modal verbs. Halliday (1994) refers to
this phenomenon as modality which includes modalisation and modulation; whereas others such as Chafe and Nichols (1986) call it evidentiality, or in the term used by Conrad and Biber, stance (2000).

From the perspective of language users, given the uniqueness and importance of the phenomenon, i.e. evaluative expression which sometimes may be very subtle and implicit, and as admitted by Thompson and Hunston, “not always a straight forward matter” (ibid: 2), then how can an expression be recognised as a proposition of personal opinion or evaluation?

Thompson and Hunston (2000: 13) suggest that in order to identify whether an expression is evaluative, it should be examined conceptually or linguistically. Conceptual evaluation involves some degree of subjectivity underlining a comparison against certain values or standards (usually social standards), or as they put it “evaluation consists of anything which is compared to or contrasted with the norm”.

Also according to the above authors, evaluation can be identified linguistically through lexis, grammar, and text. In terms of lexis, an evaluative meaning can be expressed through words of various classifications, for example adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and verbs.

Seen from this perspective, it appears that the Appraisal theory, even though comprehensive and systematic, mainly examines evaluative opinions focusing on the use of lexis, as proposed by Martin (2000: 148):

Working within the paradigm of SFL, we wanted a comprehensive map of appraisal resources that we could deploy systematically in discourse analysis, with a view both to understanding the rhetorical effect of evaluative lexis as texts unfold, and to better understanding the interplay of interpersonal meaning and social relations in the model of language and the social we were developing, especially in the area of solidarity (i.e. resources for empathy and affiliation).

Due to the purpose and scope of the present research as well as the features of the texts under examination, only the grammatical aspect of evaluation is discussed here. Moreover, and more specifically, what will be looked at are any grammatical patterns which may impact on the thematic structure of a clause, and thus should be taken into account as needing to be brought over to the translated text.

But first, some relevant concepts should be brought up for discussion.

In a research into the language of evaluation, Hunston and Sinclair (2000) depart from the premise that evaluation does not have it own grammar and is normally studied in relation to lexis. The view is also shared by Thompson and Hunston (ibid: 74) who observe that: “evaluation appears parasitic on other resources and to be somewhat randomly dispersed across a range of structural options shared with non-evaluative function”.

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They instead borrow the idea from ‘local grammar’ proposed by Gross (1993), which is described by Mason as a way of “describing the syntactic behaviour of groups of [linguistic] elements which are related but whose similarities cannot easily expressed using phrase structure rules” (2004). Using identified patterns retrieved from corpus data as some kind of template, Hunston and Sinclair (2000) show that there is a corresponding relationship between form and meaning, and that “words which share aspects of their meaning also occur in similar sets of patterns.” (Mason 2004: 3)

The above two authors introduce the concept of ‘Pattern Grammar’ which, according to Mason (ibid: 3), “Unlike local grammar, pattern grammar attempts a broader description of syntactic behaviour, which is less lexicalized. Typically the only lexically restricted elements in a pattern will be the main word the pattern belongs to, and perhaps a preposition (which is more specific than the general class of all prepositions).”

It should be noted that the concept of ‘Pattern Grammar’ and current trend of corpus-based research into language usage may have stemmed from the notion of ‘collocation’ and ‘colligation’ first introduced by Firth in the article ‘Modes of Meaning’ published in 1957. In this article, Firth uses ‘collocation’ to refer to the relationship between words at the lexical level, while ‘colligation’ is concerned with the relationship between linguistic elements at the level of grammar (see Firth 1957; Hoey 1997).

While the issue of collocation, which is very important to translation practice, was discussed in detail in Chapter II, in this section the notion of colligation will be dealt with but only briefly. An apparent mismatch between the ST and the TT in relation to a specific textual feature, i.e. Pattern Grammar (there are six thematised comments in the ST, but only two in the TT), warrants a brief discussion concerning the textual significance of this type of construction.

In their study, Hunston and Sinclair identify several typical patterns which language users use to evaluate things or to express opinions. Employing a model proposed by Barnbrook (1995) which was used to analyse the definition of a word in the Collins Cobuild Students Dictionary (i.e. definiendum, hinge, and definiens, etc. For a detailed discussion see Barnbrook 1995), they demonstrate how evaluative expressions are articulated. However, for the evaluative purpose, they change the meta-language used in a definition parser into an evaluative ‘parser’; namely from definiendum into thing evaluated, definiens into evaluative category, and hinge.
Similarly, a research, conducted by Hunston and Francis (2000) ‘Pattern Grammar – A corpus-driven approach to the lexical grammar of English’, also refer to some typical patterns identified by Hunston and Sinclair.

The present research will only discuss relevant patterns which are borrowed from Hunston and Sinclair (2000: 84 – 100) and also from Hunston and Francis (2000). The following pattern is often employed by speakers/writers to express their opinion:

(i) Expression of opinion
(Nominal group + Link verb + Adjective group + FOR – Nominal group)

For example, Clause 1b of the ST refers to the problem a family has to cope with when having a relative with a chronic physical illness then goes on to say that:

(but) it can be even worse for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill.

In this pattern ‘it’, the Subject of the clause, refers to the ‘coping of the family’ whose relative is ill, and is the thing that is evaluated. The adjectival group realizes the evaluative category, and although it is the writer of the ST who evaluates the ‘coping of the family’, it is not that person who is affected by the thing that is evaluated, but a third party, ‘families’, as illustrated in the below table:

Figure 5.8 The ‘it’ pattern of Clause 1b of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thing evaluated nominal group</th>
<th>Hinge link verb</th>
<th>Evaluative Category adjetival group</th>
<th>Person affected for – nominal group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[It]</td>
<td>can be</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Evaluative expression

(It + Link verb + Adjective group + Clause, or in the language of Hunston and Francis, the pattern is expressed as it v-link ADJ that, it v-link ADJ to-infinitive, and it v-link ADJ-ing.)

According to Hunston and Francis, in the above pattern, the introductory it-clause functions as the subject of the clause and the function of the pattern is to evaluate the action indicated in the to-infinitive clause. For instance, Clause 8b of the ST mentions difficulties a
family with a mentally ill relative may experience due to the possible misconceptions of people about the illness:

Also according to these authors the adjectives used with this pattern belong to ‘three very general meaning groups: those meaning “good in some way”…; those meaning “bad in some way”…; and those meaning “typical or not typical”… (Hunston & Francis 2000: 99-100)

In the above pattern the thing evaluated is the to-infinitive clause “that is judged to experience difficulty” (ibid: 134), namely, ‘to invite people home is difficult’. Note that introductory – it only plays the role of the Subject in the clause, whereas the adjective ‘difficult’ functions as Evaluative Category.

(iii) Offering advice
(Nominal group + Link verb + Adjective group + TO – Infinitive clause)

This is another relevant pattern appearing in Example 3. In Clause 17 of the ST, the deixis ‘this’ refers to a proposition in the previous clause (Clause 16) which advises the family of the mentally ill person to contact health professionals for support and assistance in coping with the relative with mental illness. Clause 17 explains the benefits of following this advice.
Hunston and Francis (2000) refer to the nominal group preceding the link verb ‘make’ as Causer, which presumably would cause change or impact on what follows it. As implied in Clause 17, if what is proposed in Clause 16 were followed then it’d be easier to control the illness and maintain the stability of the patient.

Finally, there are another two patterns which are not found in the ST but appear in the TT, and these patterns have been identified by Hunston and Sinclair in their corpus-based research (2000).

(iv) Expression of subjective evaluation
(Pseudo – Cleft sentence)

According to Hunston and Sinclair, a pseudo-cleft clause usually begins with ‘what’ followed by a link verb and an adjectival group. “This is followed by the verb be and a nominal group or a finite or non-finite…” (2000: 89), as illustrated in the following example:

Figure 5.11 The ‘it’ pattern of Clause 8 of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause 8 (TT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hinge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this pattern the adjective is used to attribute evaluation (‘important’) to the nominal group which is about seeking help to deal with the problem of having a relative with a mental illness.

(v) Expression of subjective viewpoint
(Pattern with general noun)

In Clause 15 of the TT, the adjective ‘good’ in superlative is used to modify a general noun that is followed by a link verb and a nominal group or finite or non-finite clause.
From the above observation it can be said that to express a viewpoint, there are various linguistic resources or textual strategies speakers/writers can use to indicate their stance. Apart from the use of Mood and modality (Halliday 1994), and a wide range of lexis of various word classes, there is another strategy, which is more effective and can disguise a subjective viewpoint as an objective one, namely the use of the patterns illustrated above. Thompson, in his earlier study on reporting (1994: 149), points out that writers or speakers can use such a reporting structure to present a fact (or assumingly a fact) and comment on it. However, seen from the perspective of a thematic choice, this particular type of structure plays an important role in the clause in which it is thematised. It indicates the writer/speaker’s opinion about someone or something, expresses the stance that the writer/speaker wants to make on an issue, or attributes an evaluation to a person or an entity.

Thompson refers to this thematic pattern as thematised comment. As he explains: “[Thematised comment] allows speakers to start their message with their own comment in the value or validity of what they are about to say.” (Thompson 2004: 152) He also goes further to describe the function of the introductory or anticipatory ‘it’, calling it a ‘place holder’ which “serves to set up as the starting point of the message”, with the purpose for the use of thematized comment being to express “explicit objective modality”. (ibid)

Equipped with this theoretical framework, I now return to Example 5.3 and begin examining similarities and differences between the experiential Themes of the ST and the TT.

(c) Experiential and other Theme types

In the earlier section, thematic elements appearing in the contextual frame of the TT and the ST were compared and several major shifts in the thematic region of the target language text were identified. It became apparent that many initial ideational elements of
certain clauses were moved to the extreme left hand side of the main verbs to form contextual frames (e.g. Clause 1a of the TT vs. Clause 1a of the ST, etc.). At the same time, in other clauses certain elements intended for the contextual frames were shifted to the area reserved for the experiential Theme (e.g. Clause 2 of the TT vs. that of the ST.). Yet in others, in order to highlight a certain statement expressed in the clause, the translator foregrounded a constituent occupying the rhematic region of the ST, in effect, making it thematic in the contextual frame of the TT (compare Clause 3 of the ST with Clause 3 of the TT).

My discussion now moves to the experiential and other Theme types of the two texts; namely existential Theme and thematised comment. With respect to the labeling of a thematic element, in previous chapters reasons were given for the choice of such terminology as experiential Theme to label what is termed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) as ‘topical Theme’.

‘Topical Theme’ has been widely used by many systemic linguists to depict a constituent or element which functions as a participant, process, or circumstance in the clause. To explain the reason for their use of this particular terminology, Halliday and Matthiessen argue that ‘topical Theme’ is closely related to what is called ‘topic’ in topic-comment analysis (Thompson 2004: 159). However, as Thompson points out this term (‘topic’) “is a notorious shifty concept”, and instead, proposes the use of ‘experiential Theme’ to label such a constituent (ibid).

In the present study, I will adopt ‘experiential Theme’ as an umbrella term to label any constituents functioning as a participant which can either be an entity, and thus will be labeled ‘informational Theme’, or a person, and thus will be termed ‘interactional Theme’ (also dependent on the context of use). Such constituent can also be an existential process, and therefore will appropriately be labeled ‘existential Theme’.

More specifically, in the case of the texts under question, there are grammar patterns (see Hunston and Sinclair 2000; Hunston and Francis 2000) or reporting structures (see Thompson 1994) which are made thematic to provide resources for writers/speakers to express their evaluative opinion or stance on a certain issue. I will adopt the term ‘thematized comment’ (see Thompson 2004) to emphasize the specific clausal function of such patterns.

Comparing to the contextual frame category (termed ‘multiple Theme’ or ‘extended Theme’ by other linguists such as Halliday) which subsumes such Theme types as textual, structural, and interpersonal, the ‘experiential Theme’, while generally generic, is flexible enough to cover constituents performing different thematic functions; namely informational and interactional.
In order to be used as a model for ‘translation quality assessment’ and particularly for the purposes of exploring the foregrounding of linguistic elements to form various Theme types, the more specific the labeling is the better. In other words, the more detail an analysis can show, the more similarities and differences between the two texts can be identified and highlighted, especially if the labeling can also account for any shift in the function or meaning of a particular element and can indicate how the shift affects the meaning or function of certain clauses, as well as the overall meaning of the TT.

In the previous section (Section (a)) the examination was focused on the area of contextual frames and/or structural Themes. Now the attention is moved to a more important part of a clause which, according to Fries (1995), is accountable for the method of development of a text: the ‘experiential Theme’ and other types. Among these Theme types, although both the ST and TT share the same number of informational Themes, it does not mean that there are no differences in relation to where they are located, or in the original place from where they are relocated, with respect to clause-by-clause analysis. For instance, ‘it’, the informational Theme of Clause 2 of the ST, is replaced by ‘not many people’ the interactional Theme of Clause 2 of the TT. In order to understand the whole extent of the impact on thematic meaning caused by the shift in the thematic structure of the TT as compared to that of the ST, see the table below (Figure 5.13):

Figure 5.13 Types of Theme contained in the ST and the TT (clause by clause)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Theme Type – Source Language Text</th>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Theme Type – Target Language Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Having someone in the family… (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>1a</td>
<td>there is … (Existential Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>it can be … (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>1b</td>
<td>[your/our] relative (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>it (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>there are … (Existential Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>One fear (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>one (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>most people with a mental … (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>3b</td>
<td>this (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a</td>
<td>there is (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>the patient (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4b</td>
<td>people with a mental illness… (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Another problem (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>[There are] yet others who… (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Attitudes like these (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>The above misconception … (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Some families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>7a</td>
<td>Many families (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>7b</td>
<td>[they] (Interactional Theme: elided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8b</td>
<td>It’s difficult (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>7c</td>
<td>[they] (Interactional Theme: elided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8c</td>
<td>the (Interactional Theme: elided)</td>
<td>7d</td>
<td>people who … (Interactional Theme: elided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It’s important (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>What’s important (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>mental illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>mental illness (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>[they] (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12a</td>
<td>things (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>11a</td>
<td>the situation (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12b</td>
<td>the person (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>11b</td>
<td>the patient (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12c</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>11c</td>
<td>the patient (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The same (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Families of a schizophrenic … (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>it can be tempting (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>their family (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>this (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>It is much better (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>The best way is (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>This makes it easier (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>your family (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>[you] try (Interactional Theme: Imperative)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>It (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19a</td>
<td>This (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Mental health experts (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19b</td>
<td>mental health workers (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Understanding more about … (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>many families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Many people (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Many factors (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>21a</td>
<td>Mental illness (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22a</td>
<td>There may be (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>21b</td>
<td>it (Informational Theme: Elided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22b</td>
<td>[there may be] (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>21c</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22c</td>
<td>there may be (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>it (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>no one (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>you (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the two texts are placed side-by-side it becomes obvious that there are more differences than similarities. Most significant is that the number of interactional Theme in the TT is over 70% more than that of the ST; yet it only contains exactly half the number of
existential Theme and one third of the number of thematised comment in comparison to the ST. Below, an examination will be conducted clause-by-clause and discussion will be made where the differences are so great that they may impact upon the meaning of particular clauses or upon the whole text.

Clause 1a of ST & TT

The starting point of the ST, the non-finite clause ‘Having someone … with … illness’, makes reference to the ‘family’, ‘someone in the family’ (a relative), and ‘illness’, and thus introduces the three main participants into the discourse. This is followed by ‘coping’, the main topic of discussion indicated in the heading, in Rheme. In doing this, the ST clearly describes a situation from which the issue of ‘coping’ arises and which requires a response (and this will be dealt with in more detail in Section 5.5.1 below). It then goes on to compare this to the issue of coping with a relative with a mental illness by the family (Clause 1b). Clause 1a and 1b can thus also be considered as the introductory sentence of the text.

The TT, in contrast, chooses a very different approach. Facing structural inflexibility, particularly in the use of participle phrase/clause and nominalization so common in English, the translator has opted to start Clause 1a of the TT with the adverbial of usuality ‘thông thường’ (‘usually’) and the circumstantial adjunct ‘nếu’ (‘if’ signaling a condition or situation) which precedes the prepositional phrase ‘trong gia đình’ (‘in [your] family’). These elements are concentrated in the area of the contextual frame of Clause 1a of the TT to form a conditional phrase. The existential process ‘có’ is, then, used as Theme to introduce into the discourse other relevant elements such as the patient, illness, worry, and care before commenting that these ‘are hard to cope with’.

As far as the text comprehension is concerned, this approach makes it harder for the reader to process the meaning of the text due to the density of information. In terms of the Problem-Solution pattern, as will be discussed later in Section 5.5.1 (page 358), such elements as situation, problem and so on, are all deposited in the rhematic region of the clause, making it different to what has been included in Rheme of Clause 1a of the ST.

Clause 1b of ST & TT

The structural Theme ‘but’ is used to contrast the issue of having to cope with a relative with a physical illness as opposed to someone with a mental one (See the section on ‘Contextual Frame’ above). To highlight this contrast, the ST producer resorts to a thematised comment to stress the extent of complexity and difficulty in dealing with a person with a mental illness by the use of adverbial of extent ‘even’ to modify the comparative adjective
‘worse’ in the evaluative category. Moreover the use of a modal verb ‘can’, which signals some degree of subjectivity even if only implicit, emphasises the ST producer’s awareness of the issue, as well as an attempt to establish solidarity with potential readers whose relative has a mental illness.

The judgment the ST producer makes about the situation is not with the intention of expressing a negative comment, but of showing compassion and sharing feelings with those who are involved in the issue.

The TT producer (the translator) somehow misses this point. Despite such problems as ‘worries’ and difficulty in ‘care’ for the patient (expressed as New in the rhematic region of both Clause 1a and 1b of the TT) are mentioned in the translation, and also interpersonal strategy is used implicitly referring to the patient as ‘người thân của mình’ which can be understood either as ‘your relative’ or ‘our relative’ (inclusive) in the attempt to show solidarity with the reader, the message mainly stresses on “việc chăm sóc” (as in “việc chăm sóc lại càng khó khăn, vật và hơn nữa”, or ‘care is even more difficult, [and] strenuous’).

(Clause 1b)

As families of people with a mental illness are well aware, the difficulties do not merely concern ‘worries’ and ‘care’, but also having to cope with social stigma, social isolation and desperation, misconceptions, and people’s negative attitudes toward the patient, to name but a few.

**Clause 2 of ST & TT**

The main reason for the ST producer to foreground the statistical data is to stress the commonness of the issue of mental illness. This bit of information is included in the region of the contextual frame where ‘so common’ is rhematised to become New, and thus draws attention of the reader to the predicative adjective ‘common’ which is pre-modified by the intensifier ‘so’. Preceded by the conjunctive adjunct ‘although’, this gives the impression that an admission is made about something that is not ‘right’.

Furthermore, in the ST the statistical evidence is used only to back up the view that ‘[mental illness] affects one in four people in Australia’ which is also thematised in the contextual frame of Clause 2. The impersonal pronoun ‘it’, the thematised element referring to the commonness expressed in the contextual frame, stresses the fact that the issue ‘is still misunderstood’.
In the TT, however, the subordinate clause used as the contextual frame following the conjunction ‘và’ (‘and’) as an additive to the conjunctive adjunct ‘mặc dù’ (‘although’), places emphasis on the statistic ‘trong số bốn người, lại có một người mắc bệnh tâm thần’ (‘among every four people there is one with mental illness’). And while the experiential Theme of the ST functions as an ‘informational Theme’ referring to a factual matter believed to be common, this is replaced in the TT by an existential Theme ‘vẫn có nhiều người…’ (‘there are still many people…’).

Existential Theme usually plays an introductory role; i.e. it introduces into the discourse a new participant, which can be a person(s), or thing(s), or it may signal a change in the flow of discourse. This also interferes with the thematic progression of the text, and thus results in semantic consequences at various levels depending on the function of particular linguistic items within the clause, the paragraph, or the whole discourse as illustrated below (Figure 5.14a and 5.14b):

**Figure 5.14a** The direction of the Theme-Rheme pattern of the first three clauses of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1 (Inf. Th.)</td>
<td>R1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Str: Contr</td>
<td>T2 (= R1) (TC)</td>
<td>R2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Str: Con + CF: Sit</td>
<td>T3 (= R2) (Inf. Th.)</td>
<td>R3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The arrows in Figure 5.14a and 5.14b show the direction from which the information comes or where it becomes Theme or Rheme of the successive clauses. In the ST, the idea of ‘coping’ in the Rheme of Clause 1a (R₁) is picked up and made Theme of Clause 1b (T₂). The Theme of Clause 2 of the ST, however, picks up the information contained in both its contextual frame and from the Rheme of Clause 1b (‘mental illness’) and uses reference ‘it’ as both Subject and Theme of the clause.

In the TT, on the other hand, the Theme of Clause 1b makes use of the information appearing in the contextual frame of Clause 1a ‘gia đình’ (‘family’) which, in this case, can be considered as ‘hypertheme’ and puts up the hyponym ‘người thân của mình’ (‘your/our relative’) as Theme of Clause 1b (T₂). Moreover, except for the semantic relationship between R₁ (worries and care are hard to cope with) and R₂ (‘care is even more difficult’), and between R₂ (‘mental illness’) and R₃ (‘the above illnesses’), there are no other relations with respect to meaning between the Themes and Rhemes of the above clauses.

An interesting point warranting a discussion here is the observation made by Scinto (1977) in terms of the relationship between thematic progression and text coherence which has significant implication during the translation process. According to Scinto (1977: 8) “the critical factor in moving forward of a message is the rheme. When we have a concatenation of preceding rheme becoming in a sense the succeeding theme, the relation between these elements becomes more dependent and the cohesiveness of the text tighter, and so the text “better” formed.”
Therefore, it can be said that the change from a linear Theme progression pattern in the ST into a constant Rheme progression pattern has affected not only the meaning of the TT, but also its coherence. This also means that the message the ST wants to convey about the issue of coping with a relative with a mental condition, and with prejudice and social stigma, isolation, and so on, has now changed into the issue of worry and care for the sick person.

Consequently, this will also cause misconstrual; due to the fact that what is about to unfold in the text does not meet the reader’s expectations. Because after reading the first two sentences, a reader may form the opinion that the information is about caring for a relative with a mental illness, and will expect thus.

**Clause 3a and 3b of ST & TT**

Again, Clause 3a of the ST begins with ‘one fear’ which is about ‘feeling’, a subject for discussion, and thus is classified as an informational Theme. In Clause 3a of the TT, however, after using the fixed expression ‘thí dụ’ (‘for example’) to draw attention to what information is about to follow, it introduces into the discussion the participant ‘người ta’ (‘one’ or ‘people’) and this participant makes an assumption about the violent and aggressive nature of someone with a mental illness. This has the purpose of pointing out the ‘misconception’ by many people concerning mental illness and, in effect, repeats the concern raised in the previous clause (‘not many people thoroughly understand the above illness’).

In Clause 3b of both the ST and TT this goes the opposite way. In the ST ‘most people with a mental illness’ is thematised as interactional Theme and is followed by the confirmation that they ‘aren’t violent’; whereas that of the TT also refers to the same piece of information which appears in the rhematic region of the previous clause (Clause 3a), but states that ‘this is not totally correct’ and thus gives the thematic element ‘this’ an informational characteristic instead of a ‘human face’ as intended in the original.

**Clause 4a and 4b of ST & TT**

While in the ST, a clause complex consists of a main clause (Clause 4a) and a dependent clauses (Clause 4b), in the TT these subsume into Clause 4. In addition, after the structural Theme ‘then’ signaling that what follows is additional information, Clause 4a begins with an existential Theme (‘there is’) which introduces another misconception about mental illness. Clause 4 of the TT, however, refers to information placed in the contextual frame concerning the belief of a certain group of people (‘There are others who think…’), and
continues to provide the information about this misconception starting with the interactional Theme ‘the patients’.

At this point it should be noted that in an attempt to contradict the information given in the rhematic area of Clause 4a of the ST which implies that a recovered patient of mental illness is ‘still mentally weak’, the ST does provide an affirmative confirmation that ‘people with a mental illness can have a full recovery…’ (Clause 4b).

This piece of crucial information is completely omitted in the TT.

Clause 5 of ST & TT

By placing ‘another problem’ in the thematic position and making it ‘informational Theme’, the ST raises an additional issue concerning the attitudes of people who witness a mentally ill person’s ‘strange’ behaviors. In the TT, on the other hand, the existential Theme ‘có’ (‘there are’) points to a group of people who ‘feel uncomfortable’ with this kind of behavior, seeing a mentally ill patient as ‘odd’ and ‘unlike others’.

Therefore, it can be said that the ST focuses on the misconception, whereas the TT tends to focus on those who fail to understand the issue.

Clause 6 of ST & TT

Placed in the thematic position of Clause 6 in the ST is the nominal group ‘attitudes like these’, referring to those misconceptions which cause people to have certain reactions toward those who are mentally ill. This is followed by what is seen as a direct result of these misconceptions that it makes ‘families of mentally ill patients even suffer more’.

‘Attitudes like these’ is replaced by another nominal group ‘the above misconceptions’ which refers to the cause of the problem that families of the mentally ill patients have to deal with, and not to the manifestation of that cause which is the reaction.

Clause 7 and 8 of ST & TT

‘Some families’ is replaced by ‘những gia đình’ (‘many families’) in the Theme of the TT; and while the remainder of the clause (Rheme) in the ST says ‘feel they have to hide their relative’s illness from the rest of the world’, the TT simply states ‘phải dấu diếm không cho mọi người biết’ (literally means ‘must hide not let everybody know’) or ‘have to hide this problem from people’. However, the major structural change to Clause 7 and 8 of the ST is the decision by the translator to combine both clauses together in the TT and make them a clause complex linked by the conjunction ‘or’. This is in accordance with the tendency of
many Vietnamese language users to take advantage of the language’s structural uniqueness in which subjects of structurally closely related clauses may be elided, thus creating cohesion and coherence.

Despite this advantage however, the TT producer ignores an important grammar pattern in Clause 8b of the ST which signals an evaluative opinion expressed by the writer of the original.

**Figure 5.15** reproduces the evaluative structure of Clause 8b and also shows the significant difference this is reproduced in the TT:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Clause 8b (ST)</strong></th>
<th><strong>The ‘it’ pattern of Clause 8b of the ST</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introductory - it</strong></td>
<td><strong>link verb</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>‘s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common perception of informative texts is that they are objective, and only provide information. However, in many cases, as in the texts in question, readers may find an element of persuasion regarding a particular stance. Besides its communicative function, language can also be used to express opinions, attitudes and stance on certain issues. There are various ways one can use to communicate one’s view; for example using modal verbs and modality (Halliday 1985, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004; etc)

One particular grammar pattern often used, especially by academic writers, to express their view, while making it sounds objective, is the use of the *introductory subject* ‘it’ to replace the ‘normal’ subject with the subject placed at the end of the clause.

Hewings and Hewings (2002: 102) observe that “The it – clause itself distances the writer from the content expressed in the … clause and [the] choice of reporting verb allows great freedom in accepting, rejecting or remaining neutral about the proposition expressed.” They also maintain “the choice of it – clause over a construction with a person pronoun … can also allow the writer to depersonalize opinions.” (ibid) That means the writer/speaker is not, in any way, connected to a statement.

Thus, in the above pattern (Figure 5.15), ‘to invite people home’, the ‘normal’ subject of the clause or the ‘thing evaluated’, is replaced by *introductory or anticipatory* ‘it’ as Subject of the clause; while ‘difficult’ functions as an ‘evaluative category’ under which something is evaluated.
Saying that ‘Inviting people home is difficult’ may sound subjective if the statement is made directly. Therefore, the ST producer tries to distance him/herself from it by using the impersonal pronoun ‘it’ as Subject. The TT producer, in contrast, makes it very clear and explicit in Clause 7c which is intended to mirror the meaning of Clause 8b of the ST.

\[\textbf{Viet}: \quad \ldots \text{hồ không muốn người khác đến nhà thăm mình.} \]
\[\textbf{Lit}: \quad \ldots \text{they not want people other come [to] home visit they.} \]
\[\textbf{Eng}: \quad \ldots \text{they don’t want others to come to visit them.} \]

The use of the mental process ‘want’, indicating a conscious desire or will, may have flowed from the fact that the family have to ‘hide’ the problem from people in Clause 7a, and thus it may be logical to make the whole matter definitely under control as in ‘they don’t want people to come to visit them’. Semantically, however, it is significantly different from the original idea ‘inviting people home is difficult’ which indicates a feeling of desperation and powerlessness (Clause 8b above).

This is also inconsistent to the feeling expressed in Clause 7b of the TT which may truthfully describe the feeling of a family with a mentally ill relative as that ‘[they] feel isolated’, and is also in correspondence to the meaning expressed in the ST.

\textbf{Clause 9 of ST & Clause 8 of TT}

Through their research into journal articles published in the field of Business Studies and dissertations written by MBA students of a language background other than English (LBOTE) Hewings & Hewings (2002) identify many instances where \textit{it-clauses} are used to express interpersonal meanings.

These interpersonal meanings are classified according to their functions in the clauses under the categories of hedges, attitude markers, emphatics, and attribution.

For the purpose of the current research, evaluative function will temporarily be used to refer to all four classifications.

As far as Clause 9 of the ST is concerned, the focus of the present discussion is on ‘emphatics’.

By emphatics Hewings & Hewings mean that the writer is certain about the content of the \textit{that-clause} (in this case ‘families in this situation don’t try to cope with the problem alone.’) and the reader must also come to the same conclusion (ibid: 373). The construction of Clause 9 of the ST has a similar feature of a cleft-sentence which, in the words of Quirk et al (1976: 414), “gives both thematic and focal prominence to a particular element of the
...clause...”. And, according to their description the cleft sentence consists of “the pronoun it followed by the verb be, which in turn is followed by the element on which the focus falls”. However, the only difference between a cleft sentence and an if-clause with an evaluative function is the element following the copula verb ‘be’.

In a cleft sentence, the element which follows ‘be’ is normally a nominal group; whereas that which follows an it-clause with an evaluative function is an adjective attributing evaluation to what it precedes. Thus, the focal element in Clause 9 of the ST is the adjective ‘important’, as illustrated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 5.16a The ‘cleft’ pattern of Clause 9 of the ST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 9:</strong> It’s <strong>important</strong> that families in this situation don’t try to cope with the problem alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thematic structure:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information structure:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quirk et al also contend that, “The highlighted element has the full implication of contrastive focus: the rest of the clause is taken as given…” (ibid: 415). Therefore, with reference to the information structure of the clause, it can be assumed that the piece of information containing in Rheme is known or Given; whereas the information which has the focal prominence, the evaluative adjective ‘important’, is New.

According to Hewings & Hewings (2002: 112) “The strategic purpose of [this pattern] … would seem to be to convince the reader that he or she must accept the validity of the statement that follows.” Hence, the it-clause seems to have an emphatic meaning because it emphasizes the ‘importance’ of what follows it, and also bears resemblance to an advice. The use of ‘it’ as Subject of the clause, however, makes it sound impersonal and thus objective. Thompson refers to this type of pattern as explicit objective modality (2004: 152).

In contrast, Clause 8 of the TT is a pseudo-cleft sentence which is referred to by Halliday and Matthiessen as ‘equative Theme’; namely that Theme = Rheme “with the ‘=’ expressed by the Predicator ‘be’” (Thompson: ibid). Also as explained by Thompson (ibid), this textual strategy serves two functions:
(a) It allows the reader/listener to process each part of the clause separately because the Theme as starting point is divided off from the Rheme in a way that is more obvious than in the corresponding non-equative version.

(b) It helps orient the reader/listener to the important message that the writer/speaker wishes to convey.

The TT producer uses ‘what’ as the starting point of the message and signals in the Theme that the question will be addressed in the Rheme; i.e. ‘What’s important’ is defined by ‘that families with a mentally ill relative should not deal with the problems themselves, but should seek help’ in the Rheme.

In the pseudo-cleft sentence, which is a clause complex, the clausal group ‘What’s important’ functions as a nominal group in the identifying clause; while the that-clause contains identified elements; i.e. carrying New information. Figure 5.16b will illustrate the Given-New relationship between the two clauses:

![Figure 5.16b](image)

The impression given by the above proposition is the imposition of the writer’s idea on the reader. The message contained in Rheme is what is believed to be important by the addressee which is about to be told in the that-clause, and which should be heeded. In addition, the inclusion of conjunctive ‘but’ among the final clausal elements (which are not found in the ST), also has the implication of contrastive focus; namely ‘should not deal with the problem themselves, but should seek help.’ Pseudo-cleft sentences, thus, can be considered as implicit subjective modality.

**Clause 10 (ST) & 9 (TT)**

There seems to be no shift in the TT in relation to the fronting of ‘mental illness’ as informational Theme in both Clause 10 of the ST and its corresponding version, Clause 9 of the TT.
However, due to the target language structural convention, the ‘if’ clause of Clause 10 in the ST is moved from the rhematic region to become part of the contextual frame (Situational) in Clause 9 of the TT.

From Clause 11 to Clause 13 of the ST, which have their corresponding counterparts as Clause 11a to Clause 14 of the TT, there are some minor shifts (e.g. ‘situation’ in the ST becomes ‘things’ in the TT, etc) in the area of Theme. However the co-reference of a nominal group ‘the same’ (informational Theme), in Clause 13 of the ST, is replaced by the nominal group ‘families of a schizophrenic or someone with manic depression’ (interactional Theme) in the thematic position in Clause 12 of the TT.

‘The same’ is pushed to the rhematic region of Clause 12 of the TT to become ‘similar problem’.

The discussion will now move to another major type of Theme found in the ST, i.e. thematised comment. While still focusing on the slot reserved for ideational or experiential, and existential Theme, but what will be chiefly examined in this section is this specific theme type which is ignored by the translator.

**Clause 14 (ST) & Clause 13 (TT)**

‘It can be tempting’, comprising the adjectival element ‘tempting’ coupled with the modal verb ‘can’ in the thematic position of Clause 14 of the ST, depicts a degree of probability. Hewings & Hewings (2002) call this type of it-clause pattern ‘hedges’. This expresses what a writer thinks or assumes to be without basing it on any factual evidence. As they further expound “[in using this textual strategy] writers indicate the non-factual status of a proposition by marking it as being their suggestion, contention, argument, assumption, and so on.” (2002: 105)

In Clause 13 of the TT, however, after presenting the situation in the contextual frame of the clause; i.e. ‘if the patient refuses to take medication or behaves strangely’, the translator, then, replaces the hedging in Theme with the nominal group ‘family’ which is followed by the cognitive process ‘tend’. In addition, another cognitive process ‘ignore’, in the affirmative declarative mood, is added to describe how the issue is dealt with. And while the rhematic region of the ST only states ‘to hope the problem will pass’, the corresponding Rheme in the TT not only elaborates the proposition, but also facilitates the understanding of the target language reader by extending it further: ‘in hoping that through time the illness would go away.’
Clause 15 (ST) & Clause 14 (TT)

Following the previous clause concerning the assumption that in the face of their relative’s refusal to take medication or behaving strangely, families would do nothing and hope the problem would pass, Clause 15 of the ST refers to this non-action to suggest that ‘this can make things worse’. Note the use of the modal verb ‘can’ which only indicates a low degree of probability.

In the TT, on the other hand, after stressing the adverse impact of ignoring the problem by starting the clause with the adverbial ‘however’, followed by the prepositional phrase ‘by doing that’ in the contextual frame of Clause 14, the TT producer attributes blame to the family and asserts ‘they only make the patient’s conditions worsen’.

Clause 16 and 17 (ST) & Clause 15 (TT)

Here, the presence of the TT producer is more visible and her/his intervention more obvious. Although in Clause 16 of the ST the use of the intensifier ‘much’, also an attitude marker, (Hewings & Hewings 2002) to modify the comparative form of the adjective of quality ‘good’ already highlights a certain degree of subjectivity, the translator’s choice of language is far more subjective. By using the definite article ‘the’ in conjunction with the superlative ‘best’, the TT producer asserts the view that the action, which is about to be described in the Rheme of Clause 15, is not only ‘the best way’, but also ‘the only way’.

More important is the omission of Clause 17 of the ST. In this clause, to emphasize the benefit of what has been recommended so far i.e. contacting treating doctor; seeking professional help, etc, the ST producer again resorts to an emphatic pattern and makes it a thematised comment to reinforce the message ‘This makes it easier…’

This is not included in the TT.

Clause 18 (ST) & Clause 16 (TT)

The verb ‘try’ in the imperative mood is used as interactional Theme to emphasize an advice, following the ST producer’s style and tone of language employed in the previous clauses. It suggests to readers whose family members have a mental condition that they should find out more about the illness in order to help their relative.

Using the imperative approach in such a text type (informative text), the text producer’s intention is obvious: exploiting a conversational style to establish a relationship with the audience in order to persuade them to modify their behaviors or to take action as advised.
Therefore, the imperative mood here serves a dual function: a textual function and an interpersonal one. Most importantly, the use of imperative mood also signals a change in the direction of discourse. Placing the ‘if’ clause (i.e. ‘If someone in your family is mentally ill’) in the contextual frame of Clause 18 to re-introduce the subject of discussion, the intention of the ST producer is twofold:

1. to keep the audience ‘on their toes’; i.e. maintaining their attention on the issue being discussed;
2. to show a friendlier ‘face’ with the aim of persuading and convincing readers to take action and to change things.

Indeed, having discussed the issue of misconception and the reluctance among families of mentally ill patients to take action on the issue, by using the material process ‘try’ in imperative, the ST producer engages the audience in a ‘friendly’ dialogue which leads to further understanding of the issue. Therefore, instead of providing suggestions in a formal manner by using the modal ‘should’ (i.e. ‘you should seek as much information about the illness as possible’), the ST chooses a more informal approach (i.e. try to learn…’).

This signal has been missed or ignored by the translator. Clause 16 of the TT resorts to the conditional/situational phrase ‘in the case’ placed in the contextual frame to set the scene followed by the nominal group ‘your family’ as interactional Theme. The use of such a nominal group as Theme, does not reflect the textual strategy used in the ST, nor does it reflect truthfully what is intended, especially in the ensuing clause; i.e. Clause 19a (ST) and Clause 17 (TT).

**Clause 19a (ST) and Clause 17 (TT)**

‘It’, the subject and also Theme of Clause 17 of the TT, is used to replaced the deixis ‘this’ which anaphorically refers to the information provided in Clause 18 (ST) ‘[try] to learn as much about the illness as possible’. Subsequently, Clause 19a (ST) provides the explanation, ‘[because] this helps you know what to expect and how to cope with it’.

The pronominal ‘it’, in Clause 17 of the TT, despite being a ‘deixis’ and also referring to the information contained in the Rheme of the previous clause, ‘the more you know about this illness, the better’, is more definite and forceful due to the use of the modal auxiliary of determination ‘will’ which evokes a sense of certainty. In addition, although both ‘it’ and ‘this’ belong to the same classification, i.e. ‘deixis’, the former is obviously more general in its function as well as semantic implication (giving the impression of being impersonal and distant). On the other hand, ‘this’ is more specific and implies that the effort to learn more
about the illness is within an immediate vicinity (i.e. ‘here and now’), and thus more achievable.

Furthermore, while the information presented in the Rheme of Clause 19a of the ST refers to the proposed action as ‘this’ and explains vaguely that it will help the family to know ‘what to expect and how to cope with it’ (Clause 19a of the ST); the message of the TT is more specific in stating that ‘it will help you to understand more about the patient’s conditions and how to deal with them.’

Admittedly, the information provided in the TT is much clearer because it spells out what the family of a mentally ill patient should expect, but it also indicates the visibility and intervention of the TT producer. Moreover, what a family whose relative is mentally ill expects may not only be restricted to an awareness of the patient’s condition but may include other things such as types of treatment as well as possible side-effects and so on. This may explain why it has been deliberately not made explicit in the ST.

Clause 20a and 20b (ST) & Clause 19 and 20a and 20b (TT)

The information in the contextual frame of Clause 20a (ST) was discussed in the above section, however, it needs to be revisited here due to its important impact on the rest of the clause, especially on the interactional Theme.

‘Being informed…’ is thematised in the contextual frame and functions as an adjunct providing an additional reason for what has been mentioned previously concerning actions that families of a mentally ill person should take, for example obtaining information about the illness, communicating with mental health professionals, etc. It also marks a transition in the direction of discourse with the use of the adverbial ‘also’ as an additive adjunct; i.e. ‘can also stop you blaming yourself’. Therefore, ‘being informed’ plays an important role in making a link both to what has been previously discussed (anaphorical reference) and to what is about to be discussed (cataphorical reference).

The ensuing clause, begun with the interactional Theme ‘many families’, functions as an embedded clause used as an elaboration of what is expressed previously, and again reinforces the reason for which families need to be informed: ‘[they] feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness.’ Most important is the careful planning by the ST producer in contradicting the misperception of families by leaving the crucial piece of the information until the final position of the clause (Clause 20b), and thus making it New: ‘[but this] isn’t true’.

The contradictory clause (Clause 20b) starting with the conjunction ‘but’ plays the role of a contrastive adjunct, highlighting the feeling of frustration toward common
misconceptions about mental illness, and adding to the final comment which, though expressed in the negative, provides an essentially positive effect: ‘this isn’t true’.

In contrast, in Clause 19 of the TT the nominal group ‘Understanding more about mental illness’ placed in the Theme position strikes a different chord. ‘Understanding’ implies acquired knowledge and ability to grasp ideas and concepts as well as means something one already possesses; whereas ‘being informed’ entails the whole process of getting information and becoming educated. ‘Informed’ also means obtaining sufficient and reliable information in order to understand and make appropriate judgments or decisions.

Therefore, ‘càng hiểu nhiều về chứng bệnh chủng nào, càng tốt chứng này’ (lit. ‘the more understanding of the illness, the better’) may not be a good choice in this context. Furthermore, the utilisation of the modal ‘can’ in Clause 20a of the ST is an attempt to mitigate or somehow negate the level of responsibility which is often felt by the family regarding their relative’s mental illness. Clause 19 of the TT, with the use of the verb of assistance ‘help’ in declarative mood, fully exempts the family from being responsible for their relative’s mental issue; i.e. ‘helps prevent you from feeling guilty’.

This leads to Clause 20a of the TT in which, again, the exemption of responsibility shone through. Let’s not mention the structural issue where Clause 20a and 20b of the ST are divided into Clause 19 and 20a and 20b in the TT, and concentrate mainly on the thematic and rhematic elements of Clause 20a and 20b of the TT.

In Clause 20a of the ST, following the contextual frame, ‘many families’ is thematised as the interactional Theme of the clause, which is followed by the feeling that ‘they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness…’ In its corresponding clause in the TT, Clause 20a, however, ‘many families’ is replaced by ‘many people’. This change, apart from altering the meaning of the text, especially when ‘many people’ is used as Subject and Theme, may also unnecessarily disrupt the flow in discourse due to a change to register (i.e. as discussed above, by using the imperative mood to address the reader in Clause 18, the ST writer’s intention is to interact with the audience in order to persuade them to act on the advice). Also, instead of using a modal verb of probability (such as ‘may’) to explain that this may or may not be the cause of one’s relative’s mental illness, as intended in the ST, the translator resorts to the affirmative declarative mood with the relational process ‘be’ connecting Subject (Identifier/Token) to the ‘cause’ of the problem (Identified/Value) ‘they are the cause of their relative’s mental health problem’ and thus, attributing the certainty to the perceived issue.

This is followed by another affirmative declarative clause aided by the reinforcing effect of the adverbial of intensity ‘utterly’, in ‘but this is utterly groundless’ (Clause 20b).
Clause 21 (ST) & Clause 21a (TT)

‘Many factors’ is thematised signalling the introduction of New information to mark the transition to a new paragraph as well as the change to discourse with respect to the topic in discussion. On the other hand, the corresponding clause of the TT (Clause 21a), in an attempt to maintain the cohesion of the text, prefers the placement of ‘mental illness’ as Theme in the clause.

Although this approach does maintain text cohesion, it does not take into account the intention of the ST producer in the introduction of new ideas and concepts into the discourse in the succeeding clauses.

Going back to Clause 21 of the ST, its Subject and Theme is foregrounded to start afresh a new paragraph with the intention of presenting evidence in supporting the demystification of issues surrounding mental illness. This observation is also supported by the presence of existential Themes in three successive clauses. At this stage it is important to look first at how each stage of discourse has been planned and structured in order to produce the intended effect on the audience in this type of text; i.e. informative, but persuasive.

(d) Similarities and discrepancies between the ST and the TT in relation to thematic and discourse structures

The following simple schematic structure will illustrate the differences and similarities between the ST and the TT:
**SOURCE TEXT**

**Step 1**

a. **Introducing the issue**
Clause 1a – Clause 2: (Having someone … it’s still misunderstood.)

b. **Common misconceptions about mental illness**
Clause 3a – Clause 4b: (One fear … from a physical illness.)

c. **Impact of mental illness on family**
Clause 5 – Clause 8c: (Another problem … avoid visiting them.)

**Step 2**

d. **Advice on coping with mental illness**
Clause 9 – Clause 20b: (It’s important … but this isn’t true.)

(i) **Earlier detection, easier to treat.**
Clause 10 – Clause 15: (Like any illness – make things worse.)

(ii) **Seeking professional assistance and support**
Clause 16 – Clause 20b: (It is much better … but this isn’t true.)

(1) **Benefits to the patient**
Clause 16 – Clause 17 (It is much better … keep the person stable.)

(2) **Benefits to the family**
Clause 18 – Clause 19b (If someone in your family … or threatening suicide.)

**Step 3**

e. **Additional benefits - Possible causes**

(i) **Disaffirming self-blaming**
Clause 20a – Clause 20b: (Being informed … but this isn’t true)

(ii) **Possible causes of mental illness**
Clause 21a – Clause 22c: (Many factors … breakdown or even migration.)

**Step 4**

a. **Disaffirming feeling of being responsible**
Clause 23: (But no one … neither the patient nor the family.)

**TARGET TEXT**

**Step 1**

1. **Coping with mentally ill relative**
Clause 1a – Clause 1b: (Usually, if in your family… even more difficult.)

2. **Common misconceptions about mental illness**
Clause 2 – Clause 5: (And although … “unlike others” at all.)

3. **Impact of misconceptions on family**
Clause 6 – Clause 7d: (The above misconceptions … close to them.)

**Step 2**

4. **Advice on coping with mental illness**
Clause 8 – Clause 19: (What is important … prevent you from feeling guilty.)

a. **Earlier detection, easier to treat.**
Clause 9 – Clause 14: (Like other illnesses … the patient’s conditions worsen.)

b. **Seeking professional assistance and support**
Clause 15 – Clause 19: (The best way … from feeling guilty.)

**Step 3**

5. **Further misconception – Mental illness and its causes**

a. **False belief regarding causes of mental illness**
Clause 20a & 20b: (Many people … is utterly groundless.)

b. **Possible causes of mental illness**
Clause 21a – Clause 22: (Mental illness … marriage breakdown or even migration.)

**Step 4**

6. **Absolving of responsibility**
Clause 23 – Clause 24: (However, whatever happens … the fault of their family.)
Figure 5.17 shows that although similarities can be identified between the two texts, there are also many inevitable differences in every step of the texts.

1) Similarities and differences in Step 1 of the ST and the TT

Take, for example, Step 1 of the ST, where the issue is introduced through the use of the non-finite clause ‘Having someone in the family…’ which initiates the dialogue on the issue of mental illness; the TT, in contrast, sets the scene by suggesting a hypothetical situation where the family is having to care for a relative who is physically or mentally ill. Another major difference includes Point c of Step 1 in the ST and its corresponding point (Point 3) in the TT, where the impact of the relative’s mental illness on the family (Clause 5 – Clause 8c of the ST) is glossed over as the effect of the misconceptions of the illness on the family (Clause 6 – Clause 7d of the TT).

2) Similarities and differences in Step 2 of the ST and the TT

In Step 2 of the ST, Point (ii) describes the benefits of seeking professional assistance and support, including benefits to both the patient (Clause 16 – Clause 17) and family (Clause 18 – Clause 20b); the TT, on the other hand, only mentions the benefits that the family of the patient can enjoy (Clause 15 – Clause 19).

3) Similarities and differences in Step 3 of the ST and the TT

The major discrepancy, however, appears to be emphasised in Step 3 of the TT when Clause 20a and 20b points out the misconception of the family in relation to the cause of their relative’s mental problem, and then contradicts this false belief with reasons (Clause 21a – Clause 22). In comparison, Step 3 of the ST refers to additional benefits families can get in seeking help, which is the relief of feeling responsible for their relative’s mental illness and thus, the obtaining of ‘peace of mind’ (Clause 20a – Clause 20b). In addition, Step 3 also provides several possible causes of the illness to alleviate the family’s concern (Clause 21 – Clause 22c).

Finally, while Clause 22b of the ST simply states that one of several possible causes of mental illness is ‘chemical imbalance in the brain’, the TT (Clause 21c) offers a more detailed reason, stressing the main factor which is ‘the unusual reaction of chemicals causing imbalance in the brain’. Indeed, there is a significant difference between the issue of ‘chemical imbalance’ that interferes with the function of the brain, and ‘the unusual reaction of chemicals’ which causes its imbalance.
By the same token, the ST (Clause 22c) refers to ‘life stresses’ as another possible factor which causes mental illness; whereas Clause 22 of the TT, again, makes it more specific by attributing ‘life stresses’ to ‘anxiety’ and ‘stress due to unemployment’ (the original only refers to this as an example: i.e. ‘life stresses like unemployment…’)

The following table will illustrate these differences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 22b</td>
<td>… chemical imbalance in the brain</td>
<td>Clause 21c</td>
<td>… the unusual reaction of chemicals causing imbalance in the brain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 22c</td>
<td>… life stresses like unemployment…</td>
<td>Clause 22</td>
<td>… may be caused by anxiety, stress due to unemployment…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note also some striking differences among pieces of information conveyed in the rhematic structure of the ST and the TT. For instance, while Clause 20a of the ST, after advising the family of a mentally ill person to get informed, disaffirms the family’s self blame as being the cause of their relative’s mental illness with the contrastive clause ‘but this isn’t true’ (Clause 20b) with ‘isn’t true’ placed in the end-focus position; Clause 20b of the TT rejects this misconception by saying ‘but this is utterly groundless.’

Semantically, ‘truth’ implies ‘doubtlessness’ and thus invokes a high degree of credibility; whereas ‘groundlessness’ alludes to some element of doubt that needs to be supported by proof and evidence. Moreover, while in Clause 20b of the ST the contradiction is made simply and definitely without the support of an adverbial of intensity, its counterpart in the TT resorts to the modifier ‘hoàn toàn’ (i.e. ‘completely’, or ‘utterly’) to forcefully reject the statement made in the previous clause (Clause 20a of the TT).

As convincing as it may seem with the use of both the intensifier ‘utterly’ and the adjectival of denial ‘groundless’, Clause 20b of the TT lacks the objectivity intended in Clause 20b of the ST.

(4) **Similarities and differences in Step 4 of the ST and the TT**

But the visibility and idiosyncrasy of the translator becomes more noticeable in **Step 4** in which the ST producer makes a concluding remark by reassuring that ‘no one is to blame for the illness – neither the patient nor the family’ (Clause 23). The TT producer, however, first chastises the family of the patient ‘you can’t blame it on this person or that person’
before reassuring them that it’s not their fault as declared in Clause 24 of the TT ‘[If] mental illness happens [it is] not the patient’s fault nor is it the fault of their family’.

At this point there arises a question which needs to be addressed: ‘Does the change to the thematic structure of the TT cause a change to its meaning?’ or, ‘Is there any correlation between the change to the thematic structure of a text and its meaning when it is brought over to another language with a different linguistic and thematic structure?’

From the information receiver’s perspective the following questions are likely to be posed by both the ST producer and those who have commissioned the translation:

*Given the change made to the thematic structure of the TT as a whole, the question is whether:*

1. one would respond to the text as one does to the original?
2. one perceives the issue of mental health and mental illness differently to the way it was perceived before reading the information?
3. one would act on advice or recommendations as intended in the ST?
4. one has a better understanding of one’s role or responsibility in relation to caring and supporting the patient?

The above questions seem to reflect the criterion proposed by Nida (see Nida, 1964: 159; Nida & Taber, 1969: 24) in his translation equivalent principle, namely ‘equivalent effect’, which has since created a lot of controversial debate as well as receiving a lot of criticism including this one by Hu ‘… since there is no full equivalence, there is no practical criterion which measures full equivalence.’ (Hu 1992: 505)

However, given that ‘equivalent effect’ bases its principle on responses provided by members of the receptor language audience (or target language audience), it ideally would require feedback provided by a well selected focus group. Depending on what purpose this translation ‘equivalent effect’ survey aimed to achieve, the component of focus group participants would need to be carefully planned. This would include social and cultural background of participants, their age group, gender, and also educational background. And even if all of these factors were taken into account, it would still be considered subjective or lacking objectivity since individual text receivers would respond to a text differently depending on their personal backgrounds (including social, cultural, and educational backgrounds) as well as life experiences.

‘Equivalent effect’ or ‘equivalent response’ is strongly linked to translation evaluation and translation criticism. However, according to House (2001) translation evaluation, in general, is subjective and intuitive and thus raises the issue of validity and reliability. It also
results in disagreement due to individuals’ interest backgrounds and perceived personal
criteria for what should be considered as a ‘good’ or ‘acceptable’ translation. As Williams
(2009: 3) correctly points out: “whereas there is general agreement about the need for a
translation to be “good”, “satisfactory” or “acceptable”, the definition of acceptability and of
the means of determining it are matters of ongoing debate.”

Earlier in the research (Chapter I), the issue of equivalence was discussed which
explained why such a notion as “equivalence of response” proposed by Nida (1964) had
received strong criticism from various translation scholars. House (2001: 244) argues that
because Nida’s approach is based mainly on readers’ reaction and the main yardstick for
measuring a translation quality is its intelligibility and informativeness with the ultimate aim
being ‘equivalent effect’ or ‘equivalence of response’, and she challenges “whether it
possible to measure an “equivalent response”, let alone “informativeness” or “intelligibility.””

Moreover, by focusing entirely on the receptor language text receiver’s reaction, Nida’s approach completely ignores the existence of the source text and its relationship with
the target text which is often seen as the reproduction of the original in another language
system as well as another language environment. And the ST is essential for the existence of
the TT, or it can be said that without an original, there will be no translation and thus, a
translated text.

Therefore, in order to evaluate a translated text which is the reproduction of an
existing text, one will need to compare and contrast it against its original. Furthermore, in
order to perform the comparison and contrast in a relatively objective way, it is essential to
employ an analytical framework that can help eliminate as many subjective elements as
possible.

From a functional perspective, the above questions seem to focus on one of the most
essential requirements in translation: whether the TT serves the same function as intended in
the ST. It would appear so far that the implementation of thematic progression, or method of
development, as a cross text linguistic analytical tool has resulted in some productive and
insightful outcomes, which are able to address satisfactorily the above questions.

And as shown in Example 4.1 of Chapter IV, any change in thematic progression of
a text no matter how minimum it is results in shifts not only in the thematic principle of the
text, but also has significant semantic consequences on its meaning and thus its function.

In order to answer these questions, then, it is necessary to compare the ST with the TT
using their thematic progression or thematic patterns and identify the similarities and
differences in the patterns. Also lexical elements, or semantically related elements, that are
picked up and used as Themes in general, should be examined due to their importance in constructing and contributing to the discourse of the text.

Mapping out and comparing the thematic structure of the TT to that of the ST will help highlight the similarities and differences between the two. This diagram, then, will be contrasted against the schematic structure of the original and translated texts to locate points where discourse changes its direction.

By examining the two diagrams representing the ST and TT thematic progression and looking at the way Themes are constructed, it can said that Theme does not always function as Topic but rather provides a framework for the interpretation of the clause. It signals to the reader what can be expected in Rheme.

In the diagrams, the circled items are identified in the rhematic region of the text functioning as semantic resources to which Themes of certain clauses can refer, or from which retrieve information, to feed into discourse of the entire text. These items also play an important role in maintaining the text cohesion as well as keeping track of the thread of discourse.

Similarly, there are items in the diamond-shaped boxes which are found in either the contextual frame or thematic areas. They function as signposts (Butt et all 2000), orienting the audience as to the direction of the discourse and helping them interpret the information deposited in the rhematic region. As discussed earlier, sometimes they also play the role of a depository box where previously discussed ideas are stored and referred to when the text unfolds. A close inspection of the thematic structures of the ST and the TT reveals differences in Theme-Rheme patterns between the two texts.

It can be said that the ST producer relies on a linear thematic pattern to develop the text and maintain its cohesion; while the translator prefers a constant thematic and rhematic structure. This approach, although still keeping the TT cohesive, influences the method of development of the TT in at least two aspects; namely its discourse semantics and its overall textual meaning.

When comparing the schematic structure of the ST to that of the TT (Figure 5.17), and then the schematic structure of these texts with their thematic patterns, there are differences among points in the steps of the two texts. These differences coincide with changes in the thematic structure of the TT as compared to the ST. Below, to avoid possible repetition and overlapping, only at the points where differences in the TT are significant as compared to that of the ST, will their thematic patterns be examined and discussed.
In Figure 5.19a, the Theme of Clause 1a of the ST presents the issue of having to cope with a relative who has an illness in general before moving to compare this with the coping with a relative who is mentally ill; whereas in the TT the contextual frame of Clause 1a hypothesises a situation where the family has a relative who is either physically or mentally ill and the problem of having to cope with the person.

In Figure 5.19b, the Theme of Clause 1a of the ST presents the issue of having to cope with a relative who has an illness in general before moving to compare this with the coping with a relative who is mentally ill; whereas in the TT the contextual frame of Clause 1a hypothesises a situation where the family has a relative who is either physically or mentally ill and the problem of having to cope with the person.
**Figure 5.19b** indicates the difference in Clause 5 of the ST and its corresponding clause (Clause 6) in the TT in which the Theme of Clause 5 raises a concern about people’s attitudes toward the mentally ill patient which impacts on the family; whereas the TT blames it on misconceptions of the illness and the affect of this on the patient’s family.

**Figure 5.19c**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
<td><strong>(ii) Seeking professional assistance and support</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>(1) Benefits to the patient</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>(2) Benefits to the family</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Earlier in this chapter comments were made about the difference between the thematised comment of Clause 16 of the ST and its counterpart, namely the thematised comment of Clause 15 of the TT, in which both use an implicit subjective modality to attribute an evaluation to its statement. However, while the ST uses a comparative adjective (‘better’), which is modified by an adverbial of intensity (‘much’), the TT chooses an evaluative element in the superlative (‘best’) to stress the approach suggested by the text producer.

However, a major and the most significant difference between the original and its translated texts is identified in Clause 17 of the ST and its corresponding clause of the TT (also Clause 17).

On the one hand, the Subject and also Theme of Clause 17 of the ST refer to the information provided in the rhematic region of the preceding clause (Clause 16 of the ST) and explain that the recommended action will help ‘to control the illness and keep the person...
stable’. Therefore, it does not only benefit the family who has to care and support their relative with mental illness, but no doubt it also benefits the patient.

In the TT, on the other hand, the information provided in the rhematic zone of Clause 17 simply mentions that the seeking of professional assistance will help the family ‘understand more about the patient’s conditions and how to deal with them’. Thus, it ignores the benefits the advice can bring to the patient’s condition and wellbeing, and mainly focuses on the family’s interests.

Figure 5.19d  
Generic structure of Step 3 of the ST and the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause CF Theme Rheme</td>
<td>Clause CF Theme Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20a CF20 = R18 T20a = T18 = R6 R20a = R2</td>
<td>20a T20a = T12 (families) R20a = R2 (mis-conception)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20b Structural: Contrastive T20b = R20a R20b</td>
<td>20b T20b = R20a R20b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 T21 (possible factors) R21 = R1b</td>
<td>21a T21a = R1b R21a (possible factors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22a T22a = Exist. Th. R22a = T21</td>
<td>21b T21b = T21a R21b = R21a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22b T22b = Exist. Th. R22b = T21</td>
<td>21c T21c = T21a R21c = R21a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22c T22c = Exist. Th. R22c = T21</td>
<td>22 T22 = T21a R22 = R21a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 3  
**Additional benefits - Possible causes of mental illness**

(i) Disaffirming self-blaming
(ii) Possible causes of mental illness

Step 3  
**5. Further misconception – Mental illness and its causes**

a. False belief regarding causes of mental illness
b. Possible causes of mental illness

In Clause 21 of the ST, the nominal group ‘many factors’ is thematised which reflects the ST producer’s intention to draws the reader’s attention to the most important misconception concerning mental illness: the family’s false belief that they are the cause of their relative’s illness.

By foregrounding the nominal group ‘many factors’ and making it New information, and thus marked, the intention of the ST producer is to put at rest this important issue which is very close to home: ‘blaming of self for the problem’.

By referring to ‘many factors’ as New information, the present discussion bases its argument on both Firbas’ notion (see Firbas 1964, 1966, 1974, 1986, 1992), and particularly Halliday & Matthiessen’s definition of New (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 91):
information that is presented by the speaker as recoverable (Given) or not recoverable (New) to the listener. What is treated as recoverable may be so because it has been mentioned before; but that is not the only possibility. It may be something that is in the situation...; or something that is not around at all but the speaker wants to present as Given for rhetorical purposes. The meaning is: this is not news. Similarly, what is treated as non-recoverable may be something that has not been mentioned; but it may be something unexpected, whether previously mentioned or not.

Indeed, ‘many factors’ has never been mentioned anywhere in the text previously (and thus it is non-recoverable), nor would it be expected to appear in the paragraph starting with the non-finite clause ‘Being informed’.

According to Eggins (1997), the use of a marked Theme often signals a change in the direction of discourse. And this is evident in the way the ensuing discourse develops as the text unfolds. In the next three consecutive clauses the ST writer, using existential Themes and with the support of the modal ‘can’ indicating a low degree of certainty, refers to three possible factors which are presented in the rhematic region of Clause 22a, 22b and 22c.

Of even greater significance is the use of active voice in Clause 21 of the ST. Using the material process ‘combine’ in an active form with ‘many factors’ as Subject and Actor, the writer’s intention is to emphasise that it is a complexity of reasons that causes mental illness, and not the family. In effect, this textual strategy helps mitigate the family’s responsibility for their relative’s condition.

This is confirmed in Clause 23 at the end of the ST.

The TT producer, however, in choosing ‘mental illness’ as Subject and Theme of a clause in passive voice (Clause 21a), subsequently makes it a ‘victim’ of ‘many factors’. This textual strategy does not have the same emphatic effect as in the ST, nor does it help alleviate the feeling of being responsible held by the family of the patient.

Furthermore, whereas the original text producer expresses reservation in making claims about the possible factors by using the modal ‘can’ in a hedging statement, the translator expresses certainty about the causes of mental illness with the use of the relational process ‘be’ in the affirmative declarative mood.

Moving a step back, we examine Clause 20a and 20b of the TT whose message is supposed to mirror the message of Clause 20a and 20b of the ST. However, while in the ST the message is about getting information and becoming informed about the problem in order to release oneself of the feeling of being responsible, the TT describes another misconception in which people believe they are the cause of their relative’s illness.

Following the discourse flow, perhaps because of the earlier statement about how better understanding of mental illness can help prevent people from ‘feeling guilty’, the TT producer may feel a need to provide an explanation. And therefore, after condemning the
above view by saying ‘this is groundless’ (Clause 20b), the translator then moves to offer some explanation regarding possible causes of the problem (Clause 21a).

Figure 5.19e

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause</strong></td>
<td><strong>CF</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Structural:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contradictive:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>CF:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situational =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>6. Absolving of responsibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5.19e** illustrates a further mismatch between the ST and the TT in relation to a shift in the thematic structure. It helps highlight the impact caused by a different choice of Theme on both the structure and the meaning of a particular clause.

Here, because both structural Theme and contextual frame influence the meaning of the whole clause, they are included for ease of discussion.

Following Clause 21 of the ST, Clause 22a, 22b and 22c present possible factors which may cause mental illness in order to reject a wrong belief that mental illness is caused by the family, with Clause 23 of the ST offering a final edict that no one should be blamed for this. In addition to the use of the conjunction ‘but’ as a contradicting force, the ST writer also uses the impersonal pronominal ‘no one’ as Subject and Theme of the clause, to stress the affirmativeness of the statement of counterargument. This, in effect, makes the tone of the language firm and definitive: ‘But no one is to blame for the illness – neither the patient nor the family’.

In the TT, on the contrary, the statement is made in two clauses, namely Clause 23 and 24. In Clause 23, although the translator contradicts the misconception of being responsible for the illness (‘however’), the use of first, an unspecified event (i.e. whatever happens’) in the contextual frame, followed by the hedging with the modal verb ‘can’ in the negative as the auxiliary before the main verb ‘blame’ in the rhematic zone, weakens the tone of the language.

This further diminishes the effect of the statement of disclaiming responsibility by the thematisation of a conditional clause in the contextual frame of the final clause (Clause 24) ‘If mental illness happens’, before brushing aside the responsibility ‘it’s not the patient’s fault nor is it the fault of their family.’
5.5 THEMATIC FUNCTION AND METHOD OF DEVELOPMENT: ARGUMENT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF PROBLEM-SOLUTION PATTERN

As discussed in Chapter IV with the use of Example 1 as subject for discussion, health information texts in general have the structure of ‘Problem-Solution Pattern’ in which, for example, a problem may be raised in Theme and a corresponding solution included in Rheme. However for longer texts, such as a paragraph or a whole passage, the pattern may be constructed differently (see Hoey 1983, 2001, and 2006).

A problem often stems from a situation and may require a response or solution. Hoey prefers the term ‘Response’ because it “does not carry any implications of success” (2006: 112). Also, according to Hoey (2006) the classic problem-solution pattern comprises the following elements:

Situation → Problem → Response → Result → Evaluation

Although Hoey (2006) maintains that Situation may be optional and Result and Evaluation may be subsumed into one, he also adds that depending on the nature of a text there are other variants, as will be seen in the below analysis. For Hoey, “[the] defining elements are the Problem (an aspect of the Situation requiring a Response) and the Response, which may be reported, projected, or recommended.” (ibid: 112)

However, following on a research conducted by Jordan (1980) into structures of technical/scientific texts, there are texts which consist of only ‘Situation → Evaluation’ but no Problem; there are other texts with Situation identified as Problem; and yet others containing mainly Solution. Due to the scope of the present research these variants will not be looked at in detail (for more detailed discussion see Jordan 1980).

As far as structures of Problem-Solution pattern are concerned, Hoey (2006: ibid) sees them as “recurrent combinations of clause relations … that function together in such a way that they are perceived as having an existence independent of the relations out of which they are constructed.” This type of pattern can be found in a stretch of language of any length; namely it can be a clause, a paragraph or a larger piece of text “since there is no special association of the pattern with paragraph structure or paragraph boundaries” (see Hoey 2006: 112; also see Jordan 1980).

Returning to the issue of Problem-Solution pattern in text, and looking at Example 5.3 in which the information provided is intended for families with a relative who is mentally ill, the text presents a Situation, being a family with a mentally ill relative, and an issue or Problem being how to cope with this problem (or issue).
As the text unfolds it reveals the fact that the problem of coping is manifold. It is not restricted only to supporting and caring for the patient, but also involves the issue of having to deal with the social isolation and prejudice arising from people’s misconceptions about mental illness. Moreover, the family of a mentally ill patient also has to experience social stigma due to certain cultural or religious beliefs. These include people’s attitudes toward patient’s behaviours which may manifest due to symptoms being ignored by family, or to inappropriate diagnosis and treatment, or simply to a lack of understanding of the magnitude of the problem.

Examining the text in detail helps us understand how the above issues are described and addressed in the text, and how information is organised and meaning expressed using various textual strategies. As far as the organisation of text is concerned there are various approaches which can help answer questions about the text structure and provide insightful information about various aspects of its textual representation. However, one particular approach which takes into account both micro and macro aspects of a text’s textual component is the study of its thematic structure.

By analysing the thematic structure of the text or its Theme-Rheme distribution at the clausal level and subsequently its thematic networks or thematic progression, we are able to follow the overall flow of information throughout the text. Also, incorporating the Problem-Solution pattern as an analytical model into the examination of first the ST and then TT, will help highlight areas where similarities and differences are caused by shifts due to different choices of Themes in the TT.

Below, Themes and Rhemes of the ST will be examined to identify the role they play in the Problem-Solution Pattern as well as what language feature indicates this role. It should be noted from the outset that the term ‘Theme’ is used generally to label elements appearing both in the contextual frame (in square brackets) as well as in the experiential Theme (informational and interactional Theme) of the clause. It is believed that these elements are essential for the interpretation of not only the distribution of Theme-Rheme in the text, but also the text’s Problem-Solution pattern. Also, Problem may coincide with the Theme of a clause and Solution with its Rheme; however, the Problem-Solution pattern and relevant elements may span more than one clause or may cover the whole paragraph depending on the purpose of the text as well as its structure.
5.5.1 **Theme-Rheme structure and Problem-Solution structure of the Source Text**

As far as the function of Theme is concerned, in the first clause of the ST (Clause 1a) its Theme (T1a) presents the issue that will be dealt with in the succeeding clauses ‘coping with a family member with a chronic illness’. The non-finite clause ‘having someone in the family with a chronic physical illness…’ (Theme of Clause 1a) of the clause complex presents a Situation in which a Problem (‘hard to cope with’) arises.

In Clause 1b, the Problem in Rheme of Clause 1a (‘it can be worse’ referring to ‘coping’) is picked up and made Theme of the clause; on the other hand, the Situation is referred to in the Rheme of the clause (‘for families living with a relative who is … mentally ill’). **Figure 20a** shows the relationship between the thematic structure of the clause complex and its problem-solution structure:

**Figure 5.20a** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 1a and 1b of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation (\rightarrow)</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1a</td>
<td>Having someone in the family…</td>
<td>can be hard to cope with –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem (\leftarrow)</td>
<td>Situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1b</td>
<td>[but] it</td>
<td>can be worse … but mentally ill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5.20a** also indicates that the problem-solution structure of Clause 1a and 1b shares the same zigzag pattern with these clauses. In the above diagram, the arrows show the direction of the thematic progression of the text. The pattern reoccurs in Clause 2 with the Situation presented in its contextual frame as well as in Theme (‘Although mental illness is so common… it’) and the Problem highlighted in Rheme of the clause (‘is still misunderstood’).

**Figure 5.20b** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 2 of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation (\rightarrow)</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 2</td>
<td>[Although mental illness is so common…] it</td>
<td>[is] still misunderstood.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is followed by Clause 3a in which the Problem is stated as the Premise (in Rheme: i.e. ‘mentally ill people are violent’), which is brought up for discussion. This is
repeated as Theme in Clause 3b, which is preceded by the conjunction of contradiction ‘yet’, and a Response is also signalled in its Rheme, as illustrated in Figure 5.20c.

Figure 5.20c  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 3a and 3b of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3a</td>
<td>Misconception → One fear … is that people who are mentally ill are violent – ✅</td>
<td>Problem → Premise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3b</td>
<td>… most people with a mental illness aren’t violent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates that such a text genre, namely health information pamphlet, with its primary goal being to provide information for educational purposes, will be constructed in such a way that it tries to convince readers to make a change or to take some action. In doing so it will first need to address any misconceptions surrounding the issue by providing explanations or counterargument. This tendency is reflected in the structure of the next two clauses; i.e. Clause 4a and 4b:

Figure 5.20d  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 4a and 4b of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 4a</td>
<td>Misconception → there is [the idea that ]… if someone has recovered from a mental illness like a &quot;nervous breakdown&quot;, they are still mentally &quot;weak&quot; in some way- ✅</td>
<td>Problem → Premise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 4b</td>
<td>… people with a mental illness can have a full recovery just the same as anyone can recover completely from a physical illness.</td>
<td>Counterargument</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, the linear thematic progression of Clause 4a and Clause 4b, which is a zigzag pattern, helps to make the text cohesive and the counterargument decisive and convincing. The nominal group ‘another problem’ is thematised in Clause 5 and the detail of this ‘problem’ is explained in the Rheme of the same clause. Clause 6 then picks up the information about this problem and makes it its Theme, which involves people’s ‘attitudes’. The impact of these attitudes on the family is explained in Rheme.

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This impact will be referred to as Ramification. Figure 5.20e will illustrate the relationship between Problem and Ramification:

**Figure 5.20e** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 5 and Clause 6 of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem →</strong></td>
<td><strong>Problem →</strong> Ramification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 5</td>
<td>Another problem</td>
<td>is a lot of people feel very uneasy or embarrassed if a mentally ill person behaves in an unusual or different way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 6</td>
<td>Attitudes like these</td>
<td>even make families of mentally ill patients suffer more.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next four clauses (Clause 7 – Clause 8c) the impact on the family is explained in the rhematic region of the clauses with the family being the affected participant (or receiver) of the ramification (or consequence) in the Theme position (except for Clause 8b in which a thematised comment is used instead). Figure 5.20f will explain what has been discussed so far:

**Figure 5.20f** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 7 to Clause 8c of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affected participant</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 7</td>
<td>Some families</td>
<td>feel they have to hide their relative’s illness from the rest of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 8a</td>
<td>[Or] they</td>
<td>may feel isolated,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 8b</td>
<td>[either because] it’s difficult to invite people home,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affected participant</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 8c</td>
<td>[or because] they</td>
<td>may be shunned by other people – including other members of their family who avoid visiting them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The direction of the arrows indicates either the thematic or the semantic relation between elements, or both; for example the double-headed arrow implies the connection is established with both the preceding and succeeding clauses, whereas the diagonal arrow shows the direction of the thematic progression, in this case a linear pattern.
From Clause 9 to Clause 15 the text moves to the Response stage; namely an attempt to address the issue of coping in relation to common misconceptions of mental illness, as well as with people’s attitudes toward a mentally ill patient.

First, it suggests that families should seek assistance in order to have their relative’s condition properly diagnosed (Clause 9 – Clause 10); then it describes the scenario in which problems may arise if such advice is not properly followed (Clause 11 – Clause 15). And it does this with the help of a thematised comment in Theme of Clause 9. In this clause, to signal the beginning of a proposal the ST employs an evaluative structure to emphasise its significance (see Figure 5.20g), thus making it persuasive. It then goes on to describe the problem families may face if they ignore the patient’s symptoms.

Logically and semantically there seems to be a gap between Clause 9 and Clause 10 in which after advising the family not to ‘try to cope with the problem alone’ implying that ‘help’ should be sought, the text jumps to the reason for early diagnosis.

This abrupt change in the flow of logical order in the text may make a reader wonder what is the connection between coping and early detection. As far as the structure of Clause 10 is concerned, as a clause complex with the main clause thematised and the ‘if’- conditional clause left in the Rheme position, it is considered thematically marked. This textual strategy has the effect of drawing the reader’s attention to the end-focus of the main clause; that is, ‘[mental illness] can be treated more easily’.

Note also that the prepositional group ‘like any illness’ in the contextual frame works as a pointer directing the attention of the reader to the comparison of treatment between mental illness and other illnesses. With New information deposited in Theme of Clause 10 suggesting that mental illness ‘can be treated more easily’ if it satisfies the requirement for this to happen; i.e. ‘if it’s detected early’, it highlights the importance of early detection for the benefit of more effective treatment. Figure 5.20g depicts how the Themes of these clauses are organised to achieve this aim.
Figure 5.20g  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 9 to Clause 15 of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 9</strong></td>
<td><strong>Proposal</strong></td>
<td><strong>Proposed Action</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It’s important</td>
<td>that families in this situation don’t try to cope with the problem alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reason</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 10</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Like other illness mental illness can be treated more easily</td>
<td>if it's detected early.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Situation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 11</strong></td>
<td>Sometimes families</td>
<td>ignore the symptoms of mental illness, hoping things will get better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ramification</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 12a</strong></td>
<td>But the chances are things</td>
<td>will get worse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 12b</strong></td>
<td>[and] the person</td>
<td>may need to be hospitalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 12c</strong></td>
<td>[when] they</td>
<td>could have been treated at home if they’d been diagnosed earlier.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 13</strong></td>
<td>The same</td>
<td>goes for families living with a relative who has been diagnosed with an illness such as schizophrenia or manic depression, for instance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Situation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 14</strong></td>
<td>If they begin to behave strangely or refuse to take medication that helps control their illness, it can be tempting</td>
<td>to hope the problem will pass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause 15</strong></td>
<td>[But] this</td>
<td>can make things worse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The direction of diagonally left-downward pointing arrows in the rhematic region shows the relationship between Theme-Rheme as well as their distribution in the text and the text’s method of development or its thematic progression. Except for the Theme of Clause 9, which is a thematised comment working as an introduction to the new paragraph, the remaining stretch of the text follows a zigzag pattern which, according to Eggins (2004: 325) “achieves cohesion by building on newly introduced information. This gives the text a sense of cumulative development [which may not be found in a constant Theme pattern].”

Clause 16, using a thematised comment as a Proposal in the Problem-Solution pattern, carries an evaluative statement attributing importance to the suggestion (Proposed Action) made in the rhematic region. This is followed by the reason (Desired Outcome) given in the Rheme of Clause 17 concerning the benefit it gives to the patient about the suggestion made in the previous clause (Clause 16).
Figure 5.20h  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 16 and Clause 17 of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME Proposal</th>
<th>RHEME Proposed Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 16</td>
<td>It is much better</td>
<td>to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 17</td>
<td>This makes it easier</td>
<td>to control the illness and keep the person stable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Up to this point the text is persuasive and consistent in its advice for families to take appropriate actions in order to help their relative with illness management and condition stability. The contextual frame of Clause 18 restates the situation (the problem), and by using an interactional Theme in the imperative mood the writer initiates a direct dialogue with the audience, encouraging them to learn more about the illness their relative suffers and thus providing a solution and also a proposed action (see Figure 5.20i). The use of an if-clause (Clause 18 of the ST) as a preposed structure to indicate thematic reorientation enhances the text coherence by connecting it anaphorically to the previous episode of the text (Proposal →Proposed Action → Desired Outcome) and linking it cataphorically to what the audience are expecting to read; i.e. an explanation for the proposed action.

Clause 19a and 19b, then, highlights the purpose of this proposed action; i.e. explaining the reason for the proposed action. This is also repeated in the contextual frame of Clause 20a, but this time it is more to do with reassuring the family. Moreover, while the Rheme of Clause 20a explains why the action should be taken: that is, in response to the family’s false belief that they may be the cause of their relative’s illness, the Rheme of Clause 20b contradicts this false belief.

Figure 5.20i in the next page explains how the thematic structure is organised to achieve this purpose.
Figure 5.20i  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 18 and Clause 20b of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation → Problem →</td>
<td>Solution → Proposed Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 18</td>
<td>If someone in your family is mentally ill, try</td>
<td>to learn as much about the illness as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proposed Action →</td>
<td>Reason for Proposed Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 19a</td>
<td>This</td>
<td>helps you know what to expect and how to cope with it –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mental health workers</td>
<td>can give you advice on how to cope with and communicate with someone who is having delusions or hallucinations, for example, or someone who is depressed or threatening suicide.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a</td>
<td>Being informed</td>
<td>can also stop you blaming yourself –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Situation →</td>
<td>Problem → Misconception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a</td>
<td>many families</td>
<td>feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>Premise</td>
<td>Counterargument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20b</td>
<td>[but] this</td>
<td>isn’t true.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that Clause 20a is split further into two closely related paratactic clauses (Clause 20a (1) and Clause 20a (2)) with the latter helping to explain the statement posed in Rheme of the former. Note also the correlation between the Rhemes in the preceding clauses and their corresponding Themes in the successive clauses and their Problem-Solution patterns; namely Proposed Action → Desired Outcome in Clause 18 – Clause 20a (1). Particularly, note the Rheme of Clause 20a (1). It, in fact, provides a Situation in which a Problem (Misconception) arises.

This, in turn, provides the Premise for the Counterargument to take place in the Rheme of Clause 20a (2).

Most significant is the distribution of Theme and Rheme in Clause 21 in which ‘many factors’ is thematised as a marked Theme signalling a transition to another stage in the discourse of the text. The indefinite nominal group ‘many factors’ in the Theme position takes on the task of informing a thematic discontinuity. It also marks a redirection of the present argument, bringing on an important issue which needs to be addressed and finally answering: what is or who is the cause of the problem (mental illness)?
Indeed, using ‘many factors’ as Theme, the ST producer signals a change of topic of discussion; i.e. the issue of ‘mental illness’ and instead looks at its cause. In doing this the text producer’s intention is twofold:

- To move the discussion forward in preparation for the conclusion;
- Through the use of two material processes (‘combine’ and ‘cause’) one after another in the active voice to create a double impact, to make ‘many factors’ the ‘protagonist’ of the remaining discussion, and in effect remove the ‘family’ from the equation completely.

Following the tone of language as well as the stage of argument in Clause 20b, the Themes of Clause 21 to Clause 22c appear to provide premise for the text’s counterargument which is presented in Rheme, as illustrated below:

**Figure 5.20j** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 20b and Clause 22c of the ST

| SOURCE TEXT |
|---|---|---|
| **Clause** | **THEME** | **RHEME** |
| | Premise | Counterargument |
| Clause 20b | [but] this | isn’t true. |
| | Possible causes | of Problem |
| Clause 21 | Many factors | can combine to cause mental illness. |
| Clause 22a | there may be | a chemical imbalance in the brain, |
| Clause 22b | [there may be] | |
| Clause 22c | there may be | life stresses like unemployment, |
| | | retirement, breakdown or even migration. |

The direction of the arrows, in particular the diagonal ones, shows both the clausal interrelation and thematic correlation between the clauses and the distribution of Themes and Rhemes, as well as between the thematic structure and Problem-Solution structure of the text as a whole.

As predicted, in preparation for the conclusion the aim of the ST writer is to release the family of a mentally ill patient from blame and other misconceptions regarding the cause of mental illness. The text so far has led the audience through various stages of discussion. In the final stage of the current discussion it moves away from the external factors, which have significant impact on the family and the way they cope with the situation, to concentrate on the main issue, the one closer to home: that ‘the family blame themselves for the problem’.
After describing three factors as possible causes of the problem, the writer offers a definite and firm conclusion which has the effect of putting the issue at rest. Using ‘no-one’, the impersonal pronoun, in the Theme position, and with the support of ‘but’ the conjunction of contradiction as Structural Theme, the ST producer strongly asserts the ‘all-out’ counterargument: ‘but no one is to blame for the illness…’

What is more significant is the delay in providing an elaboration of the idea by using a dash between ‘but no one is to blame for the illness’ and the final phrase of the text. This has a similar effect of a pause in a face-to-face conversation in which a speaker employs ‘pause’ as a suspending device to draw his/her listeners’ attention and make them feel what is about to be announced is of considerable importance. In so doing in the written form, the ST producer places emphasis on the end-focus of the clause, thus pointing the floodlight on the most significantly affected participants in the whole dialogue for which the following reconstruction of the clause will not give the same emotive effect: ‘neither the patient nor the family [are to blame for the illness]’.

**Figure 5.20k** explains how this impact can be achieved:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME Affirmation</th>
<th>RHEME of Counterargument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 23</td>
<td>[But] no one</td>
<td>is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above it has been shown how the ST achieves its goals through the use of thematic structure. Also shown have been the various stages of the method of development in which Themes play an important role in both the development of ideas and their expansion to make the text cohesive and coherent. A significant observation which needs to be stated here is how the text uses its thematic structure to make the message persuasive and thus helps encourage the audience to take actions enabling them to cope with the problem at hand: *issues surrounding a relative with a mental condition*. It does this by employing various textual strategies, but mostly by involving the use of thematic structure.

Now attention will turn to examination of the TT.
5.5.2 Theme-Rheme structure and Problem-Solution structure of the Target Text

In this section similarities between the ST and TT will be ignored. Instead the focus will mainly be on the differences between these two texts. In order to assist with the discussion Figure 5.21, following, will be used to illustrate the similarities and differences in the problem-solution pattern of the texts. A more detailed illustration of the correlation between the thematic and problem-solution structures of the texts will be found in the Appendix. It should be noted that where there seems to be some similarity this may be superficial and difference may still be found. This too will be discussed.

As far as thematic structure is concerned, emphasis will be placed on any shifts which affect the distribution of Theme and Rheme of the text and result in semantic consequences. Also, as discussed in the above section, for the purpose of the present discussion contextual frame and experiential Theme of the clause will be subsumed and generally labelled as Theme.

A comparison between the schematic structure of the problem-solution pattern of the TT and its original counterpart reveals only a slight difference in relation to stages of the text development. Both seem to share such elements as Introduction, Misconception, Response, Consequence, and Conclusion. However, the ST has a higher number of Response elements than the TT due to the fact that the latter provides no Response to the element of Attitude (this will be discussed in more detail in due course). Also, while in the ST the point on ‘Reason for acting on proposals’ explains the benefits enjoyed by patients and their families in relation to the act of seeking support and advice, the TT only discusses the benefits to the families.

At the macro level, these differences have both structural and semantic consequences due to the type of the text (informational text) as well as its function (informative and persuasive). Consequently, the omission throws doubt not only on the accuracy of the translation, but also its effectiveness in attempting to convince the audience to change their perspective, adopt ideas/proposals and subsequently take action as intended in the ST.

A more detailed discussion will be made when each of the above points is analysed more thoroughly below.
Figure 5.21 The mapping of the thematic structures onto the Problem-Solution patterns

SOURCE TEXT

FUNCTION/INTENDED MESSAGE

INTRODUCING ISSUE
Coping with relative who is physically/mentally ill
↓

MISCONCEPTION (1)
Mental illness is common but is still misunderstood.
Mentally ill patients are violent
↓

RESPONSE (1)
Most patient aren’t violent

MISCONCEPTION (2)
Mentally ill patients can’t fully recover
↓

RESPONSE (2)
Patients can have a full recovery

ATTITUDE (3)
People’s attitudes towards mentally ill patients
↓

CONSEQUENCE
Negative impact on family
↓

RESPONSE (3)
(a) Proposed Action
Getting help: early detection, easier treatment
↓
(b) Potential consequences for not taking action
Ignoring symptoms will make things worse.
Patients may have to be hospitalized instead of being treated at home.
↓
(c) Reasons for acting on proposals
Patients: getting support and advice from professionals helps make the patient’s condition more stable, and helps family cope better.
↓
(d) Reasons for acting on proposals
Families: being informed helps family cope better

MISCONCEPTION (4)
Family may be a possible cause of mental illness
↓

RESPONSE (4)
Total rejection of false belief
↓

Possible causes of mental illness
Genetic factor
Chemical factor
Environmental factor
↓

CONCLUSION
Reaffirming the rejection of false belief and misconceptions

TARGET TEXT

FUNCTION/INTENDED MESSAGE

INTRODUCING ISSUE
Caring for relative who is physically/mentally ill
↓

MISCONCEPTION (1)
Mental illness affects one in every four people, but is not completely by many people; e.g. patients are violent
↓

RESPONSE (1)
This is not completely correct.

MISCONCEPTION (2)
Patients are not completely cured
People feel uncomfortable with the patient
↓

CONSEQUENCE
Negative impact on families
↓

RESPONSE (2)
(a) Proposed Action
Seeking help
↓
(b) Potential consequences for not taking action
Ignoring unusual symptoms will make the situation worsen and patients may need to be hospitalized.
↓
(c) Reasons for acting on proposals
Approaching professionals for advice on how to comfort and care for patients is the best option.
↓

MISCONCEPTION (3)
Families’ guilty feelings for being the cause of relative’s illness
↓

RESPONSE (3)
Contradiction against misconceptions
↓
(a) Proposed Solution
The more understanding of the illness, the better.
↓
(e) Explanation for Proposed Solution
Families: understanding also helps release from guilty feelings.
↓

Causes of mental illness
Genetic factor
Chemical factor
Environmental factor
↓

CONCLUSION
Counterargument: Don’t blame others or self if mental illness occurs. It is no one’s fault
The first port of call which indicates an obvious difference is Clause 1a of the TT in which, by using an ‘if’- clause (in the contextual frame), the TT producer presents a hypothetical condition/situation which the family of a person who is physically or mentally ill is forced to face: coping with the situation and the resulting problem it may create. Semantically, the specific use of term ‘sân sóc’ (‘care for’ or ‘caring for’) to render ‘coping’ placed in the rhematic region of Clause 1a and repeated in that of Clause 1b would lead the audience to the belief that the main problem one has to deal with is to care for the patient, as depicted in the following diagram:

**Figure 5.22a** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 1a and 1b of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1a</td>
<td>Situation →</td>
<td>a person with chronic [physical] illness, worries, [and] care are hard to cope with;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1b</td>
<td>let alone if [your] relative</td>
<td>suffers a mental illness, then care is even more difficult, [and] strenuous.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note also that Rheme of Clause 1b presents a Situation but also a Problem. Another difference in meaning between Clause 2 of the ST and the corresponding clause of the TT is caused by the emphasis on statistical elements. Though minor it may seem, the impact on meaning presented in the clause is not insignificant, as indicated in **Figure 5.22b**:

**Figure 5.22b** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 2 of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 2</td>
<td>Situation →</td>
<td>still many people who do not thoroughly understand the above illnesses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main concern here is that while in the contextual frame Clause 2 of the ST the writer uses the intensifier ‘so’ to modify the adjective ‘common’ and stresses this ‘commonness’ by way of supplying the statistic (‘one in four people’), the translator completely misses the emphatic strength of the original. Adding to this discrepancy, the Rheme of Clause 2 of the TT only indicates that the worry is ‘many people … do not thoroughly understand the above illnesses’, whereas the original sends out a stronger message that ‘it’s still misunderstood.’
Then there is the act of watering-down the evaluative attribution of language in Clause 3a in which ‘fear’ in the original (‘one fear is that…’) becomes ‘one often thinks’ in the TT. Although the use of the fixed expression ‘for example’ (in the contextual frame) has the effect of highlighting what follows, the cognitive process ‘think’ in no way conveys the same emotive effect that one may feel when facing someone who is violent.

More important is the TT producer’s decision to use the deixis ‘this’ as Theme of Clause 3b. While it is evident that ‘this’ is used to refer to the misconception stated in the Rheme of Clause 3a and thus maintains the text cohesion, it turns out to be the main reason for the mistranslation of the information in the Rheme of Clause 3b.

**Figure 5.22c** will show the problem-solution pattern of Clause 3a and 3b of the ST and their corresponding clauses in the TT (Figure 5.22.d):

### SOURCE TEXT

#### Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 3a and 3b of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3a</td>
<td>Misconception</td>
<td>Problem → Premise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One fear …</td>
<td>is that people who are mentally ill are violent –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3b</td>
<td>Premise →</td>
<td>Counterargument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>… most people with a mental illness</td>
<td>aren’t violent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TARGET TEXT

#### Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 3a and 3b of the TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3a</td>
<td>Misconception</td>
<td>Problem → Misconception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[For example] one</td>
<td>often thinks people with mental illness are often violent, or have aggressive attitudes and actions, ✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 3b</td>
<td>Misconception →</td>
<td>Counterargument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[but] this</td>
<td>is not completely correct.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note how the change made to Theme of Clause 3a and 3b of the TT has caused change not only to their Problem-Solution structure but also to their meaning. The difference in meaning is indicated by ways of labelling, and in this case it is the ‘Misconception’ (Theme of Clause 3a of the ST) which is presented as Problem in the Rheme of the Clause 3a of the
ST. This piece of information, in turn, is picked up and made Theme of Clause 3b to provide ‘Premise’ for ‘Counterargument’ presented in the rhematic zone of the clause.

On the other hand, the Theme of Clause 3b of the TT picks up the information provided in the Rheme of Clause 3a concerning the misconception about a mentally ill person’s behaviours and reaction which is countered in Clause 3b of the TT. Clause 4 of the TT provides some points for discussion. It is the combination of Clause 4a and 4b of the original. Figure 5.22e shows how the thematic and problem-solution structures of this clause is constructed:

Figure 5.22e  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 4 of the TT

TARGET TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Misconception</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 4</td>
<td>[There are] yet others who think that even after recovering from their illness, the patients</td>
<td>are not completely cured; their mental health is still “weak”, etc…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the ST, however, the points for Misconception and the resulting Problem are presented differently with the Misconception provoking a Response which is omitted in the TT, as shown in the reproduction of the thematic structure of Clause 4a and 4b of the ST below:

Figure 5.22f  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 4a and 4b of the ST

SOURCE TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Misconception</td>
<td>Premise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 4a</td>
<td>there is [the idea that ]…</td>
<td>if someone has recovered from a mental illness like a “nervous breakdown”, they are still mentally &quot;weak&quot; in some way-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Premise</th>
<th>Counterargument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 4b</td>
<td>… people with a mental illness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clause 5 of the TT depicts another semantic mismatch due to the change made to its Theme in which the nominal group ‘another problem’ in Clause 5 of the ST is made into an existential clause. This is followed by the mistranslation in Clause 6 of the TT in which the description of people’s attitudes toward a mentally ill patient in the Rheme of Clause 5 of the
TT is picked up and repeated in the Theme of Clause 6. But instead of referring to it as ‘attitudes’ as in the ST, it is rendered as ‘misconceptions’:

Figure 5.22g  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 5 and Clause 6 of the TT

TARGET TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 5</td>
<td>[There are] yet others who feel uncomfortable, or embarrassed when seeing a mentally ill patient acts, [and] behaves “oddly” or [is] “unlike others” at all. ✓</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 6</td>
<td>The above misconceptions make families of mentally ill patients even suffer more.</td>
<td>Ramification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare the above with the thematic structure as well as the problem-solution pattern of Clause 6 of the ST:

Figure 5.22h  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 5 and Clause 6 of the ST

SOURCE TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 5</td>
<td>Another problem is that a lot of people feel very uneasy or embarrassed if a mentally ill person behaves in an unusual or different way. ✓</td>
<td>Problem ➔ Ramification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 6</td>
<td>Attitudes like these even make families of mentally ill patients suffer more.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ST indicates clearly where the problem lies and its resulting ramification. It also shows the impact of people’s attitudes on the family. The TT on the other hand describes people’s attitudes toward the patient as their misconceptions, which subsequently make families suffer and not their attitudes. This takes us to the clause complex combining Clause 7a – Clause 7d. Apart from the problem with the use of ‘many people’ as Theme of Clause 7a to render ‘some people’ as appearing in the corresponding clause of the ST, in Clause 7c, instead of trying to match the original with the same evaluative thematised comment structure as Theme of the clause, the translation seems to favour the maintaining of text cohesion. Indeed, choosing to combine two clauses complex (Clause 7 and 8 of the ST) into a single
clause complex, the translator produces a typical Vietnamese sentence structure in which subject of paratactic clause is often elided as shown in Clause 7b of the TT.

Also by fronting the person pronominal ‘they’ as Theme, the translator successfully maintains the cohesion of the text through the use of a constant Theme thematic pattern. This approach clearly shows the impact of people’s misconceptions as well as their attitudes toward the patient on the family of a mentally ill person in three consecutive clauses (Clause 7a – Clause 7c). However, this textual strategy does not create the lasting impact as in the original in which an evaluative thematised comment is employed.

Figure 5.22i below depicts how this impact has been created in the corresponding clauses of the ST. Also included is the preceding clause, Clause 6 of the ST, to illustrate the direction of the thematic progression as well as the semantic interrelations of these clauses:

Now, compare this with the thematic structure of the corresponding clausal cluster of the TT:
Figure 5.22j  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 6 to Clause 7d of the TT

**TARGET TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 6</td>
<td>The above misconceptions</td>
<td>make families of mentally ill patients even suffer more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 7a</td>
<td>Many families</td>
<td>have to hide this problem from people,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 7b</td>
<td>[or] they</td>
<td>feel isolated,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 7c</td>
<td>[or because] they</td>
<td>don’t want others to come to visit them;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 7d</td>
<td>[or because] people who</td>
<td>are around them (including members of their family) don’t want to come close to them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As clearly depicted, such elements as Active Participant and Responsive Action in Clause 7b as well as Problem in Clause 7c, do not exist in the corresponding clauses of the ST. There is not only a major discrepancy in relation to the information contained in the Rheme of Clause 7b, but there are also some issues of great concern with respect to the meaning of the text. In Clause 8b of the ST the text producer raises the challenging issue of inviting people to the home of a family whose relative has a mental illness, and although comment is made through the use of an evaluative structure ‘it’s difficult’, this still sounds objective. In the TT, on the other hand, by changing the Theme of Clause 7c of the TT into ‘they’ with reference to ‘families’, the translator makes the statement highly subjective and even with deliberate volition ‘[they] don’t want others to come to visit them.’

Placed in the context of a family with a relative having a mental condition, the statement seems harsh and even bitter. It conveys a strong feeling of hurt and humiliation. In the same vein, Clause 7d also sends out a strong message: ‘or because people who are around them (including members of their family) don’t want to come close to them.’

In the original, however, the ST producer handles the issue with sensitivity by using the modal verb ‘may’ and by a careful choice of lexis, ‘or because they may be shunned by other people – including other members of their family who avoid visiting them.’

There are two issues here with respect to the translation of this segment of text which are completely at odds with the ST. First, the affected participant or agent, which is Subject and Theme of Clause 8c of the ST, becomes an active participant (also Subject and Theme) of the
corresponding clause of the TT (Clause 7d). This shift does not only affect the thematic progression of the TT, especially in terms of the text cohesion, but also impacts on its problem-solution pattern (Affected Participant in the ST becoming Problem in the TT. See Figure 5.22j above for more detail).

In Rheme of Clause 7d of the TT, moreover, the message implies people’s intention to deliberately ostracize families of the patient. This is in great contrast to what is expressed in the Rheme of Clause 7c of the ST which simply describes the avoidance of possible embarrassment for both the family and for others around them due to either misconceptions, or to the patient’s behaviour, or possibly both.

Before fast forwarding to Clause 13 of the TT in which there is another mismatch due to the use of thematised comment in the corresponding clause of the ST, a brief look is required at Clause 8a of the TT. In this clause, by using a more subjective thematised comment (instead of an objective one as in the ST), the visibility and intervention of the translator is more significant. Indeed, by using ‘What is important’ to replace ‘it’s important’, followed by explicit advice in Clause 8b ‘should seek help’, the translator provides a personal opinion concerning a suggestion to the family to seek support and assistance in coping with the issue of mental illness.

This is in contrast to the subtly persuasive tone of language employed by the ST producer who suggests that ‘families in this situation don't try to cope with the problem alone’, and thus provides them with a choice. Clause 13 of the TT reflects similar issues.

By placing the ‘if’- clause in the contextual frame to direct the audience to the issue of a mentally ill patient’s refusal to take medication and his/her unusual behavior, and then discussing it, as appears in the ST, the translation effectively renders its ideational meaning. However, the decision to replace the thematised comment ‘it can be tempting’ with ‘their family’ as Theme alters the impersonal aspect of the ‘pulling force’, intended in the ST, and replaces it with a personal one. Moreover, the potential for external factors to influence behavior of the family, as described in the ST, indicates the inclination of carers to ignore their relative’s problem, hoping it would pass, but one that is not necessarily acted upon. In terms of problem-solution pattern, when combined with Clause 14 the role of the family in the issue becomes even more negative as will be illustrated in Figure 5.22k:
Figure 5.22k  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 13 and Clause 14 of the TT

TARGET TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation →</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 13</td>
<td>If the patient refuses to take medication or behaves strangely, their family tends to ignore it hoping that through time the illness would go away.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td></td>
<td>↘</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 14</td>
<td>However, by doing that they only make the patient’s conditions worsen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ramification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The direction of the arrows as well as the use of the mental process of tendency ‘tend’ (meaning ‘inclined to do something’ as well as implying a ‘habitual frequency’) in the affirmative declarative mood gives the impression that the problem (the patient’s condition) is actually caused by the family. This is effectively in contrast to the message in Clause 14 of the ST in which, using the modal verb ‘can’ and the adjectival ‘tempting’, the ST writer wishes to say that ‘the situation can happen (but it may not), because some families may want to ignore the problem with the hope that it will go away.’ However, it is very different, to say the least, to the tendency ‘to ignore it’ as expressed in the TT.

Moving to Clause 15 of the TT, the impression given the audience is its certainty about its advice to people in relation to getting professional help to cope with a relative with a mental condition. By making an evaluative statement in superlative as Theme of the clause, the TT producer expresses certainty that there is no other way than this to deal with the issue. However, in addition to the mistranslation of the evaluative comment attributed to the advice by the ST producer, the translator also does not pick up the semantic interrelationship between Clause 14 and 16 of the ST organized through the problem-solution pattern.

In order to explicate this relationship clearly the diagram showing the Problem-Solution structure of Clause 14 and 16 of the ST is reproduced below:
Figure 5.22l Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 14 to Clause 16 of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 14</td>
<td>If they begin to behave strangely or refuse to take medication that helps control their illness, it can be tempting to hope the problem will pass.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 15</td>
<td>[But] this can make things worse.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Clause 16 | It is much better to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help. |}

The expression ‘it is much better’ (Theme of Clause 16) signals a comparison between the two approaches; namely, ‘ignoring the problem’ or ‘getting professional help’. The direction of the arrows indicates the logical relations across clauses as well as their problem-solution patterns.

What is more important is the omission of Clause 17 of the ST which explains the reason for getting help, or what can be considered as the benefit a patient will enjoy if the advice given in Clause 16 is followed. Again, Figure 5.22m showing how this meaning is construed will be reproduced below:

Figure 5.22m Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 16 and Clause 17 of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 16</td>
<td>It is much better</td>
<td>to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 17</td>
<td>This is easier</td>
<td>to control the illness and keep the person stable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the text segment that shows a significant discrepancy between the ST and the TT is the group of clauses spanning Clause 16 – Clause 20b, as indicated in Figure 5.22n:
TARGET TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation →</td>
<td>Problem → Proposed Solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 16</td>
<td>[In case] your family</td>
<td>has someone with mental illness the more you know about this illness, the better. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proposed Solution →</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 17</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>will help you to understand more about the patient’s conditions and how to deal with them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proposed Solution →</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 18</td>
<td>Mental health experts</td>
<td>can advise you on how to care for, communicate with and comfort a patient who has hallucinations, or someone is depressed or insists on killing him/herself. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proposed Solution →</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 19</td>
<td>Understanding more about mental illness</td>
<td>also helps prevent you from feeling guilty. ↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a</td>
<td>Many people</td>
<td>feel that they are the cause of their relative’s mental health problem, ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20b</td>
<td>[but] this</td>
<td>is utterly groundless.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared to Figure 5.22o, which describes the thematic and problem-solution patterns of the corresponding clausal cluster in the ST, that of the TT seems to lack some key elements, the most crucial one being a Proposed Action in Clause 16 of the TT which is found in its corresponding theme of Clause 18 of the ST. For convenience of discussion Figure 5.22o will be reproduced below:
### SOURCE TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation → Problem →</td>
<td>Solution → Proposed Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 18</td>
<td>If someone in your family is</td>
<td>to learn as much about the illness as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mentally ill, <strong>try</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Proposed Action</strong> →</td>
<td><strong>Reason for Proposed Action</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 19a</td>
<td>This</td>
<td>helps you know what to expect and how to cope with it –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 19a</td>
<td>mental health workers</td>
<td>can give you advice on how to cope with and communicate with someone who is having delusions or hallucinations, for example, or someone who is depressed or threatening suicide.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a (1)</td>
<td>Being informed</td>
<td>can also stop you blaming yourself –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a (2)</td>
<td>many families</td>
<td>feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Situation</strong> → <strong>Problem</strong> →</td>
<td><strong>Misconception</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Premise</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20b</td>
<td>[but] this</td>
<td>isn’t true.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Clause 18, the verb ‘try’ in imperative mood functioning as interpersonal Theme (or interactional Theme) initiates a direct dialogue with the audience and, in effect, puts the whole process of proposed actions into motion. In the ST, through the use of the two material processes ‘try’ and ‘learn’ (in the infinitive), both requiring conscious effort, the writer urges families to obtain more information which enables them to assist and support their sick relative and at the same time to cope with the situation. On the contrary, Clause 16 of the TT, after describing the Situation (‘In case your family has someone with mental illness’), provides an explanation of why knowledge of the issue is important, and thus merely presents the proposed Solution. **Figure 5.22o** lacks the dynamism found in the Problem-Solution structure of the ST (**Figure 5.22o**) in which a Proposed Action is also provided with the Solution.

The second last paragraph of the translated text in Vietnamese, starting with Clause 19, explains how an understanding of mental illness helps release the family from the feeling of guilt. It then goes on to provide a list of factors that may cause mental illness. However, in comparison with the ST, the way the TT presents these factual causes is very different.
In Clause 21a, the nominal group ‘mental illness’ is thematised, followed by the material process ‘cause’ in passive voice, and thus makes ‘mental illness’ Subject as well as the affected participant in the clause. The function of this textual strategy may be twofold:

(a) to maintain the cohesion and coherence of the text by reiterating the topic (‘mental illness’); and
(b) to argue strongly for the rejection of ‘guilt’ due to the misconception about ‘family’ as being a cause of mental illness by making mental illness the ‘sufferer’ (or ‘victim’).

This strategy successfully provides the necessary information required to make families in a state of confusion feel relieved, as illustrated in Figure 5.22p below:

![Figure 5.22p Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 20a to Clause 22 of the TT](target_text)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20a</td>
<td>Misconception →</td>
<td>Misconception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people</td>
<td>feel that they are the cause of their relative’s mental health problem, ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premise →</td>
<td>Counterargument</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 20b</td>
<td>[but] this</td>
<td>is utterly groundless.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 21a</td>
<td>Mental illness</td>
<td>is caused by many factors;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 21b</td>
<td>[sometimes] it</td>
<td>may be inherited,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 21c</td>
<td>[or it]</td>
<td>may be because of the unusual reaction of chemicals causing imbalance in the brain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 22</td>
<td>[Sometimes] it</td>
<td>may be caused by anxiety, stress due to unemployment, retirement, marriage breakdown or even migration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5.3 

Discussion on some major findings from a thematic perspective.

This section will focus mainly on the last segment of the ST (from Clause 21-23) in which a major change in the discourse direction is ignored by the TT producer causing the TT functionally inadequate for its purposes both as an informative, and persuasive text. Although the discrepancies are found at almost every stage of the text development, however the specific discrepancies causing it functionally mismatched are identified in the choices of Theme in Clause 16 and 19 of the TT. This is not to mention differences in the choice of Themes to replace especially the thematised comments in the ST (i.e. Clause 8b, Clause 9, Clause 14, etc). Differences with respect to the information provided in the rhematic area among the above clauses were revealed earlier in the chapter. The main emphasis of the present discussion is, therefore, concentrated on any thematic shift during the process of transferring.

The most significant difference between this text segment in the TT compared to the corresponding segment in the ST is the choice of Theme to begin the counterargument leading up to the conclusion.

In the ST, ‘many factors’ is made Theme carrying New information and functioning as a new topic for discussion, and thus has the effect of removing the focus of the discussion from both the family and the problem (‘mental illness’). This works as a break from the current discussion, which has been focused chiefly on mental illness, the family, and the surrounding issues (misconceptions, people’s attitudes, coping with the patient, etc.). It also provides an opportunity for the viewing of this issue from different perspective: ‘the cause of the problem’.

The TT, in contrast, keeps returning to the same issue, namely: ‘mental illness’.

In addition, discussion in the earlier section indicates that by making ‘many factors’ Subject and Theme of the clause, the ST writer’s intention is to make it an active participant on which blame can be placed, before finally wrapping up the issue. Indeed, the ST conclusion is as predicted: a total rejection of any family responsibility for the cause of the problem.

But most important of all is the way that Theme is organized in the conclusion. In the ST, the thematisation of the impersonal pronoun ‘no-one’ is in accordance with what has been discussed up to that point as well as with the strong counterargument occurring at each and every stage of the argument.

The conclusion (reproduced below) is short, conclusive, decisive and persuasive in that it allows no ‘nonsense’ and no room for counterargument. It releases everybody (‘no-one’), but especially the patient and the family, from being responsible for the illness. It does
this by first affirming its intention, ‘but no-one’, in Theme, then using the information picked up from Rheme of Clause 20a of the ST negates all responsibility in the final counterargument as illustrated in Figure 5.22q.

Figure 5.22q  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 23 of the ST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME Affirmation</th>
<th>RHUME of Counterargument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 23</td>
<td>[But] no one</td>
<td>is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the TT, however, the translator seems hesitant and uncertain as if not knowing how to make the conclusion as decisive and persuasive as its original. Even if relevance theory, as proposed by Sperber & Wilson (1986), were implemented it would not be able to explain what made the TT producer decide to translate Clause 23 of the ST the way s/he did.

Relevance theory is a communication theory which bases its theoretical framework on Grice’s Co-operative Principle and Maxim (1961), in particular on its inferential model. According to this model, in a communicative event the “communicator provides evidence of his/her intention to convey a certain meaning, which is inferred by the audience on the basis of the evidence provided.” (Sperber & Wilson 2004: 249)

The ST producer’s intent is clearly demonstrated in the choice of Theme in Clause 23. By making ‘no one’ thematic, the writer signals the intention that the affected participants (the family and the patient) and other relevant parties (for example ‘mental illness’, ‘mental health worker’, etc.) are no longer the subject of the discussion. And there is a reason for this which is the firm renunciation of any responsibility for the illness by anyone who is involved and on whose behalf the writer makes such a statement.

Evidence of the intention is also clearly obvious when the ST producer chooses to wait until the end of the clause and, with the use of a negative form, to finally reintroduce the affected participants (‘neither the patient, nor the family’) after making certain that the ground has been laid.

A hypothesis is that as a reader of the ST and, at the same time, writer of the TT, the translator might have seen the need for a summarization of some main points before dealing with the conclusion. This may explain the use of deixis ‘these’ to refer to the possible factors that may cause mental illness in Clause 23 of the TT. As far as cohesion is concerned, the
reiteration of ‘mental illness’ as Theme of Clause 24 may be an attempt by the translator to maintain the cohesiveness of the text.

However, by doing this the TT producer does not successfully achieve the purpose that the ST aims to achieve: informative, but persuasive.

Figure 5.22r reflects the central issue of the discussion:

Figure 5.22r  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 22 to Clause 24 of the TT

| TARGET TEXT |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Clause**      | **THEME**       | **RHEME** |
| **Problem**     | **Cause of Problem** |
| Clause 22       | [Sometimes] it  | → may be caused by anxiety, stress due to unemployment, retirement, marriage breakdown or even migration. |
|                  | Premise →       | Counterargument |
| Clause 23       | However not because of these, you → must blame it on this person or that person. |
|                  | Problem →       | Counterargument |
| Clause 24       | [If mental illness occurs], it → [is] not the patient’s fault nor is it the fault of their family. |

Thus far, it is evident that a different choice of Theme not only interferes with the thematic progression of the text; i.e. the global flow of information in the text, but also alters its semantic content. In other words, a change to the thematic structure, no matter how minimal, does have semantic consequences.

A closer inspection of the thematic structure of the TT also reveals that the translator has not taken into consideration the significance of the Theme-Rheme selection and distribution in the ST and thus has changed the thematic structure of the TT. The most crucial change, however, is a shift in the discourse of the text in Clause 16 in which a prepositional phrase (‘in case your family’) is used to replace the conditional clause functioning as the thematic reorientation in Clause 18 of the ST.

In terms of discourse structure, the thematisation of the ‘if-clause’ in the ST has a significant effect both on the text’s discourse staging as well as its problem-solution pattern, as clearly displayed with the unfolding of the text. It has been agreed by many scholars, among them Haiman (1978) and especially Schiffrin (1992), that a conditional clause or sentence has the status of topic in discourse. In his research into the function of conditional clauses and sentences, Haiman (1978: 564) claims that all conditionals, regardless of their
preposed or postposed position in the clause, are topics because they always provide given information.

However, research conducted by Schiffrin finds otherwise. In one of her studies into discourse and the status of a conditional clause or sentence from a discourse perspective, Schiffrin (1992) argues that only a preposed conditional clause has this status. Using discourse analysis to examine written and spoken texts in both expository and narrative genres, she contends that “postposed if clauses providing given information function anaphorically at local levels of message construction; those providing new information function cataphorically at higher levels of message construction. Preposed if clauses, however, always provide given information (but in relation to different types and levels of topic) that functions either anaphorically or cataphorically.” (ibid: 193)

Schiffrin also proves that at a discourse level there is a correlation between topic, givenness and clause order. Her study especially identifies the role of givenness in the definition of topic.

Returning to Clause 18 of the ST we find the ‘if-clause’ is placed in a preposed position indicating the intention of the ST producer to restate the current topic of discussion with a certain purpose in mind: the signaling of an episodic discourse change. This purpose becomes clearer as revealed by the new information expressed in the rhematic zone of the clause.

After advising families to seek support and assistance from mental health professionals, the ST uses the first part of the clause complex to remind the audience of the current topic of discussion, namely ‘If someone in your family is mentally ill...’, before proposing a response to the problem through the use of the verb ‘try’ in imperative. This linguistic element has both textual and interpersonal consequences. Textually, it provides an anaphoric link connecting the text with what has gone previously (seeking help) as well as connecting it with what is about to be discussed (being informed), and thus helps move the text forward. Interpersonally, as well as marking a new move in the problem-solution pattern i.e. proposal of action, by using ‘try’ in imperative, the text takes an interactive approach in initiating a direct dialogue with the audience and thus makes the discussion more persuasive and convincing.

The TT completely ignores this thematic maneuver.

Similarly, the thematisation of the participial phrase ‘being informed’ in Clause 20a of the ST also serves two purposes: it signals an episodic change in discourse by first making an anaphoric link with the previous discourse episode (note the use of the adverbial of addition
‘also’ immediately followed ‘being informed’), and then explains to the audience what will be discussed in the ensuing discourse.

Here, the difference between Clause 20a of the ST and its corresponding translated version (Clause 19 of the TT) is highly significant. ‘Being informed’ gives the impression of an on-going process of acquiring information and making it become one’s knowledge. At a personal level it indicates a conscious effort and purposeful search for useful information in order to cope with daily unpredictable fluctuations of the situation; at an interpersonal level it shows the love and care for the relative with a mental illness and the effort to accommodate the person’s needs.

This is completely in contrast to the use of the nominalization ‘understanding’ in the Theme position of Clause 19 of the TT. The foregrounding of ‘understanding’ gives the impression that knowledge has been acquired and internalized and thus it is mainly a topic for discussion, and not for action; as rightly pointed out by Francis (1989: 203)

Nominalisation is a synoptic interpretation of reality: it freezes the processes and makes them static so that they can be talked about and evaluated. The text is no longer about what is happening, but what is being internalized and ‘factualised’ by society as to the status of what has already happened… (emphasis is original)

In sum, from Clause 1a to the very end of the text, using paragraphing as a discourse strategy, the ST carefully plans various stages of discourse through thematic choices. For example, in Clause 3a ‘one fear’ implies misconception leading to people’s attitudes toward a mentally ill person; while ‘another problem’ (Theme of Clause 5 of the ST) signifies a discussion about these attitudes and the impact they have on the family (Theme of Clause 6 of the ST).

A thematised comment (‘It’s important’ in Clause 9) is used to begin Paragraph 4 of the ST signaling another stage of discourse, this time a discussion about seeking help, and so on. At each stage of this discourse development, Themes are employed to carefully signal to the audience what they should expect and how meanings should be construed.

All of these are achieved through particular choices of Theme in the ST; while in the TT this thematic consideration seems totally lacking.

The evidence found in the analysis also answers the questions concerning the effect of the translation on the intended audience or, in other words, the question concerning whether the translated text serves the same function as its original.

For a text of this genre, the TT does fulfill one of its main functions i.e. its provision of information; therefore, it fulfills the informative function. Sometimes the TT even tries to
facilitate understanding of the audience by giving additional relevant information not included in the ST.

However, what the TT is not able to do satisfactorily is to make the message as persuasive as intended in the ST. The TT is not able to reflect the intention of the ST in the use of such textual strategies as thematised comments (the ST contains a larger number of thematic elements of this type with the ratio of 6:2), marked Themes, and particularly the interpersonal Theme in Clause 18 of the ST.

As observed by Thompson, (2004: 152) “in many cases, thematised comment occurs at key transition points in the text …” It should also be added that thematised comment, in addition to its textual meaning realizing function, also and even more importantly realizes interpersonal meaning. Indeed, the function of such a structure is to help speakers/writers express their personal view or evaluative comment on a certain issue more objectively using the impersonal pronoun ‘it’ as the starting point.

Evidence can be found in the frequent utilization of thematised comment in the ST. This textual approach does not only help signal the transition of stages of discourse, and thus fulfill its textual function, but also helps to persuade the audience to act following advice masked in the form of information giving, thus achieving its interpersonal function.

Moreover, by changing the material process ‘try’ in imperative mood in Clause 18 of the ST into the nominal group ‘your family’ and making it Theme of Clause 16, the TT disrupts not only the thematic progression of the text but also its problem-solution pattern.

A shift in Theme, as indicated in Clause 21a of the TT, also causes disruption to the flow of discourse and creates confusion in the audience. Nowhere does the evidence more clearly demonstrate this than in the complex and confusing approach undertaken by the translator to render the clause simple employed as the conclusion in the ST ‘But no-one is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.’
CHAPTER VI
CONCLUDING REMARKS

6.0 INTRODUCTION

The study set out to investigate the linguistic choices made in translated texts. It proceeded by conducting an exploration into various linguistic concepts and techniques that might provide insights into issues faced by English and Vietnamese translation practitioners as well as potentially offer solutions for many translation problems.

In the course of the research, the study discovered a particular area of language function; i.e. textual component, which had not been paid much attention to by English-Vietnamese translators and translation scholars, nor thoroughly investigated. It therefore had a particular interest in finding out how the textual metafunction of the ST is negotiated and reproduced in the TT. Textual metafunction, as seen by Halliday (1967: 50), is “the grammar which specifies the choices that speakers and writers make when introducing structures into discourse”. These structures are divided into two separate yet distinctively independent systems; namely, the thematic system providing the point of departure for the message contained in a text, and the information system controlling the flow of information through the text.

Moreover, it appeared that the textual metafunction was responsible for many translation difficulties due to the difference in word order of the two languages in question. Word order is closely related to the issue of thematic organization and distribution in texts, and a different choice of Theme in English, causing a subtle change in relation to the meaning of a clause, may have a more serious semantic impact in Vietnamese, as seen in Chapter IV and Chapter V.

The study’s exploration of theoretical notions and techniques used a corpus of parallel texts of informative nature, either in printed form or available for downloading from the internet. By contrasting against their originals, the translated texts provided many translation issues for discussion both theoretically and practically on various levels of language; namely from the level of word to sentence, and from sentence to text.

The findings of the research have already been presented and discussed along with detailed information concerning the aim and objectives of the study in the Introductory Chapter. This chapter, therefore, will briefly recapitulate the major findings, then will discuss other important issues which may be seen as one of the foci of the study; namely the conditions for the preservation of thematic structure, and thus the information flow, in the
translated text. The reason for these issues to be brought up for discussion is the potential for misunderstanding resulting from the findings of Chapter IV and Chapter V.

From the discussion concerning discrepancies found in translated texts due to different choices of Theme in translation (Example 4.1 of Chapter IV; particularly Example 5.3 of Chapter V) the impression may have been given that in order to avoid thematic shifts, and thus potential semantic consequences in translation, one should try to preserve the thematic structure of the ST in the TT. However, as will be discussed, it is entirely up to a translator’s discretion as to when it may be appropriate to follow closely the thematic structure of the original, and when the target language convention should be upheld.

What will be discussed are instances where thematic shifts are motivated by either the TL clausal or textual constraints, and thus may be considered justifiable while in other instances such changes may be seen as unwarranted (see examples in Chapter IV and Chapter V). In translation practice, this observation will put a translator on constant alert as to when a different choice of theme may be justifiable and when it is not. Given differences concerning word order among language pairs, making thematic shift unavoidable, it is proposed that any justification for thematic preservation modification, or any redistribution of Themes in comparison with the ST, should be for the purpose of improving the readability of the text and thus its coherence. However, it goes without saying that this should not interfere with the TL structural conventions or overrule the textual formal agreements, nor should it be carried out at the expense of the purpose or function of the text; i.e. its intended meaning. Moreover, the thematic modification and redistribution in the TT should be performed at all times with reference to the ST as its template, not in terms of form or semantic representation, but with respect to its semantic realization. Because any valid and reliable comparative and contrastive model of translation evaluation should include the ST as the fundamental component, the basic premise onto which discussion concerning similarities and differences of the parallel texts is referred.

The chapter will also offer several recommendations for future research into possible implementations of SFL and other notions and techniques applicable to various aspects of translation studies and practice. We will begin by recapitulating some main points discussed in the study.
6.1 A BRIEF SUMMARY OF RESEARCH CONTENTS

Chapter I dealt with several fundamental issues in translation; for example, the controversial debate surrounding the notion of equivalence. It reviewed literature and discussion papers by various authors regarding translation terminology as well as other issues relevant to translation theory and practice. It suggested a possible alternative for ‘equivalence’, and argued that because translation is not an exact science nor does it have to satisfy mathematical accuracy, the end product of a translation process should only aim for the closest semantic and functional similarity.

As far as the concept of ‘equivalence’ is concerned, the translation process is initiated in responding to the need for a text written in one language system to be translated into another language using a different language code system and the result of the process is a corresponding text which ideally bears similarities in relation to meaning and performs the same function as its original. ‘Correspondence’, therefore, should be used instead of ‘equivalence’, because the former evokes the idea of a correlation between the SL and TL texts, and the analogy of their function in a given context and for a given purpose.

Chapter II looked into translation issues pertaining particularly to the language pair. Referring to a wide range of linguistic notions, it gave a detailed description of potential translation difficulties at all levels of language; i.e. from phonological to morphological, from syntactical to textual, and so on. Along the way, it provided relevant examples to illustrate the discussion and highlighted more at stake areas; especially morphological, syntactical and textual. Concurrently, Chapter IIB (Part Two of the study) explored various linguistic conceptions and techniques, especially those proposed and developed by systemic functional linguists, implementable to the field of translation studies.

The chapter was also concerned with the issue of collocation, which often causes translation error and even mistranslation, particularly with what are termed ‘false friends’ or ‘faux amis’. The importance of collocation is strongly emphasized by Firth (1957) as he points out that meaning by collocation is lexical meaning "at the syntagmatic level" (Firth 1957:196), which means that it should not be analyzed at word level, but at sentence and even at text level. This is because collocation is not merely the combination of words, but “is an order of mutual expectancy.” (1957: 181).

In narrowing down its scope and emphasizing the area of its special interest, the study focused its examination on some aspects of Vietnamese grammar and created a profile for its metafunctions from the perspective of SFL (Chapter III and IIB). More specifically, it concentrated on the textual component of the language before launching an investigation into
the interrelationship between thematic shifts caused by the translation process and the 
semantic corollary resulting from these shifts (Chapter III, IV and V).

From a systemic functional perspective the textual component of a language is 
expressed through the use of two distinctively separate but closely interrelated systems in 
text: thematic and information structures. Due in a large extent to the difference in word 
order, each language has different ways of organizing its thematic system, and thus different 
ways of realizing the information flow in text. It became evident that because English and 
Vietnamese belong to two remotely related linguistic and cultural systems; this made the task 
of translation more difficult. The translation difficulties faced by translators working between 
the two languages are not limited to the lexico-grammatical level, due to lexical and syntactic 
differences, but also to the discourse semantic level due to textual differences. It, therefore, 
was decided that more time and space should be devoted to the investigation of this particular 
area of text analysis.

Findings of the investigation of Theme in Vietnamese clauses were reported in the 
Introductory Chapter but some salient features of Vietnamese thematic structure will be 
recapitulated in Section 6.3 of the present chapter.

In order to assist with a thorough understanding of similarities and differences 
between the language pair in relation to their grammatical systems, a detailed examination of 
the metafunctions of Vietnamese grammar was conducted in Chapter III using systemic 
functional linguistics as theoretical framework, with the main focus on the textual 
metafunction.

Chapter IIIB (Part Two of the study) was an extension of Chapter III with its focus 
on the examination of the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions of Vietnamese grammar. 
It gave a complementary view to the understanding of the textual component and thus 
completed the picture of the role of each clausal element of a Vietnamese clause. Due to the 
scope of the research the chapter was not an extensive study of these two metafunctions. 
However, it offered a general overview of important aspects of the grammar.

Chapter IV and Chapter V examined in detail issues surrounding the thematic shift 
in translated texts and its impact on the translations, both semantically and functionally. It was 
found that a thematic shift during the translation process did not only interfere with the 
thematic patterning of the text but effectively influenced its semantic realization, and thus also 
caused change to its function, as illustrated in Example 4.1 of Chapter IV and Example 5.3 
of Chapter V.
6.2 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

As stated in the Introductory Chapter, the motivation behind conducting this study was both practical and pedagogic.

To date, at least with respect to English and Vietnamese translation, there has been no systematic research into the possible implementation of linguistic theory and techniques to the understanding of translation issues, nor into the applicability of this knowledge to address translatibility and untranslatability in translation practice. In addition, there has been no research expressly devoted to finding out the impact of thematic shift on a Vietnamese translated text; nor to the semantic and functional implications caused by thematic shifts in a translated text as compared with its original.

It is hoped that the research findings would inspire other researchers to conduct more studies into the interrelationship between linguistics and translation in general and into specific aspects of translation theory and practice; especially the implementation of linguistics as a theoretical framework into the study of Vietnamese translation from and into various languages.

In addition, it is also hoped that the current study would encourage more open discussion among English-Vietnamese translation practitioners and translation scholars on translation difficulties and problems, as well as working as an agent of change to bring linguistic scholars, translation theorists and translation practitioners together for the common good of translation studies and practice. More important is the hope for an immediate use of a ‘common language’ amongst translators and translation checkers to discuss and address translation issues.

For this reason, the study made an attempt to revisit some fundamental issues in translation as well as express a view on these issues with the hope that they would offer opportunities for further discussion in any future research into translation studies, particularly in relation to the use of terminology.

As far as the focus of the study is concerned, it has emerged that a different Theme choice made to a sentence affects not only its thematic structure and impacts on its semantic content, but the affect can also spread to its co-text and even beyond. Because the point of departure provided by the Theme of a particular sentence is often not limited to this particular sentence at the local level, in many cases the charted direction can also have a global effect. That means a certain thematic choice can lead to a different structural realization which, in turn, can impact on the thematic patterning of the neighboring sentences and thus affecting the general meaning of the whole paragraph and, in some case, of the whole text.
The findings have an important implication for translation practice in that it helps raise
an awareness among translation practitioners of the effect different word order, i.e. different
thematic choice, may have on the meaning and function of a text during the transferring
process.

From a pedagogic perspective the findings of the study, and particularly the eclectic
model of text analysis, combining both the thematic structure and problem-solution pattern of
a text, may offer translation trainees a springboard for their own investigation into relevant
language pairs. This will be discussed in more detail in Section 6.3.3 in addition to
recommendations for the use of the approach to training translation trainees or for raising
awareness among professional translators regarding the importance of linguistic insights into
translation, especially the thematic notion.

The research, however, is only limited to a small corpus of texts pertaining to a
particular text type and genre; i.e. informative health information texts, and therefore further
research may need to be conducted into other types of text genre in order to determine the
impact of thematic shift in translation. Also research should be extended to other languages
which do not share many linguistic and cultural commonalities with English.

6.3 ROLE OF THEME IN VIETNAMESE CLAUSES AND THEMATIC ANALYSIS
FOR TRANSLATION PURPOSES

As mentioned in Section 6.1, this section will be reserved for a brief report on the
findings concerning Theme of Vietnamese clauses as well as the role and function of Theme
in Vietnamese texts. A more detailed discussion on the finding was presented in the
Introductory Chapter.

The discussion then moves to a proposal for the implementation of thematic analysis
as a textual analytical model for translation and translation evaluation purposes in Section 6.4.

6.3.1 Role of Theme in Vietnamese grammar

Given the significant interrelation between Theme-Rheme structure and the semantic
structure of language in general, the study has its focus on such questions as whether Theme
plays as important a role in Vietnamese clauses as it does in English. This question has been
addressed in Chapter III of the study. After the identification of Theme in Vietnamese
clauses, a classification of Vietnamese Theme types and discussion of the uniqueness of their
characteristics, the study has conducted an extensive investigation into the effect of a thematic shift on the meaning and function of the translated text at the clausal and textual levels.

Through the use of numerous exemplars largely drawn from a corpus of parallel texts containing translated texts and their originals, the study has pointed out many similarities and differences between the two thematic systems as well as the specific functions of Theme in each language.

It has also established that Theme plays an important role not only in structuring textual meaning but also in expressing interpersonal and ideational meanings of a Vietnamese clause.

Textually, Theme in a Vietnamese clause assists in organizing elements of a text into the message or meaning. As in all topic-prominent languages, Theme in Vietnamese clauses often functions as contextual frame or scope delimitation to assist readers with the interpretation of the succeeding discourse as seen in various examples provided in Chapter III, Chapter IV and Chapter V.

Interpersonally, on the other hand, as pointed out by Martin (1992b: 154), Theme “in fact constructs a particular angle of interpretation on the topic of each text which resonates with other aspects of discourse organization”. One of many resources that a text producer may employ to construct this angle is the use of Subject, as seen in Clause 1 of the TT of Example 4.1 (Chapter IV). In this clause, ‘American researchers’ is placed in the initial position and made both Subject and Theme of the clause reflecting the intention of the TT producer in using the American researchers’ professional status to convince the audience regarding the credibility of the information provided in the text. Moreover, a text producer can also make the text persuasive through an expression of solidarity using imperative mood as interpersonal Theme (as in Clause 17 of the ST, Chapter V) or by using thematised comments to exert personal viewpoint on a certain issue (for example, Clause 1b, Clause 7b, Clause 8, Clause 13, Clause 15, and Clause 16 of the ST, Chapter V). In this instance, some of these important elements were either modified or did not find their way into the TT (also see the translated text in Chapter V).

From an ideational perspective, Theme is seen as contributing to the construction of the meaning of a text by assisting with the organization of ideas into text and providing the reader with a framework for its interpretation. It is not surprising that Matthiessen (1995: 20) views Theme as a resource enabling the ideational “construction of ‘knowledge’ through text.”
A typical example of this type of meaning is found in Example 3.65 of Chapter III in which the text producer uses post modifier as attributive to provide a description of Vietnamese candidates who attempted the mandarin recruitment examination at the end of 19th century in Vietnam (Phan Kế Bính, in Chinh & Lê 1963: 534). The attributive adding to the head noun ‘hoc trò’ (‘student’) vividly portrays the candidates and their belongings on this important occasion, as illustrated below:

**Vietnamese**
Học trò mỗi người váy một bộ lều ch荞 có deo ống quản, bầu nước, vai deo một cái trap chứa dò ăn thức dùng phải chực sẵn ở ngoài cửa trường từ tối.

**English**
Students – each carrying a rolled up tent and jute mat, around their neck dangling a water bottle as well as a section of bamboo containing their writing paper, on their shoulder a wooden box storing their meals and other consumables – must wait outside the front gate of the school overnight.

In the above example the Participant Theme is a nominal group with ‘hoc trò’ (‘student’) as Head. The descriptive phrase following it provides a full description of the Subject of the clause.

As far as thematic structure is concerned, word order plays an important role in the realization of Theme-Rheme in both English and Vietnamese clauses. A choice of what is going to be placed in the first position of the clause is then seen as an important textual strategy in which the word order of a clause is manipulated for a certain purpose in order to provide a particular effect. Word order, or syntactic structure, is language specific though, according to Halliday (1985) and other linguists thematic and information structures of all natural languages are universal, each language may have different ways to realize Theme in the clause. Therefore during the translation process, when a problem arises due to the syntactic difference resulting in difficulties to preserve the thematic and information structures of the ST, then the syntactic conventions of the target language text must take priority.
6.3.2 Different choices of Theme: an English and Vietnamese translation issue

Given word order is one of several major factors affecting the translation process and any change made to the word order may not only cause change to the thematic pattern of the TT, but may also impact negatively on the semantic aspects of the text, a choice of Theme thus must be motivated by either co-textual or contextual requirements.

The study also shows that the notion of Theme-Rheme is not exclusively pertinent to English, a Subject-Predicate language, but its application can be relevant to a Topic-Comment language such as Vietnamese. Chapter III of the study proves that Theme-Rheme construct can also be applicable to Vietnamese and this is particularly supported by the work of such authors as Chinh & Lê (1963), Thompson (1965), Binh (1971), Clark (1992), and particularly Hào (1991) with his research using the functional approach, although they may have approached it from a different perspective (see also Chinh & Lê 1963, Chapter XIX, pp 529-49).

The finding also raises some concern regarding the issue of what should be constituted as marked and unmarked Themes in Vietnamese. While in English the most common type of marked Theme is a circumstantial Adjunct (Thompson 2007: 674), it is not the case in Vietnamese. And contrary to claims made by other researchers such as Đức (2004) that marked Themes in Vietnamese include clause-initial prepositional and adverbial groups or phrases functioning as adjuncts as well as subordinate clauses in the cause-effect structure or temporal sequence as they are in English, such structures are unmarked in Vietnamese. Because, as speakers of a topic-prominent language, Vietnamese people tend to provide a piece of information which can be used as contextual frame to help focus the audience’s attention on the scope of the communication or provide the demarcation for the communication. On the other hand, this also assists the audience with the interpretation of the intended message within the contextual demarcation.

As far as a choice of Theme is concerned and with respect to marked and unmarked Themes, what works in English, may not work in Vietnamese. For example a projected clause, normally following a projecting clause in the projection construction in English, can be brought to the initial position to make it thematically marked, and thus draws an emphasis on the information provided in the thematic elements of the clause. However it cannot be reduplicated in Vietnamese, a language which prefers a ‘projecting – projected’ and ‘subordinate – main’ or ‘dependent – independent’ clause patterning, as seen in Example 4.1, Chapter IV.
This has led to the conclusion that while the most common type of marked Theme in English is a circumstantial Adjunct, in Vietnamese it is one of the most common unmarked Themes, only second to an experiential Theme functioning as Subject in a declarative clause.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY AND FOR TRANSLATION TRAINING PURPOSES

6.4.1 Thematic analysis for translation purposes

Resulting from the findings illustrated in the current study, the notion and technique of thematic analysis can serve several purposes:

- Detecting the overall topic of the text as well as the underlining intention of the text producer through the use of particular elements as Themes.
- Analyzing the deployment and arrangement of themes in a text, thus helping translators appreciate its textual quality and specific features (e.g. text cohesion and coherence) and enabling decision making in the translation process.
- Tracing the global flow of information and rhetorical force through the large portion of text and assisting translators with a thorough comprehension of the text and its purpose. This knowledge and understanding greatly assists with the translation task as well as providing useful tracing guides concerning the overall purpose and meaning of the original.
- Helping reveal the significant correlation between a certain thematic patterning and a specific text type. For example, the study indicates that linear thematic progression seems to be the property of the informative text type, the main purpose of which is to disseminate information or explain the symptoms of a certain type of health problem.
- Comparing a translated text to its original using the specific features found in the latter for translation evaluation or translation quality assessment purposes.

Coupled with the analysis of the text’s Problem-Solution pattern (see Jordan 1980; Hoey 1983, 1994, and 2006), it has emerged that Themes of the SL texts used in the study are configured to give the texts a certain form which helps them achieve their intended purposes. Through the examination of the structural pattern of the texts, the findings provide adequate information to make decisions concerning the rhetorical thrust of the texts as well as the aim they have set out to achieve.
Functionally, the study indicates that Themes are specifically used by the ST writers as a salient textual strategy to disseminate information about a certain health issue (informative) and effectively put forth their personal view in the effort of convincing the audience to embrace this view (persuasive).

Although there have been several models of text analysis for translation and translation quality assessment purposes, some using SFL as theoretical framework (see House 1977, and 1997; Bell 1991; Baker 1992), others eclectic models (for example, see Nord 1991). They are either too complicated or too restricted, looking only into certain aspects of a text. For instance, House (1977, and also House’s model revisited 1997) proposes a model combining Halliday’s register analysis with text generic description to assess translation quality. The analytical operation is carried out on the ST and the TT to create two sets of textual profile, one for the ST and one for the TT. They are then compared, and a list of mismatches or errors is compiled into “covertly erroneous errors” and “overtly erroneous errors” (1997: 45).

House (1997) also proposes two types of translation, namely overt and covert translation, which in Munday’s view is “rather confusing” (2001: 93), where the former “is one in which the addressees of the translation text are quite “overtly” not being directly addressed” (1997: 66), and the latter “is the translation which enjoys the status of an original text in the target culture.” (ibid: 69).

Another more complex model is one proposed by Nord (1991), a functionalist (skopos-theorist) who, like Reiss (1977/1989), believes that ‘purposes determine translation approach’, as quoted by Munday (2001: 75) “the transmission of the predominant function of the ST is the determining factor by which the TT is judged”. According to Pym (1993) though very effective, Nord’s model of text analysis requires users to answer almost eighty questions in order to create a profile of a text for translation or translation quality assessment purposes. It’s not surprising for Pym to make the following observation: “As useful as 76 questions might be the first time around, students also have to be trained to work quickly.” He, however, highly praises the efficacy of the model “[Its] main virtue is thus that it can eventually lead to some kind of global awareness that texts carry out functions.”

By contrast, the model proposed in the current study is conceptually simple and practically more easily to be implemented, as demonstrated in Chapter IV and Chapter V. It should also be noted that applying thematic structure analysis only to text analysis may also result in the same outcome; i.e. the discovery of textual features may provide enough evidence for text appreciation and evaluation. However, combined the thematic notion with the Problem-Solution structure analysis model will provide a clearer picture into how the text
has been structured and for what purposes and also what role each section/segment of the text plays in the text structure as a whole.

A more detailed discussion was covered in Chapter IV and V of the study.

6.4.2 Thematic analysis for translation training purposes

From a pedagogic perspective the eclectic model of text analysis, the combination of both thematic structure and problem-solution pattern of a text, may be employed by translation trainees to examine the structure of a text for translation purpose. This includes the description of specific characteristics of the text in relation to its thematic structure, its types of theme, and how the text is structured thematically to reflect the intention of the text producer as well as the purpose for which the text is written.

The information will then be used to map out the text’s schematic structure and how significant it is in relation to each stage of the discourse development. These textual features will, in turn, be mapped on to the problem-solution structure of the text to determine which stages of the pattern corresponding to which stages of the discourse development and the functions they play in the overall function of the text. The procedures will help reveal both the meaning and general function of a text and the findings can be used as a guide to assist translation trainees with their translation process.

The benefit of such a model is that it prepares translation trainees for their interaction with ‘reality’ later in the course of their work and makes them aware of the importance of thematic structure during the process of transferring texts. Discussing translation training model, Adab (2002: 71) contends that “one [of its] advantage is that it enhances the reflective process and raises awareness on the part of trainee of the very deliberate nature of any act of text production, including selection from alternatives, choice or rejection according to predetermined aims within a given framework and approach…” (in The role of discourse analysis in translation and in translator training. Schaffner C. edited, 2002)

With respect to translation appraisal or translation evaluation exercise, the same procedures can be applied first on the original and then on the translated text.

6.5 JUSTIFICATION FOR A DIFFERENT CHOICE OF THEME IN TRANSLATION

In Section 6.3.2 it was argued that in terms of Theme, what is considered as a marked Theme in English may not be so in Vietnamese. For instance, a projected clause, normally following a projecting clause in the projection construction in English, can be brought to the
initial position to make it thematically marked, thus drawing emphasis on the information provided in the thematic elements of the clause. However, this cannot be reduplicated in Vietnamese, a language with the tendency of having ‘projecting – projected’ and ‘subordinate – main’ or ‘dependent – independent’ clause patterning, as seen in Example 4.1, Chapter IV.

Furthermore, such a structure as the ‘it-clause’ may not find a corresponding construction in Vietnamese. Evidence has been found in Chapter V in which ‘it’-clauses functioning as thematised comments or evaluative expressions are either omitted or modified. Whether the above discrepancies occur due to the difference in word order, to the lack of tense and aspects (for example, the tendency to foreground temporal adjuncts to signal time and aspect), or whether they are features of a topic-prominent language (the fronted ‘topic’ of an utterance should be about something connected to context, and not something which is unknown, vague, or ‘impersonal’ as the anticipatory ‘it’ in English), will require further investigation and discussion. One thing certain is that such a structure (below will be in italics) found in the first sentence of the letter in English from a Federal Member of Parliament (see Appendix R) during the Lunar New Year Festival will require some modification when translated into Vietnamese as reproduced below:

Example 6.1 Letter from A. Albanese, Federal MP for Grayndler, 19 January 2012 – Appendix R

English:

It is with great pleasure that I send New Year greetings to all Vietnamese Australians on the occasion of Tet, as we welcome the Year of the Dragon, which symbolises power, strength and good luck.

The translator of the letter has chosen to replace the impersonal pronoun ‘it’ with the personal pronoun ‘I’ in the initial position, thus making it Subject and Theme of the clause:

Vietnamese:

Tôi rất hân hạnh được gửi những lời chúc đầu năm tốt lành các quý vị người Úc gốc Việt nhân dịp Tết Nhâm Thìn, biểu hiện cho năng lực, sức mạnh và sự may mắn.

(I am very pleased to send [my] new year wishes to all Australians of Vietnamese origin on the occasion of the Year of the Dragon, the symbol of energy, strength and good luck.)

As far as the thematic structure is concerned, ignoring the erroneous word choice (‘biểu hiện’ which is a nominal group) for the verb ‘symbolise’ (which means ‘biểu tượng’) in English and focusing entirely on the choice of Theme by the translator, it seems that this does not seriously interfere with the thematic progression patterning of the whole paragraph (see

Linguistic Theory and Translation Practice
Appendix R). However, the information flow would be smoother if, instead of ignoring the importance of the relative pronoun ‘which’ in the clause, the translator simply replaced it with ‘a year’, thus making the ‘Year of the Dragon’ an apposition, as shown below:

Suggested translation:

Tôi rất hân hạnh được gửi những lời chúc đầu năm tới tất cả các quý vị người Úc gốc Việt nhân dịp Tết Nhâm Thìn, một năm biểu tượng cho quyền năng, sức mạnh và sự may mắn.

(I am very pleased to send [my] new year wishes to all Australians of Vietnamese origin on the occasion of the Year of the Dragon, a year symbolised [by] power, strength and good luck.)

This is only one among many strategies for approaching structural difference between two languages. There are other alternatives, but for the scope of the study, it won’t be discussed further.

In other instances there may be options available and unless translation practitioners are aware of, or sensitive to the impact of the thematic shift on translation, an appropriate option may not be taken up, as will be examined in the next section.

Because one of the purposes of the chapter, as well as of the study, is to identify and highlight those areas which commonly present problems to translators, the focus of the present chapter is to sensitize translation practitioners to the important relationship between the thematic patterning and rhetorical purpose of a text.

Given the difference with respect to word order among languages and the inevitability of different choice of theme during the translation process, an important question arises as to whether it would be justifiable for a translator to make a decision on when to follow the target text structural conventions and when these should be ignored.

The word ‘justifiable’ has been used because, in terms of the relationship between the thematic structure of the ST and the TT, there is no justification for the latter to resort to the target language’s structural conventions unless keeping closely to the structure of the ST is impossible (as found in Example 6.1 above). On the other hand, it is only justifiable if following closely to the ST structure may result in local semantic change or the effect may spread globally.

Generally speaking, in order to deal with a semi-technical or a technically complex text, a translator is required to possess not only an in-depth knowledge of both languages, but also have an extensive knowledge and understanding of a given subject matter. However, bilingual competence alone may not be sufficient to face such a challenge, the translator also needing to be bicultural, or at least sensitive to the importance of cultural factors, in order to
negotiate the myriad layers of abstractly complex concepts appearing in the text and attempt to reproduce these in another language.

It is necessary here to make the researcher’s view and stance clear from the outset. Given the employment of a specific analytical tool (thematic structure), which focuses mainly on text, the product of a communicative act and the premise for the investigation, the findings as such pertinently belong to text and its function in a given context and for a specific purpose. And as clearly stated in the earlier chapters, namely Chapter IV and V, one of the aims of the current research is to look into the function of a translated text in the target setting and contrast it against the intended function of its original in the source language environment in order to explain how the translation may or may not work in the target context due to certain features found in the text. In doing this, the main purpose of the translation assessment exercise is to conduct an investigation into lexico-grammatical and generic features of a translated text which may reveal its performance in the target language environment using the findings discovered from the investigation into corresponding features of the source language text. Thus, the focus of the assessment is on the performance of the translated text itself, and not on the competence of the person who has translated it.

The following discussion is also based on the observation that the thematic analysis model is not only effective in providing textual information implementable to translation and translation evaluation purposes, it can also offer a reliable tool for the final reviewing of a translation. At the end of the translation process most conscientious translators spend some time reviewing the draft translation to ensure there are no minor mistakes such as misspelling, clumsy sentential structure, wrong choice of terminology, and so on. This, then, is also an opportunity for a translator to also review any potential mismatches between the thematic structure of the ST and the TT. If the opportunity is not taken up, the result may be an unsatisfactory translation. Such an example is found in Example 5.3 of Chapter V, which is reproduced below to illustrate how the final review process may help improve translation quality. Only the first two clauses of the text, Coping with mental health illness in the family, are examined and a suggested translation is presented:

Example 5.3 (Chapter V)

**SOURCE TEXT**

1.a Having someone in the family with a chronic physical illness can be hard to cope with -

1.b but it can be even worse for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill.
2.a Although mental illness is so common that it affects one in four people in Australia from all cultural backgrounds,

2.b it’s still misunderstood.

TARGET TEXT

1.a Usually, if in [your] family, there is a person with chronic [physical] illness, worries, [and] care are hard to cope with;

1.b let alone if your relative suffers a mental illness, then care is even more difficult.

2.a And although in Australia among every four people there is one with mental illness,

2.b not many people thoroughly understand the above illnesses.

Contrasting Clause 1a of the TT against that of the ST reveals that by avoiding dealing with a non-finite clause, the translation has changed the text’s thematic structure. Replacing the non-finite clause with the modal adjunct “usually”, followed by an “if-clause”, the translation has inadvertently caused not only a structural change to the neighbouring clauses (Clause 1b and Clause 2 of the TT), but also to the rhetorical meaning and function of the paragraph (see discussion in Chapter V).

In fact, the translation could have followed closely to the thematic patterning of the ST, especially Clause 1a and Clause 1b, which are the introductory clause of the paragraph as well as the whole text, as illustrated below:

SUGGESTED TRANSLATION

1.a Có ai đó trong gia đình mang một chứng bệnh kinh niên, việc đối phó với các khó khăn đã vất vả rồi –

1.b tuy nhiên việc đối phó với các khó khăn này có thể còn vất và honor nữa, nếu phải sống chung với một thân nhân, không mong một chứng bệnh thể chất, mà lại mắc một chứng bệnh tâm thần.

2.a Mặc dù ở Úc bệnh tâm thần là chứng bệnh rất thông thường,

2.b trong số bốn người, thuộc mọi tầng lớp và thành phần văn hóa trong xã hội, lại có một người mắc bệnh tâm thần,

2.c những chứng bệnh này vẫn bị người ta hiểu lầm.

Although the back translation approach may not do justice to the content of the suggested translation of Clause 1a and Clause 1b, at least it can show the direction of the thematic progression and thus, the information flow of the text segment.
Literal

1.a Have someone in family carry illness [and disability] chronic [noun marker] cope with [plural] difficulty already hard –

1.b however [noun marker] cope with [plural marker] difficulty can even hard more,

1.c if [one] have to live together with a relative not suffer a disease physical, but suffer a illness mental.

2.a Although in Australia mental illness be illness very common, among every four people, belong to all stratum and composition [of] culture in society,

2.b [emphatic element] have one suffer mental illness,

2.c but illness this still suffer people misunderstand.

Back translation

1.a Having someone in the family with a chronic disease coping with difficulties is already hard-

1.b however coping with these difficulties can be even harder,

1.c if [one] has to live with a relative, having not a physical but a mental illness.

2.a Although in Australia mental illness is very common,

2.b there being among every four people from all walks of life and of all cultural backgrounds in the society, one with mental illness, but the illness is still misunderstood by people.

Although there are some discrepancies with respect to omission and addition, the suggested translation offers some strategies considered justifiable and necessary. For example in Clause 1a, the adjective ‘physical’ (‘thể chất’) is absent due to the target language’s collocational norms. As far as a health issue is concerned, in Vietnamese the generic term ‘bệnh’ or ‘chủng bệnh’ (‘illness’ or ‘disease’), functioning as classifier or nominal Head, is normally used in conjunction with a certain type of illness. Thus, we have ‘bệnh tim’ (‘heart disease’), ‘bệnh phổi’ (‘lung disease’), ‘bệnh trẻ em’ (‘childhood diseases’), ‘bệnh tâm thần’ (mental illness’), etc. In addition, ‘thể chất’ (‘physical’) may only be found in such contexts as ‘một chứng bệnh thể chất hoặc tình thần’; i.e ‘a physical or mental illness’, ‘vê phương diện thể chất hoặc tình thần’ (‘physically or mentally’ or ‘with regard to the physical or mental aspect of…’) etc.

Moreover, the addition of such linguistic elements as ‘difficulties’ and the repetition of the nominal group ‘the coping with these difficulties’ as Theme and Subject of Clause 1b are structurally and grammatically obligatory. Inserting the adverbial ‘already’ to modify the adjectival ‘hard’ is aimed at intensifying the contrast between the act of coping mentioned in
the rhematic region of Clause 1a and that appearing in the thematic position of Clause 1b. Most important, though, is the combination of the contrastive adjunct ‘however’ as the contextual frame of Clause 1b with the nominal group ‘the coping with these difficulties’ and the ‘if-clause’ to provide an emphatic contrast typical of Vietnamese language structure. The ‘if-clause’ is used here not only to describe the circumstances of having to live with a mentally ill relative, but also to emphasize the challenge. Similarly, the conjunction ‘but’ implies a stark contrast between coping with a physical illness and a mental one.

Clause 2 of the ST, a clause complex, comprising the subordinate clause beginning with the contrastive adjunct ‘although’ as marked Theme, followed by the ‘it-clause’ as main clause, is now changed to a clause complex with three ‘sub-clauses’ in the TT. In Clause 2a of the TT, the prepositional phrase ‘in Australia’ functioning as an adjunct provides a locative context for the interpretation of the declarative clause with the nominal group ‘mental illness’ being its Theme and Subject. Restricted by the Vietnamese structural conventions, the ‘it–clause’ of the ST (Clause 2a) which modifies the adjectival ‘common’ is converted into the prepositional phrase ‘among four people …’ in the TT and followed by an existential clause (Clause 2b of the TT).

In Clause 2c again, the nominal group ‘chúng bệnh này’ (‘this illness’) has to be repeated due to structural requirements in Vietnamese; furthermore, unlike the passive construction in English which can be agentless, ‘người ta’ (‘people’) has to be added to the passive clause in Vietnamese.

Using thematic structure to trace the direction of the information flow in the ST and the TT will help uncover the similarities and differences between the segments in question; i.e. the first two clauses complex. As far as Theme is concerned, the clauses complex are deliberately divided into several smaller clauses for easy identification. Also for identifying purposes, in the following illustration contextual frames are subsumed under Theme and will be enclosed between square brackets.

**Figure 6.1a** Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 1a and Clause 1b of the ST

**SOURCE TEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHeme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situation ➔</td>
<td>Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1a</td>
<td>Having someone in the family…</td>
<td>can be hard to cope with –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1b</td>
<td>[but] it ➔</td>
<td>can be worse … but mentally ill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6.1b  Theme-Rheme and Problem-Solution patterns of Clause 1a to Clause 1c of the TT

SUGGESTED TRANSLATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1a</td>
<td>[Having someone in the family…] coping with difficulties ↓</td>
<td>is already hard –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1b</td>
<td>however the coping with these difficulties →</td>
<td>can be even harder … ↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1c</td>
<td>if [one] →</td>
<td>has to live with a relative, having not a physical illness, but a mental illness.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Figure 6.1a is compared with Figure 6.1b, it reveals many similarities in the thematic patterning between the two segments of text, although the TT has one extra clause. In addition, although there has been a rearrangement of wording in the TT in compliance with the Vietnamese language structure, the information content has many semantic similarities with the ST (except for the inclusion of an ‘if-clause’ which was explained above). The semantic content appearing in the rhematic area of Clause 1c of the TT, for example, is the result of an elaborating process incorporating the information provided in the Rheme of Clause 1b of the ST.

Similarly, Figure 6.2a shows that the information contained in the rhematic zone of Clause 2a is the explanation of what has been stated in the Theme of the clause (mental illness is so common in Australia; i.e it describes the Situation), thus implying both the Situation and Problem, Clause 2b reuses the Theme of its predecessor and makes a contrasting statement in the rhematic area. If the Problem-Solution pattern is implemented, the rhetoric direction of both Clause 2a and 2b will look like this: Situation → Problem.

Figure 6.2b discovers some differences in the way the information is rearranged, Clause 2a of the TT presenting the Situation: in Australia mental illness is very common; while Clause 2b provides the statistical information to back up the above claim in Theme and then makes a contrasting statement in Rheme. Thus the direction of its information structure still resembles that of the ST; i.e. Situation → Problem.
To conclude, as demonstrated it is justifiable for the TT to preserve the thematic structure and thus the information structure of the ST, because the target language structural conventions allow for this to happen. In other cases, as in Example 1, this may not possible. Therefore the translator may have to resort to what is on offer in the target language, in terms of linguistic resources, and make an appropriate decision on which translation strategies should be employed to realign the thematic structure of the TT in order to reflect that of the ST. In some cases where this may be impossible, then Dooley’s advice (2007) concerning the preservation of the thematic structure of the ST at the macro-levels, but abiding by the TT micro-norms, may become handy.

The above exercise has indicated that the decision to make different choices of Theme in Clause 1 and Clause 2 of the TT in Chapter V may not be motivated or dictated by the target language structural norms, but rather by a personal style. However, as many experienced translators would agree, personal style may be allowed to a certain extent in literary translation, but is very much restricted with respect to the translation of informative texts. This text type requires a great degree of accuracy because its main purpose is to present factual information. The health information pamphlet text genre, a sub-type of this text type, may carry the additional function of persuasion. In such instances, a text producer may reveal
his or her personal stance through the use of language and certain textual strategies, as found in Example 5.3 of Chapter V. This persuasive characteristic in all instances should be reflected in the TT.

Although not wanting to go all the way with translation functionalists who believe that the function of the target text dictates translation approach (see Reiss 1989; Nord 1991, 1997), the current researcher may agree that such translation approaches as modification, explication, compensation and so on are possible and also recommendable, especially in the case of an informative text.

Given the primary aim of this text type is the dissemination of information, often explication and addition may not be only warranted, but also necessary. However, this is also an opportunity for compensation or adjustment to bring the thematic pattern of a stretch of language back on track. How a text is translated to ensure that the intended message is preserved and its purpose is fulfilled is very much to do with the preservation of its thematic structure and its information thrust. However, a message can only be conveyed successfully if its surface structure complies with the target language-specific conditions of information distribution, thus meeting the expectations of the target audience. And this may be an answer for the question ‘what is a good translation?’

Translators are like tightrope walkers, trying to balance out the pressure put on them by the thematic structure and the rhetoric purposes of the ST on the one hand, and the requirements of the textual norms of the target language on the other. With an awareness of the effect a thematic shift may have on the target language text, they employ their linguistic and cultural mediation skills to navigate through two language systems in order to provide the audience with an end product whose semantic and functional features resemble that of the original, but meet the cultural and intertextual expectations of the target audience.

Translation practice can be seen as the art of navigation - launching out from one’s own comfortable and familiar waterways and heading off into the treacherous and often uncharted waters with their complicated network of tributaries where river meets sea. Keeping the destination always in sight the translator takes advantage of patiently acquired navigation skills, namely linguistic competency in both languages, to negotiate the channel. Awareness, too, needs to be maintained of the moodily unpredictable nature of the current, expressed through a complex network of themes.

Cultural factors are also something that translators should be mindful of. Linguistic and grammatical knowledge may be analogously compared to a navigation map which provides information concerning the geographical layout of the destination and its surrounding system of waterways: the surface structure of a given text. What may not be
included in the map is information about tidal ebb and flow, the location of lurking sand bars, undercurrents, rips, backwaters, and so on. This knowledge may be considered as the culture of the stream a translator is travelling along. It is more practical, and can only be acquired through a life of work, supplemented by ongoing study and research.

The present research does not claim that a linguistic approach can provide solutions to all translation problems; nor does it ignore contributions of other disciplines to translation studies and practice. What the findings do reveal is that linguistics can effectively contribute to translation theory with respect to general terminology for translation discussion and translation phenomenal explanation. As regards practice, linguistic techniques and methodologies, especially ones designed by SFL scholars and researchers, can make a significant contribution to addressing translation issues at various levels.

When Yallop (2001: 231) encourages translation practitioners to move “beyond simplistic assumptions about equivalence in translation” and offers the notion of “correspondence”, he implies some degree of approximation, which is a much more realistic goal in translation practice than the absolute “equivalence”. For him, even when a translator moves far away from the exactness end of the continuum towards adaptation, one can still find possible “points of correspondence” in the translation.

This notion is applicable to translation problems at all levels of language structure. Be it at word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, or text levels; be it a linguistic element, a clausal structure or a thematic patterning it is still possible to afford correspondence. As Yallop (ibid) carefully explains: “Such correspondences may be unusual, even unique, but they are, in a sense, only the extreme instances of a process of trying to make sameness out of difference, a process of manoeuvring similarities into relationships that we are willing to accept as equivalent for the occasion and purpose.”
PART TWO

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CHAPTER IIb

RELEVANT LINGUISTIC CONCEPTS IN THE STUDY OF TRANSLATION

2B.1 MEANING AND MEANING RELATION

2.1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is considered an integral part of Chapter I and Chapter II in that, on the one hand it continues to examine one of the fundamental issues of translation studies, i.e. the issue of meaning at different levels of textual representation. On the other hand, it further explores translation issues which have semantic implications in relation to such language usage as collocation, idiomatic and fixed expressions, and so on.

Moreover, it also examines several terminological concepts used in translation studies such as denotative and connotative meaning, collocative and sentential meaning, before embarking on an investigation into some linguistic notions which are deemed useful for the practice of translation, especially for text analysis for both translation and translation quality assessment purposes. In particular, the second part of the chapter looks at Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and its potential role in investigating, describing and explaining textual phenomena as well as in helping to address or provide solution for some translation problems.

This can be seen as a ground work for an attempt to further exploring some effective analytical tools to assist with the task of comparing and contrasting parallel texts in order to identify, describe and explain differences caused by structural changes during the process of transferring. Further investigation will be conducted in Chapter IV and V of the study.

But first, meaning and the semantic relation between meaning and words will be looked at followed by an examination of meaning at the level beyond words.

2.1.1 DENOTATIVE AND CONNOTATIVE MEANING

Meaning is fundamental to translation. Prior to any translation act, translators must ensure they are confident of the meaning or message the text wants to convey. The meaning of a text is contributed to by the wording of the text.
Words have their meaning properties and also enter into various meaning relations with one another. A word can have a linguistic meaning, or denotative meaning, which is the meaning the word denotes in a language or the meaning which is normally found in a monolingual or bilingual dictionary. This is in contrast to the user's meaning which is what a speakerwriter really means in a particular context and can depend on whether s/he uses it literally or non-literally. When used non-literally, a word implies something different from its linguistic meaning. In other words, in addition to its denotative meaning, a word may have certain affective or evaluative values attached to it, usually referred to as connotations. For example, Nguyen Du, one of the greatest Vietnamese poets in the 18th century, described Thuy Van, one of the two Vuong sisters in his famous ‘The Tale of Kieu’, by comparing her face to ‘a moon’, her eyebrows to ‘two unrolled silkworms’, her hair to ‘clouds’, and her complexion to ‘snow’. If taken literally, the description would show that Thuy Van might have come from another planet; however, taken non-literally or metaphorically, the wording paints a romantic image of women who lived during his time.

A word can have several meanings (i.e. it can be polysemous), depending on context. Consider the following sentences:

Example 2B.1

1. Medicines are *drugs* or other substances used to maintain health and treat or prevent illness.
   
   (Self Care Pharmacist, 1991)

2. Alcohol is so much a part of our lives that we don’t think of it as a *drug* but it is. So, like any *drug*, it needs to be handled with care.
   
   (Self Care Pharmacist, 1989)

In both sentences, the term *drug* is used to indicate a chemical substance we take into our body. However, in the first sentence *drug* can be beneficial because it helps ‘*maintain health and treat or prevent illness*’; but in the second, we are warned that ‘*it needs to be handled with care.*’

Vietnamese language does not have a general term to mean *drug* both as a beneficial substance (medicine) and a harmful one (heroin, for example), so a translator will have to search for ‘equivalents’ appropriate to specific contexts.

In 1988, at one of the refugee camps in Hong Kong, a person lost her claim for refugee status because of the ambiguity of the word ‘*drug*’ used by the interpreter. When asked how she could survive through those years after the communists’ take over of Saigon, the applicant declared ‘*I went around selling drugs illegally.*’ In fact, before 1975 she was a
chemist who owned a pharmacy right in the centre of Saigon City. But after the fall of the Saigon regime, small businesses were abolished, her pharmacy was confiscated by the State, and the woman had to earn her living by illegally selling medicines sent by her relatives from overseas on the black market.

2.1.2 COLLOCATION AND COLLOCATIVE MEANING

Another issue regarding lexical meaning but at higher than the word level has arisen from the above example and needs to be discussed further; that is the issue of collocation which is defined as the ‘habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items’. A word, if stands by itself, doesn’t have any meaning, it needs to be placed in a context and often preceded or followed by another word (or a group of words) which is not chosen at random, but is in its most typical collocations. According to Sinclair (1991: 112) “Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment”. This is agreed with by Mona Baker (1992: 53) who contends that: “... what a word means often depends on its association with certain collocates”, and to emphasise the important role a collocation plays in creating meanings in certain contexts, Baker wonders “whether a word on its own can ‘mean’ anything” (ibid).

The word ‘mở’ in Vietnamese, for example, can be an act of opening a door (‘mở cửa’), or a box (‘mở hộp’); it can also mean to start or commence an event, for example ‘mở đầu câu chuyện’ (to start a conversation), ‘mở màn’ (to start a show). ‘Mở’ can also be used to describe the act of tuning into a radio station or a television channel. Once, on an SBS talkback program conducted in Vietnamese, the broadcaster made a request in English to the visiting head of BBC’s Vietnamese Language Program (an English speaker) ‘Could you tell our listeners how to open the BBC Radio?’

In addition collocationally, it’s all right to say ‘mở ti vi’ (to turn on the TV) or ‘mở radi-ô dài SBS’ (to tune into SBS Radio) in Vietnamese (and in Chinese as reported by Chinese speaking subjects), but ‘opening’ the radio doesn’t make sense in English or may be understood as to disassembling the radio set. By the same token the following collocations can occur: ‘mở’ can collocate with ‘mở lò suộii’ (to turn on the heater), ‘mở lò ga’ (to turn on the gas oven), ‘mở máy xe hơi’ (to start the car), etc. Alternatively, the word ‘vặn’ (northern dialect, meaning ‘to turn’ or ‘to twist’ depending on the context) can be used in the sense of turning on a piece of equipment; thus, we can ‘vặn ra-di-ô dài SBS’, ‘vặn lò società’, ‘vặn lò ga’, and so forth.
Similarly, the verb ‘uống’ (‘to drink’) in Vietnamese can be used in collocate with such terms as ‘uống nước’ (‘to drink water’), ‘uống rượu’ (‘to drink alcohol’), ‘uống trà’ (‘to drink tea’), etc.

However, ‘uống’ is also used with ‘thuốc’ as in ‘uống thuốc’ (‘take medication’). And while in English it’s possible to say ‘to drink some soup’, in Vietnamese this may sound odd, unless the substance is separated from its stock (in the case of vegetable soup, for example) and then it will be alright to say ‘uống chút nước canh’ which literally means ‘to drink a bit of soup stock’. Therefore ‘to have some soup’ should be understood as ‘ăn canh’ (‘to eat some soup’), and not ‘uống canh’ (‘to drink the soup’) in Vietnamese.

The above example shows a typically syntagmatic structure of word sequences (verb+object or material process+range) is not random, but follows a certain collocational pattern. Moreover, in any language community there are also specific rules in relation to the structure of words to form semantic fields.

Bahns (1993), referring to Benson and Ilson (1986), differentiates between grammatical and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are a combination of either a noun, an adjective or a verb, and a preposition or a certain grammatical structure, including phrasal verbs, for example ‘out of order’, ‘on arrival’, ‘to be interested in’, ‘allow for’, etc. Lexical collocations, on the other hands, consist of a combination of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs (ibid: 57); ‘to propose a plan’, ‘heated argument’, ‘to be heavily defeated’, etc. Bahns also makes a distinction between idioms and free combinations. For example the adjective ‘foul’ can be used with many nouns (‘foul play’, ‘foul weather’, ‘foul language’, etc.); and these nouns, in turn, can be freely combined with other adjectives. Idioms however, as Bahns puts it, ‘are relatively frozen expressions whose meanings do not reflect the meanings of their component parts’; for example ‘to scream blue murder’, has nothing to do with ‘scream’ or ‘murder’, but means ‘to complain loudly’. Therefore, ‘the main characteristics of collocations are that their meanings reflect the meaning of their constituent parts (in contrast to idioms)...’ (ibid: 57).

A word and its collocate can belong to the same semantic field and follow a certain order of sequence, for example in English one will say ‘it’s my bread and butter’ to indicates one’s means of earning a living or livelihood, but the other way round - butter and bread - is unacceptable to a native speaker’s ear. And also ‘bread and butter’ cannot be substituted by another kind of food, for instance ‘bread and cheese’ or ‘potato and butter’. However, in similar context, a Vietnamese will say ‘căn câu cöm’ (lit. ‘rice rod’), and if an English person says ‘You’ve taken away my bread and butter’ s/he simply means ‘ông dập vỡ nồi cöm của tôi rôi’ (‘You’ve destroyed my rice cooker’) in Vietnamese.
Vietnamese people will also refer to their livelihood ‘miếng com, manh áo’ (literally meaning a bite of rice, a piece of clothing), but never as ‘manh áo, miếng com’. While in English ‘bread’ and ‘butter’ are of the same semantic field (they are both a type of food), ‘rice’ and ‘clothing’ are not. However, this is acceptable within the Vietnamese language community due to its agricultural culture where life used to be dependent on rice crops and extreme changes in the weather, and ‘com no, áo âm’ (lit. ‘filled with rice, covered by clothes’) depicts a comfortable life. By the same token, to describe a high cost of living, Vietnamese people also use rice in their comparison; thus one will say ‘thời kỳ gạo chậu, cui quê’ (literally meaning ‘a period of rice as expensive as pearl and firewood as expensive as cinnamon sticks’) to indicate the scarcity of these basic items. Moreover, just as in English one will say ‘strong tea’ as opposed to ‘weak tea’ (implying a degree of substance concentration), a Vietnamese will say ‘trà đạm’ (‘darker tea’) and ‘trà nhardt’ (‘lighter tea’) which has more to do with the colour of the liquid. Therefore, syntagmatically, it can be said that for a lexical item to collocate with another lexical item (or group of words) in English, this specific word/lexical item may need to be a member of the same lexical set, but this may not always be the case in Vietnamese. As pointed out by Mona Baker (1992: 49) “Some collocations are in fact a direct reflection of the material, social, or moral environment in which they occur.

In an article, entitled English: The Third Language in Vietnam (2001) published on the internet, Frank Trinh, a Vietnamese translation scholar, referring to a work by Alan Duff, The Third Language (1981), provides some good examples of this kind that he found on a visit to Hanoi. One of many examples pointed out by Trinh is ‘Serving time’ (‘Giờ phục vụ’ or ‘Giờ mở cửa’ in Vietnamese) written on a wooden sign at the entrance of a seafood restaurant in the capital of Vietnam, which, according to Trinh, should be ‘Trading/Business/Opening Hours’. Because ‘serving time’ in English, he argues, is only used in a prison or military context.

Several years ago in the Sydney Morning Herald’s Column8, a reader sent in an example of collocational mismatch which is typical and can be found in many books written by ‘globe trotters’. In English food products often contain the adjective ‘free’ is placed after a noun (or a noun phrase) to mean ‘without’ or ‘not containing’ which is usually found on the label; thus, ‘cholesterol free’, ‘98% fat free’ or ‘sugar free’. The word ‘free’ has also been used in other contexts such as ‘trouble free’, and in particular, ‘obligation free’ (or ‘no strings attached’) to assure potential clients of ‘peace of mind’ before engaging them in any service contracts. Used in yet another context, ‘free’ also bears another connotative meaning and often collocates with the word ‘zone’ to mean ‘restricted’ or ‘prohibited’; for example ‘smoking free zone’, and ‘nuclear free zone’. The example provided by an SMH reader who
went on a holiday trip to Vietnam and who was quite taken back by the words ‘free bacteria’ found on the label of a drinking water bottle. This is typical of what Trinh may call ‘The Third Language’.

Incidents of collocational mismatch are not unique to the translation of Vietnamese into English, but also happen in cases of translation English into Vietnamese. The Vietnamese compound word ‘công cộng’ or its shorter form ‘công’ is placed after a noun to mean a ‘public (state) run/managed facility’; thus, we have ‘nha ve sinh cong cong’ (public toilets), ‘tien ich cong cong’ (public facilities), ‘phuong tien chuyen cho cong cong’ (public transport), and so on. However, a Vietnamese will also say ‘truong cong’ or ‘truong cong lap’ (public schools) as opposed to ‘tu thuc’ or ‘truong tu’ (private schools), and ‘benh vien cong’ (public hospitals) or ‘nha thuong thi’ (as in the northern dialect), and never ‘truong cong cong’ or ‘benh vien cong cong’. In the early 1990s, there was an advertisement in one of the most popular Vietnamese language papers in Sydney published under instructions of the Ford Motor Company - Australia in relation to the recall of one of its vehicle models which had been found to have a faulty seatbelt. The company’s ‘Public Recall’ was translated literally as ‘Thu Hoi Cong Cong’. To many Vietnamese readers who have experienced the state run economy back home, this would give an impression of the government’s intention to confiscate or nationalise private property.

The words ‘Public Recall’, in this case, can be translated as ‘Thong Bao Thu Hoi San Pham Co Khuyet Dieu’ (‘Notice of Recall of Faulty Products’).

Another interesting example of collocational mismatch is the political maxim or mission statement declared by the current governing Communist Party of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam; ‘Cong Hoa Xa Hoi Chuc Nghia Viet Nam: Doc Lap – Tu Do – Hạnh Phuc’ which has been officially translated as ‘The Socialist Republic of Vietnam: Independence - Freedom - Happiness’ and appears on every government’s English language letter head and official documents.

Freedom is normally used in the context of personal or individual enjoyment or determination of one’s rights and privileges; and happiness is more to do with a person’s feelings or state of mind. Politically, when it comes to a nation’s aspiration or determination ‘liberty’ and ‘welfare’ should be used instead. Baker calls this ‘register-specific collocation’, and we will return to this phenomenon in the next section.

The use of ‘hạnh phúc’ (literally meaning ‘happiness’) as a political maxim implies ‘com no, ao am’ (‘filled with rice, covered by clothes’) ‘co chao chui ra, chui vao’ (‘having a roof over one’s head’) and ‘co hoi hoc hanh, thang tien’ (‘education opportunity, and career
promotion’), but nothing to do with what is defined by Wikipedia as “a mental state of well-being characterized by positive emotions ranging from contentment to intense joy.”

As far as collocation is concerned, sometimes the polysemous characteristics of a word (or group of words) can create pitfalls for even an experienced translator. Here is an example from the booklet *Immunisation - An essential guide to the new school entry requirements* published by the NSW Health Department, 1993:

**Example 2B.2**

**Source Text**  
*(Immunisation - An essential guide to the new school entry requirements, NSW Health Department, 1993: 1)*

**HOW IMPORTANT IS IMMUNISATION?**

Immunisation is extremely important. It is a simple, safe and effective way of protecting children from disease.

There are many childhood diseases, including seven well-known ones which can cause serious complications and sometimes even death. These are diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis (whooping cough), poliomyelitis, measles, mumps and rubella.

**Target Text**  
*(Chúng ngừa – Những điều cần phải có cho việc nhập học, NSW Health Department, 1993: 1)*

**VIỆC CHỨNG NGỪA CÓ QUAN TRỌNG LÀM KHÔNG?**

Việc chứng ngừa rất quan trọng. Đây là một phương pháp đơn giản, an toàn và hữu hiệu trong việc bảo vệ trẻ con khỏi mắc bệnh.

Bệnh trẻ con có rất nhiều loại kể cả bệnh chung bệnh nổi tiếng có thể gây ra những biến chứng trầm trọng hay đói khi ca việc tử vong. Đó là những bệnh: bệnh bạch hầu (diphtheria), sởi uốn ván (tetanus), ho gà (pertussis - whooping cough), sốt thể liệt (poliomyelitis), sởi, ban (measles), quai bị (mumps), và ban Đức (rubella)

The adjectival group ‘well known’ in English has at least two connotations and its meanings will change depending on what it collocates with. For example ‘a well known artist’ is ‘someone who is famous for his/her achievements or work’, and in this case the corresponding meaning in Vietnamese will be ‘một nghệ sĩ nổi tiếng’ or ‘một nghệ sĩ có tiếng tăm’ (a reputed artist). However, in the above case, ‘well known’ precedes ‘childhood diseases’ and collocatively means ‘common’ (‘thông thường’) or ‘commonly known to many people’ and should be translated as ‘những chứng bệnh thông thường ở trẻ em’ (common childhood diseases) or ‘những chứng bệnh trẻ em được nhiều người biết đến’ (commonly known childhood diseases). Similarly, in English people tend to say ‘closely cooperate’ and ‘tightly control’, whereas in Vietnamese the adverbial ‘chật chẽ’ (‘tightly’) will be used in
both cases, and thus ‘hợp tác chất chế’ and ‘kiểm soát chất chế’ respectively. Therefore in translation, it is important for a translator to find appropriate collocations.

With respect to what is termed by Baker (1992) as ‘register-specific collocation’ the following excerpt from an information pamphlet by the NSW Health Department (1988) provides another instance of collocational mismatch:

**Example 2B.3**

**Source Text**

*BREASTFEEDING, NSW Health Department, 1988: 4*

**FEEDING YOUR BABY**

A baby must have adequate food to survive. The food she is given must contain all the ingredients needed for growth and also for proper development of her brain and body. The way it is given is important for her emotional and social growth. The early weeks are a settling-in period for you and your baby. Some adjustments may be needed, and then feeding usually becomes enjoyable for both giver and receiver.

**Target Text**

*NUÔI DƯỠNG EM BÉ BẰNG SỮA MẸ, NSW Health Department, 1988: 4*

**NUÔI DƯỠNG EM BÉ**

Em bé cần ăn thức ăn thích ứng để sống còn. Đồ ăn em bé dùng phải bao gồm đầy đủ những chất cần thiết cho sự phát triển về thể xác và trí tuệ của em. Cách nuôi dưỡng em rất quan trọng đối với sự phát triển của em sau này về mặt tinh cảm lẫn xã hội.

Những tuần đầu tiên khi ra đời là thời kỳ để bà mẹ và đứa con công đồng định đối sống lẫn nhau. Có thể cần một vài sự điều chỉnh khác, rời vị trí em bé sẽ trở thành một việc thú vị cho cả người nuôi và người nhận.

With respect to the notion of collocation, ‘điều chỉnh’ may occur in the following expressions: ‘điều chỉnh máy móc’ (to regulate a machine); ‘điều chỉnh đồng hồ’ (to adjust a clock/watch); ‘điều chỉnh giá biểu’ (to readjust the price index) or ‘điều chỉnh bậc lương’ (to readjust a salary scale); ‘điều chỉnh tiêu cực của ông kính’ (to adjust the focus of a camera lens); in the military context we have ‘điều chỉnh điểm của nòng súng’ (to adjust the elevation and deflection of a gun); ‘điều chỉnh tọa độ mục tiêu’ (to confirm the coordination of a target for bombing or shelling purposes). In the context of the above text, however, ‘some adjustments may be needed’ simply means ‘những thay đổi cần thiết’ (some necessary changes...)

In addition, the translator has also ‘violated’ one of Vietnamese structural conventions which is termed by Nguyen Hien Le (1988) ‘Luật Cân Xứng’ (or ‘Symmetrical Convention’). Similar to English, the Vietnamese conjunction ‘và’ (‘and’) should be flanked by two lexical items (or a word group, etc.) having the same functions or bearing related senses. In the SL text of Example 2B.3, ‘and’ joins two lexical items (i.e. giver and receiver) which are
complementary. The TL text does not preserve this balance linking two unrelated items of two different semantic fields - ‘người nuôi’ (‘raiser’ or ‘feeder’) and ‘người nhận’ (‘receiver’ or ‘recipient’). As far as cultural sensitivity is concerned, the term ‘giver’ (‘người cho’) and ‘receiver’ (‘người nhận’) are much too impersonal for Vietnamese people who consider motherhood to be a ‘divine mission’. Therefore, ‘mẹ và con’ (‘mother and child’) would be collocationally more appropriate and preferable in this case.

2.1.3 IDIOMS AND FIXED EXPRESSIONS

Discussing idiom translation, Baker, in her comprehensive work *In Other Words - A Course Book in Translation* which has now been used as a text-book in translator training courses in many universities around the world, proposes a number of strategies in dealing with idioms. These include:

- Using an idiom of similar meaning and form;
- Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form;
- Translation by paraphrase;
- Translation by omission

From a point of view of a translator, the above strategies can generally be employed to deal with other categories of formulaic or prefabricated language, such as fixed expressions and collocations, as well as with similes and metaphors.

The following example shows how the above strategies can be applied in the translation of collocations.

Example 2B.4

**Source Text** *(HOW TO RELAX AND REDUCE STRESS, NSW Department of Health, 1985: 1)*

**WHAT SITUATIONS CAUSE STRESS?**
Almost any. In olden days, when human hunted animals in order to eat, stress reactions were essential for survival so that the hunter would be on the alert, ready to strike or to retreat to safety. This reaction of ‘fight or flight’ exists in modern humans as well but the situations which trigger it are very different, from coping with traffic jams and city life generally, to sitting exams, moving house, getting married or being ticked off by your boss.

Your resulting feelings and behaviour will also be different, ‘fight or flight’ being translated into modern equivalents.
Back translation

WHICH SITUATIONS STIMULATE RESPONSES?
When humans hunted animals to eat, stimulated responses helped the hunter and those who were attacked ready to fight or escape to safety. In modern days, a situation which causes these reactions is not always appropriate for a ‘fight or escape’ reaction. For example traffic jams, moving house, getting married...

(It’s) impossible to say that in this situation it causes reactions and in another it doesn’t. But it is your reaction which shows whether you are filled with stimulated responses.

The translation of Example 2B.4 presents several issues which need to be discussed, for example the invention of the word ‘kích ứng’ a Sino-Vietnamese term which may be literally translated as ‘stimulated response’. The translator may probably be confused with ‘kích xúc’ (shock), the term used by some Vietnamese medical professionals in referring to the extreme mental and emotional reaction of a person caused by a sudden and violent or horrific encounter. Moreover, there are also some instances of translation omission and mistranslation which need to be pointed out due to the serious nature of these errors. However for the purpose of our present discussion, we will only be looking at the translation of some fixed expressions; namely ‘fight or flight’ and ‘being ticked off’.

In the target text ‘fight or flight’ has been translated as ‘chiến đấu hay chạy trốn/trốn chạy’ (literally means ‘fight or escape’) which in this case is very close to the meaning containing in the source text. However, as far as collocations are concerned, in Vietnamese the word ‘chiến đấu’ usually collocates with ‘chiến đấu hay đấu hàng’ or ‘đánh hay hàng’ (‘fight or surrender’), but in the above context, the fixed expression ‘fight or flight’ should be translated as ‘tiến hay lui’ or ‘tiến hoặc thoái’ a fixed expression with similar meaning (‘advance or retreat’). This falls into the first strategy proposed by Baker (using an expression of similar meaning and form). Also in Example 2B.4, ‘being ticked off’ has been omitted...
(Baker’s last strategy). There are two possibilities: either the translator cannot understand what this expression means or cannot find its corresponding meaning in Vietnamese, therefore, s/he has decided to ignore it altogether.

In English ‘being ticked off by someone’ means being scolded by that person; thus ‘I was ticked off by my boss for being carelessness’ has a corresponding expression in Vietnamese as ‘Tôi bị ông chủ giûa (nào) vi bát cân’ (‘I was filed/grated by my boss for being careless’). The metaphorical lexis ‘file’ or ‘grate’ is used in this sense to depict the ‘painful feeling’ of being scolded or reprimanded by one’s boss.

And this leads us to a discussion on the use of words with figurative meanings or metaphors that are very common in many cultures, particularly in the spoken form.

“Metaphor is typically used to describe something (whether concrete or abstract) more concisely, with greater emotional force, and more often more exactly, than is possible in literal language” (Dickins et al, 2002:146). Metaphor can present a translator with great difficulties, particularly in translation between two languages which are as culturally and linguistically remote as Vietnamese and English.

Taking for example the word ‘hound’ in English, the Macquarie Dictionary (1990) gives it the following definitions: ‘n. (1) a dog of any various breeds used in the chase and commonly hunting by scent. (2) any dog...’ In Vietnamese ‘chó sân’ (‘hound’ or ‘hunting dog’) is used to label a person who works as a collaborator (cooperating with the enemy) and betrays or ‘dobs in’ his/her party or associate; however, in English in a similar context, ‘rat’ is used instead.

Dickins et al differentiate two types of metaphors; namely lexicalised and non-lexicalised metaphors, with the former being ‘metaphors whose meanings are given in dictionaries’, and the latter where ‘the metaphorical meaning is not clearly fixed, but varies from context to context, and has to be worked out by the reader on particular occasions.’ (ibid: 147). The word ‘chó sân’ in Vietnamese or ‘rat’ in English can be considered as an exemplar of the first category.

Non-lexicalised metaphors or conventionalised metaphors are those whose meanings are not given in dictionaries but, as Dickins et al put it, ‘draw on either cultural or linguistic conventions.’ (ibid: 149)

In Vietnamese, for example, the lexicalised metaphor ‘chóng’ (a Sino-Vietnamese term meaning ‘fight against’ or ‘anti-’) is widely used in many a campaign to show the determination of the people to get rid of a particular social ills. Thus:
Example 2B.5a

chống dôi  
chống dót  
chống nghèo dôi  
chống tham ô, lạng phãi  
chống chiến tranh  
chống tham nhũng

fight against hunger
fight against illiteracy
fight against poverty
fight against embezzlement and extravagance
anti-war
anti-corruption

‘Chống’ is also found in many technical, medical and military terms; for example:

Example 2B.5b

chống rã (sét)  
chống nước  
chống chiến xa  
chống máy bay  
chống viêm sưng

anti-rust
waterproof
anti-tank
anti-aircraft
anti-inflammatory, etc.

In translating fixed or idiomatic expressions, a translator often resorts to bilingual dictionaries for assistance. However, this strategy may not always be helpful, as shown in Example 2B.6 below:

Example 2B.6

Source Text  
(DOMESTIC VIOLENCE, Women’s Co-ordination Unit, NSW Premier’s Department, 1985: 6)

WOMEN AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Many women who are victims of domestic violence find it very difficult to do anything about it. From day to day they cope with bruises, gashes, maybe broken bones, and fear of another attack. They worry about how their children are being affected. Then there is the personal cost - feelings of helplessness and shame, the hoping that maybe the violence will stop and that their relationship will be happy again. It’s very hard when the man later is apologetic and loving, and promises never to beat you again - you want to believe him, even if he hasn’t kept those promises in the past. Some women even blame themselves. Others are encouraged by their own families to put up with it. Others just don’t want to ‘dob in’ their husband or partner.

There’s also the problem of feeling trapped - having little or no money of your own and nowhere to go. And the problem of what to do in the best interests of the children.
In Example 2B.6, ‘dob in’ has been translated as ‘nói xấu’ (‘speak ill of’) instead of ‘báo cáo’ (report), whereas ‘feeling trapped’ has been rendered as ‘bi mắc bẫy’ (‘feeling deceived’ or ‘caught in a trap’), instead of ‘không có lối thoát’ (‘no way out’) as actually have been intended in this context.

There is yet another type of collocation which has no linguistically defined relation and which is normally found in the use of fixed or idiomatic expressions, similes, and metaphors and often presents a translator with difficulties. A very often quoted one is the English expression ‘It’s raining cats and dogs’ (with as the corresponding expression in Vietnamese ‘mưa như trút nước’, literally means ‘rain as water is being poured down’) which makes the English translation theorist Peter Fawcett (1997) ask “What possible link can there be between rain, cats, and dogs?” He (1997:7) then offers a translation strategy: “Good translation is often a case of either knowing or serendipitously hitting on the appropriate collocations (which will not always be in the dictionary)”

Returning to the translation of idiomatic or fixed expression, such expression as ‘For more information...’ which usually appears at the end of an information pamphlet/brochure has its correspondence ‘Muốn biết thêm chi tiết...’ (literally means [If you’re] wishing/wanting to have more information …), or in the case of closing a formal letter, as exemplified by Baker, ‘Yours sincerely’ or ‘Yours faithfully’ should be translated as ‘Kính thưa’ (lit. ‘Respectfully closing [the letter]’), or ‘Trân trọng kính chào’ (lit. ‘Respectful salutation’).
Words can be members of a semantic field; i.e. although they are not synonymous, they are all used to indicate ‘the same general phenomenon, and there is a meaning inclusion relation between the items in the field and the field category itself’ (Akmajian, et al 1995: 226). Kinship terms and colour terms are typical examples of semantic fields. Semantic field can include any set of terms which has a close relation in meaning, and ‘all of which can be subsumed under the same general label’ (ibid: 226); for example walk, stroll, wander, roam, loiter, etc. Because of the lack of readily available ‘equivalents’ in Vietnamese, translators may have to modify the act using adverbs of manner.

Also in this respect, the word ‘xe’ in Vietnamese can be useful as a head word in describing all types of vehicle; thus ‘xe đạp’ (bicycles), ‘xe ba bánh’ (tricycles), ‘xe gắn máy’ (motorised vehicles), ‘xe lửa’ (train), ‘xe hơi’ (motor car), ‘xe cứu thương’ (ambulance), etc. By the same token, ‘diễn’ can be used to make up terms indicating most electrical and electronic appliances; thus ‘diễn thoại’ (telephone), ‘diễn toán’ (computer), ‘diễn tâm điện’ (electronic cardiogram), etc. This knowledge of meaning properties and meaning relations may help translation practitioners to find ‘equivalents’ for new terminology.

Words can also be used to refer to things or objects, which for cultural reasons, a language user may use to designate certain meanings. A good example is human private parts and relevant matters in the Vietnamese culture. The male genital organ may be referred to as a ‘bird’ and the female one as a ’clamp’; the act of sexual intercourse is described as ‘blanket and pillow affair’, etc.

2.1.4 SENTENTIAL MEANING AND COMMUNICATIVE POTENTIAL

Words and phrases usually occur in texts in sentential units, and the semantic properties and relations of words and phrases discussed above may, therefore, be also applied to sentences. However, a sentential unit also has its own meaning properties and relations which may not be found in words and phrases; one important feature of a sentence is its communicative potential. Sentences with different structures convey different communicative functions. A statement (declarative sentence) will have a different function from an order or command (imperative sentence) that is, in turn, different from a question (interrogative sentence).

A sentence is ‘a complete, self-contained and ready-made vehicle for communication: nothing needs to be added before it can be uttered and understood in concrete situations.’ (Dickins et al, 2002: 113). Seen from this perspective, a simple one-word offer ‘Please!’,
uttered and accompanied by a gesture of the hand by someone who opens a door and steps to aside to let another person walk through, can be considered as a ‘sentence’. By the same token, a one-word command ‘No!’ made by a mother who sees her toddler grabbing a bar of chocolate on their trip through the supermarket can be seen as an expression of disapproval which is equivalent to ‘Don’t touch it’.

The grammar of a language like English distinguishes declarative structures ('You didn't say anything') from interrogative ('Didn't you say anything?') from imperative ('Don't say anything!'). These structures often match the higher level functions of stating, questioning and commanding. But sometimes the mapping is not straightforward, and, for example, a seeming interrogative may indicate a polite command rather than questioning ('Would you sit over there?', or 'Could you shut the door?')

In Vietnamese, the fixed expression ‘Mấy … rồi?’ can be used to make questions about time duration or quantity. For example:

**Example 2B.7a**

*Time duration:*

Eg:  
Mấy tháng rồi? (How many months is it?)
Mấy năm rồi? (How many years is it?)

**Example 2B.7b**

*Quantity:*

Eg:  
Mấy cháu rồi? (How many children do you have?)

However, being uttered in a particular context a statement can give a similar communicative effect as a question. So, for example about to go to a movie together, but seeing his wife is still busy making up, instead of asking for the time as a way of reminding her of their possible lateness, the husband may resort to making this kind of statement:

**Example 2B.8**

Anh sợ mình bị trễ rồi! (I’m afraid that we may be late)

Or perhaps, being a bit more assertive:

Nhanh lên! Trễ rồi. (Hurry up! We’re late)
Any Vietnamese will tell you that the second choice is more effective in this case. This also reflects the mentality of a patriarchal culture in which boys used to be valued more than girls and men used to assume they had power over women.

In some cultures, an offer - for instance inviting someone to stay for dinner while your family is in the middle of eating - may be made using a question. But it may be considered merely coming from the host’s politeness in the Vietnamese culture. Thus, an offer like “Anh ở lại dùng cơm luôn với bọn này, nhé? Chỉ thêm đứa, thêm bát thôi mà.” (‘Could you stay and have dinner with us? It is only a matter of providing an extra pair of chopsticks and a bowl.’) should not be taken seriously, but “Tiến cơm đã dọn sẵn, ở lại ăn với bọn này luôn nhé” (‘Since dinner is ready, stay and join us!’) will be seen a genuine offer.

In this section some basic notions concerning meaning relevant to translation theory and practice have been discussed. Also explored are most widely discussed concepts and terminological usage which are essential in both semantic and translation studies.

It, therefore, can be said that translation studies is able to benefit greatly from the knowledge and understanding provided by language studies and can take advantage of this to explain common translation issues.

In the next section certain linguistic theories and notions will be explored in relation to their usefulness in explaining and addressing translation issues. I will start first with an overview of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) that sees language as a semiotic system, and communication is a social activity, and that the function of language is meaning making potential.
2B.2 FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTIC THEORY & TRANSLATION

2.2.1 INTRODUCTION

Translation is primarily concerned with meaning and, from a functional perspective, meaning is not only found encoded in the text, but also in the context where the text was produced. Translation is also more concerned with language in use (language in context or, to use Saussure’s terminology, ‘parole’) than with language as a system (or ‘langue’). However, given what the translator deals with is a message encoded in the signs or symbols of one language (SL text) and is expected to decode it and then encode the message using the signs and symbols of another language (TL text), the task is complex and requires a possession of a knowledge and understanding of both the linguistic and cultural systems of the TL and SL texts.

As has been discussed in Chapter II (‘Common Issues in The Practice of English and Vietnamese Translation - Factors Affecting The Translation Process’), during the translation process the linguistic and extra-linguistic features of an ST will be compared and contrasted with that of the target language and culture. Apart from such linguistic or grammatical factors as phonology, morphology, syntax and text, other extra-linguistic (or non-linguistic) factors such as the topic of the text (what the text is about), its purpose (what the text tries to achieve), its producer’s intention (what message the writer tries to convey), its audience (who it is translated for as opposed to who it was written for in the SL) as well as other related factors such as medium (printed material, audio/video, electronic message, etc.) are all of utmost importance. Once the text is removed from its original environment and transplanted into the TL environment, not only will the linguistic factors change, but some of its extra-linguistic factors will also be affected (e.g. depending on its target audience, a printed material may become an audio tape to cater for a poorly literate or illiterate audience, etc.). Therefore, in order for the translator to determine how the SL text should be translated and which approaches/strategies should be taken, all of the above factors should be carefully considered.

In Chapter I we had a brief look at the stages of a translation process and the first stage involves reading and comprehension of the given text which is to be translated. This stage can be seen as the deconstruction stage in which the text is dissected into segments (words, groups of words, phrases, clauses or sentences depending on the complexity of the
text) in order to help the translator to understand the text fully and extract its intended meaning.

And in order to fully understand the source text (ST), the translator needs to analyse it in detail. Only after having an in-depth understanding of the ST can the translator know what approach s/he is going to take to reproduce it in the target language, with close attention being paid to the purpose for which the text is translated, the background of its intended audience, and the requirements of the linguistic conventions of the target culture.

Each individual reader, and thus translator, understands and interprets a text in different ways depending on his/her educational background, knowledge of the language and subject matter, as well as knowledge of the culture where the text was embedded and the significance of the communicative event where it was produced, as El-Shiyab (1994: 235) admits: “In the interpretation of texts, the recipient’s perception and the meaning of the text should ideally be in agreement with the intentions of the (original) text.” (emphasis added)

Because translation primarily deals with meaning, and meaning can come from the wording, the co-text (the immediate textual environment of the text), the general context (cultural environment) and its context of situation (the communicative situation where the text is produced), to discuss translation issues we need a linguistic approach which can describe both the linguistic and contextual features of a text under examination.

The importance of such an approach resonates through Firth’s (1968: 17) view of linguistic analysis as a study of meaning, regarding which he strongly recommends: “Linguistic analysis must first state the structures it finds both in the text and in the context. Statements in structural terms then contribute to the statements of meaning in various modes.”

Therefore, given structural differences between the two languages in question, there is a need for a linguistic theory which provides an elaborate system of grammatical analysis, taking into account the significant impact of the context of use, to help bring forth any ‘hidden’ meanings encoded deeply in layers of the structural strata of the text.

Transformational-generative (henceforth TG) or formalist theory developed by Chomsky and his colleagues in the 1960s is only interested in examining language at the syntactic level and formulating grammatical rules, but ignores the contextual factors which may impact on the sentence when it is produced. It’s also unconcerned with discovering how meanings are expressed and in what way they are different. For instance, TG does not consider whether a sentence is a statement or a question such as ‘I doubt we’ll be there on time’, instead of ‘Do you think we’re late?’; nor is it interested in the impact of a brief utterance such as ‘Coffee?’, which sounds like a question, but actually implying an offer. With this limitation, therefore, its perspective and methodology may add little tour
exploration of the problem. As observed by Thompson (1996: 5): “The aim [of Chomsky’s model] is to discover the rules which govern how constituents can be put together to form grammatically correct sentences, and to formulate these rules in as general way as possible (ideally, so that they apply to all human language rather than just individual languages); therefore each sentence is analysed in complete isolation, both from other sentences and from the situations in which it might be used.”

2.2.2 SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS – AN OVERVIEW

Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter SFL) is a theory that views language as a resource for social interaction between language users. It also proposes that as a social activity, language should be studied in the context of its use. Furthermore, SFL also views language as a semiotic system; i.e. “a system of signs in which the one essential is the union of sense and sound pattern…” (Saussure, 1983: 14), or the union of sense and symbolic pattern; i.e. sign system. In other words as a sign system, language is a combination of concepts, ideas, or things which are represented in certain linguistic forms.

It should be noted that the ‘systemic’ notion also implies the paradigmatic range of linguistic choices available to a language user; whereas ‘functional’ indicates the syntagmatically individual constituents and their unique roles in the structure of the whole sentence, or as Halliday puts it: ‘a conventionalised coding system, organised as sets of choices’ (Halliday, 1985, 1994; Eggins, 1994; Butt et al, 2000). And as a semiotic system it cannot be studied without reference to meaning; i.e. what a certain code or sign stands for as opposed to other codes or signs in the system. As explained by Eggins (1994: 3): “The distinctive feature of semiotic systems is that each choice in the system acquires its meanings against the background of the other choices which could have been made. This semiotic interpretation of the system of language allows us to consider the appropriacy or inappropriacy of different linguistic choices in relation to their contexts of use, and to view language as a resource which we use by choosing to make meanings in contexts.”

In other words, SFL places emphasis on the purposes and choices of language use for communication, and proposes that language should be analysed against the backdrop of the contextual and social environment where it is used. Perhaps no one has better described the relationship between the use of language for communication and the effect of the social and cultural context in which the language is used than Eggins (1994: 2): “common to all systemic linguists is an interest in how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday
social claims about language: that language is functional; that its function is to make meanings; that these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged and that the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meanings by choosing.”

Within this framework the Systemic Functional Linguistic theory provides a useful set of tools for the investigation of language and its function in a communicative context and has its focus on authentic linguistic data obtained from that particular social interaction. It analyses language from two inseparable aspects; i.e. systemic and functional, with the systemic approach aiming to describe the internal relations of language as a system, and the functional approach viewing language as a means for social interaction. It is systemic because it considers language as a system of choices (the paradigmatic aspect of language) whereby a speaker/writer can select from a variety of grammatical options available in the language to express meanings; it is functional because it sees language as a resource for making meaning for a particular purpose and in a particular context. In other words, SFL deals with both form (or structure) and content (or meaning in context). And thus, it provides a translator with a useful tool not only for the analysis of the SL text for the translation purpose, but also for the selection of a certain word, phrase or structure to reproduce a corresponding meaning in the TL text due to its view of language as ‘meaning potential’.

Newmark (1991), in one of his books on translation, devotes a whole chapter to the use of systemic linguistics in translation. Commenting on this linguistic theory, Newmark (1991: 65) points out the potential of its application to translation practice: “it is not surprising that Hallidayan linguistics, which sees language primarily as a meaning potential, should offer itself as a serviceable tool for determining the constituent parts of a source language text and its network of relations with its translation.”

He also compares the functional approach to other relevant theories and unreservedly criticises them: “[Hallidayan linguistics] appears to me, as a translation analyst (rather than theorist), to be more useful than Chomsky’s TG or the behaviourist Bloomfield’s immediate constituent analysis (who ever uses ICA now?) or any of the variants of artificial language and logical propounded, for example, by the Montague Grammarians, in spite of the latter’s not infrequent references to translation.” (ibid)

The most influential figure of SFL theory is Michael Halliday (1985a: xvii) who, with the contribution of other functionalists, has developed systemic functional grammar. He always maintains that: “The relation between the meaning and the wording is not… an arbitrary one; the form of the grammar relates naturally to the meanings that are being
encoded. A functional grammar is designed to bring this out; it is a study of wording, but one that interprets the wording by reference to what it means.”

Halliday (1985a: xiv) also proposes that in SFL “language is interpreted as a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which meanings can be realised.”.

From the above examples, i.e. ‘I doubt we’ll be there on time’ and ‘Coffee?’, we can say that in order to make a right choice of wording (linguistic choice), we need to refer to the context to identify the factors that stipulate what type of meaning will be appropriate for that specific situation. In ‘Coffee?’, if we choose a bottom up approach (from wording to context), we can make a prediction about the possible context of use. The use of the word ‘coffee’ with a rise in intonation (in the case of a spoken text), or a question mark (in the written form), indicates a question that serves as an offer of a cup of coffee to a friend or colleague who one knows well. We have come to this prediction because the use of a particular type of language register also signals a certain level of formality (or informality in this case). However in ‘I doubt we’ll be there on time’, we can detect some degree of subtlety as well as of formality in the way the speaker expresses his/her concern of being late for an event that requires some punctuality. These have shown that people don’t randomly choose the wordings for their intended meaning, but carefully select them from the availability of language resources to suit their particular purpose. Instead of ‘Coffee?’, for instance, one may choose to offer ‘A cuppa?’ which will mean that the choice is now not limited to a cup of coffee, but can include a cup of tea, or of a variety of types of tea such as green, herbal) or even a cup of hot chocolate.

Therefore, examining only language form can’t help fully explain what it really means (or what its function is), and why it has been used in particular ways in a communicative event. The examination of language needs to be done in conjunction with the investigation of the context of use. Moreover, it should not be concerned only with structures of the language, but with how these structures create meaning.

Discussing the importance of viewing language as ‘systems for meaning-making’ from the SFL perspective, as well as ‘functional resources for organising text’, Stillar (1998: 8) eloquently explains: “Instances of text draw on (instantiate) the resources of a variety of systems: systems for linguistic meaning-making, for rhetorical acts, and for social practices. Systems represent the potential for meaning-making acts - the available choices, combinations, and relational values of meaningful elements of symbolic action, whether they are linguistic, rhetorical, or social. The resources of linguistic, rhetorical, and social systems are interpreted as functional resources; that is they are identified, organised, and interpreted with reference to what they “do” in instances of textual practice.”
SFL proposes a set of analytical techniques that we can utilise to investigate the choices we make in a given setting to produce a linguistic product that provides a certain effect and for a particular purpose. And these choices are very much dependent on the context in which the language is being used.

In the process of coding from meaning to expression, there are three stages, which also correspond to three basic levels of a language and which Halliday terms ‘strata’ (1985a: xiv). They are semantics, lexico-grammar and phonology (sound system), or graphology (writing system). The following diagram, which reproduces that of Eggins’ language model (1994: 81), will show the three strata of the semiotic system and how they are described in daily language usage:

![Diagram of language strata](image)

**Figure 2B.1 The strata of language** (adopted from Eggins 1994: 41)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENT</th>
<th>Everyday terminology</th>
<th>Technical terminology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meaning</td>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wording</td>
<td>Lexico-grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(words &amp; structure)</td>
<td>(vocabulary and grammar)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPRESSION</td>
<td>sound/writing</td>
<td>Phonology/graphology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, depending on the purpose of the linguistic investigation, one may choose to include other strata. For example, in the analysis of texts for translation purpose one may wish to include register analysis to examine those variables that are directly affected by contextual factors.

Register analysis is very important in the SFL approach to language, because it shows those aspects of context that may impact on linguistic choices made by a speaker/writer in a social interaction. Understanding these contextual features, a language user can predict what meaning is going to be exchanged and how language is going to be used. In other words, by implementing register analysis, one can uncover the general principles governing situational variations. Another point that can be used to highlight the role of register analysis in the examination of texts, which are instances of language in use, is that ‘register’ should not be misunderstood as some kind of ‘dialect’. Because as Halliday et al (1964) point out ‘register’ is a type of language variety which is specifically concerned with *language use* in a particular
context, whereas ‘dialect’, a type of language variety, is pertinent to a specific language user or a groups of users (also Halliday 1978; Hasan, 1973; Gregory & Carroll, 1978).

Register has three variables which interact with each other to form discourse, namely Field, Tenor, and Mode of Discourse. According to Halliday (1978: 110) these three variables are not components of speech setting, nor are they a type of language use but rather comprise the conceptual framework for representing the social context in which meanings are exchanged.

**Field** refers to topic or subject matter, or what the language is being used to refer to in a social interaction or communicative event; **Tenor** is concerned with the role relationships between those who are involved in the activity (interactants); and **Mode** concerns the part language plays in the linguistic interaction.

The Hallidayan approach also suggests that language when put in use, simultaneously performs three metafunctions: ideational (or experiential), interpersonal and textual. When being used to describe feelings, opinions or experiences, language fulfils its **ideational metafunction**. This is realised through the use of transitivity (which includes participants, processes, and circumstances).

The use of language to communicate also reflects the relationship between a speaker/writer and a listener/reader, and this is the **interpersonal metafunction** of language. In English, the interpersonal metafunction is realised through the use of mood and modality (modal verbs, adverbs and adverbial groups, etc.)

Ideational and interpersonal functions are enabled by the **textual metafunction** expressed through textual meaning which is realised through cohesion and theme-rheme patterns of the text.

Halliday asserts that the structure of language used to make meanings in a communicative interaction is ‘functionally motivated’; i.e. it is structured to serve a certain purpose and in a particular context of situation. And referring to the work of the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski (1884 – 1942) and his view on language in use, Halliday also contends that in order for language users to have an adequate understanding of a text, they should take into account both the Context of Culture and Context of Situation where the text is embedded (1985a).

By context of situation he means the immediate situational context in which the text is produced as opposed to context of culture which comprises the socio-historical and cultural factors affecting language users who are involved in the creation of the text or in the communicative event (Halliday, 1985a, 1985b, 1994). Seen from this perspective, language is a product of the socio-cultural and institutional knowledge, belief and value systems of a
language speaking community as well as its social practices, hierarchy and order. In turn, language helps create, maintain and disseminate the knowledge and understanding of the social value, belief and practice systems among the language users.

Therefore, in participating in a social interaction using language, language users must recognise the importance of situational and cultural context and what is required of them in order to achieve the purpose they set out in using language.

In Firth’s (1969: 176) view the context of situation is far more than only the physical setting where a text is produced, as he argues: “The context of situation according to this theory is not merely a setting, background or ‘backdrop’ for the ‘words’, The text in the focus of attention of renewal of connection with an instance is regarded as an integral part of the context, and is observed in relation to the other parts regarded as relevant in the statement of the context.”

According to Carter & Noonan (1993: 8), there are two types of situational context; i.e. linguistic and non-linguistic (or experiential) contexts. By linguistic context they mean ‘the language that surrounds or accompanies the piece of discourse under analysis’ (discourse or language in use will be discussed at length in due course). Whereas the non-linguistic context is the one ‘within which the discourse takes place’.

Non-linguistic contexts include:

- Types of communicative event/activity (a joke, story, lecture, etc; or a piece of writing)
- Topic/theme
- Purpose of the event/activity (or for what purpose(s) the text is written)
- Setting (including location, time, and physical aspects of the situation; e.g. an annual general meeting)
- Participants (speaker/writer vs. hearer/reader, the relationships between them; their background knowledge of the topic, including any assumptions underlying the communicative event)

2.2.3 REGISTER ANALYSIS AND GENRE ANALYSIS

In Section 2.2.2, we have briefly discussed the register notion and its three variables field, tenor and mode of discourse. However, as far as register analysis is concerned, this approach can only help to define the contextual variables which are factors affecting the use of language in a certain context. In other words, it is mainly concerned with the aspects of the situation that influence the way the language is used to express meanings. Therefore, in order to thoroughly understand a text, we need to identify its structural characteristics, particularly
its overall purpose. This can be done using genre analysis, because genre is used to describe the way language is used in the Context of Culture. And in Halliday’s view, Context of Culture is “the whole cultural history behind the participants, and behind the kind of practices that they [are] engaging in…” (Halliday & Hasan, 1985: 6)

Earlier, we have agreed that although human feelings and emotions are universal, we use language in different ways to describe them. Thus, the expression of personal feelings and emotions as well as the way reality is viewed varies from culture to culture. As language is an expression of culture and is one of the most important features that uniquely set a culture of a linguistic community apart from others, it is to be expected that texts written in one culture are different to ones written in another, not only in terms of structures but also in relation in the way a text writer uses language strategies to achieve a certain social purpose. Referring to Swales’ work on genre in English language teaching, in particular English for Specific Purposes and English for Academic Purposes, Leckie-Tarry defines genre as “a recognised, structured and standardised communicative event with aims mutually understood by the participants within that event” (1995: 9-10), and people within the language community will recognise it when it recurs.

However, Martin (1984) defines genre as “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (1984: 25). For the purpose of this research, we’ll use the notion of genre as defined by Martin and refer to the work of other authors who follow his approach (Iedema, 1994, 1997; Eggins, 1994; Eggins & Martin, 1997).

The following diagram, which is reproduced following the model proposed by Munday (2001), shows a strong interrelation between the surface-level realisations of linguistic functions and the socio-cultural framework as well as the interrelationship between genre and register (field, tenor and mode), between register and discourse semantics (ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings), and between discourse semantics and lexicogrammar.
Hasan (1985), referring to the three aspects of social situation proposed by Halliday, i.e. field, tenor and mode, introduces a related concept which she terms ‘contextual configuration’. For Hasan, each aspect of a social situation where a communicative event occurs ‘may be thought of as a variable that is represented by some specific value(s)’ (1985: 55). She goes further to suggest that: “Each (variable) functions as a point of entry to any situation as a set of possibilities – or to use a technical term, OPTIONS.” (ibid; original emphasis)

To support her argument for the need of having the notion ‘contextual configuration’ (or CC for short), Hasan (1985: 56) contends that: “We need the notion of CC for talking about the structure of the text because it is specific features of a CC – the values of the variables – that permit statements about the text’s structure.”

Hasan also emphasises the important role played by the contextual configuration in the structural unity of the text. She (1985: 56) believes that one can use the features of the CC to make such predictions about the text’s structure as:

1. **What** element must occur;
2. **What** element can occur;
3. **Where** must they occur;
4. **Where** can they occur;
5. **How often** can they occur.
In other words, using the concept of contextual configuration we can predict the 
*obligatory* (must occur) and *optional* (can occur) elements of a text’s structure, where in the 
text they *must* or *can* occur (in Hasan’s terminology, ‘sequence’) as well as their recurrence 
(or ‘iteration’).

And what other linguists refer to as ‘stage’ (Martin, 1984; Eggins, 1994) or ‘move’ 
(Swales, 1990), is referred to as ‘element’ by Hasan “…an ELEMENT is a stage with some 
consequence in the progression of a text.” (ibid).

Also in her view, structurally a text can contain certain elements which cannot be 
found in other texts embedded in the same context and such elements will define a certain 
genre to which the text belongs. ‘In other words it is possible to state the STRUCTURE 
POTENTIAL of this genre, or its GENERIC STRUCTURE POTENTIAL’ by analysing these 
elements (Hasan, 1985: 64; original emphasis)

The notion of Generic Structure Potential (or GSP) already appeared in Hasan’s earlier 
work, i.e. Hasan 1978; 1979; Halliday and Hasan, 1980; and particularly in a paper published 
in Nottingham Linguistic Circular, 1984 (The Nursery Tale as a Genre). In this paper, while 
discussing the relationship between situational factors and elements of a text structure, Hasan 
also raises a question concerning the presence and absence of certain properties and its impact 
on a text genre; namely: ‘are there any properties that a text must possess in order to be seen 
as an instance of [a certain genre]?’ (Cloran et al, 1996: 53). Then to answer this question, she 
offers:

The most relevant notion here is the Generic Structure Potential (SP or GSP for short). The GSP is an 
abstract category; it is descriptive of the total range of textual structures available within a genre G. It is 
designed to highlight the variant and invariant properties of textual structures within the limit of one 
genre; and to achieve this, the GSP must be capable of specifying the following facts about text 
structure:

I. It must specify all those elements of structure whose presence is obligatory, if the text is to 
be regarded as a complete instance of a given genre by members of some sub-community;
II. in addition, it must enumerate all those elements whose presence is optional, so that the fact 
of their presence or absence, while affecting the actual structural shape of a particular text, 
does not affect that text’s generic status;
III. the GSP must also specify the obligatory and optional ordering of the elements vis-à-vis 
each other, including the possibility of iteration.

Meeting these requirements, a GSP would represent the total potential of structures for a genre G, while 
the actual or schematic structure of any one instance of G would represent a particular configuration 
permitted by the GSP itself.

(ibid)

Returning to our earlier discussion concerning the impact of context of situation on the 
use of language and the exploration of the register notion, we can see that while register helps 
describe the immediate situational factors affecting the communicative interaction which
results in a text, genre helps us understand ‘the overall purpose or function of the interaction’ (Eggins, 1994: 26).

Also, following the observation made by Hasan about the relationships between the obligatory elements of a text’s structure and its genre “… the obligatory elements define the genre to which a text belongs” (1985: 61; emphasis added), we will examine a short text and identify those features that can assist with our discussion:

Example 2B.9a

TEXT A

ELECTRONIC EQUIPMENT (Heritage, September/October 2006: 88)

You are requested strongly not to use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers/transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.

Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing. These electronic devices may cause interference with navigation or communication system of the aircraft.

At first glance, as the heading refers to ‘electronic equipment’ and as in the first clause most of the lexical items are about electronic devices, we can make an assumption that the ‘about-ness’ of the text or its field has something to do with the use of such devices. However, the verbal process ‘request’ - which is synonymous with ‘demand’ or ‘require’ (according to the Macquarie Dictionary, ‘request’ has its root in the Latin word ‘requirere’ meaning ‘require’) - used in an agent-less passive construction, i.e. the person who makes the request is not specified, coupled with the negative maker ‘not’ is a subtle and polite way of expressing some kind of command ‘Do not…!’ or ‘You must not…’, implying an obligation. Also, it can be said that this is a typical use of the language of administration, and the judgment concerning the type of the text can be justified by referring to Iedema’s (1995 and 1997), and Eggins’ & Martin’s (1997) analysis of administration texts. Furthermore, this ‘must-ness’ command (Iedema, 1995) indicates the unequal role relations between the text producer and text receivers (the tenor of the text), the text producer, who, even though not mentioned in the text (or elided), sounding authoritative and distant due to the ‘tone’ of his/her language.

In the above passage, there are very few incidents where forms of address are used (the second personal pronoun ‘you’ appears only twice) as well as there being no contractions
or ellipses, which typically characterise the spoken form of language. Therefore, it can be said that the text, being a written piece of information, is written to be read (the mode of the text).

At this point, we don’t yet know the purpose of the text, nor its setting, and it is not until the end of the first clause that we begin to find out the context of situation: ‘when you are on board’. But even then, we have to wait for it to be unfolded further and not until almost the end of the second paragraph (more specifically, the end of the first clause and also the end of the second clause), do we discover enough information in order to make a deduction about the specific setting and purpose for the use of the text; i.e. ‘during take-off and landing’ and ‘of the aircraft’.

Only now do we have the whole picture of what the text is about (a request to the text receiver not to use any electronic equipment on an aircraft at specified times), whom it is written for (passengers on a flight), and its channel/medium (written form/written to be read). And these contextual factors describe the register of the text; i.e. its immediate situational context of the text.

In addition to the situational variables found about the register of the text, a closer examination also reveals its overall purpose or function; i.e. the administrative nature of the text which intends to persuade its readers to comply with what is proposed in the text, as pointed out by Iedema (1995: 5): “The function of administration is to organise our social environment and to design and control social process. In administrative contexts we may be dealing with direct, or dialogic form of social control (as occurs in everyday interaction), which carefully select from an array of interpersonal resources.” (original emphasis)

As someone who understands English and English culture, we can relate to the ‘advice’ (or rather the ‘instruction’) given to travelling passengers in relation to the use of electronic equipment while on board a flight.

We recognise this and can relate to the text because we have either previously travelled by plane, or at least have some knowledge of an aircraft, understand how it works, what it’s used for and what the electronic communication system is (whereas had we never seen a plane, never travelled by air, and had no knowledge of any electronic devices, we wouldn’t have been able to relate to or understand what the text was about). In addition, we have also come across this type of administrative text before.

Compare this kind of instruction with the following socially-controlling texts:

i. Do not smoke
ii. Non-smoking area
iii. Smoking free zone
iv. Thank you for not smoking
v. Smoking is not allowed in this area, etc.

Functionally all of the above messages, to some extent, have the effect of influencing or controlling our social behaviours. However, apart from (i) and (iv) which directly address the text receiver (second personal ‘you’), the rest are impersonal with ‘smoking’ as the ‘thing’ that is the main participant in the messages. This use of language is called ‘demodalisation’ which is explained as: “the construal of systems of control as structures that are part of objective reality, rather than of human interaction.” (Iedema, 1995: 17)

The use of demodalisation in administrative texts has the effect of shifting responsibility away from the author as well as the receiver of the message, and also makes the message sound more ‘objective’.

Going back to Text A (Electronic equipment), in clause (a) by using agent-less passive construction, and addressing the text receiver directly (‘You are requested not to…’), the text producer or ‘proposer’ (to use Iedema’s terminology) actually makes the receiver or ‘proposee’ (the term used by Iedema) ‘modally responsible’ for his/her action if the instruction were not followed.

According to Halliday, the concept of ‘modal responsibility gives insight into what entity or entities are made responsible for ordering or for realising the action’ (Halliday 1985a:76).

The use of passive construction is also considered as a form of demodalisation, as Iedema (ibid: 136) points out: “When either the ‘wanting/requiring’ (the must-ness) or the ‘ordering’ become passivised, objectified, or nominalised, we enter the realm of demodalisation.”

Furthermore, the agent-less passive construction also pushes the proposer (or the one who gives the instruction) further into the background and thus objectifies the message, and as Iedema (1994:262) explains: “Conferring modal responsibility onto a participant means making that participant (interpersonally) responsible for the process in question.”

Also, by foregrounding the addressees of the text (placing the readers in the initial position of the clause), the addressee places the responsibility of implementing the ‘ban’ (of using electronic devices) squarely on the addressees’ laps. This deliberate intention of the addressee has the effect of making the addressees carry immediate and total responsibility for their action.

Structurally, Text A bears several features of a directive text. It comprises a sequence of commands (clause (a) and (b)) designed to achieve a particular goal or purpose; i.e. the
request for action, which, in this case, is aimed at preventing passengers from using electronic equipment on the aircraft. According to Iedema, “directives contain the obligatory command … which may be realised congruently or incongruently” (1995: 59). This is in agreement with Halliday’s (1994) notion of grammatical metaphor.

Halliday differentiates between ‘congruent and metaphorical grammatical realisations of semantic choices’ (Eggins & Martin, 1997) and emphasises the meaningful choice when a writer decides to select the metaphorical realisation to express his/her meaning. As he rightly explains: “the particular metaphor selected adds further semantic features” (1985a: 321). Halliday also suggests two main types of grammatical metaphor: ideational and interpersonal metaphor or that of transitivity and that of mood, including modality (ibid).

What Halliday means by congruent and metaphorical realisation is the match or mismatch between the wordings and meanings. For example, in giving a command or directive, the most direct way to realise a command is the imperative mood; this is the congruent realisation of meanings; i.e. the wordings matching the meanings.

In Text A above, if the wordings of clause (a) and (b) are re-arranged and changed into imperative mood, semantically they still carry the same messages and become the most congruent way of realising the directive purpose of the text:

a. Do not (or you must not) use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers or transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.

b. Do not (or you must not) use video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries during take-off and landing.

However, by using agent-less passive constructions in both clause (a) and (b), which are modulated declaratives typically found in many public regulatory or directive documents, the text producer has changed commands or directives into ideational metaphors.

Implementing the notion of generic structural potential (or GPS) proposed by Hasan (1985), and applying Iedema’s (1995, 1997) and Eggins & Martin’s (1997) approach to genre analysis, as well as referring to the evidence provided by the lexico-grammatical and register analyses, we can describe the generic structure of the text as shown in Figure 2B.3:
### Figure 2B.3
The generic structure of Text A of Example 2B.9a (Source Text)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schematic structure</th>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Realisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>You are requested not to use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers/transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.</td>
<td>To direct readers to comply with the directive</td>
<td>Modulated declarative; incongruent and implicit directive by means of objective modulation; spatial circumstance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enablement: command specification</td>
<td>Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing.</td>
<td>To specify when readers are expected to comply with directive</td>
<td>Modulated declarative; electronic devices as ‘Subject/Theme’; temporal circumstance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legitimisation: reason</td>
<td>These electronic devices may cause interference with navigation or communication system of the aircraft.</td>
<td>To give a reason for compliance with the directive</td>
<td>Modalised declarative; electronic devices as ‘Subject/Theme’ in purpose clause.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of the generic structure potential notion (Hasan 1985), clause (a) of the text expresses obligation and the compliant nature of the command. Clause (b) specifies the circumstance when the compliance is required. The third clause (c), which provides a reason for the above command to be adhered, and is termed ‘legitimation’ by Eggins and Martin (1997) or ‘legitimation’ by Iedema (1995, 1997), offers justification.

**a. Command:**

You are requested not to use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers/transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.

**b. Enablement:**

**Command specification:**

Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing.

**c. Legitimation:**

**Reason for (a) and (b):**

These electronic devices may cause interference with navigation or communication system of the aircraft.
By examining the structure of the above text, we identify three ‘moves’ or three rhetoric ‘elements’ which reflect its textual function or purpose. The first ‘move’ is an obligatory element (or essential element), which places the text in the category of directive text genre, realising a command. Clause (a) functions as the scene setting command; and Clause (b) specifies and extends what has been stated in Clause (a); while the generic element of Clause (c) is optional or non-essential because it only provides a justification or reason for the implementation of (a) and (b).

However, the text is in fact incomplete, because it is actually an extract from a larger text and is used here as a ‘stand alone’. A passenger can select a specific piece which is relevant to his/her individual needs.

In the next section, we’ll be looking at how the text achieves its purpose by examining the generic structures of what goes before this segment of the text and what follows it.

Example 2B.9b

TEXT B

WELCOME ON BOARD (Heritage, September/October 2006: 88-89)

SEATING
(a) Your seat number is shown on your boarding card.
(b) Vietnam Airlines provides three classes of travel: Business Class (C), Y-Deluxe (I) and Economy class (Y).
(c) Seats are numbered from the front to the back of the aircraft.
(d) Your preferred seat can be reserved at the check-in counter.

HAND LUGGAGE
(e) In accordance with the international air transport rules, each passenger may carry aboard one piece of hand luggage with a weight of up to 7 kg and dimensions of up to 56cmx36cmx23cm.
(f) Please use the overhead lockers to store your hand luggage.
(g) If there is not enough space, please store additional items under the seat in front of you.
(h) No hand luggage is allowed to block the aisles.

SAFETY
(i) Our cabin crew will demonstrate the safety procedures of the aircraft before take-off.
(j) You will also find an informative Safety Card in the seat pocket in front of you. Oxygen masks are stored over your head.
(k) Life jackets are under your seat.
(l) Please keep your seatbelt fastened whenever the seat belt sign is on, especially during take-off and landing.
(m) Since not all turbulence is predictable,
(n) you are advised to keep your seat belt fastened whenever you are seated.
ELECTRONIC EQUIPMENT

(o) You are requested strongly not to use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers/transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.

(p) Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing.

(q) The electronic devices may cause interference with navigation or communication system of the aircraft.

SMOKING RESTRICTION

(r) Smoking is not allowed on any Vietnam Airlines flights.

(s) Passengers will be reminded of our No Smoking rule while on board the aircraft.

There are five more paragraphs which give information about crew members, food and drink, entertainment, newspapers and magazines (In-flight reading) and passenger comment form (see the Appendix for the whole text), but for the purpose of the current discussion, these will not be included in this section.

At present we’re only looking at how a text, whose apparent purpose is to provide information, is actually designed to control our actions and modify our behaviour. In order to discuss the purpose of the text, we again use the model of genre analysis proposed by Eggins & Martin:

Figure 2B.4  The generic structure of Text B of Example 2B.9b (Target Text)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schematic structure</th>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Realisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WELCOME ON BOARD</td>
<td>a-d</td>
<td>To provide readers with information about travel classes and seating arrangement on the aircraft.</td>
<td>Thematisation of Vietnam Airlines as agents in promoting information as well as supplying services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enablement 1</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>To supply readers with further information in order to place the Command in context</td>
<td>Modulated declarative; readers as agents in compliance with directives; nominalised abstracts (international air transport rules) in purpose circumstance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitation</td>
<td>f-g</td>
<td>To direct readers to follow ‘rules’ concerning their hand luggage</td>
<td>Mitigated imperatives (using ‘please’); purpose clauses of justification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command 1</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>To reinforce the ‘rule’ of proper storing of hand luggage</td>
<td>‘Hand luggage’ as Subject/Theme; modulated directive by means of objective modulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enablement 2</td>
<td>i-k</td>
<td>To offer assistance to help</td>
<td>Vietnam Airlines’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because, ‘directives are about requiring kinds of behaviour (‘this is what you must do’) … they enable speakers and writers to accomplish specific social purposes.’ (Iedema, 1995: 75). The above text shows all features of a directive text genre. It contains five Commands which are supported by such enabling elements as Background, Command Specification and Facilitation. According to Iedema (1995), Background provides general information which is relevant to the Commands to help readers understand the source of legislation/regulation based on which the directive is established. **Text B** contains one Background element; i.e. (e) ‘In accordance with the international air transport rules…’, a Command Specification: (p) Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing, as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command 3</th>
<th>l</th>
<th>To direct readers to comply with ‘rules’ on wearing seat belt.</th>
<th>Mitigated directive; temporal circumstance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legitimisation 1</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>To offer a reason for compliance with the wearing of seat belt</td>
<td>‘Turbulence’ as Subject and a reason for seat belt to be fastened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command 3</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>To reinforce the ‘rule’ of wearing seat belt while on board.</td>
<td>Modulated directive; readers as Subject/Theme who are expected to carry out the Command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command 4</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>To direct readers to comply with the directive</td>
<td>Modulated declarative; incongruent and implicit directive by means of objective modulation; spatial circumstance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enablement 3</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>To specify when readers are expected to comply with directive</td>
<td>Modulated declarative; electronic devices as ‘Subject/Theme’; temporal circumstance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legitimisation 3</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>To offer reason for compliance with the directive</td>
<td>Modalised declarative; electronic devices as ‘Subject/Theme’ in purpose clause.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command 5</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>To direct readers to comply with no smoking policy</td>
<td>Thematisation of smoking; modulated directive by means of objective modulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enablement 4</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>To offer assistance to help readers comply with directive</td>
<td>Modulated declarative by means of objective modulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
well as a Facilitation element: (s) ‘Passengers will be reminded of our no smoking rule while on board the aircraft’.

As an enabling element of directive genre, Command Specification provides specific information concerning the circumstances when the Command is required to be complied with; whereas Facilitation sets out to assist readers to comply with those commands contain in the directive.

Furthermore, Text B also contains some legitimising elements which serve as justifications for compliance with the command. In Text B we find at least two legitimising elements which provide reasons why the ‘rules’ on board the aircraft should be upheld:

(m) Since not all turbulence is predictable, (therefore) 
(n) you are advised to keep your seat belt fastened whenever you are seated.

The second reason concerns the use of electronic equipment when on board:

(t) These electronic devices may cause interference with navigation or communication system of the aircraft.

And therefore:

(o) You are requested strongly not to use electronic equipment like AM/FM radio receivers/transmitters, electronic games, mobile phones, pagers, remote control devices, portable televisions, or printers when you are on board.
(u) Video recorders, cassette players, compact discs, electronic games, PCs, pocket calculators, electronic shavers, and electronic dictionaries shall not be used during take-off and landing.

Borrowing the notion of the Nucleus-Satellite from the ‘Rhetorical Structure Theory’ proposed by Thompson & Mann (1988), and Matthiessen (1990), Iedema refers to the Command in Directives as Nucleus and the legitimising and enabling elements as Satellites. And he contends that “The Nucleus-Satellite model is essentially an orbital model, with the Command-Nucleus as its centre” (1995: 76). He also explains further: “Satellites can be legitimising or enabling elements… The Nucleus is the element towards which the text as a whole gravitates, since it is most intimately tied up with realising the purpose of the text.” (ibid)

The notion of genre and its generic approach will be discussed in more detail in Chapter IV and Chapter V when we compare and contrast the exemplars with their Vietnamese translations.
We’re now looking at other linguistic notions and approaches which can help us to understand better how texts are constructed to mean what they are intended to and how we can implement this knowledge and approach in the translation practice.

2.2.4 TEXT ANALYSIS AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

In our daily interaction, we communicate with each other mainly through the medium of language. And by using language to communicate with each other, we engage in a communicative act. From the point of view of a communication theorist, communication happens either in verbal or non-verbal forms; that means either in spoken or written forms or through body language, signs, and symbols. A linguist, however, may analyse a communication from a different perspective; i.e. communication may occur in linguistic or non-linguistic forms. If communication takes a linguistic form (either orthographic or phonic), then it appears as text (i.e. words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, etc); in other words, it takes a written or spoken form. However, if communication takes a non-linguistic form, then it appears in a non-textual form (i.e. gesture, posture, movements, signs, symbols, etc.)

For the purpose of this research, we will be discussing mainly communicative acts in written form appearing as texts.

But first of all what is text?
According to Fowler (1986: 59): “a text is a different kind of unit from a sentence. A text is made up of sentences, but there exist separate principles of text-construction, beyond the rules for making sentences”

The above definition only sees text in its linguistic form i.e. a unit made up of words and sentences, not as a function and may not benefit our discussion which considers the process of text producing (text production) as a communicative act and its result (a text) as a product of this communicative instance.

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define a text as ‘a communicative occurrence’ which needs to satisfy seven textual criteria, namely cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.

- **Cohesion**: concerns the surface structure of the text or its ‘text-syntactic connectedness’. This embraces the grammatical aspect of the text, as Titscher *et al* (2000: 22) point out: “The linear sequence of linguistic elements in a text is in no way accidental, but obeys grammatical rules and dependencies.”
The cohesion of a text is achieved by using cohesive ties which, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), include reference (anaphora, cataphora, and repetition of lexical items), substitution, conjunction, ellipsis, and lexical cohesion.

- **Coherence:** refers to the contextual relations between the text and its context. In discussing the differences between text and discourse, and between coherence and cohesion, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 23) explain: “A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive.”

  Syntactically and textually, we can say that while cohesion reflects the internal organisation of a text, coherence has something to do with its external relations with the context.

  As far as coherence is concerned, Eggins (1994: 87) mentions two types which she terms *situational* or *registerial coherence* and *generic coherence*. Situational coherence of a text refers to a situation where all the clauses of the text could occur; whereas generic coherence of a text comes from the recognition of it as belonging to a particular genre.

- **Intentionality:** concerns the intention or purpose of the text producer as well as his/her attitude, social beliefs and values expressed in the text. We can also say that intentionality is the view expressed by the text producer on a certain subject matter.

- **Acceptability:** according to Titscher *et al* acceptability is “the mirror of intentionality”. In order for a text to be deemed acceptable by its audience it “must be recognised as such by recipients in a particular situation” (2000: 23). Seen from this perspective, the text must be intelligible, and conventionally accepted by recipients in relation to both linguistic structure and language usage as well as its appropriateness for a particular context.

- **Informativity:** the information contained in the text must meet the expectation of its recipients both in terms of quantity and quality. This also entails the way the information is presented (i.e. what is already known by the audience and what is new)

- **Situationality:** refers to the way language is used in a particular context, including form of address, text type, etc. which is situationally and culturally appropriate for a specific communicative event.
• **Intertextuality**: Titscher *et al* propose two types of intertextuality. One is concerned with what precedes or simultaneously occurs in the communicative event (or discourse, if we accept the definition ‘discourse is text in context or language in use’); the other refers to links the text has with other texts in ‘particular genres or text varieties’. (ibid)

The above seven textual criteria provide a framework for text analysis which can be implemented in the quality assessment of translation and will be discussed further.

Examining the notion of text and features of a text, Kennedy (2003) sees text as any ‘units of speech or writing ranging in size from one or two words… to whole books’ (2003: 308); whereas Halliday and Hasan (1976) see text as ‘any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole’ (1976:1).

From a functional perspective, Butt *et al* (2000: 3), using the words of Halliday, define text as: “a piece of language in use; that is, ‘language that is functional’… A text’s length is not important and it can be either spoken or written. What is important is that a text is a harmonious collection of meanings appropriate to its context. This unity of purpose gives a text both texture and structure.”

From the above definitions we can briefly describe what is seen as text; i.e. a stretch of language, regardless of length or size, which is ‘functional’, meaningful and appropriate to the context of use. And as Halliday (1985b) explains, in order to be 'functional', a text must fulfil its purpose of communicating the intention of the text producer: “The important thing about the nature of a text is that, although when we write it down it looks as though it is made of words and sentences, it is really made of meanings. Of course, the meanings have to be expressed, or coded, in words and structures, just as these in turn have to be expressed over again ... in sounds or written symbols. It has to be coded in something in order to be communicated; but as a thing in it, a text is essentially a semantic unit.”

The intention of the writer is normally reflected through his/her choice of words and use of language and to be able to find out what message the writer wants to convey requires a careful and thorough reading of the text. As pointed out by Hatim & Mason (1990:4): “texts can be seen as the result of *motivated choice*: producers of texts have their own communicative aims and select lexical items and grammatical arrangement to those aims...” (italics added)

One of the significant properties of a text that makes it different from something which is not a text is its ‘texture’. A text derives its texture not from the surface structures, but from the meanings ‘with respect to its environment’ (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2), and Butt *et al* (ibid) metaphorically describe what can be considered as ‘texture’: “Texture comes from...”
the way the meanings in the text [must] fit coherently with each other – in much the same way as the threads of a piece of fabric or carpet are woven together to make a whole.”

In order to facilitate the discussion, let’s take a look at the two attached texts on ‘Osteoporosis’ (see attachments). Though both are on the same topic, difference in purpose creates two very different texts.

Our main concern here is to describe and explain how the texts are alike and in which ways they are different. The most obvious similarity in this case is topic: both texts are written about a disease affecting human bones known as osteoporosis. The linguistic evidence of this similarity is the repetition of the key lexical item osteoporosis throughout both Text C (8 times) and Text D (7 times). Another way to pinpoint the text producers’ intentions is to find out the rhetorical purpose(s) of the texts, as shown below in Figure 2B.5:
TEXT C

Paragraph I
Osteoporosis is very sneaky… a dowager’s hump.

*Introducing the topic and providing some signs of the disease.*

Paragraph II
A disease where bones … within months of the injury.

*Defining what osteoporosis is and the effects of the disease on the patient.*

Paragraph III
In what is clear … for old boys as well.

*Explaining factors which cause osteoporosis and providing information about how to prevent it from happening.*

Paragraph IV
Exercise helps … with light weights.

*More suggestions for prevention of the disease.*

Paragraph V
The simple act of …… low caffeine variety.

*Substances which may increase the risk of having osteoporosis.*

Paragraph VI, VII, VIII
Milk products … a bone density test.

*Substances which may prevent the risk of having osteoporosis.*

TEXT D

Paragraph I
A disease in which… in calcified tissue.

*Defining what osteoporosis is.*

Paragraph II
After the age of … oestrogen deficiency.

*Explaining factors which cause osteoporosis and other related diseases.*

Paragraph III
The disease may be … hip fractures in the elderly.

*Possible symptoms of the disease and the effects of the disease on the patient.*

Paragraph IV & V
The main treatment for pain … stopped if possible.

*Descriptions for treatment of the disease.*

Paragraph VI
Specific therapies …… prevention is the best treatment.

*More suggestions for treatment and prevention of the disease.*

Paragraph VII
Osteoporosis itself does not … to premature death.

*Re-emphasis on the possible harm the*
At textual level, although differing in length (Text C consists of eight paragraphs and Text D has seven), the two texts in question have similar schematic structures (i.e. Orientation, Explanation, and Conclusion) which are highly predictable; i.e. health education information which aims to provide advice to an intended audience. This generic structure can be further described as follows:

**Orientation**
- *Introducing the topic/Stating the problem*

**Explanation**
- *Explaining causes and effects of the problem*
- *Suggestions for treatment and prevention.*

**Further Explanation & Conclusion**
- *More information about treatment and prevention, and possible implications of the disease.*

The differences between the two texts, however, are more evident than their similarities. Text C is more like a conversation, thus casual, and more accessible; whereas Text D sounds more formal, and more technical, and thus less accessible to a general readership. In order to explain the differences between the two texts, we should attempt to answer the following questions:

- What is the likely purpose(s) of the text?
- Who is its likely readership?
- What is the relationship between the text and its context?

In answering these questions, it is necessary to have a framework which provides a common ground for the comparative and contrastive analysis of the above texts.

As briefly described in the earlier section, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which has been attributed to M.A.K. Halliday and those who have helped him to develop it further, views language as a resource system for making meanings. It also proposes that language, when put in use, simultaneously performs three metafunctions – ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction, which is further divided into
experiential and logical, is concerned with ideas, beliefs, and experience and provides the speaker/writer with a resource for forming ideas (propositional content) and for communicating or exchanging information; whereas interpersonal metafunction presents the speaker/writer with a resource for establishing and maintaining social relationships with the listener/reader. The third metafunction, namely textual metafunction, offers a resource to help the above two metafunctions, i.e. ideational and interpersonal, organise information into texts which are ‘coherent and relevant to their context’ (Eggins & Martin, 1997: 239).

Halliday always maintains that “linguistics should deal with meaning” at all levels and that a text should be studied in the social context where it is produced (context of situation).

To interpret the social context where a text is embedded as well as the intention of the text producer and his/her intended readership, Halliday (1985) suggests a framework of three headings: field of discourse, tenor of discourse and mode of discourse, which are considered as being the three variables of register. According to Halliday (1985: 12):

- **FIELD OF DISCOURSE** refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place...
- **TENOR OF DISCOURSE** refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles...
- **MODE OF DISCOURSE** refers to what part the language plays, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

According to Eggins & Martin (1997), while analysing a text we first look at the linguistic patterns which reflect through the use of lexical items and grammatical structures, and which create different effects in the two texts. They also suggest that the following aspects of the text should be looked at: the degree of formality of language, the amount of attitudinal/evaluative expressions used by the text producer, and the background knowledge the text producer brings to the text.

The following table shows the outcomes of the implementation of Eggins & Martin’s proposed model for textual analysis to the texts under examination:
Figure 2B.6 The generic structures of Text C and Text D

**TEXT C**

*Textual formality*

1. Use of second person ‘you’ (the text receiver), which is grammatically the subject: e.g. you can’t see it creeping up...; you are growing...
2. Thematic position filled either by lexical items or personal pronouns: e.g. osteoporosis, the first sign, a disease, bones, you.
3. Use of contraction, colloquialism and idioms: e.g. can’t, sneaky, Aussie, an older sheila, old boys, creeping up, start to go downhill, increases the odds, bump up.
4. Low level of nominalisation: e.g. jogging, walking, a simple act of drinking a cup of tea, incidence.
5. Frequent use of ‘relational’ and action verbs: e.g. is, see, are, be realising, be noticing, are growing, become, drizzles, cause, die, reach, start to go down, increases, declines, does, choose, combat, opt, show, prevent, helps to keep, excrete, try, note, have (possess), include, reduce, eat, drink.

*Expression of attitude/evaluation*

1. Frequent use of intensifying or minimising adverbs: e.g. very, too late, more, clearly, effectively, particularly,
2. Frequent use of attitudinally or evaluatively loaded lexical items: e.g. sneaky, silent thief, creeping up, interesting, serious, puzzle, bad news, obvious choice, milk-deprived childhoods.

*Assumed knowledge*

1. Use of everyday vocabulary: e.g. calcium loss, declining testosterone levels, work out, staples, dowager’s hump.
2. References to medical/scientific information without explanatory details being provided: e.g. design flaw, HRT (Hormone Replacement Therapy), the tannin in the tea and caffeine...;

**TEXT D**

*Textual formality*

1. Use of standard, unabbreviated syntax.
2. No reference to either the text producer or text receiver.
3. Thematic position filled mainly either by lexical items, or deixis: e.g. a disease, bones, this, the disease, these, osteoporosis, vertebrae.
4. High level of nominalisation: e.g. decrease, deficiency, complications, immobilization, loss in height, increased curvature of the spine, administration of analgesic drugs, support of the affected spine, life expectancy, premature death.
5. Frequent use of ‘relational’ and action verbs: e.g. are, become, proceeds, leads to, is, occurs, include, be, cause, collapse, contract, help, be avoided, be stopped, shows, shorten.

*Expression of attitude/evaluation*

1. Sparse use of intensifying or minimising adverbs: e.g. especially, progressively, suddenly, gradually

*Assumed knowledge*

1. Frequent use of terms which have specialised technical meanings: e.g. organic matrix, calcified tissues, corticosteroid therapy, Cushing’s Syndrome, Hyperthyroidism, Acromegaly, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Kyphosis.
2. Use of technical terminology with assumption of medical knowledge of audience: e.g. corticosteroid therapy, Cushing’s Syndrome, Hyperthyroidism, Acromegaly, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Kyphosis.
Now, in order to explain the different use of language between the two texts, we should apply the register analysis model proposed by Halliday (1985) to analyse **Text C** and **Text D** as illustrated in **Figure 2B.7**:

**Figure 2B.7** The register analysis of Text C and Text D

**TEXT C**

**FIELD OF DISCOURSE:**
- **Activity focus:** provision of health information
- **Object focus:** osteoporosis and preventative measures using ‘nature’s way’.

**TENOR OF DISCOURSE:**
‘authority’ (probably a naturopath & health columnist) to an audience unseen but known: women of all ages, especially women who are over 50 years of age;

**Relationship with audience:**
- **Status:** unequal (expert - laypersons)
- **Contact:** frequent (weekly)
- **Degree of affective involvement:** high (casual, ‘chummy’ advice)

**MODE OF DISCOURSE:**
written as if spoken (use of second personal pronoun; use of day-to-day language); informative and persuasive with rational and factual argument (i.e. To reduce the risk of osteoporosis start in your 30s by...)

**TEXT D**

**FIELD OF DISCOURSE:**
- **Activity focus:** provision of health information
- **Object focus:** osteoporosis and its treatment.

**TENOR OF DISCOURSE:**
‘authority’ (a group of medical professionals) to an audience unseen but known: people of all ages. However, the text mainly aims at people with osteoporosis;

**Relationship with audience:**
- **Status:** unequal (expert - laypersons)
- **Contact:** occasional
- **Degree of affective involvement:** low (formal, factual)

**MODE OF DISCOURSE:**
written to be read; informative, with rational and factual argument (The range of treatments used shows that none is entirely satisfactory)
As we can see, both texts aim to provide readers with information about osteoporosis, but they do so in very different ways. Technically speaking, the texts are of the same genre; i.e. health information, however they have different registers. And one explanation for this difference is that each text has appeared in a very different social context. **Text C** is an article published in the Nature’s Way column, Tempo section, The Sun-Herald on 05 March 2000, in Sydney; **Text D** is an excerpt from *The New Good Housekeeping Family Health and Medical Guide*, published in the USA in 1989.

Therefore, we can say that **context influences the way text producers use words or structures.**

Words and structures of a text encode simultaneously three types of meanings: ideational, interpersonal and textual, which in turn are consistent with the three metafunctions of language; namely ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions, as proposed by Eggin & Martin (1997: 238-39): “the ideational function is concerned with mapping the ‘reality’ of the world around us (who’s doing what to whom, when, where, why, how). The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with organising the social reality of people we interact with (by making statements, asking questions, giving commands; saying how sure we are; saying how we feel about things). The third metafunction, the textual, is concerned with organising ideational and interpersonal meanings into texts that are coherent and relevant to their context (what we put first, what last; how we introduce characters…)”

Halliday points out the crucial links between meanings (which are organised into the three metafunctions of language) and context, with ideational meaning used to construct FIELD (the social activity), interpersonal meaning used to define TENOR (the role relationship structure) and textual meaning used to develop MODE (symbolic organisation). Ideational meaning is realised in wordings through Participants, Processes and Circumstances; interpersonal meaning is realised through what is called Mood and Modality; and textual meaning is realised through patterns of Theme and cohesion. (Gerot & Wignell, 1994: 121-13).

The examination of a text can lead to the discovery of patterns in the choices of words and structures used by the text producer in the realisation of that particular text. These patterns are realised in the choice of specific words, order of words or phrases, and other strategies, which may reflect the text producer’s social values, beliefs, and attitudes. This projection of social values, beliefs, and attitudes is termed ‘discourse’. Discourse is also used to refer generally to specific types or social domains of language use; thus we have ‘medical discourse’, ‘political discourse’, and so on.
From a systemic functional perspective, the relationship between meanings, context, and discourse can be summarised in Figure 2B.8 below:

**Figure 2B.8** Relationship between context and text; register, discourse semantics and lexico-grammar

![Diagram showing the relationship between context and text; register, discourse semantics and lexico-grammar](image)

(Adopted from Eggins & Martin 1997: 240)

Equipped with this theoretical framework, we can now have closer look at the above two texts:

- **FIELD**

  Differences in Field are realised in the way the topic is presented and through the selection of both transitivity and lexis. In Text C, as far as transitivity is concerned, ‘osteoporosis’ is the major participant and actor in Paragraph I and II and its characteristics are described through the use of relational (‘being’) and action processes (drizzles, cause). Other participants such as ‘bone’ and its semantically related members (strenthen components, hip, wrist, spine, etc.) are placed alongside their ‘sufferers’ (Australian females, Australian males, older sheila, etc) with the intention of the writer to show the effects of the disease on its victims (Paragraph II & III). From Paragraph III to the end of the text, the apparent ‘topic’ of the text, osteoporosis, is no longer the ‘active’ participant in any major clauses, but is encoded as an object (some women choose HRT to combat osteoporosis) or part of nominal groups (incidence of osteoporosis, people living with osteoporosis, the risk of osteoporosis). This strategy helps the text producer push the main topic ‘osteoporosis’ to the
background, brings forward ‘natural approach’, and creates several main semantic domains which can be seen through sets of lexical relations:

(a) **substances**: calcium, phyto-oestrogens, tannin, caffeine, milk, milkshakes;
(b) **exercise**: weight bearing, jogging, walking, work out, light weight;
(c) **beverage**: tea, coffee;
(d) **dairy products**: milk, milkshakes, cheese, cream, ice cream;
(e) **vegetables and nuts**: soy, seeds, nuts, sesame seeds, tahini, almonds, broccoli, figs, leafy green vegetables, herbs, red clover, black cohosh;
(f) **fish**: sardines, salmon, etc.

In **Text D**, however, ‘disease(s)’ and ‘osteoporosis’ appear frequently throughout the text, making them the most frequent active participants and their causes and effects are described through both relational and action processes. With reference to the use of lexis, the main semantic fields developed in this text are seen in a number of lexical strings:

(a) **bone conditions**: loss of organic matrix, decrease in calcified tissue, thinning, loss in height, increased curvature of the spine;
(b) **related diseases**: Cushing’s Syndrome, Hyperthyroidism, Acromegally, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Kyphosis;
(c) **therapy/treatment**: corticosteroid therapy, (administration of) analgesic drugs, (support of the affected spine by a) corset, physical therapy, exercises, specific therapies, (administration of) estrogens, (administration of) androgens, calcium supplement, fluoride supplements (a diet high in) calcium and protein;
(d) **food**: chicken, fish, red meat.

While the strings in **Text C** create the relevant field of ‘natural approach’ promotion, the strings in **Text D** provide information about relevant conditions of the disease, and its medical treatment.

**TENOR**

Differences in Tenor are realised through (a) Mood and (b) Subject choice. In both **Text C** and **Text D**, the informative function is realised congruently through declaratives which give the effect of fact stating or statement of truth. By addressing the reader as ‘you’ and using it as Subject, **Text C** also tries to involve its readership in a direct discussion on the
issue, yet also shows the power/status difference between the writer and reader; i.e. expert vs. layperson. The imbalance of power/status (expert vs. layperson) is also evident in the use of imperative (as in ‘Try not to drink tea...’) and other strategies (as in ‘If you are over 50, it is probably worth...’). Furthermore, the use of high certainty modality (as in ‘Osteoporosis will cause one in...’) implies a ‘warning’, whereas the use of mood adjuncts (clearly, effectively, particularly, etc...) reveals attitudes or judgments of the writer (as in ‘but for those who... effectively prevent further calcium loss from bones) and makes the message sound persuasive.

In Text B, however, when it comes to giving opinions about possible effects of the disease and recommendations for its treatment, the text producer resorts to what may be called a ‘traditional academic style’ which employs high uncertainty modalities (e.g. may) to avoid possible liability which may arise from what can be considered as ‘expert advice’ (as in ‘The disease may be symptomless...’ and ‘Support of the affected spine... may also help...’)

**MODE**

In terms of Mode, the differences are realised through the choice of (a) Nominalisation and (b) Theme. The nominalisation employed in Text C concern a ‘natural approach’ to the disease (weight bearing, jogging, walking, a simple act of drinking a cup of tea...); whereas in Text D, the nominalizations focus on:

1. **conditions of affected bones:** (loss of organic matrix, decrease in calcified tissue, thinning, loss in height, increased curvature of the spine;
2. **related diseases:** Cushing’s Syndrome, Hyperthyroidism, Acromegally, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Kyphosis;
3. **therapy/treatment:** corticosteroid therapy, administration of analgesic drugs, support of the affected spine by a corset, administration of estrogens, administration of androgens, calcium supplement, fluoride supplements (a diet high in) calcium and protein.

The use of nominalisation creates some textual effects as pointed out by Eggins & Martin 1997: 250): “One effect of these nominalizations is to increase the lexical density of the text (a higher proportion of the words are content-carrying rather than grammatical). Nominalizations also ‘dress up’ rather prosaic events in language more appropriate to constructing institutional authority.”

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This textual strategy enables the writer of Text B to create a distance between him/herself and the readership and makes Text B both informative and authoritative. As far as the text cohesion is concerned, both texts are highly cohesive with the repetitive use of ‘topic’ (osteoporosis), or its referents (it, disease). However, Text A, even though containing several major themes, is made cohesive by the use of a number of textual strategies such as introduction of new ideas/participants (first sign, disease, many of those, our bones, being an older sheila, etc) as Themes (first position in the sentence) as well as the use of such discourse markers as however, (as in ‘However, it is interesting...’), another (‘Another puzzle...’), on the contrary (‘On the contrary, milkshakes, cheese,...’), and other (‘Other foods...’) throughout the text. Moreover, the use of day-to-day language to explain the disease (Paragraph I) makes the text more accessible and easier to understand for a layperson. Also the deliberate use of the second personal pronoun ‘you’ as a form of address makes the communicative instance sound spoken rather than written. In addition, the frequent use of relational and action verbs, short and simple sentences, and low level of nominalisation make the text more accessible to the intended readership who is obviously a layperson, not to mention the low level of nominalisation and more repetitive Theme which reduce the interpersonal distance between the text producer and text receivers.

In brief, we can say that the intention of the producer of Text C is to bring changes to the behaviour of the reader (eating habits, exercise, etc.) and to persuade readers to adopt ‘nature’s way’. She strongly recommends soy and other herbs as a major source for calcium intake in place of dairy products. This is evident in the use of the headline ‘High dairy intake does not safeguard you against osteoporosis’ and the repetitive use of ‘soy’ and ‘soy products’ throughout the text (5 times). This is also evident in the way the text is presented, particularly in Paragraph VI (Milk products ... Aussie childhood), where the inclination of the author towards the use of soy as a substitute source of calcium as opposed to milk products is more prominent. In contrast, the main purpose of Text D is to provide information about osteoporosis and its treatment.

From the above example we can see the interrelationship between genre and discourse of a text or the generic choice of a language user as opposed to his/her discursive choice. While generic choices reflect the conventions of a particular social (or textual) event, discourse is an expression of attitude, social stance or belief on the part of a language user. In other words, it can be said that the conventions of a social event play an important role in determining a genre; whereas discourse is influenced by certain contextual factors such as the language user’s role relations, setting, and channel of communication, etc.
In addition, generic choices do not reflect in the choice of certain lexical and syntactical patterns, but rather through schematic structures which are decided by a certain social purpose; whereas there has been some evidence that ‘certain syntactic and (far more commonly) semantic features correlate with certain discourse’. (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 141)

The rationale behind the use of the above linguistic concepts and techniques to analyse two texts of the same genre, on a similar subject, using the same medium (written form), and only having different registers, is to determine the effectiveness of these analytical tools in providing detailed information about the features of each text at various levels.

The main concern of the current research is how effective these tools are while dealing with two parallel texts with one is considered the image of the other? Can register analysis, and genre analysis help detect subtle differences between a target language text and its original in terms of both ideational meaning and rhetoric function? These questions will be explored and discussed in Chapter IV and V.
CHAPTER IIIB

METAFUNCTIONAL PROFILE OF VIETNAMESE GRAMMAR

3B.1 BRIEF EXAMINATION OF THE VIETNAMESE CLAUSE: IDEATIONAL AND INTERPERSONAL METAFUNCTIONS - SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE.

3.1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter, the second part of Chapter III (Part One), carries out an investigation into the Ideational and Interpersonal metafunctions of Vietnamese language from the Systemic Functional perspective. The first part, Chapter III, mainly deals with the textual metafunction, one of the main focuses of the study, which realises through the thematic system of the language (see more detail in Chapter III, Part One).

Following Halliday’s model for the examination of the grammar of Chinese in comparison to that of English (2004), I will briefly examine the Vietnamese group and phrasal classes, and then describe the realisation of these two metafunctions of the Vietnamese clause in general.

3.1.1 GROUP AND PHRASAL CLASSES

Four basic group classes can be identified in Vietnamese, namely nominal (ng), verbal (vg), adverbial (ag), and phrasal.

3.1.1.1 Nominal group

In Vietnamese grammar, the nominal group consists of a Head that typically comes last and is preceded by optional modifying elements such as numerals or plural markers, and classifiers (i.e. noun markers, animate/inanimate classifiers, etc.).

However, other types of modification may be realised by nominal elements, or verbal elements (by the adjectival subclass of verbs). Nominal elements may include an animate or
inanimate classifier (n.cl) such as ‘cuốn’, ‘cái’, ‘con’, ‘cây’, etc, which normally precedes the Head, but is preceded by numerals (num), or such plural markers (plu) as ‘nhiều’, ‘nghĩa’, ‘các’, etc. Deictic elements such as demonstrative adjectives (dem), classifying nouns (cn), classifying adjectives (cl.a), etc are always preceded by a nominal group. This can be exemplified by a simple nominal group ‘sách’ (book) that can be singular or plural, because in terms of number nominal groups in Vietnamese do not change whether they are singular or plural:

3B.1 n.cl \ ng sách book(s)

3B.2 n.cl \ ng \ n.cl cuốn sách (inanimate classifier) book a book

3B.3 n.cl \ ng \ cn cuốn sách toán (in.cl*) book mathematic math book

3B.4 ng \ ng \ ng tiếng bước chân sound footprint the sound of footprint(s)

3B.5 plu \ n.cl \ ng nhiều/những/các cuốn sách plu. n.cl. book many books

3B.6 num \ n.cl \ ng năm cuốn sách five (in.cl) book five books

However, it’s not acceptable to leave out ‘cuốn’ as in ‘cuốn sách’ (‘book’) or ‘cuốn vở’ (‘note-book’) where a nominal group is preceded by a numeral; that is, it’s not acceptable to say ‘năm sách’, but ‘năm cuốn sách’ (five books)

3B.7 n.cl \ ng \ dem cuốn sách đó (in.cl) book that that book
To depict relative position, the Head is often preceded by a pre-noun (pre-n. or “localiser”) to form a circumstantial phrase (location). Structurally, a pre-noun is preceded the Head. For example:

3B.8 pre-n ∧ ng or pre-n ∧ ng

Viet: trên bàn dưới gầm bàn
Lit: on/above table under space table (desk)
Eng: on/above the table under the table (desk)

This is not an exhaustive description of the Vietnamese nominal group. A more thorough study into the structure of the nominal group system from the SFL perspective is needed to explore this typologically intricate system in relation to and its role within a clause.

3.1.1.2 Verbal group

The verbal group in Vietnamese can be preceded by a preverb or followed by a postverb to either realise interpersonal meanings of polarity and modality or to express experiential meanings of tense (optional) and aspect. To mark negation or polarity, negative markers (neg.m) and question makers (interrogative particles) are used respectively (this will be explored in the section reserved for Clause); whereas to express modality, auxiliaries (aux) or modal adverbs (mod.adv) are employed.

Also, a preverb (prevb) or postverb (posvb) may be used to indicate either tense or aspect of a clause.

3.1.1.2.a Pre-modification (negation, tense, aspect, modality)

3B.9 vg

Viet: đến
Lit: come
Eng: “comes”

3B.10 neg.m ∧ vg

Viet: không đến
Lit: neg. come
Eng: “doesn’t come”
3B.11 prevb \& vg
Viet: đã đến
Lit: (past) come
Eng: “has come/came”

3B.12 prevb \& vg
Viet: sẽ đến
Lit: (future) come
Eng: “will come”

3B.13 prevb (asp:perf) \& vg
Viet: chưa đến
Lit: (incomplete) come
Eng: “hasn’t come”

3B.14 prevb \& vg
Viet: đang đến
Lit: (continuous) come
Eng: “is coming”

3B.15 aux \& vg
Viet: thích đến
Lit: like come
Eng: “likes to come”

3B.16 neg.m \& aux \& vg
Viet: không thích đến
Lit: neg. like come
Eng: “doesn’t like to come”

3.1.1.2.b Post-modification (tense, circumstantial)

3B.17 vg \& posvb (asp:perf)
Viet: đến rồi
Lit: come already
Eng: “has already come”
3B.18 \( vg \wedge posvb \) (cir:time)

Viet: đến sớm/dến trễ
Lit: come early/come late
Eng: “has come early/late”

3B.19 \( vg \wedge adv \wedge adv \) (cir:manner).

Viet: đến thật nhanh
Lit: come very fast
Eng: “comes very fast”

3.1.1.2.c \textit{Stative verb or adjectival verb}

Although Halliday (2004: 317) has classified this category of verbs as verbal adjuncts, Hoà (1979: xxxi) sees them as stative verbs or adjectival verbs.

3B.20 adj.vb or adj.vb \& suff.

Viet: Cẩn thận!
Lit: Careful!
Eng: “Be careful!”

3B.21 ng \& adj.vb or cl.n \& ng \& adj.vb

Viet: Anh ta cao lớn
Lit: He tall and big
Eng: “He’s tall and big”

3.1.1.2.d \textit{Reduplication}

Vietnamese verbal groups (and adjectival as well as adverbial groups) can be repeated to form reduplicatives to emphasise reiteration, intensification, attenuation or even irony (Nguyễn Đình Hoà, 1979: xii). For example:

3B.22 cuội cuội (in which “cuội” means “smile”)
“to keep smiling or to smile slightly”

3B.23 rung rinh (“rung” means “shake, or sway”)
“to sway, to shake”
3B.24  đúng dà đúng dính
“to dilly-dally, or to take one’s time” (standing by themselves, these four words have no meaning)

3B.25  ngãp ngãng
“to hesitate” (in which “ngãp” means over-flowed or flooded; whereas “ngãng” means “pause” or “stop”)

An unusual reduplicative is formed by the pairing ‘đi/ lãi’ (‘go/come’). The word “lãi” in Vietnamese when used as a verb meaning “to come” as in “Anh lãi tôi chơi!” (“Can you pay me a visit?” or “Can you come to my place?”) or in a more informal form “Lãi tôi chơi!” (“Pop in to see me!”).

By the same token “đi” (meaning “to go”), apart from being used as a postverb to provide an emphatic effect (see ‘Adverbial Group’), can be combined with “lãi” to mean “repeatedly”.

These two postverbs or adverbial particles are often used to form reduplicatives. For example:

3B.26  làm đi làm lại (literally means “do go, do come”)
“to do over and over” or “to do (something) repeatedly”

3B.27  dân đi dân lại (literally means “tell go, tell come”)
“to keep repeating one’s message” or “to repeat one’s message over and over”

The issue of Vietnamese compounds or reduplicatives was already discussed at length in Chapter II while the difference between the two languages at the phonological level being examined. This will also be revisited when Vietnamese mood and modality systems are explored.

3.1.1.3  Adverbial group

The adverbial group in Vietnamese may be divided into two categories:

(1) those with Head which is a stative verb (adjectival verb) with or without a modifier of intensity (mod.int) which can be placed before or after Head. In the
case where there is no modifier of intensity, often a compound or reduplicative is used:

3B.28  mod.int ∧ adj.vb

Viet: rất chậm
Lit: very slow
Eng: “very slow”

3B.29  adj.vb ∧ mod.int

Viet: chậm quá
Lit: slow too
Eng: “too slow”

3B.30  adj.vb (reduplicative)

Viet: chậm chập (or chậm rải)
Eng: “slowly”

It should be noted that in these compounds only the first morphemes carry some meaning; i.e “chậm” means “slow” or “slowly”; whereas “chập” and “rải” in the above compounds have no meaning at all.

(2) those with Head which is an adverb and may be followed by a suffix of extensiveness or intensity (suff.) which expresses features of manner;

3B.31  vg ∧ adv ∧ suff.  or  vg ∧ adv ∧ suff.

Viet: Đi nhanh lên!  Lái chậm lại!
Lit: go fast up  Drive slow back
Eng: “Go faster” or “Hurry up!”  “Drive slowly”, or “Slow down!”

The adverbial participle “di” (literally meaning “to go”) is placed immediately after a verb, as a postverb, to emphasise an action in the imperative mood:

3B.32  vg ∧ adv.part  or  vg ∧ adv.part

Viet: Đi đi!  Ăn đi!
Lit: Go go!  Eat go!
Eng: “Off you go!”  “Start eating!” or “Tuck in!”
3.1.1.4  Phrasal group

Like prepositional phrases in English, in Vietnamese a coverbal phrase can be formed by combining a coverb with a nominal group. Halliday (2004: 317) explains his use of “coverb” rather than “preposition” to depict this class of words since they are actually verbs and ‘almost all can function also as (major) Process in the clause’.(ibid)

The following examples can illustrate this difference:

**3B.33**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Eng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>vg cvb ng or vg cvb ng cvb ng</td>
<td>(b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**3B.34**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Eng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>cvb ng or cvb ng</td>
<td>(b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above coverbs in (3B.35) when used by themselves can functions as verbs of their own:

**3B.35**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Eng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>Hán tới hôm qua</td>
<td>(b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>Lên!</td>
<td>(d)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lit: He arrive day past
Eng: “He arrived yesterday”

Lit: Spring again come
Eng: “Spring has again come!”

Lit: Up
Eng: “Go up!” (Come up!)

Lit: Down
Eng: “Go down!” (Come down!)
Also, the above examples (25a and 25b) show that when it comes to location, Vietnamese tend to view their home as the focus of the universe where things outside the home are seen as exterior to what’s happening inside.

### 3.1.2 METAFUNCTIONS OF CLAUSE IN VIETNAMESE

From a functional perspective, language has three basic functions corresponding to three types of meanings – interpersonal, ideational and textual – which are realised using the lexicogrammatical systems of language; i.e. the MOOD, TRANSITIVITY and THEME systems.

#### 3.1.2.1 INTERPERSONAL METAFUNCTION

**3.1.2.1.1 The MOOD system**

According to Butt et al (2000: 88) in English the relationship between grammatical functions is crucial for interpersonal meanings. The two grammatical elements that play an important role in the realisation of interpersonal meanings are ‘the SUBJECT and the FINITE’, and they together make the MOOD of the clause. In the view of the above authors: “it is the Finite which is the focus for the expression of interpersonal meanings. The Finite is that part of the verbal group which encodes primary tense or the speaker’s opinion. Thus, the Finite has two main interpersonal roles in the verbal group – it can be a sign of TIME in relation to the speaker, or a MODAL sign of the speaker’s opinion.” (ibid: 89)

We’ll first look at the Vietnamese MOOD system which provides resources for the interaction between the addressor and addressee. Then in the next section, we’ll explore how MODALITY is realised in Vietnamese, and how different it is when compared with the English modality system.

Language users use language to interact with each other and to establish relationships. In doing so, they employ different semantic strategies to make the four primary speech functions (Halliday, 1985): providing information (or making statement), providing goods and services (offer), asking or making request for information (question), and demanding goods and services (command). In relation to the four basic functions stated above, similar to the English grammar the grammar of Vietnamese provides us with a choice between ‘indicative’ and ‘imperative’ mood through the system of clauses. The choice between
‘indicative’ and ‘imperative’ can lead to further choices. For example, an indicative clause can be either declarative or interrogative; and a declarative can be either affirmative or negative.

The following examples, of which the declarative negative* is borrowed from Chinh & Lê (1963), will illustrate the choices in the interpersonal function of Vietnamese grammar:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOOD</th>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>ıap nên röi.</td>
<td>Giap has already arrived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lit. Giap arrive already</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decl. Neg.</td>
<td>ıap chura den*</td>
<td>Giap hasn’t arrived yet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lit. Giap not yet arrive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interr.</td>
<td>ıap đến bao gió?</td>
<td>When did Giap arrive?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lit. Giap arrive when?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polar</td>
<td>ıap đến chura?</td>
<td>Has Giap arrived yet?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giap arrive yet?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>Báo ıap đến đầy!</td>
<td>Tell Giap to come!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lit. Tell Giap come here!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.1.2.1.1a Interrogative

3B.36 ıap denn chura?
Lit. Giap arrive yet?
Eng. Has Giap arrived (yet)?

### 3.1.2.1.1b Declarative affirmative

3B.37 ıap denn röi.
Lit. Giap arrive already.
Eng. Giap has (already) arrived.

### 3.1.2.1.1c Declarative negative

3B.38 ıap chura denn*
Lit. Giap not yet arrive
Eng. Giap hasn’t arrived yet.

In answering the question in 3B.36 ‘gıap denn chura?’ (‘Has Giap arrived?’), Chinh & Lê (1963) provide the response in 3B.37. The answer has raised several points that need to be discussed.

First, we notice that Giap, the subject of the clause, is placed at the beginning of the clause in Vietnamese (“gıap” is the subject position in 3B.36); whereas in English, the clause
is preceded by ‘have’ (auxiliary verb used as a finite) to signal the present perfect tense. Secondly, there is no change to the verb “đến” (‘arrive’) in all three instances in Vietnamese, whether the clause is in the past (3B.37), or present perfect tense (3B.36 and 3B.38).

In 3B.37, however, to indicate past tense, the postverb “rồi” (‘already’) is placed after the verb “đến”; while in 3B.38, the preverb “chưa” precedes the verb “đến” to depict the incompletedness of the action.

The following examples show an interpersonal analysis of the above clauses and a comparison between the Vietnamese mood system and its English counterpart. The symbol + next to the Finite depicts positive polarity and – the negative polarity.

Note that like Chinese, but unlike English, Vietnamese clauses contain no Finite because verbs are not conjugated.

**Example 3B.39: Interrogative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet.</th>
<th>Giáp</th>
<th>đến</th>
<th>chưa?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit.</td>
<td>Giap</td>
<td>arrive</td>
<td>yet?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mood block | Residue |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng.</th>
<th>Has Giap arrived?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finite + (present perfect)</td>
<td>Subject Predicator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mood block | Residue |

**Example 3B.40: Declarative: affirmative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet.</th>
<th>Giáp</th>
<th>đến</th>
<th>rồi.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit.</td>
<td>Giap</td>
<td>arrive</td>
<td>already</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mood block | Residue |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng.</th>
<th>Giap has (already) arrived.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject Finite + (present perfect) Adjunct Predicator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mood block | Residue |
Example 3B.41:  Declarative: negative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet.</th>
<th>Giáp</th>
<th>chura</th>
<th>dến.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit.</td>
<td>Giap</td>
<td>not yet</td>
<td>come.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Preverb</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood block</td>
<td>Residue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng.</th>
<th>Giap</th>
<th>hasn’t</th>
<th>arrived</th>
<th>yet.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Finite –</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
<td>Adjunct</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(present perfect)</td>
<td>Mood block</td>
<td>Residue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above examples we can see that experientially the event ‘arrive’ is the most important factor of the verbal group in English, and as Butt et al point out the Finite (‘have’) is the focus for the expression of interpersonal meaning; because ‘[it] is that part of the verbal group which encodes primary tense or the speaker’s opinion’ (2000: 89). In Vietnamese, however, because the verb remains unchanged, the only indication in relation to tense is either the context of an utterance or the presence (or absence) of a postverb (‘rồi’ in Example 3B.40) or a preverb (‘chura’ in Example 3B.41).

Therefore, interpersonally it can be said that in Vietnamese clauses verbal, adjectival and nominal groups may function as a Predicator. The Predicator, which seems to be conflated with the Process in the realisation of experiential meaning, is realised differently from that of English where it is a combination of Finite and Predicator.

Also, it would be important to discuss in some detail the word “chura” which may be used either as a ‘question maker’ (interrogative) or a preverb (declarative negative; in this case “chura” means ‘not yet’) depending on its position in the clause. According to Chính & Lê (ibid: 383) “chura” belongs to a category of words called ‘phó tử’ (subordinate words) and they explain: “những tiếng chura, bao nhiêu, máy, gi đâu, sao, cúng không phải là “tiếng chỉ sự nghi vấn”. Máy tiếng ấy trỏ cái bất định, diễn tả ý bất định, dùng trong câu thường hay trong câu hỏi cũng được.” (“… such words as ‘chura’, ‘bao nhiêu’, ‘máy’, ‘gi đâu’, ‘sao’ are also not those which indicate “interrogation”… but rather indefinitiveness, [they are] used to describe an undefined meaning, [and] can be used in either a statement or a question.” (my translation)

Unlike English that forms the interrogative mood by placing a verb, an auxiliary verb, or Wh-type interrogative at the beginning of a clause, in Vietnamese a ‘question maker’ may be placed at the beginning or end of a clause. In terms of the interrogative mood, Vietnamese

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grammarians seem to disagree with each other on the classification of what we may tentatively call ‘question makers’.

Chính & Lê, who clearly distinguish word classes from word functions (see Chình & Lê, 1963; Binh, 1971), classify such words as ‘chưa’ (‘yet/not yet’), ‘bao nhiêu’ (‘how many’), ‘mấy’ (‘how many’), ‘sao’ (‘why’), etc, as “phó tử” (‘subordinate words’). They criticise others for having classified this class of words as “trợ tử” (‘suppletives’) which, according to these two authors, ‘don’t have any real meanings’; i.e. they don’t have any function in the clause (1963: 604). Whereas Thân (1997: 600-606) classifies them according to their function in interrogatives which he categorises as: true, affirmative and informative interrogatives.

(a) ‘True’ interrogatives (TI) are defined as ‘those which are used to express the speaker’s doubt and which need to be answered’. This type of interrogatives can be further divided into:

i. **General interrogative**: which uses such interrogative pronouns (‘đại tử nghi vấn’) as ‘ai’ (‘who’), ‘gi’ (‘what’), ‘đâu’ (‘where’), ‘thế nào’, ‘ra sao’ (‘how’), etc, or ‘sao’ (‘why’);

ii. **Polar interrogative**: in which the answer can be negative or positive and is normally formed by two fixed expressions:
   1. có … không’
   2. dâ … chưa

Most examples appearing below are from Thân’s work (1997):

3B.42 Nò có nhà không?
Lit: He (QM)* is home (QM)*
Eng: Is he home?

3B.43 Anh dâ thấy chưa?
Lit: You (PMr)** see (QM)*
Eng: Did you see?; or Have you seen [it]?

Note:
* QM: question maker
** PMr: past tense marker (preverbal)
iii. **Interrogation of option:** which requires the person who is asked to make a decision between two options. For example:

3B.44 Anh ăn cơm **hay** cháo?
Lit: You eat rice (QM) rice broth?
Eng: Do you want rice or rice soup?

3B.45 Anh lấy cái xanh **hay** đỏ?
Lit: You take blue (QM) red?
Eng: Do you want the blue or the red one?

According to Thân, sometimes the conjunction ‘hay’ (literally means ‘or’) is not used, but ‘sao’ an interrogative pronoun (“đại từ nghi vấn”) is used instead (1997: 601). For example instead of asking:

3B.46 Bà tinh **hay** điên?
Lit: You (female) conscious or crazy
Eng: Are you in your right mind, or are you crazy?

A language user can use the interrogative pronoun ‘sao’:

3B.47 Bà điên rồi **sao**?
Lit: You (female) crazy (already) [QM]
Eng: Are you crazy?

Or:

3B.48 Em còn nhớ tôi **hay** đã quên?
Lit: Younger sister still remember I or [PM] forget
Eng: Do you still remember me or have you forgotten who I am?

3B.49 Em quên tôi rồi **sao**?
Lit: Younger sister forget I already [QM]
Eng: Have you already forgotten me?

While ‘sao’ is seen by Thân as an interrogative pronoun, other authors consider it as a question maker (see the next section). We may not agree with Thân’s view on this issue and believe that he may have been confused with ‘sao’ when it is placed at the beginning of a clause to form a question that requires an explanation or a reason. However, the issue of ‘sao’
being an interrogative pronoun or a question maker will be revisited at the end of this section. We’re now returning to Thán’s classification of the Vietnamese interrogative:

iv. **Emphatic interrogation:** which also requires a positive or negative answer and can appear in the following fixed formats:

1. … phải không?; or
2. Có phải…. không?

For example:

### 3B.50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anh là</th>
<th>anh Sân</th>
<th>phải không?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>You are</td>
<td>brother San</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>You are San, aren’t you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3B.51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Có phải</th>
<th>cử Nghĩ</th>
<th>đây không?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>(QM)</td>
<td>Mr Nghĩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>Are you Mr Nghĩ?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

v. **Affirmative checking interrogation:** is used to make sure what one already knows is correct. Often such terms as …à, nhi, nhé, chú, ư, hỏi, hà, chắc, etc, are placed at the end of a clause to form questions. For example:

### 3B.52

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anh chưa về à?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3B.53

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cô bàng lòng chú?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrogative pronouns such as ‘bao giờ’ (‘when’), ‘khí nào’ (‘when’), ‘bao lâu’ (‘how long’), ‘bao nhiêu’ (‘how many’), ‘tài sao’ (or ‘sao’, literally meaning ‘why’), ‘chứng nào’ (‘when’), etc, are also placed at the beginning of a clause. This type of questions is normally combined with the question emphasis ‘mói’ (This should not be confused with the adjective ‘mói’ which means ‘new’ as in “dôi giày mới” ‘a new pair of shoes’). For example:

### 3B.54

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bao giờ anh mới đi Úc?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bao lâu nữa mình mới tôi?
Lit: How much longer we [QE] arrive?
Eng: How much longer before will we arrive?

Tại sao mình không `chờ` thêm chút nữa?
Lit: Why we not wait (more) bit longer?
Eng: Why don’t we wait a bit longer?

“True” interrogatives also use trợ tử (suppletives) “à” or “hả” to express a speaker’s attitude toward the listener. It can be respectful or arrogant depending on the relationship between the two language users. For example:

Có phải ông là ông Nghị không g?
Lit: (QM) you are Mr Nghĩ [QM]
Eng: Are you Mr Nghĩ, sir?

Ai cho chúng mày vào đây… ha?
Lit: Who allow you (derog.) in here … [QM]?
Eng: Who’s let you in?

(b) **Negative interrogatives** (NI) such expressions as ‘tại sao’ (‘why’), ‘đâu nào’, ‘đời nào’, etc “are expressions of interrogation but are really expressions of negation”. They are used “to emphasise the negativity of an utterance or to reject someone else’s ideas” (Than, 1997: 604; my translation). For example:

A. Tại sao cô lại khóc?
Lit: Why you cry?
Eng: Why are you crying?

B. Đâu nào?
Lit: (NI)
Eng: Me? Crying? (You must be kidding!)

A. Anh sợ nó à?
Lit: You afraid (of) him [QM]
Eng: Are you afraid of him?

B. Đời nào tôi lại* sợ nó?
Lit: (NI) I [EE] afraid (of) him?
Eng: Me? Afraid of him? (You must be kidding!)

(lài* = an emphasis element whose function in this case is to make the statement stronger.)
(c) **Affirmative interrogatives** (AI) ‘are expressions of interrogation but are actually expressions of affirmation’. Such terms as ‘là gì’, ‘không’ are often place at the end of a clause (Than, 1997: 605). For example:

3B.61  Thế anh chẳng điện là gì?

Lit:  If you not crazy (then) what?

Eng:  Do you think you are not crazy?

(d) **Imperative interrogatives** (II) are ‘really imperatives and requests aimed at giving orders to someone to do something’ (ibid). The following example is also provided by Than:

3B.62  Có im không?

Lit:  [QM] shut up (or) not?

Eng:  Shut up, won’t you?

3B.63  Có đi ngay không?

Lit:  [QM] leave immediately (or) not?

Eng:  Leave immediately, won’t you?

Binh, however, uses different classifications to categorise what Thận may call “true”, negative, affirmative, and imperative interrogatives; for others (for example Chinh & Lê, 1963) these question makers are considered only as ‘phố từ’ (‘subordinate words’).

(e) **Question sectors and question elements** - Binh (1971) divides a sentence into the trunk, predicatid and predicatid nucleus, as well as what she terms ‘sentence sectors’.

However, for the purpose of this research, only the interrogative will be discussed. In her research into differences and similarities between Vietnamese and English grammar, A Tagmemic Comparison of the Structure of English and Vietnamese Sentences, she proposes that terms such as ‘ai’ (‘who’), ‘gi’ (‘what’), ‘nào’ (‘which’), ‘bao nhiêu’ (‘how much’), etc. are ‘question words and are always combined with elements in a noun cluster to fill the subject (S) position’ (1971: 142). Examples appearing in this section are reproduced from Binh’s work:

3B.64  Bao nhiêu nhà trong phố bị cháy?

Lit:  How many house in street (passive maker) burn

Eng:  How many houses in the street were burned down?
Whereas, such words as ‘thế nào’ (‘how’), ‘ở đâu’ (‘where’), ‘xong chưa’ (‘have yet completed’, or ‘have yet finished’), and ‘chưa’ (‘yet’), which occur at the end (E) of a sentence are termed ‘interrogative lexemes’. For example:

\[ S \]
\[ 3B.65 \] Ai có xe hơi?
\[ Lit: \] Who have car?
\[ Eng: \] Does anybody have a car?

This decontextualised example sounds ‘unEnglish’. It should be understood as ‘How is Mr Ba’s English?’, or ‘How well does Mr Ba speak English?’

\[ E \]
\[ 3B.66 \] Ông Ba nói tiếng Anh thế nào?
\[ Lit: \] Mr Ba speak language English how?
\[ Eng: \] How does/did Mr Ba speak English? (sic)

According to Bình, question words such as ‘ai’ (‘who’), ‘người nào’ (‘which person’), ‘gi’ (‘what’), etc. however, may also occur in the object (O) position, either alone or as a part of larger units filling the object sector’ (ibid: 179). For example:

\[ O \]
\[ 3B.69 \] Ông Ba gặp ai?
\[ Lit: \] Mr Ba meet who?
\[ Eng: \] Who does/did Mr Ba meet?

Moreover, she also contends that ‘question words may occur in the complement (C) position either alone or as parts of larger constructions’ (ibid: 193). For example:
C

3B.71 Ông Ba đi đâu?
Lit: Mr Ba go where?
Eng: Where does/did Mr Ba go?

3B.72 Ông Ba nói chuyện với ai?
Lit: Mr Ba talk to/with who?
Eng: Whom did Mr Ba talk to?

She goes further to suggest that question words and interrogative lexemes may be placed in the Q and the Em sectors.

○ The Q Sector or Question Sector:

According to Bình, the following question words ‘occur in a special sector of their own, the question (Q) sector’: ‘a’, ‘chẳng’, ‘churu’, ‘hà’ (or ‘hô’, ‘hư’), ‘không’, ‘nhe’, ‘nhi’, ‘ur’, ‘có phải … không’ (or ‘phai không’), and ‘nghe không’. The emphatic words ‘có’ and ‘có phải’ in this case are placed in the negative (Neg.) position of a clause For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>Neg.</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Q</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ngu</td>
<td>có</td>
<td>Ngon</td>
<td>Không</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: Mr Ba sleep (EL) well (QW)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Does/did Mr Ba sleep well?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neg.</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Q</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Có phai</td>
<td>là</td>
<td>con</td>
<td>bà Hai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: Miss Lan (EL) is child (of) Mr Hai [QW]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Is Miss Lan Mrs Hai’s daughter?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bình also points out that the question word ‘không’ occurs in the Q position at the end of an affirmative clause changing it into a yes-no question. And generally in yes-no question with the presence of ‘không’, quite often the emphatic lexeme (EL) ‘có’ also occurs. In Example 3B.73 ‘có’ occurs ‘before a modifier or modifier cluster in the complement position to show that the emphasis of the question is placed on the unit or units following [it]’ (ibid: 204). In the above example, ‘có’ modifies the term ‘ngon’ (‘well’) therefore its emphasis is on ‘ngon’.

By the same token, in Example 3B.74, the emphatic lexeme ‘có phải’ occurs before the equative verb ‘là’ (similar to ‘to be’ in English) in a yes-no question, therefore ‘có phải’ emphasises the genitive phrase ‘Mrs Hai’s daughter’. Furthermore, both ‘có’ in Example
3B.73 and ‘có phải’ in Example 3B.74, because of their function in the clauses being to form yes-no questions, they are placed in the negative position (ibid).

She further explains that ‘có phải’ may also be used in a yes-no question containing a verb other than the equative verb ‘là’. In this case the emphatic lexeme ‘có phải’ shifts to the ‘Em.’ position (i.e. the position of an emphatic unit) and as such the emphasis will be on the whole question and not only on the main verb. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Em.</th>
<th>Q</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3B.75</td>
<td>Có phải bà Ba mua ba con gà không?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>(EM) Mrs Ba buy three (AC)* chicken [QW]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>Was it true that Mrs Ba bought three chicken?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*AC: animate classifier)

- **The F Sector and I Sector:**

  Question words which regularly occur in the front (F) position including: ‘bao giờ’ (‘when’), ‘hôm nào’ (‘which day’), ‘lúc mấy giờ’ (‘at what time’), ‘mấy giờ’ (‘what time’), etc (ibid: 90-91). However, the author places the following interrogative expressions ‘sao’ (‘why’), ‘tại sao’ (‘why’), ‘vi có gì’ or ‘vi sao’ (‘for what reason’), etc, in the I (Interrogative) position (ibid: 102-104). For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3B.76 Hôm nào ông Ba đi?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: Day which Mr Ba go?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Which day will Mr Ba go away?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3B.77 Lúc mấy giờ thì ông Ba tới?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: At how many hour then Mr Ba arrive?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: At what time will Mr Ba come?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3B.78 Sao ông Ba không ăn cơm?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: Why Mr Ba not eat rice?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Why didn’t Mr Ba have lunch (dinner)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3B.79 Vì có gì sáng nay ông Ba không đi làm?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lit: For reason what morning this Mr Ba not go work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng: Why didn’t Mr Ba go to work this morning?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interrogative mood system in Vietnamese is complicated and requires further studies. It is not as simple as to identify which question words (or question makers) should be in which position in a clause and classify them accordingly to the position in which they occur (i.e. front position or end position as Binh has attempted to do). Because any change in the position of these words in a clause will result in a change in its meaning. The following examples will illustrate the complexity of the positioning of question words and their change of meanings. Again the following examples appear in Binh’s work:

A. Question words in the front (F) position

F

3B.80 Bao giờ ông Ba về Việt Nam?
Lit: When Mr Ba return Vietnam?
Eng: When will Mr Ba go back to Vietnam?

F

3B.81 Hôm nào ông Ba đi?
Lit: Day which Mr Ba go away?
Eng: Which day will Mr Ba go away?

The emphatic lexeme (EL) ‘có’ can also combine with such question words as ‘bao giờ’ (‘when’), ‘hôm nào’ (‘which day’), ‘ai’ (‘who’) etc. and the question word ‘không’ to form questions about events which may/may not occur in the future. However, the addition may add an element of doubt or considerably change the meaning of the question. ‘Có’ in this case will occur in the F sector. Let’s use the above examples provided by Binh with ‘có’ preceding the question words ‘bao giờ’, and ‘hôm nào’, etc:

Em. F

3B.82 Có bao giờ ông Ba về Việt Nam không?
Lit: (EL) ever Mr Ba return Vietnam [QW]?
Eng: Will Mr Ba ever go back to Vietnam?

Em. F

3B.83 Có hôm nào ông Ba đi không?
Lit: (EM) day which Mr Ba go [QW]?
Eng: Will Mr Ba ever go away?
B. Question words in the end (E) position

3B.84 Ông Ba về Việt Nam bao giờ?
Lit: Mr Ba return Vietnam when?
Eng: When did Mr Ba go back to Vietnam?

3B.85 Ông Ba đi hôm nào?
Lit: Mr Ba go day which?
Eng: Which day did Mr Ba go away?

However, according to Bình (ibid: 205), the emphatic lexeme ‘có’ is not always placed at the beginning of a clause, it can occur in the negative (Neg.) position in a question and in this case, a question word will be placed at the E (end) position and be accompanied by the question word ‘không’ in the Q position. For example:

3B.86 Ông Ba về Việt Nam bao giờ?
Lit: Mr Ba return Vietnam when?
Eng: When did Mr Ba go back to Vietnam?

3B.87 Ông Ba có về Việt Nam bao giờ không?
Lit: Mr Ba (EM) return Vietnam ever [QW]?
Eng: Has Mr Ba ever gone back to Vietnam?

3B.88 Ông Ba mua cam ở đâu?
Lit: Mr Ba buy orange where?
Eng: Where did Mr Ba buy oranges?

3B.89 Ông Ba có mua cam ở đâu không?
Lit: Mr Ba (EM) buy orange where [QW]?
Eng: Did Mr Ba buy oranges anywhere?

From the above examples, it seems that the ‘yes/no’ format is signalled by the question word ‘không’ in the Q position and the occurrence of this word seems to override others in various sectors in the clause, as Bình (1971: 207) observes: “… ‘không’ is a stronger question word than any other question word that might occur in one of the sectors mentioned above.”
There are other questions words which, when added to a statement will change it into a question requiring a confirmation or agreement. These words include: ‘nhé’, ‘ư’, ‘ní’, ‘chứ’, and ‘không’ (or ‘hừ’, ‘hờ’). For example:

3B.90 Ông Ba không đi câu hà?
Lit: Mr Ba not go fishing
Eng: Mr Ba didn’t go fishing, did he?

3B.91 Anh dùng cơm chiều với chúng tôi nhé?
Lit: You use rice evening with we/us
Eng: Would you have dinner with us?

Further, there is a question word normally used in a conversation by Vietnamese speakers to form a yes-no question from a negative statement. This word (‘à’) usually occurs at the end of a clause and is also used to express a sense of surprise. For example:

3B.92 Ông Ba không ăn cam à?
Lit: Mr Ba no/not eat orange
Eng: Didn’t Mr Ba eat some orange?

3B.93 Ông Ba chưa về Việt Nam à?
Lit: Mr Ba not yet return Vietnam
Eng: Hasn’t Mr Ba gone back to Vietnam?

As we have seen above, the mood system in Vietnamese is different to its English counterpart, particularly in relation to the interrogative, and requires a thorough study in order to decide how much this difference will impact on the translation of this language pair. We believe that recently there has been no recent research that looks at the Vietnamese mood and modality system in detail from the SFL perspective. Further, we also believe that such a research will help both contrastive linguistic scholars as well as translation theorists and practitioners understand more about the similarities and differences between the two languages in question.

Now, we’ll return to the issue which has been discussed earlier in relation to the classification of what has been viewed as question makers on the one hand and interrogative pronouns on the other. As indicated, we may not agree with Thân’s classification of the word ‘sao’ which he has claimed as an ‘interrogative pronoun’ (‘đại tử’), because like in English, most interrogative pronouns in Vietnamese are placed at the beginning of a clause to form questions. For example:
3B.94 **Bao giờ** ông Ba về Việt Nam?
Lit: When Mr Ba return Vietnam?
Eng: When will Mr Ba go back to Vietnam?

3B.95 **Ai** cho chúng mấy vào đây?
Lit: Who allow you (derog.) in here?
Eng: Who’s let you in?

In the above examples, both ‘bao giờ’ and ‘ai’ are placed at the beginning of the clause therefore they are classified as interrogative pronouns. Further, the word ‘ai’ in the following example, because of its position at the end of the clause immediately after Predicator “là” (‘be’), and expressing the relational relation between Subject “anh” and Complement “ai”, can also be seen as a pronoun in Vietnamese.

**Example 3B.96**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Anh là ai?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>You be [QM]?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mood block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng:</th>
<th>Who are you?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-Complement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mood block</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And where *Who* as Subject in English, can have the same function in Vietnamese as in the following example:

**Example 3B.97**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng:</th>
<th>Who is there?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mood block</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Ai dó?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>Who (0 copula) there?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mood block</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, the word ‘sao’ at the end of the clauses in **Examples 3B.98** and **3B.99** above cannot be seen as an interrogative pronoun, because it functions more like a question maker:

**Example 3B.98**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Example 3B.98</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bà</td>
<td>You (female)</td>
<td>điene</td>
<td>crazy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td><strong>Predicate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Finite</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Eng:**

Are you crazy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example 3B.99</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viet</td>
<td>Lit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Em</td>
<td>Younger sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Eng:**

Have you forgotten me already?

Note that while in English *there* is Complement, in Vietnamese ‘đó’ (‘there’), according to Halliday (2004), is Attribute and the Attribute is conflated with the Process to form an ascriptive clause. This is similar in the case of the Chinese ascriptive clause, as Halliday explains (2004: 358): “Whereas in English, qualities of participants are construed as nominals (the adjective is a subclass of noun, as in the traditional distinction between “noun substantive” and “noun adjective”), in Chinese they are construed as verbals: the adjective is a subclass of verb, the “stative” or “adjectival” verb.”
For example, in one of the poems by Vũ Hữu Định “Còn chút gì để nhớ” (“There’s something to remember”), which later became the lyric for a popular song in 1970s during the Vietnam War, the first two lines go like this:

**Example 3B.100**

| Viet: | Phú núi cao |
| Lit:  | Town mountain high |
| Eng:  | “The mountainous town is high” |

**Example 3B.101**

| Viet: | Phú núi đầy sương |
| Lit:  | Town mountain full mist |
| Eng:  | “The mountainous town is full of mist (or ‘is misty’)” |

In the above examples, the ascriptive clauses assign the quality (high; misty) to the participant (the mountainous town) and as such the former is Attribute, while the latter is Carrier. However, the Attribute is realised by an adjectival group or, as termed by Hoà (Nguyễn Đình Hoà) a “stative” verb.

We will return to this in more detail when discussing the ideational function of Vietnamese grammar, but now let’s focus on the confusing classification made by Thân (1997). While ‘sao’ can appear at the beginning or at the end of a clause to form an interrogative, the meaning will change depending on its position in the clause.

To facilitate our discussion, we’ll reproduce some of the examples used in Thân’s work, and implement those analytical techniques proposed by SFG to explore their interpersonal meanings.

Compare the following example (**Example 3B.102**) with the one provided by Thân’s (**Example 3B.103**):

**Example 3B.102**

| Viet: | Sao hôm qua em không đến? |
| Lit:  | Why day past you not come? |
| QM    | Cir: Temp. | Subject | Negative | Predicator |
| Mood Block | Residue |
Eng: Why didn’t you come yesterday?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wh-interrogative</th>
<th>Finite – (past)</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mood Block</strong></td>
<td><strong>Residue</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3B.103

Viet: Bà diên rồi sao?

Lit: You (female) crazy (already) [QM]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>Emphatic lexeme</th>
<th>QM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residue</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mood Block</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eng: Are you crazy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finite</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mood Block</strong></td>
<td><strong>Residue</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Example 3B.102, ‘sao’ takes the initial position in the clause (just as in English) to form a Wh-interrogative which, according to Halliday, is elemental interrogative. This type of question requires a response with some element of information (hence, elemental interrogative), unlike the yes-no type of questions. In Halliday’s view, in examining the Chinese interrogative mood, it’s found that if this particle does not appear at the front of the clause, then it should ‘occupy the same place in the clause as the element that is being sought’ (2004: 333).

To illustrate his point, Halliday offers the following exemplars in Chinese, which will be adapted into Vietnamese:

Example 3B.104

Viet: Ai kiếm tôi?

Lit: Who look for I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subj</th>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>Compl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mood Block</strong></td>
<td><strong>Residue</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eng: Who’s looking for me?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wh-Subj</th>
<th>Finite</th>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>Compl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mood Block</strong></td>
<td><strong>Residue</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 3B.105

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Anh</th>
<th>kiếm</th>
<th>ai?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>look for</td>
<td>who/anybody</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood Block</th>
<th>Residue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng:</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>are</th>
<th>you</th>
<th>looking for?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wh-Compl.</td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>Subj</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood Block</td>
<td>Residue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas in Example 3B.103 “sao” occurs at the end of the clause to form a yes-no question, and functions as an interrogative morpheme or particle. In Vietnamese, there are more than a dozen such interrogative words which normally occur in the final position as well as those which occupy the initial position or appear immediately after the subject of a clause to form a yes-no type question. The following are the most widely used ones:

Figure 3B.2

i. Vietnamese interrogative words (polar interrogatives)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polar interrogative</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning: Interro.</th>
<th>Position: Initial/Preverb/Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Có phải … không</td>
<td>Có phải anh là bạn anh Chu không? QW you be friend (of) brother Chu QW? Are you Chu’s friend? (Am I correct in thinking you’re Chu’s friend?)</td>
<td>Is the information correct?</td>
<td>Initial &amp; final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phải không</td>
<td>Anh là bạn anh Chu phải không? You be friend (of) brother Chu QW? You are Chu’s friend, aren’t you?</td>
<td>Isn’t the information correct?</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>có … không</td>
<td>Có ấy có nhà không? She QW home QW? Is she home?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Preverbal and final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>không</td>
<td>Anh muốn ghé tôi không? You drop by I QW? Do you want to drop by to see me?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sao</td>
<td>Có điện rồi sao? You crazy already QW? Are you crazy?</td>
<td>Expression of surprise or annoyance</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha/hụ/</td>
<td>Diẹn rọ hay? Crazy already QW? Are you crazy?</td>
<td>Expression of surprise or annoyance</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chưa</td>
<td>Ăn com chưa? Eat rice QW (yet)? Have you had lunch (dinner) yet?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>à</strong></td>
<td>Anh chưa về à? You not yet go home QW? Isn’t it time for you to go home?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>không … à</strong></td>
<td>Nó không đến à? He neg. come QW? He didn’t come, did he?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Preverbal and final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chữ</strong></td>
<td>Vẫn còn kịp chút? Still enough time QW? Is it still OK (to catch the next train, etc.)?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nhé</strong></td>
<td>Hôm nào anh ghé tôi chơi nhé? Some day you drop by I play QW? You will drop by to see me one day, won’t you?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mà</strong></td>
<td>Nghe nói nó đến rồi mà? Hear tell he arrive already QW? I’ve heard he’s already arrived, hasn’t he?</td>
<td>Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>chẳng</strong></td>
<td>Có lẽ anh ấy ốm chẳng? Perhaps he sick QW? Could it be that he was sick?</td>
<td>Expression of doubt - Positive or negative answer</td>
<td>Final</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Phải không”, “nhé”, “mà”, and “không … à” function as question tags in English and expect a negative or positive answer (polar interrogative).

Halliday also differentiates two types of polar interrogative which he terms “biased” and “un-biased”. With the “biased”: ‘the speaker makes a statement, either positive or negative, and asks for it to be checked (hence confirmed or denied)” (ibid: 335). Below Example 3B.106 is used to illustrate the point:

**Example 3B.106**

| **Viet** | Anh chưa ăn cơm à? | **Lit** | You not yet eat rice QW? | **Eng** | You haven’t had lunch (dinner), have you? |

**Example 3B.107**

| **Viet** | Nghe nói nó đến rồi mà? | **Lit** | Hear tell he arrive already QW? | **Eng** | I’ve heard he’s already arrived, hasn’t he? |

This type of interrogative has similar characteristics of the English tagged-declarative; that is the speaker makes a statement which will be checked with the listener for a confirmation or denial. Whereas, the unbiased type is a straight interrogative; for example:
Example 3B.108

Viet: Nó đến chưa?
Lit: He arrive QW?
Eng: Has he arrived (yet)?

There is another type of Vietnamese interrogative which forms an open-ended question (Halliday refers to it as “lexical” or “non-polar”) and which we may call elemental interrogative. According to Halliday (2004: 333), this type is characterised by an interrogative word (or element) either nominal (pronominal) or adverbial, as shown in Figure 3B.3 below:

Figure 3B.3

ii. Vietnamese interrogative words (elemental interrogatives)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elemental interrogative</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Position &amp; Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sao/tại sao</td>
<td>Sao em không đến? QW you not come? Why didn’t you come?</td>
<td>Why</td>
<td>Initial – Adverbial (Adjunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bao giờ/khi nào</td>
<td>Bao giờ anh đi? QW you go? When will you leave/go?</td>
<td>When</td>
<td>Initial – Adverbial (Adjunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bao giờ</td>
<td>Cô ấy đến bao giờ? QW she go? When did she arrive/come?</td>
<td>When</td>
<td>Final – Adverbial (Adjunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Làm sao/lâm thế nào</td>
<td>Làm sao giết được người trong mộng? QW kill get person in dream? How can you kill a person of your dream?</td>
<td>How</td>
<td>Initial – Adverbial (Adjunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ai</td>
<td>QW đánh nó? QW who hit him? Who did hit him?</td>
<td>Who</td>
<td>Initial - Pronoun (Subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aì</td>
<td>Nó đánh QW? He hit who? Whom did he hit?</td>
<td>Whom</td>
<td>Final - Pronoun (Complement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cái gì</td>
<td>Cái gì đây? QW this? What is this?</td>
<td>What</td>
<td>Initial - Pronoun (Subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>đâu/ở đâu</td>
<td>Cô ấy đi đâu? QW she go QW? Where did she go?</td>
<td>Where</td>
<td>Final – Pronoun (Complement)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are other interrogative morphemes or particles which can be included in a declarative clause to form a question. To indicate a choice between two things or actions, or events, for example, the particle “hay” (“or”) is placed between two words of the same class. The identification of a clause which seems to be a statement but in fact a question, is realised by a change in intonation or context of use (in the spoken form) and by a question mark or inference (in the written form).

Example 3B.109a

- **Verbal group:**
  - Viet: Anh đi hay ở?
  - Lit: You go or stay
  - Eng: Are you’re going or staying?

Example 3B.109b

- **Nominal group:**
  - Viet: Anh thích cái xanh hay cái đỏ?
  - Lit: You like (class.) blue or (class.) red
  - Eng: Do you like the blue or the red one?

Example 3B.109c

- **Adverbial group:**
  - Viet: Anh muốn lái nhanh hay chậm?
  - Lit: You want drive fast or slow
  - Eng: Do you want to drive fast or slowly?

As mentioned earlier, Vietnamese linguists are not in agreement with each other in relation to the classification of interrogative morphemes or particles. While Bình refers to interrogative particles as question words or question morphemes, others use various terms to refer to this class of words. Some linguists classify them as suppletive words (Thân, 1997), others as subordinate (Chính & Lê, 1963), and still others as interrogative pronouns (if placed at the beginning of a clause), or suppletive words (if occupying the final position in the clause).

Chính & Lê (1963: 382) even go further to suggest that there are no specific “question words” in Vietnamese: “[In examining] a clause, we know it is a declarative or an interrogative by (deducing from) its intonation or from the meaning of the whole clause.”
According to the authors, when language users coming across the word “hay” which is a ‘conjunction linking two words which are antonymous of each other’, they will recognise it as an interrogative.

This characteristic may not be unique to Vietnamese but may be universal to many languages in the world, particularly when an utterance implies an offer of choice among more than one option, for example:

**Example 3B.110**

Viet: Anh lây cái trắng hay cái đen
Lit: You take (class.) white or (class.) black
Eng: Do you want the white or the black one?

In English, one can simply say (or write) ‘You take the white or the black one?’ without having to use the auxiliary verb “do”.

**3.1.2.1.1d Imperative**

Thân (1997: 606) defines the Vietnamese imperative as clauses as those “which aim to express the will of a speaker who requests and expects another interlocutor to perform what has been asked in the utterance”. He terms these clauses ‘câu câu khiển’ (literally meaning “requesting and commanding clauses”) which, in relation to their properties, include expressions of request and command and expressions of prohibition:

**Expressions of request and command** are further divided by Thân into:

1. **Expression of request, or invitation**

**Example 3B.111**

Viet: Mọi anh dùng trà
Lit: Invite you use tea
Eng: Please have some tea!
2. **Expression of command, or prohibition**

**Example 3B.112**

Viet: Bộ nón ra!
Lit: Remove hat off
Eng: Take your hat off!

3. **Expression of exaltation**

**Example 3B.113a**

Viet: Tự Do, Dân Chủ Muốn Năm
Lit: Freedom, Democracy Ten Thousand Year
Eng: Long Live Freedom and Democracy!

**Example 3B.113b**

Viet: Chúa ở cùng anh chị em
Lit: God be with brother sister younger brother sister
Eng: May God be with you!

Thần also suggests that expressions of request and command can be formed in various ways through the use of intonation, the suppletive word ‘di’, auxiliary verbs, the particle ‘hay’, indefinite pronouns, and expressions of prohibition. These will be explored in great detail with example given.

**a. Intonation:**

According to Thần (1997: 607), this is the simplest way to form an imperative. As he points out: ‘To form a request or command clause, we use a non-subject clause, and stress on the verb which is used as predicate.’ The following example is provided by Thần:

**Example 3B.114**

Viet: Nói!
Eng: Speak!

He also goes further to propose that ‘If the verb of the clause is an action verb which forms a directional phrase, then generally it will be accompanied by a directional post-verb’ (ibid). For example:
b. The suppletive word “đi”

This suppletive is normally placed at the end of a clause to form the imperative. For example:

Example 3B.116

Viet: Đì đi!
Lit: Go sup: word
Eng: Off you go!

c. Auxiliary verbs

According to Thân, those auxiliary verbs implying an instruction or order such as “nên”, “phải”, “cần”, “dùng”, “chó”, etc; and those implying a request, for instance “mời”, “xin”, “yêu cầu”, “đề nghị”, “cho”, “cho phép” are normally used to form the imperative. On the other hand, the auxiliary “câm”, etc. is used to express prevention and prohibition. For example:

Example 3B.117a

Viet: Mơi ông ngồi!
Lit: Aux:verb you sit
Eng: Please take a seat!

Example 3B.117b

Viet: Cảm hút thuốc
Lit: Aux:verb smoke
Eng: No smoking! (or Smoking is prohibited!)
Thân also suggests that a predicator or even a nominal group can be used to form the imperative, however he also holds that ‘this rarely happens’ (ibid):

Example 3B.117c
Viet: Trất tự.
Lit: Order.
Eng: Order!

Example 3B.117d
Viet: Kéo!
Lit: Scissor!
Eng: Scissors!

(for example, in an operating theatre where the surgeon is giving order to an assistant to hand him/her a pair of scissors)

d. The particle “hãy”
In Vietnamese the particle “hãy” is often used as a pre-verb to form the imperative; for example:

Example 3B.118
Viet: Hãy lắng nghe con mình nói
Lit: Prev. attentively hear child(ren) (of) we (inclusive) speak
Eng: Listen to what our children are saying.

e. Indefinite pronoun
Thân points out that such indefinite pronouns as ‘ai (‘who’), ‘dựa nào’ (‘which of you’), etc. can be used to make a request or command in an informal context. However, we believe that this may seem to be a question functioning as a request, rather than a command, for instance:

Example 3B.119
Viet: Dựa nào ra mở cửa cho bà
Lit: Anyone go out open door for grandma
Eng: Can someone open the door for grandma?
Sometimes such question words as “có” (‘have’) are used to supposedly form an interrogative, but in fact, it is an imperative, as in the following example:

Example 3B.120

Viet: Có ai đi ra ngoài mua hàng tạo tờ báo.
Lit: (Have) anybody go out buy for I newspaper.

Example 3B.120 can be interpreted differently depending on the changes in intonation or contexts:

English:  

a. If any of you goes out, can you buy me a paper?  
b. Can somebody go out and buy me a paper?

The imperative in Vietnamese also includes:

f. Expressions of prohibition

According to Thân (1997: 608), the most widely used particles of advice or prohibition (part.) are ‘đừng’, ‘cấm’, ‘chợ’, and ‘không’ which are placed in the initial position of a clause to form the imperative. The following are exemplars of the use of such commanding words:

Example 3B.121a

Viet: Đừng để tay ra ngoài nguy hiểm
Lit: Part. leave/place arm outside danger
Eng: Don’t reach your arm out of the window!

Example 3B.121b

Viet: Cấm vào
Lit: Part. entry
Eng: No entry! (or Entry is not allowed!)

Example 3B.121c

Viet: Chớ kiêu ngạo
Lit: Part. arrogant
Eng: Don’t be arrogant!
He further adds that such auxiliary verbs expressing prevention or prohibition as ‘cấm’ (prohibit’, or ‘forbid’), ‘phản đối’ (‘object’), ‘prevent’ (‘prevent’), etc. are normally followed by the negative adverbial ‘không được’ to emphasise the meaning of the main verb. However, in the current usage the above negative adverbial is often left out. For example:

Example 3B.121d

Viet: Cấm không được nói chuyện!
Lit: Forbid neg: adv talk
Eng: No talking! (or Talking is forbidden!)

Example 3B.121e

Viet: Cấm nói chuyện!
Lit: Forbid talk!
Eng: No talking! (or Talking is forbidden!)

Thân also states that an expression of request and command in Vietnamese can display a speaker’s emotions or feelings of anger or tenderness depending on the intonation (ibid: 608). For instance:

Example 3B.122

Viet: Nói đi!
Lit: Talk [emphatic word]
Eng: Talk!; (or Go ahead, tell me!)

Example 3B.123

Viet: Nói đi, em!
Lit: Talk [emphatic word] you
Eng: Tell me, darling! (or Tell me, my dearest!)

Thân’s classification of the Vietnamese imperative mood has raised some issues which need to be addressed.

- First, in terms of expressions of exaltation, in English such expressions as “Long live the Queen!” and “May God be with you!” are subjunctives which are formed using archaic formulae to express wishes and praises, and are not regarded as requests or commands. Similarly in Vietnamese, these types of
expression as, too, those used in swearing or cursing are not seen as the imperative; for example:

**Example 3B.124a**

Viet: Chết đi!
Lit: Die [emphatic word]!
Eng: Damn you!

**Example 3B.124b**

Viet: Đờ trời đánh!
Lit: Thing God strike
Eng: God damn you!

• Second, in Thàn’s classification there is some overlapping in the use of auxiliary verbs as instructions or commands and the use of expressive words of prohibition and prevention. For example, in Vietnamese the morpheme “cấm” is normally used in official public notices, posters, and signs to instruct the public not to act or behave in certain manners:

**Example 3B.125a**

Viet: Cấm đổ rác hay xả rác nơi công cộng.
Lit: Prohibit dump rubbish or litter rubbish place public
Eng: Do not dump rubbish or litter public places!

**Example 3B.125b**

Viet: Cắm đi trên cỏ
Lit: Prohibit walk on grass
Eng: Keep off the grass!

• Third, such imperative morphemes as “tránh”, “dừng”, and “không nên” are used to mark the negative imperative. These morphemes as well as “cấm” may be preceded by an adjunct such as “tuyệt đối” (“absolutely”) to emphasise, for example, the seriousness of an advice or warning. This is exemplified by the following:
Example 3B.126a
Viet: Tuyệt đối tránh lái xe sau khi đã uống rượu
Lit: Absolutely avoid drive car after [PM] drink wine
Eng: Absolutely never drink and drive!

Example 3B.126b
Viet: Tuyệt đối cảm dột pháo trong dịp Tết Nguyên Dán
Lit: Absolutely prohibit light cracker during event Tết Nguyên Dán
Eng: The use of firecrackers and fireworks during the Vietnamese New Year is totally banned.

• The verb “tránh” literally means “avoid” or “evade”, but when used in the initial position in the clause to form the imperative, it implies an advice or warning; for example:

Example 3B.127a
Viet: Tránh dùng chung khăn với người bị ghẻ
Lit: Avoid use share towel with person suffer scabies
Eng: Don’t share towels with a scabies infected person!

Example 3B.127b
Viet: Tránh để nệm gần lửa
Lit: Avoid place mattress near fire
Eng: Don’t place your mattress near open flame!

• “Đừng” is also used to express an advice or warning; for example:

Example 3B.128
Viet: Đừng dùng quá liều an định (in terms of medication)
Lit: Don’t use exceed dosage defined
Eng: Don’t exceed the prescribed dosage!

• Thân has also failed to mention the use of stative verbs in Vietnamese to make the imperative. For example:
Example 3B.129
Viet: Cẩn thận!
Lit: Careful
Eng: Be careful!

- In addition, in Vietnamese the imperative morpheme “chó” is normally used to form the imperative that suggests a religious or moral obligation (as in the Ten Commandments):

Example 3B.130a
Viet: Chó giết người!
Lit: Imp. morp. kill person (human)
Eng: You shall not murder! (5th Commandment)

Example 3B.130b
Viet: Chó làm chứng dối!
Lit: Imp. morp. witnesse (testify) false (lie)
Eng: You shall not bear false witness against your neighbour! (8th Commandment)

It is also used in place of “dùng” or “tránh” to imply a warning or a piece of advice but in an informal context:

Example 3B.130c
Viet: Chó dùng quá liều án định
Lit: Imp. morp. use exceed dosage defined
Eng: Don’t exceed the prescribed dosage!

Example 3B.130d
Viet: Chó dùng chung khăn với người bị ghê
Lit: Imp. morp. use share towel with person suffer scabies
Eng: Don’t share towels with a scabies infected person!

- Both positive and negative imperatives may be preceded by “xin” (“please”), an interpersonal element, to express respect or politeness.

Example 3B.131
Viet: Xin mời ông ngồi
Lit: Please invite you sit
Eng: Please take a seat!
• In terms of the first person imperative, this may include first and second persons (inclusive); e.g. “Chúng mình …” (“Let’s …”) However, they often may appear in a shorter form, i.e. “Ta …” or “Minh…”, or may appear in the first person only “Để tôi …” (“Let me …”) indicating an offer:

**Example 3B.132a**

Viet: Để tôi trả tiền cho!
Lit: Let I pay money for
Eng: Let me pay for you!

**Example 3B.132b**

Viet: Anh với tôi, chúng mình mỗi người trả một nửa
Lit: You and I, we each person pay one half
Eng: You and I, let’s pay half each!

• “Để …” may also appear in the first person plural to express exclusively; e.g. “Để chúng tôi…”

**Example 3B.132c**

Viet: Để chúng tôi trả tiền cho các anh!
Lit: Let we pay money for pl. maker you
Eng: Let’s pay for you!

**Example 3B.132d**

Viet: Chúng mình (or “minh” or “ta”) đi thôi!
Lit: We go then
Eng: Let’s go!

The following table summarises the imperative mood in Vietnamese:
### The Vietnamese imperative elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative element</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verbal group</td>
<td>Dùng theo đúng như đã dặn!</td>
<td>Use as directed!</td>
<td>initial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjectival group</td>
<td>Cẩn thận!</td>
<td>Be careful!</td>
<td>initial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“dì”</td>
<td>Ăn dì!</td>
<td>Eat up! (emphatic)</td>
<td>Postverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“hãy”</td>
<td>Hãy vung lên!</td>
<td>Rise up in arms!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“tránh”</td>
<td>Tránh ăn quá mạnh!</td>
<td>Don’t use a lot of salt!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“dùng”</td>
<td>Dùng nói dói!</td>
<td>Don’t lie!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“cấm”</td>
<td>Cấm kẻo trái!</td>
<td>No left turn!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“chớ”</td>
<td>Chớ làm chứng đối!</td>
<td>You shall not bear false witness against your neighbour!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“không nên”</td>
<td>Không nên cớ tran khi ra nắng!</td>
<td>Don’t stay naked outdoor on a sunny day!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“để”</td>
<td>Để tôi ra mở cửa cho cô ấy vào!</td>
<td>Let me open the door for her!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“để chúng tôi …”</td>
<td>Để chúng tôi trả cho!</td>
<td>Let’s pay (this time)!</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“chúng mình …”</td>
<td>Chúng mình đi thôi!</td>
<td>Let’s go! (inclusive)</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“minh …”</td>
<td>Minh đi dì!</td>
<td>Let’s go! (inclusive)</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“ta …”</td>
<td>Ta đi thôi!</td>
<td>Let’s go! (inclusive)</td>
<td>Preverbal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At this stage, it is important to point out that we have classified some imperative particles as preverbal instead of auxiliary due to the following reasons:

- If they are classified as auxiliary then they may be used as finite as in the case of English auxiliaries “have”, “be”, and “do”. However, when not used in the imperative mood, these morphemes do not seem to function as auxiliary; for instance:

**Example 3B.133a**

Viet: Tao cấm máy không được lai vãng gần nhà tao
Lit: I forbid you not gain loiter near house I
Eng: I forbid you to hang around near my place.

**Example 3B.133b**

Viet: Tôi cờ tránh không muốn gặp cô ấy hàng máy tháng trái.
Lit: I try avoid not want meet she for several month
Eng: I have tried to avoid meeting with her for several months.
3.1.2.1.2 The system of MODALITY

Language is not only used to exchange information by making statements or asking questions. Quite often we use language to request or demand goods and services, to offer goods and services, to make suggestions and wishes or to express our intentions. Sometimes we use language to express our politeness and tactfulness, or to express our attitudes or feelings on certain issues. In English, these can be realised by using a group of verbs called modal verbs. Modal verbs are a special kind of auxiliary that are normally used with other verbs.

In the previous section, we briefly explored the use of verbal groups to realise interpersonal meanings of polarity and modality, with polarity being the choice between yes and no, positive and negative, approval and disapproval, etc. However, according to Halliday (1985: 86), ‘the possibilities are not limited to a choice between yes and no… There are intermediate degrees: various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in between…’; that means between these two extremes (yes vs. no) there are a number of choices a language user can make to express degrees of certainty and uncertainty, or of usuality and rarity. These indeterminacies between the positive and negative poles are referred to by Halliday as ‘MODALISATION’

In examining the four primary speech functions of language, i.e. giving information (making statements), requesting information (asking questions), providing goods and services (offers), and demanding goods and services (commands), Halliday (1985: 86) categorises the first two functions (i.e. statements and questions) as ‘propositions’, and the last two (offers and commands) as ‘proposals’. For Halliday, in a proposition, the meaning of the positive and negative poles is ‘asserting and denying’, however, there are two kinds of intermediate possibilities:

(i) degrees of probability (possibly/probably/certainly);
(ii) degrees of usuality (sometimes/usually/always)

He further explains (ibid) that: “The former are equivalent to ‘either yes or no’; i.e. maybe yes, maybe no with different degrees of likelihood attached. The latter are equivalent to ‘both yes and no’, i.e. sometimes yes, sometimes no, with different degrees of oftenness attached.”

In a proposal, the meaning of the positive and negative poles is prescribing (‘do it’) and proscribing (‘don’t do it’). Depending on the speech function, i.e. whether it is an offer or command, there are also two kinds of intermediate possibilities: (i) in a command, these possibilities may express degrees of obligation (e.g: ‘allowed to/supposed to-required to’); (ii)
in an offer, these may represent degrees of inclination (e.g. ‘willing to/anxious to/ determined to’). And Halliday refers to the scales of obligation and inclination as ‘MODULATION’.

In other words, as Eggins (1994: 179) succinctly summarises: “When Modality is used to argue about the probability and frequency of propositions, it is referred to as modalisation. When [it] is used to argue about the obligation or inclination of proposals, it is referred to as modulation.”

Interpersonally, Butt et al (2000) see modality as a strategy employed by language users “to refer to all positioning by speakers about probability, usuality, typicality, obviousness, obligation and inclination” (2000: 113). They also postulate that to express their stance on a certain issue English speakers select among such language resources available to them as:

- A Modal Finite
- An adverbial group, or prepositional phrase also known as Mood Adjunct; or
- An interpersonal metaphor

In relation to language users’ positioning or stance, Butt et al (2000: 114) also suggest that one way to find out this stance is to examine the use of modality expressions which position speakers between a definite yes and a definite no (probability), or sometimes yes and sometimes no (usuality).

Like English, the Vietnamese modality system may also be divided into two subtypes: modalisation and modulation. However, unlike English which uses a variety of strategies (i.e. modal finite, adverbial group, mood adjunct, etc.) to express probability and usuality, or obligation and inclination, the Vietnamese modality is lexicalised, and being lexicalised, it tends to combine two modal verbs to form, for example, such expressions of obligation as “cần phải” (‘need have to’), and “cần nên” (‘need ought to’). Also like English, both subtypes in Vietnamese are graded, though limited in their degrees of modality. For instance, in comparison with the English modulation which is realised by a subclass of verbs (modal auxiliaries), there is only one modal adjunct used as a preverb “có thể” to cover such English auxiliaries as may/might (possibility) as well as such modal adjuncts as probably, possibly, and maybe. By the same token, there is only a tense marker used as a preverb (‘sẽ’) to signify the future tense as well as express the intention of the speaker; e.g. shall/should and will/would. As far as expressions of obligation or expectation are concerned, there is only one Vietnamese preverb (‘phải’) for ‘have to’, ‘must’ and ‘ought to’. 
Furthermore, in English the Finite plays a crucial role in the expression of interpersonal meanings, as pointed out by Butt et al (2000: 89) “The Finite is the part of the verbal group which encodes primary tense or the speaker’s opinion. Thus, the Finite has two main interpersonal roles in the verbal group – it can be a sign of TIME in relation to the speaker, or a MODAL sign of the speaker’s opinion”. In contrast, in Vietnamese this may be realised using preverbs and postverbs.

Similarly, in relation to the English modalisation which is realised using a subclass of adverbs, there are a limited number of Vietnamese modal adverbs as compared to their English counterparts. For example, ‘có lẽ’ may be used to mean ‘probably’, ‘possibly’, ‘likely’ and ‘maybe’; ‘chắc chắn’ may cover such terms as ‘certainly’, ‘surely’, and ‘definitely’; ‘có thể’ is normally used for both ‘perhaps’, and ‘maybe’; and ‘lề ra’ is for the English conditional ‘should have’. For example:

**Example 3B.134**

Viet: Lề ra anh nên hỏi ý kiến tôi, trước khi quyết định làm ăn hùn hợp với hắn.
Lit: Perhaps you should ask advice (of) I, before decide do business partnership with he.
Eng: You should have asked me for my advice, before deciding to be his business partner.

Note that due to a lack of the Finite, Vietnamese grammar tends to lexicalise its mood system as shown in the above example. This limitation of modality expressions often causes difficulties for Vietnamese translators in selecting among the Vietnamese linguistic resources available to them to translate English modality expressions. For example the English modal auxiliary ‘can’ which is used to express ‘ability’ is often translated as “có thể” in Vietnamese.

The following examples - which are included with the entries of the headword “có thể” in Từ Điển Việt – Anh (Vietnamese – English Dictionary), published by the Vietnamese Institute of Social Sciences, Ho Chi Minh City (1993: 212) - will clearly illustrate this issue:

**Có thể**

1. **Be able to, can, may, be possible.**

**Example 3B.135**

- Đoàn kết mọi lực lượng có thể đoàn kết.
  To unite all forces that can be united
- Xong rồi, anh có thể về.
  It’s done, you may go home
- Có gắng hết sức trong phạm vi có thể.
  To try as best as one can (or To try the best of one’s capacity)
2. **Probable, possible**

**Example 3B.136**

- Rất có thể hôm nay trời mưa
  It is quite possible that it will rain today.

- Có thể là như vậy
  It is probably so

If we, again, refer to Từ Điển Việt - Anh and look for the entries of the headword “được” (ibid: 344) which is often used to denote physical or mental capacity, we’ll find among six entries, the following definition:

*Được:*

**Be capable of; be able to.**

**Example 3B.137**

Viet:  Liệu anh có làm được không?
Eng:  Do you think you can do it?

Similarly, if we look up the entries for the headword “nởi” (ibid: 696), we’ll identify at least two which are used to indicate physical ability:

*Nởi:*

**Be able to; be strong enough**

**Example 3B.138**

Viet:  Anh ấy vác nởi mà ta gao.
Eng:  He is able (strong enough) to carry fifty kilos of rice.

Both “được” and “nởi” in this case are placed after the verbs “làm” (‘to do’) and “vác” (‘to carry’) respectively. Therefore, they function as postverbs, not auxiliaries, and this has thrown some doubt on whether they should be considered as modal or auxiliary verbs or merely postverbs. Before arriving at any conclusion in relation to the functions of these Vietnamese linguistic items which are seen as ‘equivalents’ of such English modal verbs as
can/could/may/might/shall/should and will/would, it is advisable to explore further their usage in various contexts and thus their various meanings or functions.

For instance, going back to the modal verb ‘can’, when used to denote one’s physical or mental capacity, we’ll find that options are more expansive:

**Example 3B.139**

**English:** Can you swim?

**Viet:** Anh **được** không? (Are you capable of swimming?)

Or: Anh có **biết** không? (Do you know how to swim?)

But not: *Anh có thể** không?

In addition, such a question as “Nó có **biết** đọc không?” (Lit: He QW know read QW? Or ‘Does he **know** how to read?’) should be understood as ‘Can he read?’. And the likely answer will be “**Biết**” (Lit: ‘Know’) or ‘Yes, he can’, or “Không, nó **không biết** đọc” (Lit: ‘No, he not know read’) or ‘No, he can’t read’.

However, it should be noted there is a distinct difference between ‘được’ and ‘biết’ in relation to their usage in expressing ability or capacity. While ‘được”\’ is often used to denote someone’s ability in doing something in particular circumstances, ‘biết’ has more to do with the skill required to allow that person to carry out a task. The following examples will illustrate the difference between ‘được’ and ‘biết’ and also their usage:

**Example 3B.140a**

**Được:** Trong này **hơi** tôi, tôi **không** đọc **được** cái **bang** đó

Lit: In here a bit dark, I *not* read able n.cl. sign that

Eng: It’s a bit dark in here, I can’t read that sign.

**Example 3B.140b**

**Biết:** Tôi **không** biết đọc, vì tôi **không** bao giờ đi **hoc** cả.

Lit: I *not* know read, because I *not* ever go **learn** at all.

Eng: I can’t read, because I’ve never been to school.

As shown, ‘cô thể’ can be used to render a variety of English modal verbs (i.e. may, can, etc), adjectives (probable, possible, etc) and adverbs (probably, possibly, etc) ranging from probability to possibility and, in terms of degree, from low to high. ‘Cô thể’ is also used to refer backward to the past or forward to the future (i.e. to translate ‘might’ and ‘could’).

The following examples are provided by another bilingual dictionary: Từ Điển Anh - Việt
Might:

Example 3B.141a

Eng: He might get here in time, but I can’t be sure
Viet: Anh ta có thể đến đúng giờ, nhưng tôi không đảm chắc.

Example 3B.141b

Eng: The pills might have cured him, if only he’d taken them regularly.
Viet: Những viên thuốc này lẽ ra có thể (đã) chữa khỏi cho anh ta, nếu như anh ta chịu uống thuốc đều đặn.

Could:

Example 3B.142

Eng: My wife’s in hospital – our baby could arrive at any time
Viet: Vợ tôi nằm bệnh viện – có thể đến bất cứ lúc nào.
Lit: Wife [of] I lie hospital – able give birth any time.

Note that in Vietnamese, the subordinate clause, instead of having its focus on the baby (‘our baby could arrive at any time’), focuses on the expecting mother ([she] is probably going to give birth at any time). This strategy helps give the clause complex a cohesive effect.

Example 3B.143

Eng: Somebody must have opened the case – the lion couldn’t have escaped on its own.
Viet: Phải có người nào đó mở thương – con sư tử không thể tự nó (đã) thoát ra được.
Lit: Must exist someone open cage – lion not able self it (past particle) escape out successfully.

The above examples present some issues requiring further discussion. As far as FINITE is concerned, while in English the Finites might and can signify the selection of tense (might is the past tense of may, and can is in the present tense) and polarity (might is in positive, and can’t is negative) due to a lack of this choice of interpersonal meaning, in Vietnamese speakers may have to resort to lexical devices. Take the following as an example:

Example 3B.144

Eng: He might get here in time (1), but I can’t be sure (2)
Viet: Anh ta có thể đến đúng giờ, nhưng tôi không đảm chắc.
Lit: He able arrive correct time, but I not dare sure.
Moreover, the modal verbs might and can in the above complex clause become a
Vietnamese adjectival or stative verb in Clause (1) and auxiliary (it’s classified as semi-modal
in English) in Clause (2). As far as degree of likelihood is concerned, we can say that might
is weaker than be able, and can’t is weaker than daren’t.

In expressing doubt in Vietnamese (as in the case of the above example), however, it
is more likely that, instead of ‘có thể’, people tend to use ‘có lẽ sẽ’ in which ‘có lẽ’ means
‘perhaps’ and ‘sẽ’ indicates something which may happen in the future. Therefore, to make
such a statement as ‘He might get here in time, but I can’t be sure’ become less certain in
Vietnamese, one may say: “Anh ta có lẽ sẽ đến đúng giờ, nhưng tôi không đảm chắc làm”.
The adverbial ‘lâm’ following the mood adjunct ‘chắc’ has an intensifying effect of the
doubtfulness expressed by the speaker, and thus minimises the certainty of the statement if
things don’t turn out as expected.

Above, can and could have been examined more or less in the sense of physical and
mental ability. Now we’re looking at how they are used with verbs which indicate the human
ability in relation to awareness or perceptions.

Examples used in this section are mainly taken from Từ Điển Anh - Việt (English -
Vietnamese Dictionary, 1993: 219)

1. Awareness

Example 3B.145a

Eng: I can hear music
Viet: Tôi nghe thấy tiếng nhạc
Lit: I hear perceive sound music

Example 3B.145b

Eng: I thought I could smell something burning
Viet: Tôi nghĩ rằng tôi ngửi thấy cái gì đang cháy
Lit: I think that I smell perceive something (prevb) burn

Example 3B.145c

Eng: He could still taste the garlic they’d had for lunch
Viet: Anh ta vẫn còn nhớ thấy vị tỏi họ đã ăn trong bữa trưa
Lit: He still taste perceive flavour garlic they prevb eat at lunch.
2. Permission

Example 3B.146a

Eng: Can (could) I borrow your car?
Viet: Tôi muốn xe anh được không?
Lit: I borrow car (of) you able QW?

Example 3B.146b

Eng: You can borrow my car if you wish
Viet: Nếu muốn anh có thể muốn xe tôi.

Example 3B.146c

Eng: May I use your phone?
Viet: Tôi xin phép dùng điện thoại của ông, được không?

3. Request

Example 3B.147

Eng: Can (could) you show me the way to the nearest bus stop?
Viet: Ông làm ơn chỉ đường cho tôi đến trạm xe buýt gần nhất được không?
Lit: You please show way for me to stop bus nearest able QW?

When ‘can’ (or ‘could’) is used to indicate an awareness expressed by the speaker, or to ask for permission, and make a request, different Vietnamese lexical items are employed to provide corresponding meanings. Therefore, in order to compare and contrast the use of modal verbs and other linguistic devices to express modality in the two language systems, it is proposed that we first look at how English modal verbs are used to express modality and their corresponding expressions in Vietnamese. We then use this comparative and contrasting evidence to make a statement about the differences and similarities between two modality systems.

It’s also proposed that the use of categorisations and examples provided by the Collins Cobuild English Grammar (1990: 222 - 240), which gives a detailed description of how modal verbs may be used and in which circumstances they may be used, as a point of reference.
4. Expressing possibility

• Ability

Example 3B.148a
Eng: He cannot dance
Viet: Anh ta không biết khiêu vũ

Example 3B.148b
Eng: … the good old days when everyone could read, write and do arithmetics
Viet: Nhớ lại cái thời huy hoàng đó mọi người ai cũng biết đọc, biết viết, biết làm toán.

• Awareness

Example 3B.148c
Eng: I can hear music
Viet: Tôi nghe thấy tiếng nhạc
Lit: I hear perceive sound music

Example 3B.148d
Eng: I thought I could smell something burning
Viet: Tôi nghĩ rằng tôi ngửi thấy cái gì đang cháy

• Capability

Example 3B.148e
Eng: Art can be used to communicate
Viet: Người ta có thể dùng nghệ thuật để truyền đạt
Lit: One able use art to communicate

Example 3B.148f
Eng: He could really frighten me, and yet at the same time he could be the most gentle and courteous of men
Viet: Anh ta có thể thật sự làm tôi khiếp sợ, nhưng đồng thời anh ta cũng có thể là con người nhà nhân và dịu dàng nhất.

5. Expressing likelihood

• Assumption

Example 3B.148g
Eng: Most listeners will have heard of hormones
Viet: Đa số các thính giả có lẽ đã nghe nói về các kích thích tố
Example 3B.148h
Eng: You would agree that the United States should be involved in assisting these countries
Viet: Quy vị có lẽ sẽ đồng ý là Hoa Kỳ nên liên quan đến việc giúp đỡ các quốc gia này.

• Certainty

Example 3B.148i
Eng: The price of food will go up.
Viet: Giá thực phẩm chắc chắn sẽ tăng vọt.

To express certainty in Vietnamese, the verbal adjunct “chắc chắn” is used before the preverb expressing the future “sẽ”.

Example 3B.148j
Eng: Even an illiterate person would understand that.
Viet: Ngay đến một người không biết đọc, biết viết cũng hiểu (được) vẫn dễ đỡ.

The preverb “cũng” (‘also’) is placed before the verb “hiểu” (understand) to provide support to the certainty of the statement. In addition, the postverb “được” (can be understood as ‘successfully’) may also be used to reinforce the message.

Example 3B.148k
Eng: Of course he shall have water
Viet: Dĩ nhiên anh ta nên uống nước.

Example 3B.148l
Eng: The very first thing I should do would be to teach you how to cook
Viet: Vấn đề tiên quyết tôi nên làm có lẽ là dạy anh việc nấu ăn.

• Uncertainty

Example 3B.148m
Eng: I may have seemed to be overreacting
Viet: a. Có lẽ tôi phản ứng hối quá đáng
b. Tôi đường như phản ứng có vẻ hối quá đáng.
Lit: I seem react appear rather excessive.

“I, as it may appear, have seemingly overreacted.”
In (a) the use of the mood adjunct “có lẽ” (‘perhaps’) in the initial position (foregrounding) emphasises the uncertainty of the speaker concerning his behaviour. In addition, the adverb “hoặc” (‘rather’) is typically placed before “quá đáng” (‘excessive’ or ‘unreasonable’ which is often used by Vietnamese speakers to indicate uncertainty in relation to quality or quantity) to further express the speaker’s unsureness. Whereas in (b), “đường như” (‘as it may appear’) and “có vẻ” (‘seemingly’) are placed before the verb “phản ứng” and the adverbial adjuncts “hoặc quá đáng” (‘rather excessive’) respectively, rendering the statement even more uncertain.

• Belief

Example 3B.148n

Eng: The article must have been written by a woman
Viet: Người viết bài báo chắc là một phụ nữ (The writer of the article must be a woman)

Example 3B.148o

Eng: You can’t have forgotten me
Viet: Anh chắc không thể nào quên tôi

• Possibility

Example 3B.148p

Eng: There are cases the jaw may be broken during extraction
Viet: Trong những trường hợp hàn hư xương hàm có thể bị gãy khi nổ răng.

Example 3B.148q

Eng: They might be able to remember what he said
Viet: Họ có lẽ nhớ hắn đã nói gì

Example 3B.148r

Eng: You might have found it very difficult
Viet: Chắc có lẽ anh thấy vấn đề quá khó

Example 3B.148s

Eng: You could have got a job last year
Viet: Năm ngoái có thể anh đã kiếm được việc làm
6. **Prohibition**

**Example 3B.149a**
- **Eng:** We’re awfully sorry we can’t let you stay here.
- **Viet:** Chúng tôi rất tiếc không cho phép ông ở lại đây được.

**Example 3B.149b**
- **Eng:** If the publisher decides to opt for a net price, the retailer may not sell that book below the publisher’s price.
- **Viet:** Nếu nhà xuất bản quyết định chọn giá nhất định không bớt, các nhà bán lẻ không được phép bán cuốn sách đó thấp hơn giá nhà xuất bản ấn định.

**Example 3B.149c**
- **Eng:** Until we’ve cured you, you won’t be leaving here.
- **Viet:** Anh không được phép rời nơi này cho tới khi nào chúng tôi chữa cho anh khỏi hân.

**Example 3B.149d**
- **Eng:** Persons under 18 should not be employed in nightwork
- **Viet:** Những người dưới 18 tuổi không được phép nhận việc làm cả đêm.

**Example 3B.149e**
- **Eng:** You mustn’t breathe a word of this to anyone.
- **Viet:** Người không được phép hé môi về chuyện này cho bất cứ ai.

7. **Instruction, Appeal & Request**

   - **Appeal**

**Example 3B.150a**
- **Eng:** Will you please, at once, pack and leave
- **Viet:** Anh làm ơn chuẩn bị đồ đạc rời đi ngay đùm cho.

**Example 3B.150b**
- **Eng:** Would you do me a favor?
- **Viet:** Xin ông làm ơn giúp cho một việc được không ạ?

**Example 3B.150c**
- **Eng:** Could you show me how to do this?
- **Viet:** Bả làm ơn chỉ dăm tôi làm việc này như thế nào, được không ạ?
Example 3B.150d
Eng: Can I ask you a question?
Viet: Xin phép được hỏi có một câu có được không?

Example 3B.150e
Eng: Could I just interrupt a minute?
Viet: Tôi xin phép ngắt lời ông (bà) một chút, có được không à?

Example 3B.150f
Eng: Couldn’t we stay here?
Viet: Thế mình ở lại đây không được sao?

Example 3B.150g
Eng: May* I ask you a question?
Viet: Tôi xin phép được hỏi có một câu có được không à?

In English, it is said that ‘may’ and ‘might’ are more formal than ‘can’ and ‘could’, however, in Vietnamese the use of the first person and the polite particle “à” may give the same effect.

• Instruction

Example 3B.150h
Eng: I’d like you to get us the file
Viet: Nhờ cô lấy hộ chúng tôi hồ sơ đó.

Example 3B.150i
Eng: You will go and get one of your parents immediately.
Viet: Về gói bố hay mẹ trở lên ngay

Example 3B.150j
Eng: All lights in the dormitory shall be turned off at 9:30pm
Viet: Mọi đèn đóm trong phòng ngủ phải được tắt lúc 9giờ rưỡi tối.

• Request

Example 3B.150k
Eng: I’d like to ask you a question
Viet: Xin phép được hỏi ông một câu.
Example 3B.150l
Eng: Please may* I have the key?
Viet: Ông (ba) làm ơn cho tôi xin cái chìa khóa có được không à?

Example 3B.150m
Eng: Could I perhaps bring a friend with me?
Viet: Tôi xin được phép mang theo người bạn có được không à?

Example 3B.150n
Eng: May I possibly have a word with you?
Viet: Tôi xin được phép thưa chuyện với ông (bà) có được không à?

8. Invitation

Example 3B.151a
Eng: Will you stay for dinner?
Viet: Mời cô (ch)ều dùng cơm chiều.

Example 3B.151b
Eng: Would you like a drink?
Viet: Mời anh uống chút gì, nhé?

Example 3B.151c
Eng: Wouldn’t* you like to come with me?
Viet: Thế anh không muốn đi với tôi à?

In English this form is considered more persuasive. In Vietnamese, however, the speaker has some uncertainty about whether the listener would really want to come.

9. Offer

Example 3B.152a
Eng: Can we give you a lift to town?
Viet: Anh có muốn chúng tôi lái xe đưa anh lên phố không?

Example 3B.152b
Eng: May I help you?
Viet: Ông (bà) có cần tôi giúp gì không à?
Example 3B.152c
Eng: Should I give her a ring?
Viet: Tôi có nên điện thoại cho cô ấy không?

Example 3B.152d
Eng: You must have lunch with me tomorrow
Viet: Ngày mai anh phải dùng cơm trưa với tôi.

10. Expressing a suggestion

Example 3B.153a
Eng: Couldn’t you just build more factories
Viet: Sao anh không xây thêm nhiều cơ xưởng nữa?

Example 3B.153b
Eng: I think you should get in touch with your solicitor
Viet: Tôi nghĩ anh nên liên lạc với luật sư của mình.

Example 3B.153c
Eng: I think you ought to try a different approach.
Viet: Tôi nghĩ anh nên thử một giải pháp khác.

Example 3B.153d
Eng: Shouldn’t* we at least give her a chance?
Viet: Sao mình không ít nhất cho cô ấy một cơ hội nữa?

Example 3B.153e
Eng: Oughtn’t* we to phone the police?
Viet: Sao mình không điện thoại cho cảnh sát?

In English, it’s more polite and more persuasive to make a suggestion by using ‘shouldn’t’ and ‘wouldn’t’ in the interrogative form; in Vietnamese, however, due to a lack of such resources, it resorts to a Wh-type question (why) coupling with an inclusive first person pronoun ‘mình’ (“we”).

Example 3B.153f
Eng: We must go to the place, perhaps have a weekend there.
Viet: Minh phải đi đến đó, có lẽ nên nghỉ cuối tuần ở đó.
Example 3B.153g
Eng: I thought perhaps you might like to come along with me.
Viet: Tôi nghĩ có lẽ anh muốn cũng đến đó với tôi.

Example 3B.153h
Eng: I think it might be a good idea to stop the recording now.
Viet: Tôi nghĩ tốt nhất có lẽ mình nên ngừng việc thu âm ngay bây giờ.

Example 3B.153i
Eng: Shall we go and see a film?
Viet: Minh có nên đi xem xiếc không?

11. Expressing an intention

Example 3B.154a
Eng: We’ll discuss that later.
Viet: Minh sẽ bàn chuyện đó sau.

Example 3B.154b
Eng: I will call you when I am ready.
Viet: Tôi sẽ gọi anh khi nào tôi chuẩn bị xong.

Example 3B.154c
Eng: I must ask her about it.
Viet: Tôi phải hỏi cô ấy về chuyện đó.

Example 3B.154d
Eng: He won’t give her a divorce
Viet: Hắn sẽ không ly dị cô ấy đâu.

12. Expressing a wish

Example 3B.155a
Eng: I would like to know the date for that meeting.
Viet: Tôi muốn biết ngày cuộc họp đó là ngày nào.
Example 3B.155b
Eng: She'd rather be left alone
Viet: Cô ấy muốn được để yên, đừng ai nhắc nó tới.

Example 3B.155c
Eng: I'd have liked to hear more from the patients
Viet: Tôi muốn phải chi được nhiều bệnh nhân liên lạc với mình hơn.

13. Expressing importance

Example 3B.156a
Eng: You must come at once.
Viet: Anh phải đến ngay lập tức

**Shall and will may be used with have to to express importance:**

Example 3B.156b
Eng: They will have to pay for the repairs.
Viet: Họ sẽ phải trả phí tổn cho việc sửa chữa.

Example 3B.156c
Eng: We shall have to assume that you are right. (slightly formal)
Viet: Chúng tôi sẽ phải thừa nhận là anh đúng.

Example 3B.156d
Eng: You should claim your pension 3-4 months before you retire. (advice)
Viet: Ông nên xin tiền hưu liêm từ 3 cho đến 4 tháng trước khi về hưu.

Example 3B.156e
Eng: You ought to try a different approach.
Viet: Ông phải thử một biện pháp khác.

Example 3B.156f
Eng: You ought not to do that.
Viet: Anh không nên làm chuyện đó.

In terms of mood adjuncts, referring to Halliday’s categories of modal items (1985: 82), we can classify Vietnamese mood adjuncts as follows:
1. **Expressions of probability:** e.g: có lẽ (perhaps, maybe), có thể (probably, possibly)
2. **Expressions of usuality:** e.g: đôi khi, or thing thoáng (sometimes), usually (thường thuong, thong thong)
3. **Expressions of intensification or minimisation:** tuyệt đối (absolutely), hơi, có phần (somewhat)
4. **Expressions of presumption:** có lẽ (presumably), rõ ràng (apparently), hiển nhiên (obviously)
5. **Expressions of inclination:** hài lòng (contentedly), sung sướng (happily), sẵn lòng, nhiệt tình (willingly)

Also, following the model proposed by Halliday and McDonald (2004) in the classification of the Chinese modality, the Vietnamese modality which largely comprises lexical items may fall into two classes. Those of modalisation form a subclass of adverbs, modal adverbs (including preverbs or postverbs), similar to such English adverbs as probably, possibly, absolutely, certainly, definitely, etc. These typically follow the Subject (Example 3B.158a), but may take the initial position in the clause to become thematic (Example 3B.158b):

**Example 3B.157a**

Viet: Tôi không thể nào cho anh muốn số tiền quá lớn như vậy
Lit: I not able in anyway give you lend money too large as that
Eng: I can’t possibly lend you so much money

**Example 3B.157b**

Viet: Có lẽ bà ta là nhà văn vi đại nhất thuộc cùng thế hệ với mình (thematic)
Lit: Perhaps she be writer greatest belong to generation with self.
Eng: She was perhaps (possibly) the greatest writer of her generation. (Từ Điển Anh - Việt, 1993: 1299)

As far as modulation is concerned, they are subclass of verbs, modal auxiliaries, as well as pre and postverbs, similar to the English modal verbs may, must, shall, should, etc, and may precede the Subject in expressing probability in cases of thematisation.

**Example 3B.157c**

Viet: Trời có lẽ muốn mưa, anh nên mang theo dù.
Lit: Sky might want rain, you should carry along umbrella.
Eng: It may probably rain, you should take an umbrella.

**Example 3B.157d**

Viet: Có lẽ trời sẽ mưa, anh nên mang theo dù.
Lit: Perhaps sky (preverb) rain, you should carry along umbrella.
Eng: It’s probably going to rain, you should take an umbrella.
In (Example 3B.157d) the tense indicating particle ‘sẽ’ signalling a possible event of the future, because it can be omitted, therefore it can only be considered as a preverb and not an auxiliary as many linguists may have proposed.

In terms of the three degrees of modality; namely low/median/high, perhaps these can be distinguished as in the case of the English modality.

### Figure 3B.5
**Vietnamese expressions of obligation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression of Obligation</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Position/Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Căn nên &quot;need have to&quot;</td>
<td>Những điều cần nên tránh khi lái xe …</td>
<td>Things should be avoided when driving …</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Căn phải &quot;need have to&quot;</td>
<td>Dù có thành công, nhưng anh không nên tự mãn mà cần phải tiếp tục phấn đấu…</td>
<td>Although you’ve succeeded, you should not become complacent but should have to keep trying …</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phải “must/have to/ought to”</td>
<td>Con cái phải váng lời cha me.</td>
<td>Children ought to obey their parents</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bắt buộc phải</td>
<td>Thông tin dùng bắt buộc phải thể hiện trên nhãn thuốc thông thường gồm…</td>
<td>Information usually must be described on the medication label including…</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không nên &quot;should not&quot;</td>
<td>Anh không nên quan tâm vào những điều y hữu hạn hóa chuyên của y.</td>
<td>You should not believe in his vain promises.</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không cần &quot;need not&quot;</td>
<td>Anh không cần đến đúng giờ, vị bảo giờ nó cũng đến trẻ.</td>
<td>You won’t need to be on time, because he’s always late.</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không được &quot;must not&quot;</td>
<td>Anh không được có thái độ bất kinh đối với những kẻ kém may mắn hơn mình.</td>
<td>You should not treat those who are less fortunate than yourself with disrespect.</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không được phép &quot;not allowed&quot;</td>
<td>Nhân viên không được phép nhận bất cứ món quà nào do khách hàng biếu.</td>
<td>Staff should not accept any gifts offered by clients.</td>
<td>Preverb/modal auxiliary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 3B.6
**Vietnamese expressions of probability**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression of Probability</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Position/Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Có thể/có lẽ &quot;May/be possible&quot;</td>
<td>Trời có thể mưa. Có thể trời sẽ mưa.</td>
<td>It may rain. <strong>Perhaps</strong> it’s going to rain.</td>
<td>Preverb/modal adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Được &quot;be able to&quot;</td>
<td>Tôi biết hạn đến được.</td>
<td>I know he’ll be able to come.</td>
<td>Postverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chắc có lẽ &quot;might have/may have&quot;</td>
<td>Chắc có lẽ anh thấy vấn đề quá khó đối với mình.</td>
<td>You might have found it too difficult for you.</td>
<td>Initial/modal adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không thể không &quot;cannot not&quot;</td>
<td>Tôi không thể không nói thẳng vào mặt nó.</td>
<td>I can’t not tell him to his face.</td>
<td>Preverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Không thể &quot;couldn’t be&quot;</td>
<td>Không thể hạn không đến?</td>
<td>It couldn’t be that he wouldn’t come</td>
<td>Initial (expression of doubt)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following example will illustrate how changing the expression of modality, notably changing modal adjuncts, can create a major shift in genre as well as discourse and in effect, change the overall meaning of the text.

**Example 3B.158**  
*The Renting Guide*  
(Office of Fair Trading, Department of Commerce, January 2004)

**IMPORTANT**

(1) Under no circumstances should you stop paying the rent.  
(2) If you do,  
(3) you could be asked to leave.
Back translation:

**IMPORTANCE**

(1) Absolutely do not stop paying the rent.
(2) If the rent is not paid,
(3) you can be evicted by the landlord

**Example 3B.158** consists of three clauses: (1) implying an advice with modal verb ‘should’ used as Finite being foregrounded in theme position to emphasise the seriousness of the advice; (2) suggesting that if the advice is not followed; then (3) a possible resulting consequence would be being required to leave.

The translated text also comprises three clauses, however, (1) implying an order which is emphasised by the use of modal adjunct ‘absolutely’ and reinforced by the imperative form ‘don’t’; (2) reminding that if the order is violated; then (3) a resulting consequence would be evicted.

**3.1.3.2 IDEATIONAL METAFUNCTION**

Above, we have explored the interpersonal metafunction of language which is the use of language to establish and maintain relationship among members of a language community; we also discussed how the choice of language used in a particular context reflects the role a speaker/writer adopts in relation to a listener/reader. In this section, we’ll be looking at how language is used to describe or represent the experience of what happens inside or around us.

In other words, while the interpersonal metafunction reflects the speaker’s or writer’s status as opposed to that of the listener or reader, the ideational metafunction uses language to express ‘what is going on’; i.e. the experiential meaning and at the same time to indicate the relationship between this meaning and reality. Viewed from this perspective, our focus is centred on the ‘content’ of a message, and not its purpose.


“The ideational function … is a major component of meaning in the language system that is basic to more or less all uses of language. It is still a ‘meaning potential’, although the potential is very vast and complex; for example, the whole of the transitivity system in language – the interpretation and expression in language of the different types of process of...
the external world, including material, mental and abstract processes of every kind – is part of the ideational component of the grammar.”

The above view has raised some issues which need to be discussed. First, the ideational metafunction impacts on ‘all uses of language’; that is it plays a crucial role in the way language is used to communicate ideas and to interact with the external world. Second, Halliday has emphasised the importance of its ‘meaning potential’ characteristic which enable language users to select among the linguistic resources available to them what is seen as appropriate in a particular context. And third, through the transitivity system of language, it expresses and interprets different types of process of the external world around us.

As previously stated, the language resource used to realise the experiential aspect of meaning is the transitivity system which consists of different types of process such as Material, Verbal, Relational, Behavioural and so on. According to Halliday (1985a: 101), in a semantic sense, the process consists of three components providing ‘the frame of reference for interpreting our experience of what goes on’ namely ‘the process itself, participants in the process, and circumstances associated with the process’.

Below, we’ll first look at participants, processes and finally discuss circumstances and how these are realised in Vietnamese.

3.1.2.2.1 Participants
In a typical Vietnamese clause, a person, place, object or a concept can be a participant which is usually realised by a noun, or a pronoun used as Head. A Head can be a thing or concept which is being talked about and may stand alone or be preceded (Pre-modification) or followed Post-modification) by other elements of the clause. Experientially, in SFL terminology, this whole structure is termed a ‘nominal group’. The following example will illustrate the structure of a typical nominal group in Vietnamese:

**Example 3B.159a**

| Viet: | Một con chó săn to lớn, dừ tồn, đến tuyến từ đầu đến chân |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| One | (animate classifier) | dog | hunt | large | ferocious | from head to leg black pure |
| Num | Classifier | Thing | Classifier | Epithet | Epithet | Epithet |

“A large pure black ferocious hunting dog”
“A large pure black ferocious hunting dog”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deictic</th>
<th>Epithet</th>
<th>Epithet</th>
<th>Epithet</th>
<th>Classifier</th>
<th>Thing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

According to Butt et al (2000), in English the premodification in a nominal group can be functionally divided into four broad groups in the following order: Deictic Numerative Epithet Classifier. In Vietnamese, however, only Numerative (used as Deictic) and Animate/Inanimate Classifier are placed in the premodification position, with Epithets and other Classifiers being usually positioned after Head (postmodification). Also, as in English, Vietnamese Epithets expressing size and characteristics precede Epithets indicating colour, although Vietnamese Classifiers indicating category often precede Epithets, while their English counterparts are placed after, as exemplified in Example 3B.159a.

In Example 3B.159b the English nominal group with the word ‘event’ as its Head has Deictic, Degree Intensifier and Epithet as its premodifications and is followed by the prepositional phrase ‘of my life’ functioning as a Qualifier; whereas in Vietnamese the Head is not preceded by Deictic, but followed by Epithet, Degree Intensifier and Qualifier which are placed in the postmodification position.

**Example 3B.159b**

Eng: “The **most important** event **of my life**”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deictic</th>
<th>Degree Intensifier</th>
<th>Epithet</th>
<th>Thing</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Biến cố trong dài nhất trong đời tôi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>most</th>
<th>in life (of) my</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thing</td>
<td>Epithet</td>
<td>Degree Intensifier</td>
<td>Qualifier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some more examples of nominal group in Vietnamese with Qualifier:

**Example 3B.159c**

Viet: Quyền sách với tựa đề ‘Tôn Tử Bình Pháp’ …

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classifier</th>
<th>book</th>
<th>with title ‘Sùn Zì Military Strategy’ …</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classifier</td>
<td>Thing</td>
<td>Qualifier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The book with the title ‘Sùn Zì’s Art of War’ …”
In addition to the above example, Example 3B.159c provides other possibilities in Vietnamese (in bold), however, they all qualify “book”:

i. Quyền sách mang tựa đề ‘Tôn Tử Bình Pháp’ …
   “The book bearing the title ‘Sūn Zi’s Art of War’ …”

ii. Quyền sách có tựa đề ‘Tôn Tử Bình Pháp’ …
    “The book having the title ‘Sūn Zi’s Art of War’ …”

iii. Quyền sách tựa đề ‘Tôn TỬ Bình Pháp’ …
    “The book entitled ‘Sūn Zi’s Art of War’ …”

Example 3B.159d

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerative</th>
<th>Thing</th>
<th>Epithet</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>castle</td>
<td>ancient</td>
<td>on top hill wind howl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“An ancient castle on the howling wind hill top”

Example 3B.159e

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collection poem</th>
<th>you give me year last (pass. marker) publish from here more forty year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thing</td>
<td>Qualifier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The collection of poems that you gave me last year was published more than forty years ago”

In Example 3B.159e, its Head is “collection of poems” (labelled ‘Thing’) and everything after that is qualifying the Head. There are two Qualifiers in this clause complex, both providing information concerning the Head which can be collapsed into one as shown in Example 3B.159f.

Example 3B.159f

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collection poem</th>
<th>you give me year last (pass. marker) publish from here more forty year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thing</td>
<td>Qualifier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The collection of poems that you gave me last year was published more than forty years ago”
3.1.2.2 Processes

Above we have explored the participant which is a component of a process, a doer in the process of doing and happening, a senser if the process involves the description of feelings, a carrier if it's related to some attribute or value (which will be discussed in detail in this section), and so on. Semantically, these are realised through the grammar of the clause using the transitivity system that comprises ‘processes’. From a systemic functional perspective, it can be said that processes are the central component around which others such as participant(s) and circumstance(s) are involved or associated with respectively.

Process is central in the sense that it will decide how we are going to label the participant who is involved in a certain process. Is s/he a ‘doer’ (of a physical process such as ‘cooking’) or a ‘senser’ (of a mental process such as ‘hearing’), as Thompson (1996: 77) points out:

The process is typically expressed – or realised – by the verbal group in the clause, and is the central component of the message from the experiential perspective.

In the following, we’ll first look at how verb is defined in Vietnamese and the role it plays in Vietnamese grammar. We’ll then briefly explore the transitivity system in Vietnamese using the systemic functional framework.

As far as verbs are concerned there is some controversy, Nguyễn Kim Thán (1977: 13-14) identifies many different views among the Vietnamese grammarians ranging from a total denial of the existence of the verb class in Vietnamese, as viewed by Grammont and Lê Quang Trinh (1911), to a functional perspective, as opined by Lê Văn Lý (1968), which emphasises its role, function, and its interaction with other constituents in the clause. The scope and space of this research, however, does not allow an exhaustive discussion of the Vietnamese verb group. Therefore, we’ll briefly discuss the types of verbal group and look at this word class through the systemic functional perspective.

According to Nguyễn Đình Hòa (1979: ix) the verb in Vietnamese grammar is: “a syntactic word which denotes an action, a process, a state or a quality, and which can be preceded by the negative lexeme không “not” or followed by the lexeme rồi “already”. Some verbs can also follow one of the imperative markers hãy “do … be sure to …,” đừng or chớ

---

1 ‘In Vietnamese, there are no articles, nouns, pronouns, and verbs; also there are no genders, numbers, but only words ...’ (quoted from Grammont & Le Quang Trinh, 1911 – 1912)
2 ‘A functionalist [while examining words] should not base one's judgment on its meaning, but rather its function and interaction with other constituents [of the clause]... should not examine a word in isolation to define its features, but rather its role in combining with other words in the language (quoted by N.K. Than, 1977: 15)
“don’t …”. The latter distinguish a verb of action (or functive verb) from a verb of state or quality (or stative verb)."

The above definition is more relevant to the mood system of Vietnamese grammar than the transitivity system as it describes the formation of the polarity system and the imperative and negative imperative mood.

The following are some distinctive features of the Vietnamese verbal group as described by Nguyễn Đình Hòa (1979):

- The absence of tense inflection as compared to its English counterpart;
- The form of the verb does not change according to the time when the action or process takes place;
- The use of tense markers (such as “đã” or ‘already’) to indicate the past tense, and “sẽ” or ‘will’ for the future tense) is optional and not compulsory;
- The lack of person or number;
- The formation of expressions of repetition or extension by repeating the verb; e.g. “quen quen” (‘to be slightly acquainted’); “rung rung” (‘to quiver, move, stir lightly’);
- The use of a coverb of direction to indicate the direction of an action; e.g. “di lên” (‘to go up’); “di xuống” (‘to go down’); “chay ra” (‘to run in’); “chay vào” (‘to run out’);
- The use of coverbs of result to indicate the outcomes of a conscious processing such as the use of senses or cognitive behaviours; for example “nghe thấy” (in which the primary verb “nghe” means ‘to hear’ and “thấy” means ‘to perceived’ after listening). And thus, “nhin thấy” (‘to see’ after looking at), “nguí thấy” (‘to smell’ after being conscious of the smell, etc)

Hòa (ibid: xxviii-xxx) also classifies Vietnamese verbs into twelve different subclasses:

1. **Non-action verbs** which depict human postures (also known as verbs of static position), such as “đứng” (‘to stand’), “ngồi” (‘to sit’), “ngủ” (‘to sleep’), “ngáy” (‘to snore’), and so on.
2. **Verbs of existence, appearance and disappearance**, for example “có” (‘to exist’), “còn” (‘to remain’), “hết” (‘to be used up’), “nổi” (‘to erupt’), etc.
3. **Auxiliary verbs** (or modal verbs) including “có thể” (can’, ‘may’), “phải” (‘must’, ‘to have to’), “muốn” (‘to want to’), “đúng” (‘to plan to’, ‘to intend to’), “dám” (‘to dare to’)
4. **Copula**, e.g. “là” (‘to be so-and-so’, ‘to be equal’)
5. **Linking or classificatory verbs** including such verbs of becoming as “dám ra” (‘to become [something worse]’), “hóa” (‘to change into’), “thành” (‘to become’), “nhu” (‘to be like’), “giống” (‘to resemble’), etc.
6. **Quotative verbs** which include verbs of thinking, knowing and saying such as “biết” (‘to know [that]’), “nó” (‘to remember [that]’), “tin” (‘to believe [that]’), “nghĩ” (‘to think [that]’), “tưởng” (‘to think wrongly [that]’), etc.
7. **Active verbs** which include:
   a. **Verbs of action**: for example “ăn” (‘to eat’), “mở”, (‘open’), “đóng” (‘close, etc. etc.
   b. **Verbs of motion**: “ra” (‘to exit’), “vào” (‘to enter’), “lên” (‘to ascend’), etc.
   c. **Semi-active verbs**: “thích” (‘to like’), “yêu” (‘to love’), “thứ” (‘to resent’), etc.
8. **Ditransitive verbs (Type I)** which include verbs of giving and taking or receiving for example “dùa” (‘to hand’), “tặng” (‘to present’), “giao” (‘to deliver’), etc.
9. **Ditransitive verbs (Type II)** which include verbs of inserting such as “diễn” (‘to fill in/out’), “thọc” (‘to thrust’), “nhơi” (‘to stuff’), etc.
10. **Ditransitive verbs (Type III)** including verbs of evaluation and selection such as “coi” (‘to consider’, ‘to regard’), “gọi” (‘to call’, ‘to name’), “chọn” (‘to select’), etc.
11. **Causative verbs** including such “telescoping verbs” as “cho” (‘to let’, ‘to allow’, ‘to permit’), “lâm” (‘to make’, ‘to render’), “mời” (‘to invite’), “bắt buộc” (‘to force’, ‘to compel’), etc.
12. **Verbs of bodily movements** such as “gật” (‘nod’), “củi” (‘bend’), “chắm” (‘to purse’), etc.

This classification by Hòa seems to be superfluous and illogical. For example “mở” (‘open’) and “đồng” (‘shut’) are classified as action verbs, and “thọc” (‘thrust’) and “nhơi” (‘stuff’) are considered as ditransitive verbs - type II; whereas “ngồi” (‘sit’), “ngủ” (‘sleep’), and “ngáy” (‘snore’) are seen as ‘non-action verbs’. Such verbs as “biết” (‘know’), “nghi” (‘think’), and “nhớ” (‘remember’) are placed under the quotative category; while “gật” (‘nod’), “lắc” (‘shake’), and “củi” (‘bend’) are to be found under the ‘bodily movements’ subclass.

Moreover some verbs, categorised as “linking” or “classificatory” by Hòa, such as “hòa” (‘to change into’ as in ‘how to change a frog into a prince’) should have been classified as action verbs; so, too “chọn” (‘to choose’ or ‘to select’) which was classified as ‘ditransitive – type III).

Hoa’s definition of the Vietnamese verbal group, however, has some commonality to that of the Hallidayan view of the English verbal group. First, Hoa sees verb as ‘a syntactic word’ which is similar to that of Halliday who views verb as a semantic and syntactic element of a clause; second, he defines verb as a ‘process’ which is similar to Halliday’s perspective on the function of verbs in expressing our experience about reality. As Halliday (1969: 159) points out: “The term ‘process’ is understood in a very broad sense, to cover all phenomena… anything which can be expressed by a verb: event, whether physical or not, state, or relation… Processes may be of different types and involve … different kinds of participants…”

As processes play a crucial role in realising the experiential meaning as well as representing the ideational metafunction of language through transitivity, we will look at the major types of process in Vietnamese.

### 3.1.2.2.1 Material process

Material processes are processes of doing and happening or, in terms of the traditional grammar they are ‘action verbs’ which involve a participant who is the ‘Actor’ (or Doer of the...
process) and may extend to another participant who is the ‘Goal’ (Thing or Entity who is affected by the process). The following examples are adapted from Hoa’s (1979: 4)

Example 3B.160a

Viet: Cuộc tổng đình công làm tế liệt mọi sinh hoạt của thành phố
(noun marker) general strike cause paralyse every activity of city
Actor Process: Material Goal

“The general strike has paralysed every activity of the city”

Example 3B.160b

Viet: Làm theo lời khuyên của thầy phong thủy, họ cái táng di hài của ông bố
Doing following advice of geomancer they exhum remains of father
Actor Process: Material Goal

“Following the geomancer’s advice, they exhumed the remains of their father”

Example 3B.160a comprises two participants, i.e. “tổng đình công” (‘general strike’) the nominal group functioning as the Actor of the doing Process “lâm tế liệt” (‘paralyse’) which affects the participant “sinh hoạt” (‘activity’), the Goal of the process; whereas in Example 3B.161b the nominal group “di hài của ông bố” (‘remains of their father’) is the participant role Goal involved in and affected by the Process “cái táng” (‘exhume’). Because the focus for discussion is Actor ∧ Process ∧ Goal, we temporarily ignore other elements of the clause such as circumstances, etc.

a) Material process with Range

Example 3B.160c

Viet: Ông ta thường ngâm những bài thơ tình lãng mạn
He often recite (plural marker) poem love romantic
Actor Process: Material Range

“He often recited romantic love poems”
Example 3B.160d

Viet: Cô ta chơi một khúc nhạc chưởng của Mozart.

| Viet | | | |
|------|---|----------------|
| She  | play | a piece serenade of Mozart |
| Actor| Process: Material | Range |

“She played one of Mozart’s serenades.”

In Example 3B.160c, because the supposedly affected participant is detached from and unaffected by the process, its role is Range rather than Goal. In fact in Example 3B.160d the process “chơi” (‘play’) acquires its experiential meaning from the Range.

b) Material process with Beneficiary and Goal

In Vietnamese, depending on the focus of the process, the participant role Beneficiary may be subdivided into Client, the one for whom the process is done, or Recipient, the one who receives the outcome of the process; for example:

Example 3B.161a

Viet: Họ gửi một bức thư đến trưởng ban biên tập của tờ báo

| Viet | | | |
|------|---|----------------|
| They | send | a letter | to chief-editor of paper |
| Actor| Process: Material | Goal | Beneficiary: Recipient |

“They sent a letter to the editor-in-chief of the paper”

Example 3B.161b

Viet: Họ gửi đến trưởng ban biên tập của tờ báo một bức thư

| Viet | | | |
|------|---|----------------|
| They | send | to chief-editor of paper | a letter |
| Actor| Process: Material | Beneficiary: Recipient | Goal |

“They sent to the editor-in-chief of the paper a letter”

Example 3B.161c

Viet: Tôi làm một con ngựa gỗ cho con trai tôi

| Viet | | | |
|------|---|----------------|
| I    | make | a wooden horse | for my son |
| Actor| Process: Material | Goal | Beneficiary: Client |

“I’ve made a wooden horse for my son”
**Example 3B.161d**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Tôi làm cho con trai tôi một con ngựa gỗ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Process: Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficiary: Client</td>
<td>Goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“I’ve made for my son a wooden horse”

In terms of usage, although all the above examples are acceptable, many Vietnamese speakers will more likely opt for **Example 3B.162c** in which the Beneficiary is Recipient, and will go for **Example 3B.162d** when the Beneficiary is Client.

c) Passive voice

Material processes with a Goal may also be in the passive form. There are three types of passive voice in Vietnamese:

- ‘pleasant’ (or ‘desirable’) which is formed using the preverb “được” and denotes meanings associated with such English verbs as to gain, to obtain, to receive, to find, etc; for example:

**Example 3B.162a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Bà ấy được bầu làm chủ tịch Hội Phụ Nữ Việt Nam ở NSW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>She (pass. maker) elect be chairperson Association Woman Vietnam in NSW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>“She was elected chairperson of the Vietnamese Women’s Association, NSW”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- ‘unpleasant’ (or ‘undesirable’) which is formed using the preverb “bị” and denotes meanings associated with such English verbs as to suffer, to undergo, to contract, etc; for example:

**Example 3B.162b**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Nhà y bị trộm đột nhập đêm thứ Sáu tuần rồi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>House (of) he (pass. maker) burglar enter evening Friday week last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>“His place was broken in last Friday evening”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 3B.162c**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Tôi bị cúm nặng phải nằm liệt giường hôm hai tuần.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lit:</td>
<td>I (pass. maker) flu heavy must lie bed more two week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng:</td>
<td>“I suffered a bad bout of flu and was bed ridden for two weeks.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
‘neutral’ which uses the passive maker “do” to link the Patient with the Actor (or Agent) indicating the relationship between the two participants in the doing Process which is preceded by the Actor; for example:

**Example 3B.162d**

Viet: Tài liệu này do Bộ Y Tế NSW soạn thảo và ăn hành  
Lit: Information this (pass. maker) Department Health NSW compile and publish  
Eng: “This information is compiled and published by the NSW Health Department”

**Example 3B.162e** (Vietnamese English Dictionary, 1993: 263)

Viet: Việc đổi phiếu với vận dàn này hoàn toàn do anh quyết định  
Lit: (noun maker) handle with issue this entirely (pass. maker) you decide  
Eng: “How to handle the issue is entirely decided by you”

As pointed out by Hòa (1979), in the Vietnamese passive voice the form of verb does not change, and the agentive expression precedes the Process. In the case where the Agent is unidentified usually a pronoun such as “môi người” ( ‘everybody’) or “ai đó” ( ‘somebody’) is used instead; for example:

**Example 3B.163a**

Viet: Kính chắn gió cửa xe tôi bị ai đó đập vỡ  
Lit: Glass protect wind of car I (pass. maker) somebody hit break  
Eng: “The windscreen of my car was broken by someone”

**Example 3B.163b**

Viet: Hận bị mọi người khinh bỉ  
Lit: He (pass. maker) everybody despise  
Eng: “He was despised by everybody”

Furthermore, the *pleasant* and *unpleasant* features of the Vietnamese passive voice can result in some kind of word play which may cause confusion to non-Vietnamese speakers. For example, there is a big difference between “Bà ấy được bầu làm chủ tịch” and “Bà ấy bị bầu làm chủ tịch”. Although, both mean “She has been/was elected chairperson” the former may make the Patient feel honoured because that is what she may have wished to achieve; the latter expresses the reluctance of the Patient who feels obliged to take on the role because it has been forced onto her.
There is another type of material process in Vietnamese which needs to be discussed here, that is the meteorological one. In their study on the Transitivity system of Chinese, Halliday & McDonald classify this type of processes under the existential (see Halliday & McDonald, 2004); while the Vietnamese language may have been significantly influenced by its Chinese counterpart, particularly in relation to its lexis, in terms of structure, the Chinese language structure has had little impact on the Vietnamese.

For the purpose of our discussion let’s adapt the idea for the examples put forth by Halliday and McDonald (2004) in their study of the Chinese Transitivity about “rain”. When mentioning this phenomenon, a Vietnamese normally says “Trời mưa” (“Sky/heaven rain”) while an English speaking person will say ‘It’s raining’. Alternatively, one may say “Trời hôm nay có mưa” (“Sky/heaven today have rain”) to indicate what may be expressed in English as ‘It looks like rain’, or even in a briefer form “Hôm nay trời mửa” (“Today sky/heaven rain”) which should be understood as ‘It’s going to rain today’. That means what is considered as a Thing in English is personified and given a deifying status in the Vietnamese language and culture.

Similarly, when discussing other meteorological phenomena, the “sky” or “heaven” is always the catalyst (or Actor) which causes these natural acts. Vietnamese people equate the sky with some sort of deity and natural phenomena with the force of superpower. This belief is reflected in Vietnamese literature and poetry and embodied in daily language usage. For example, such expressions as “Xin Trời Phát phù hộ” (“Pray to God and Buddha for their support”) are often used when someone needs help to overcome hardships. When struck with a series of bad luck or calamity, one can only “Than trời, trách đất” (“complain against the Heaven, blame the Earth”). When it suddenly starts pouring, Vietnamese people will refer to this as “Trời đổ mửa” (Sky/heaven pour rain); when the weather goes wild, it is “Trời làm mưa gió” (Sky/heaven make rain [and] wind) which may lead to “Trời làm lụt lội” (Sky/heaven make flood [and] mud), etc.

Nguyên Sa, one of the most famous Vietnamese poets of the last century has penned this beautiful love poem, invoking the heavens to assist him with his wishes:

Example 3B.164 (from ‘Thơ Nguyên Sa’ – Nguyên Sa’s Poems)

**Viet:**

Tháng sáu trời mửa trời mưa không dứt
Trời không mưa anh cũng lấy trời mưa
Anh lấy trời mưa phong tòa đường về
Và đêm oí xin cur dài vô tận…

**Lit:**

(June sky/heaven rain sky/heaven rain non-stop)
(If sky not rain I beg sky rain)
(I beg sky rain block road home)
(And O night please last endlessly…)

---

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Eng: The June rain, the unstoppable rain
If it doesn’t rain, I’ll beg it to rain
I will beg the rain to bar your way home
And O Night, please last endlessly …

Therefore, the process used to construe a meteorological phenomenon in Vietnamese
is more likely to be material rather than existential as identified in Chinese by Halliday and
McDonald.

3.1.2.2.2 Behavioural process

According to Butt et al (2000: 54) ‘Behavioural processes construe physiological or
psychological behaviour. The main participant, the BEHAVER, is generally a conscious
being and, if it is not, the clause is considered to be personification’. As with material
processes, behavioural processes may also be with Range when the participant is unaffected
by the process (as in Example 3B.165b), or may be Behaviour (as in Example 3B.165c),
depending on the process and the participant role; for example:

Example 3B.165a

Viet: Quá mệt mỏi, anh ta ngủ liên tiếp hai ngày
Too exhausted, he sleep continuously two day

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaver</th>
<th>Process: Behavioural</th>
<th>Circumstance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Due to exhaustion, he slept for two days straight”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3B.165b

Viet: Tôi chờ tiếng bước chân của em
I wait sound footstep of you

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaver</th>
<th>Process: Behavioural</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“I was waiting for the sound of your footsteps”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3B.165c

Viet: Cô ta cố nuốt nước mắt
She try swallow tear

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaver</th>
<th>Process: Behavioural</th>
<th>Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“She tried to hold back her tears”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2.2.3 Mental process

According to Halliday & McDonald (2004: 366; also see Butt et al, 2000) ‘verbal and mental processes share the property of projection …’.

To describe our consciousness, or how we perceive the world around us as well as what happens inside us, i.e. our feelings and emotions, we use mental processes. A mental process involves a participant who is a Senser (or Doer of the process) and may involve another participant, a Phenomenon, which is the extension of the process and is normally realised by a nominal group. A Phenomenon may be encoded in an embedded clause to express ‘what is thought, wanted, perceived or liked/disliked’ (ibid: 55) as in Example 3B.166c and Example 3B.166d (the embedded clause is placed between double square brackets).

Example 3B.166a

Viet: Ynh! nhn ngày tháng lao dao, khó cnc

Senser Process: Mental Phenomenon

“He remembered those miserable days full of hardships”

Example 3B.166b

Viet: Ông y khng bao gi muốn bàn dnh chuyển chính tr

Senser Process: Mental: Inclination Phenomenon

“He never wants to discuss politics”

Example 3B.166c

Viet: Tôi biết [minh thực `sr muốn gì]

Senser Process: Mental: Cognition Phenomenon

“I know what I really want”

Example 3B.166d

Viet: Cô y nghe [[có tiếng gó cửa]]

Senser Process: Mental: Perception Phenomenon

“She heard someone knocking on the door”
3.1.2.2.4 Verbal process

A verbal act is realised using such verbs as to say, to speak, to announce, etc. The participant who performs the act of saying or speaking is Sayer, the addressee who is involved in the verbal process is Receiver, and the object of what is being said about is Target. Moreover, the content of what is said is Verbiage which, as Butt et al observe, ‘corresponds to Phenomenon in a mental process and sums up what is said in one nominal group or embedded clause’ (ibid: 57)

However, in a verbal process a Receiver may be specified or unspecified as exemplified in Example 3B.167b; by the same token, a Verbiage may also be specified or unspecified, as shown in Example 3B.167c

Example 3B.167a

Viet: Nàng tiết lộ những bí ẩn của đời mình với người bạn thân nhất

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Process: Verbal</th>
<th>Verbiage</th>
<th>Receiver</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>disclose</td>
<td>(plural marker) secret of life she</td>
<td>with friend intimate most</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“She confided her secrets to her best friend”

Example 3B.167b

Viet: Anh ta giải thích [[những diễn tiến của business]]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Process: Verbal</th>
<th>Verbiage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>explain</td>
<td>(plural marker) progress of matter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“He explained the progress of the task at hand”

Example 3B.167c

Viet: Diện giả nói về bệnh ung thư vú và các phương pháp chữa trị

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Process: Verbal</th>
<th>Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaker</td>
<td>speak</td>
<td>of breast cancer and (plural marker) method treatment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The speaker spoke of breast cancer and various methods of treatment”

Butt et al (ibid) also propose that, in quoting what has been said directly or indirectly, the clause containing the verbal process will be seen as a projecting clause and what is quoted is contained in a “projected clause”, as illustrated in the following example:
• Direct speech

**Example 3B.167d**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>bác sĩ</th>
<th>Trần an</th>
<th>đứa trẻ:</th>
<th>“Không đau đâu!”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>assure</td>
<td>child</td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>Projected clause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“The doctor assured the child: “It won’t hurt!””

• Indirect speech

**Example 3B.167e**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Ông ấy</th>
<th>hỏi</th>
<th>bao giờ anh đi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>ask</td>
<td>when you go</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“He asked when you are leaving”

3.1.2.2.5   **Existential process**

In Vietnamese the verb “có” (‘exist’) may be used in various contexts and may only have one participant which is known as the Existent. The existential process “có” normally goes with “không” to form the negative.

**Example 3B.168a**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Có</th>
<th>trà</th>
<th>đây, anh dùng một chén nhé?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exist</td>
<td>tea</td>
<td>here you use a cup</td>
<td>[Question maker]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process: Existential</td>
<td>Exist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“There’s tea, do you want a cup?”

**Example 3B.168b**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viet:</th>
<th>Có</th>
<th>ai</th>
<th>đang gõ</th>
<th>ở cửa trước kia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exist</td>
<td>someone</td>
<td>(Asp: Cont) knock</td>
<td>at door front</td>
<td>[Attention Drawer]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process: Existential</td>
<td>Existent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Listen, there’s someone knocking on the front door!”
Example 3B.168c

Viet: Có nhiều rác rưởi trong mối quan hệ ngoại giao giữa Mỹ và Nga

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exist</th>
<th>many issue</th>
<th>in relationship diplomatic between America and Russia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“There have been many issues in the diplomatic relationship between America and Russia”

Example 3B.168d

Viet: Không có lửa làm sao có khói?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not exist</th>
<th>fire how exist smoke?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“If there’s no fire how comes there is smoke”
“There’s no smoke without fire”
‘Có’ when used with a personalised Subject is an ordinary verb indicating ‘possession’.

Example 3B.168e

Viet: Tôi có ba thẻ thư viện

“I have three library cards”

If the expression refers to a place, according to Halliday & McDonald (2004: 355), ‘the circumstantial element is typically thematic with the Existent coming in culminative position as unmarked New’, as illustrated in the following example:

Example 3B.168f

Viet: Trong thư viện có nhiều cuốn sách đặc biệt dành cho trẻ em

“In library exist many (class.) book specific reserve for child/children
“There are many children’s books in the library”.

Example 3B.168g

Viet: Trên tường có hai con thạch sùng đuổi bắt một con mồi

“On the wall exist two (class.) geckos chase one white ant.”

In Vietnamese, there is another type of existential process which is normally marked for perfective aspect and often used with the verb “còn” (there’s still/there remains) or a combination of ‘có’ and ‘còn’; for example:
Example 3B.168h
Viet: Còn găo không?
Remain rice MOD: interrogative
“Is there any rice left?”

Example 3B.168i
Viet: Có còn găo không?
Exist still rice MOD: interrogative
“Is there still any rice left?”

A further textual possibility is to place the Existent ‘găo’ (‘rice’) in Theme position to make it New, as in Example 3B.168j below:

Example 3B.168j
Viet: Găo còn không?
Rice remain MOD: interrogative
“Is there any rice left?”

Sometimes, an expression realised by the existential process may sound ambiguous and require a reference to a specific context to be understood; for example:

Example 3B.168k
Viet: Có trà không?
Exist tea MOD: interrogative

Example 3B.168k may be understood as “Do you (we) have (any) tea (leaves)?” or “Has the tea been made?” depending on the context of the utterance.

3.1.2.2.6 Relational process

As Butt et al (2000: 58) point out, because ‘the main characteristic of relational processes is that they relate a participant to its identity or description’, they can be divided into two main types: Relational Attributive and Relational Identifying. A Relational Attributive relates ‘a participant to its characteristics or description’; while a Relational Identifying relates ‘a participant to its identity, role or meaning’ (ibid)
a) **Relational Attributive**

The participant, or Carrier, of a relational attributive clause carries characteristics or attributes known as Attribute. The Attribute may be a nominal group. In Vietnamese, in addition to the verb ‘là’ (‘be’), in some contexts ‘lâm’ (‘do’), and other verbs which connect a Carrier to an Attribute including ‘trông’ (‘look’), ‘có vẻ’ (‘seem/appear’), ‘cảm thấy’ (‘feel’), and so forth may be used to construe a relational attributive clause; for example:

**Example 3B.169a**

Viet: Cô ấy là một họa sĩ thuộc trường phái siêu thực

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Process: relational attributive</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>a painter of surrealism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“She’s a surrealistic painter”

**Example 3B.169b**

Viet: Ông ta có vẻ lảp dị

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Process: relational attributive</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>eccentric</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“He seemed eccentric”

**Example 3B.169c**

Viet: Tôi cảm thấy mệt mỏi, chán ngán

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Process: relational attributive</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>tired, discontented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“I feel totally exhausted and discontented”

It should be noted that in cases where the attribute is not a nominal group but an adjectival one and the verb ‘là’ (‘be’) or a similar verb plays the process role, we have an ascriptive relational clause which ascribes qualities to an entity. In this case the Process is conflated with the Attribute and the adjective is treated as a subclass of verb.

**Example 3B.169d**

Viet: Anh ta cao lớn, lực lượng

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Ascriptive: Process/Attribute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>tall big, sturdy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“He’s big, tall and sturdy”
Example 3B.169e

Viet: Trời trời lạnh vào tháng Sáu

| Sky/heaven | turn cold | in month six |
| Carrier    | Ascriptive: Process/Attribute | Circumstance: Temporal |

“It gets cold in June”

Example 3B.169f

Viet: Xe của tôi màu đỏ xám

| Car of I | colour red dark |
| Carrier  | Ascriptive: Process/Attribute |

“The colour of my car is deep red”

Earlier, it has been mentioned that sometimes the verb ‘làm’ (‘do’ or ‘work’) may also be used relationally; that means instead of using an adjectival verb to form a relational attributive clause (ascriptive clause), we can use the verb ‘làm’, as in Example 3B.160h

Example 3B.170g

Viet: Nó lui giới hết chữ nói

| He    | lazy | beyond word |
| Carrier | Ascriptive: Process/Attribute | Circumstance: Manner |

“He’s indescribably lazy”

Example 3B.169h

Viet: Nó làm biếng hết chữ nói

| He    | do lazy | beyond word |
| Carrier | Process: Material: Attribute | Circumstance: Manner |

“He’s indescribably lazy”

Example 3B.169i

Viet: Làm dây tốt người khôn, còn hồn làm thầy chẳng đải

| Work servant person wise, still more work master person fool |
| Being the servant of a wise man is better than being the master of a fool”; or |
| “Better be the servant of a wise man than master of a fool” |
Example 3B.169k

Viet:  Được làm vua, thua làm giặc
Winner make king, loser make robber
“Winner is king, and loser is robber”; or
“The winner takes it all”

Moreover, the verb ‘có’ (‘have’/exist’) is also used to realise a relational attributive possessive clause; whereas ‘làm chủ’ (‘own’) is used for the relational identifying possessive (which will be discussed further in the next section); as exemplified below:

Example 3B.169l

Viet:  Gia đình anh ta có hai căn nhà ở Saigon
Family (of) he have two (classifier) house at Saigon
Carrier: Possessor
Process: relational: attributive: possessive
Attribute: Possessed
Circumstance: Place

“His family has two houses in Saigon”

Example 3B.169m

Viet:  Gia đình anh ta làm chủ hai căn nhà ở Saigon
Family (of) he own two (classifier) house at Saigon
Token: Possessor
Process: relational: identifying: possessive
Value: Possessed
Circumstance: Place

“His family owns two houses in Saigon”

b)  Relational Identifying

Relational identifying processes define an identity or role, or give a meaning to something. One of the main functions of a relational identifying process is to provide a new identity, and the other is to allow us to take any form and identify its function and ‘conversely, to take any function and identify its form. In other words, we take some token and give it new value, or some value and give its token.’ (Butt et al, 2000: 59). There may be two participants (they are normally a nominal group) in a relational identifying process, and depending on how the question is asked, the answer will either be labelled Identified (Given), or Identifier (New).

For example, to answer the question “Thầy dạy triết của anh là ai?” (‘Who’s your philosophy teacher?’), there are two possibilities:
a) the Given information (Identified) is placed before the relational identifying process; or
b) the New information (Identifier) is placed before the relational identifying process

Example 3B.169n

Viet:  Thày dạy triết của tôi là thầy Lê
Teacher teach philosophy of I be teacher Lê
Identified/Value Process: relational identifying Identifier/Token

“My philosophy teacher is Mr Lê”

Example 3B.169o

Viet:  Thầy Lê là thầy dạy triết của tôi
Teacher Lê be teacher teach philosophy of I
Identifier/Token Process: relational identifying Identified/Value

“Mr Lê is my philosophy teacher”

Also such verbs as ‘có nghĩa là’* (‘mean’), ‘gọi là’* (‘call’, ‘name’, ‘title’, etc)\(^1\), ‘định nghĩa’ (‘define’), ‘thể hiện’ (‘express’), and so forth, which may appear in passive forms can relate to Token and its Value. As Butt et al (ibid) point out when one of these verbs is in the active voice, the order of the clause will be as follows:

Token \(\wedge\) Process \(\wedge\) Value

However, when the verb is in the passive form, the order will change into:

Value \(\wedge\) Process \(\wedge\) Token

The following example will illustrate this point:

Example 3B.169p

Viet:  Im lắng thể hiện sự ‘bằng lòng’
Silence express [n.marker] ‘agreement’
Identifier/Token Process: relational identifying Identified/Value

“Silence expresses an ‘agreement’”

\(^1\) Lê & Chinh (1967: 457) also refer to this type of processes as ‘relational’

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Example 3B.169q

Viet: ‘Bảng lòng’ được thể hiện bằng ‘sự im lặng’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Agreement’</th>
<th>(pass. maker) express by [n.marker] silence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identified/Value</td>
<td>Process: relational identifying Identifier/Token</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“‘Agreement’ is expressed by silence”

As mentioned earlier, Vietnamese verbs are not conjugated and there is no grammatical category of tense. In term of ASPECT, a process is either ‘progressive’ (in this case the tense marker and pre-verb ‘dang’ may be used to indicate the significance of its ongoing) or ‘perfective’ (significant in its closure. In this case, the tense marker and post-verb ‘rồi’ (‘already’) or ‘xong’ (‘completed’) may be used to indicate the significance of its closure), or neither; i.e. it carries no aspectual meaning (Halliday terms it ‘neutral’). The following examples will show the progressive and perfective aspects of the process:

Example 3B.169r

Viet: Anh dang làm gì vậy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>You (preverb:prog)</th>
<th>do</th>
<th>what [question marker]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>ASP: Progressive Process: Material Goal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“What are you doing?”

Example 3B.169s

Viet: Tôi viết xong bức thư cho chị tôi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I (preverb:perf)</th>
<th>write</th>
<th>complete letter</th>
<th>for sister [of] I</th>
</tr>
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“I’ve just finished writing a letter to my sister”

In terms of PHASE, there are two subtypes, directional and resultative, which are realised by the use of such directional postverbs as ‘lên’ (‘ascend’), ‘xuống’ (‘descend’), ‘vào’ (‘enter’), ‘ra’ (‘exit’), and so forth. For example:

Example 3B.169t

Viet: Anh ta đi lên, đi xuống vội vẻ bốn chân.

He ascend, descend with look restless.

“He walked up and down restlessly.”
Example 3B.169u

Viet: Cô ấy đi ra, đi vào như đang ngóng đợi ai ấy.
She exit, enter as if expect someone.
“She walked in and out as if she were expecting somebody”

Note that in Vietnamese a comma placed between two related words of the same word class can have the same value as the conjunction ‘and’, as illustrated in the above examples.

As far as resultative postverbs are concerned, there are several classes. The following are those adapted from that proposed by Halliday & McDonald (2004):

- **Qualitative**: such combinations of verbs and postverbs as “đánh bóng” (‘strike shine’): ‘polish’, “rửa sạch” (‘wash clean’): ‘wash thoroughly’, and so forth, belong to this subtype;
- **Sensorial**: is what is termed ‘mental’ by Halliday, for example, “nhìn thấy” (‘look perceive’): ‘see’, “nghe thấy” (‘listen perceive’): ‘hear’, and so on. Because “thấy” mainly collocates with those verbs related to the five senses, it is proposed that this group of verbs and postverbs is classified under the sensorial class.
- **Consequential**: while Halliday refers to this class of verbs and postverbs as ‘reussive’ and McDonald as ‘phasal’, they actually describe the end result of an action. For example, “đập vỡ” (‘hit break’) or ‘break’; “nghiền nát” (‘grind crush’) or ‘crush’; “tìm thấy” (‘seek find/get’) or ‘find’.
- **Directional**: shows the direction of an action, for example “vật đi” (‘throw go’): ‘throw away’, or ‘discard’; “mang ra” (‘bring exit’): ‘bring out’. However, the expression “mang ra thảo luận” (‘to bring exit discuss’), simply means to ‘bring up for discussion’
- **Exhaustive**: it implies the totally complete outcome of an action; for example “bán sạch” (‘sell clean’): ‘sell out’; “uống cạn” (‘drink drain’): ‘drain one’s drink’.

3.1.2.2.3 Circumstances

Viewed from the experiential perspective, as expressed by Thompson (1996), a process is the central component of a clause from which participants draw the meaning of their role and define their status in the clausal relation. However, sometimes the information provided by this realisation may not be sufficient for a listener/reader to make out the speaker’s or writer’s intention or purpose. For example, they may require more detailed information to work out how or when or where the process happened. This information (or CIRCUMSTANTIAL) helps the audience gather the temporal or spatial information concerning the process; i.e. when it occurs, where it occurs, what causes it to occur, etc. This type of information is referred to as Circumstance and, in Vietnamese, may be an adverbial group, a prepositional phrase, or a nominal group.
• **Adverbial group:**

The Vietnamese adverbial group can be made of one word or several words. It can have a Head which is preceded or followed by other relevant elements; for example:

i. **chậm**: slowly  
ii. **thật chậm**: very slowly  
iii. **hết src chậm chap**: extremely slowly (in which ‘chậm chap’ is a reduplicative or compound; with ‘chậm’ meaning ‘slowly’ and ‘chap’ by itself having no meaning.)

In Vietnamese, Circumstances may take any position in a clause, except those with (*) as in the following examples:

**Example 3B.170a**

Viet: Chậm chậm anh ta lái xe vào nhà để xe  
Lit: Slow slow he drive car enter garage  
Eng: “Slowly he drove into the garage”

**Example 3B.170b**

Viet: Anh ta chậm chậm lái xe vào nhà để xe  
Lit: He slow slow drive car enter garage  
Eng: “He slowly drove into the garage”

**Example 3B.170c**

Viet: Anh ta lái xe chậm chậm vào nhà để xe  
Lit: He drive car slow slow enter garage  
Eng: “He drove slowly into the garage”

**Example 3B.170d**

Viet: *Anh ta lái xe vào nhà để xe chậm chậm  
Lit: He drive car enter garage slow slow  
Eng: “He drove into the garage slowly”

In terms of usage, all four examples above are acceptable in English. In Vietnamese, however, (a) is preferable, while (b) and (c) are possible, and (d) is rarely used except when appearing in the phrase “một cách chậm chậm” literally meaning ‘in a slow manner’.
However, according to Hà (1967) this is probably influenced by the French language structure.

- **Prepositional phrase:**
  Similar to its English counterpart, the Vietnamese prepositional phrase has the structure PREPOSITION + NOMINAL GROUP. For example:

**Example 3B.171a**

Viet: Vào d工信部 tu工信部 việc ở một cây xăng
Lit: In occasion (of) weekend I work at a station petrol
Eng: "On the weekend I work at a service station"

**Example 3B.171b**

Viet: *Tôi vào d工信部 tu工信部 việc ở một cây xăng
Lit: I in occasion (of) weekend work at a station petrol
Eng: "I, on the weekend, work at a service station"

**Example 3B.171c**

Viet: Tôi làm việc ở một cây xăng vào d工信部 tu工信部
Lit: I work at a station petrol in occasion (of) weekend
Eng: "I work at a service station on the weekend"

**Example 3B.171d**

Viet: *Tôi làm việc vào d工信部 tu工信部 ở một cây xăng
Lit: I work in occasion (of) weekend at a station petrol
Eng: "I work on the weekend at a service station"

Again note that (b) and (d) may be acceptable in English, but are unacceptable in Vietnamese. While (a) is preferable, (c) is possible in Vietnamese.
• Nominal group:

Example 3B.172a

Viet: Nhiều lần tôi gọi điện thoại cho anh nhưng không có ai trả lời.
Lit: Many time I call telephone for you but not exist anyone answer.
Eng: “Many times I rang you, but no one answered”

Example 3B.172b

Viet: Tối gọi điện thoại cho anh nhiều lần nhưng không có ai trả lời.
Lit: I call telephone for you many time but not exist anyone answer.
Eng: “I rang you many times, but no one answered”

Example 3B.172c

Viet: Tôi nhiều lần gọi điện thoại cho anh nhưng không có ai trả lời.
Lit: I many time call telephone for you but not exist anyone answer.
Eng: * “I many times rang you, but no one answered”

Although all the above examples are acceptable in Vietnamese, (a) and, in particular (b), is preferable; while (c) is not regular in English.
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AUSTRALIA

AUSTRALIA

DESIGN ELEMENTS

ADAPTATION

AGGULATION

Australian Plastic Currency Note

For security purposes check the following

The first in a new series of plastic currency notes

Australias New $5 Note
Appendix B - Immunisation

Q1. HOW IMPORTANT IS IMMUNISATION?

Immunisation is extremely important. It is a simple, safe and effective way of protecting children from disease.

There are many childhood diseases including seven well known ones which can cause serious complications and sometimes even death. These are diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis (whooping cough), poliomyelitis, measles, mumps and rubella.

Except for tetanus, these diseases are easily spread amongst people.

They can spread more rapidly than most people realise from child to child and within the community. If children remain unprotected serious outbreaks of these diseases (even epidemics) can occur.

Medical experts believe that the benefits of complete immunisation are far greater than the risks.

Q1. WHAT IMMUNISATIONS SHOULD MY CHILD HAVE RECEIVED?

To be completely immunised, your child needs vaccines for all the seven diseases. Table 1 (see next page) explains when children should have the vaccines.

Q1. SHOULD I KEEP A RECORD OF IMMUNISATIONS?

Yes. The NSW Health Department’s Personal Health Record (the “Blue Book”) was written for that purpose. Since 1988, the “Blue Book” has been given to all newborn babies in the state. If you have lost your child’s “Blue Book” you can buy a copy for a small fee from the NSW Health Department (Ph: 602) 391-9011.

Parents are strongly encouraged to use the “Blue Book” to record all the immunisations.

If records are kept updated in the “Blue Book” then it will be easier to obtain an Immunisation Certificate which is required for school entry from 1994 and onwards.

Q1. Việc chủng ngừa có quan trọng làm không?

Việc chủng ngừa rất quan trọng. Đây là một phương pháp đơn giản, an toàn và hữu hiệu trong việc bảo vệ trẻ con khỏi mắc bệnh.

Bệnh trẻ con có rất nhiều loại kể cả bay chủng bệnh nói tiếng có thể gây ra những biến chứng trầm trọng hay đối kì cả việc tử vong. Đó là những bệnh: Bệnh bạch hầu (diphtheria), Sattività van (tetanus), Ho gà (pertussis - whooping cough), Sốt tể liễu (poliomyelitis), Sốt, Ban (measles), Quai bi (mumps), và Ban Đức (rubella). Ngoài trừ bệnh Uốn van, những bệnh còn lại có thể lây cho người khác dễ dàng.

Chủng có thể lan tới đứa nhỏ qua đứa nhỏ khác hay trong các cộng đồng nhỏ hơn chúng ta tưởng.

Nếu không phòng bệnh cho trẻ con thì những bệnh này có thể bộc phát một cách trầm trọng hay có thể trở nên một bệnh dịch không chung.

Những nhà chuyên môn về y học tin rằng việc phòng ngừa bằng cách chủng ngừa tốt hơn là việc trị bệnh.

Q2. Con tôi cần được chủng ngừa những bệnh gì?

What immunisations should my child have received?

Để có thể hoàn toàn được chủng ngừa, trẻ con cần được chủng ngừa cả bay loại bệnh. Bằng chỉ dẫn dưới đây sẽ giải thích về lịch trình chủng ngừa.
Appendix C – The rental guide

When you rent a house or unit in NSW you have rights and responsibilities. This brochure outlines those legal rights and responsibilities. It is available in 18 languages.

Beginning the tenancy

Under the law, your landlord or agent must give you a copy of your written tenancy agreement after you have signed it and also a copy of this brochure.

The tenancy agreement comes in 2 parts:

- **Part 1 – The terms of the agreement.**
  This sets out what you and your landlord agree to do during the tenancy.

- **Part 2 – A condition report.** This describes the condition of the premises at the time you move in.

It is important you understand what you are agreeing to before you sign the terms of the agreement. If you have difficulty reading English, you will need to ask someone who speaks your language to interpret the agreement for you.

If you believe the condition report is not accurate because it fails to include things like a cracked shower screen, you should make a note of this and anything else that is missing from the report. Discuss these matters with your landlord or agent before you sign the tenancy agreement. The condition report

**IMPORTANT**

Always check the condition report very carefully. If you don’t, you may have to pay for damage that existed before you moved in.
Appendix D - Diabetes

Diabetes is a condition that can occur if you have too much sugar (glucose) in your blood. The amount of sugar in your blood is controlled by the pancreas, a body organ which produces a substance called insulin. If the pancreas is not working properly and if it does not produce the correct amount of insulin for your body, you may become a diabetic.

Your doctor can do a test to see if you have diabetes, or you may be sent to a Diabetic Clinic in a hospital.

The three main types of diabetes are:

1. **Insulin-dependent diabetes**
   - When the body is not able to make any insulin at all or only very small amounts.
   
   **Who gets it**
   - Children and young adults usually get this type of diabetes.
   
   **Treatment:** The only form of suitable treatment is with injections of insulin and a planned diet.

2. **Non-insulin-dependent diabetes**
   - When the body can make insulin but it does not work well enough to control the blood sugar levels.
   
   **Who gets it**
   - Older people tend to get this type of diabetes.
   
   Many people with this type of diabetes are overweight which makes it more difficult for the body to maintain the correct blood sugar level.
   
   **Treatment**
   - Many people suffering from this type of diabetes can be treated by diet and exercise;
   - others may need tablets as well;

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Khi trong máu của bạn có quá nhiều chất đường đó là tình trạng có thể bạn bị bệnh tiểu đường. Lạ lánh là một cơ quan trong lực phì ngụ tầng của bạn có nhiệm vụ kiểm soát lượng đường trong máu và sản xuất một chất chất có tên là in-su-linh. Nếu là lách không hoạt động đúng mức và không sản xuất đủ số lượng in-su-linh cho cơ thể của bạn, bạn có thể trở thành một bệnh nhân tiểu đường.

Bác sĩ của bạn có thể thử nghiệm giúp bạn tìm bệnh tiểu đường hoặc có thể gửi bạn tới khám bệnh tại một y viện tiểu đường trong một bệnh viện.

Dưới đây là ba loại bệnh tiểu đường chính:

1. **Bệnh tiểu đường do thiếu chất in-su-linh**
   - Insulin-dependent diabetes
   - Khi cơ thể không sản xuất được chất in-su-linh hay chỉ sản xuất được những số lượng rất nhỏ.
   - Ai bị loại bệnh này?
   - Trẻ con và những người trẻ tuổi thường bị loại bệnh tiểu đường này.
   - Phương pháp chữa trị: Các chữa trị duy nhất và thích hợp nhất là chức chất in-su-linh và ăn kiêng theo chế độ.

2. **Bệnh tiểu đường không do thiếu chất in-su-linh**
   - Non-insulin-dependent diabetes
   - Khi cơ thể có thể tạo chất in-su-linh nhưng không hoạt động hiệu quả để kiểm soát mức độ đường trong máu.
TETANUS

Tetanus is an acute, often fatal, disease caused by the toxin produced by a bacterium which is present just about everywhere, but mostly in soil, dust, manure, and in the digestive tracts of humans, as well as in many animals. Tetanus is not transmitted from one person to another. Rather, the germs enter the body through a wound - sometimes one as small as a pinprick or a scratch, but, more often, through deep puncture wounds and lacerations, such as those made by nails and knives. Such wounds are difficult to clean adequately, and the toxin can multiply and attack the body’s nervous system.

The average incubation period is 10 days. The first symptoms are headache, irritability and muscular stiffness in the jaw and neck. As the poison increases, the jaw, neck, and limbs become locked in spasm, the abdominal muscles grow rigid and painful convulsions may occur.

Doctors treat the symptoms of tetanus with powerful tranquillisers and anti-spasmodic drugs. Even so, the convulsions may continue or increase in frequency to the point at which the patient dies from lack of oxygen and heart failure.

During 1985 and 1986 in the United States, deaths from tetanus occurred in five percent of children and adults less than 50 years of age, but rose to 42 percent for patients 50 years of age and older.

In New South Wales, there have been 15 cases of tetanus since 1982.

Between 1985 and 1991 there have been three deaths from tetanus.
Appendix F - Poliomyelitis

POLIOMYELITIS

As recently as the 1950s, polio was a common disease, much feared by parents of small children. With the development of the first polio vaccine in 1955, this picture began to change. Over the decades, as this vaccine gained acceptance and as the newer oral vaccine came into use, the number of cases of paralytic polio has decreased. Since 1982, no cases of polio have occurred in New South Wales.

Polio is an acute illness resulting from the invasion of the gastrointestinal tract by polio virus.

The incubation period is commonly seven to 14 days for paralytic cases. Many people who are infected by the polio virus have no symptoms but may still spread the infection to others. The milder forms of polio usually begin abruptly and last, at most, a few days. When symptoms are present, they include fever, sore throat, nausea, headache and gastrointestinal disturbance. Sometimes, the patient will feel pain and stiffness in the neck, back and legs.

Paralytic polio begins with these same symptoms, but severe muscle pain is usually present. If paralysis occurs, it does so within the first week. The overall death rate for paralytic polio in epidemics of the past was five to 10 percent, but is substantially higher in some forms of the disease.

There is no specific treatment for polio, and the degree of recovery varies from patient to patient. About half of all patients who survive suffer permanent paralysis.

Some people have asked why we should continue to use polio vaccine when no cases have occurred. The reason is that, even though we may not have much polio virus spreading here now, there are thousands of cases in the rest of the world; therefore, there is a great risk of polio being re-established here, if our children are not immunised.
Appendix G - Women and tranquillisers

Pills for feelings

Many women in Australia take drugs like Valium, Serepax, Murelax, Ducene, Mogadon, Euhynpos, Normison and Rohypnol.

In 1983-84, doctors wrote approximately four million prescriptions for these drugs for Australian women. They are prescribed twice as often for women as for men.

These drugs are known as minor tranquillisers and belong to the benzodiazepine group of drugs (pronounced BEN-ZO-DYE-AS-A-PENN).

Doctors often prescribe benzodiazepines for women who are worried, sad, panicicky, or unable to sleep. But often the anxiety or sleeplessness is caused by things like grief, domestic violence, having a boring job, divorce, coming to a new country, not having enough money, menopause or disappointment about the way things have turned out.

Taking benzodiazepines can make you feel better in the short term when your problems become extreme, or help you sleep in a time of crisis. Taking them for a week or on occasional days can be useful. But if they are taken for every difficulty that crops up, or for a long time, they can cause problems.

Anxiety is usually a healthy response to things that threaten your well-being. It’s natural to feel upset if you are short of money or have difficulties in your marriage. If someone close to you dies, it’s natural to feel sad and lonely.

Taking pills can block your feelings, but it won’t stop the problems. Pills don’t pay the rent, look after an elderly relative, or stop small children crying.

In the long run, it’s best to avoid taking pills to blot out feelings. If you’re not taking
Appendix H -

Appendix H

!

Child sexual assault

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Fish oils

This sheet provides general information about the use of fish oil supplements as a treatment for arthritis. It includes information about who may benefit from taking fish oils, how much to take and where to find more information.

What are fish oils?
Fish oils are oils found in the tissues of fish. They contain a certain type of fat called omega-3.

What are omega-3 fats?
Omega-3 fats are a type of fat that may be important for good general health. Our bodies cannot produce omega-3 fats so they must be obtained from food. Omega-3 fats are mostly found in oily fish and certain nut and seed oils.

How do omega-3 fats work for arthritis?
Certain types of omega-3 fats can reduce inflammation from arthritis. This may help to relieve joint pain and stiffness in a similar way to non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs).

Dầu cá

Trang này là các thông tin tổng quát về cách dùng dầu cá để chữa bệnh viêm khớp (arthritis). Thông tin hướng dẫn cho biết những người nào có thể dùng dầu cá chữa bệnh, liều dùng ra sao và cách tìm thêm chi tiết.

Dầu cá là gì?
Dầu cá là dầu ép ra từ mô thit của con cá. Dầu cá có chứa một loại mỡ được gọi là omega-3.

Mỡ omega-3 là gì?
Mỡ Omega-3 là loại mỡ có thể quan trọng cho sức khỏe người ta nói chung. Cơ thể con người không tự tạo được ra mỡ omega-3 cho nên người ta có được nguồn mỡ này là nhờ vào thực ăn. Mỡ Omega-3 phân lớn có từ các loại cá có dầu và một số loại dầu từ các loại hạt và dỗ dầu.

Mỡ omega-3 có công dụng ra sao đối với bệnh viêm khớp (arthritis)?
Một số loại mỡ omega-3 có công dụng chống viêm trong các trường hợp viêm khớp. Nhờ đó có thể giảm đau khớp và giảm cứng khớp, giống như tác dụng của các loại thuốc chống viêm không thuộc nhóm steroid (non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs- NSAID).

(Australian Rheumatology Association – 2010: 1)
Appendix J - Cold protection

A long-term moderate exercise program can reduce the risk of colds among older women, claim researchers in the United States. The study revealed that postmenopausal women who worked out regularly had about half the risk of colds as those who did not exercise. The study involved 115 overweight, post-menopausal women who had not been exercising before the trial. Half the women were assigned to exercise moderately, such as walking on a treadmill or walking outside, for 45 minutes a day, five days a week. The other half were told to take part in once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions. Over 12 months, the risk of colds decreased in exercisers and increased modestly in the group of stretchers. In the last three months of the study, the women who were only stretching were three times as likely to catch a cold as those who were exercising.

Turmeric, a spice used in curries, may help prevent rheumatoid arthritis and osteoporosis, report scientists at the University of Arizona College of Medicine in the United States. Researchers have been studying curcumin, an ingredient in turmeric, as a possible treatment for conditions ranging from cancer to diabetic eye disease. An extract of this substance was found to block the onset of rheumatoid arthritis in rats and to inhibit the pathway involved in breakdown of bone. The researchers have launched a new study into whether menopausal women can prevent bone loss by taking turmeric supplements.

The use of mobile phones may damage men’s fertility, an American-led study suggests. Researchers found those men who used a phone for four hours or more a day had fewer sperm and that these moved less and were of poorer quality. Researchers observed 364 men being treated at fertility clinics in Mumbai, India. Those who used their phones for more than four hours a day had the lowest average sperm counts and the least healthy sperm. British researchers questioned the results, speculate that men who spend a lot of time on the phone may be more sedentary or stressed.

Eating two to three servings of vegetables daily might help to protect against Alzheimer’s and improve memory.

COLD PROTECTION

HEALTH & BEAUTY

THÔNG TIN
CLINICAL RESEARCH STUDY

Moderate-Intensity Exercise Reduces the Incidence of Colds Among Postmenopausal Women

Jessica Chubak, MBH, MD, PhD, Anne McTiernan, MD, PhD, Boss Sorensen, MS, Mark H. Wener, MD, Yutaka Yasut, PhD, Marielbeth Velasquez, Brent Wood, MD, PhD, Kumar B. Rajan, MS, Catherine M. Wetmore, MPH, John D. Potter, MD, PhD, and Cornelia M. Ulrich, PhD

Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Cancer Prevention Program, Seattle, Wash; University of Washington, Departments of Epidemiology, Medicine, and Laboratory Medicine, Seattle, Wash; University of Alberta, Department of Public Health Sciences, Edmonton, Alberta; University of New Mexico, Department of Psychiatry, Albuquerque, NM; University of Washington, Department of Biostatistics, Seattle, Wash.

ABSTRACT

PURPOSE: Our aim was to assess the effect of a moderate-intensity, year-long exercise program on the risk of colds and other upper respiratory tract infections in postmenopausal women.

SUBJECTS: A total of 115 overweight and obese, sedentary, postmenopausal women in the Seattle area participated.

METHODS: Participants were randomly assigned to the moderate-intensity exercise group or the control group. The intervention consisted of 45 minutes of moderate-intensity exercise 5 days per week for 12 months. Control participants attended once-weekly, 45-minute stretching sessions. Questionnaires asking about upper respiratory tract infections in the previous 3 months were administered quarterly during the course of the year-long trial. Poisson regression was used to estimate the effect of exercise on colds and other upper respiratory tract infections.

RESULTS: Over 12 months, the risk of colds decreased in exercisers relative to stretchers (P = .02). In the final 3 months of the study, the risk of colds in stretchers was more than threefold that of exercisers (P = .03). Risk of upper respiratory tract infections overall did not differ (P = .16), yet may have been biased by differential proportions of influenza vaccinations in the intervention and control groups.

CONCLUSIONS: This study suggests that 1 year of moderate-intensity exercise training can reduce the incidence of colds among postmenopausal women. These findings are of public health relevance and add a new facet to the growing literature on the health benefits of moderate exercise. © 2006 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

KEYWORDS: Colds; Upper respiratory tract infections; Exercise; Postmenopausal women; Prevention; Overweight

The role of regular physical activity in preventing acute illnesses such as colds or other upper respiratory tract infections is not well defined. Improving our understanding of how to prevent these illnesses may help reduce the economic and health burden they impose. With adults in the United States reporting, on average, two to four colds per year, 4 colds an important source of workplace absenteeism, loss of productivity, and visits to health care providers. The incidence of colds is inversely related to age, 8 strongly associated with season, 9,10 and may be related to a variety of environmental and genetic factors. Lack of adequate sleep, exposure to children receiving childcare outside the home, 11 poor air quality, 12 home dampness, 13 and smoking 14 are among factors associated with an increased risk of colds.
COPING WITH MENTAL ILLNESS IN THE FAMILY

Having someone in the family with a chronic physical illness can be hard to cope with - but it can be even worse for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill. Although mental illness is so common that it affects one in four people in Australia from all cultural backgrounds, it’s still misunderstood.

One fear for instance, is that people who are mentally ill are violent - yet most people with a mental illness aren’t violent. Then there’s the idea that if someone has recovered from a mental illness like a “nervous breakdown”, they are still mentally “weak” in some way - yet people with a mental illness can have a full recovery just the same as anyone can recover completely from a physical illness. Another problem is that a lot of people feel very uneasy or embarrassed if a mentally ill person behaves in an unusual or different way.

Attitudes like these make life hard for families living with a mentally ill relative. Some families feel they have to hide their relative’s illness from the rest of the world. Or they may feel isolated, either because it’s difficult to invite people home, or because they may be shunned by other people - including other members of their family who avoid visiting them.

It’s important that families in this situation don’t try to cope with the problem alone. Like any illness, mental illness can be treated more easily if it’s detected early. Sometimes families ignore the symptoms of mental illness, hoping things will get better. But the chances are things will get worse and the person may need to be hospitalised when they could have been treated at home if they’d been diagnosed earlier.

The same goes for families living with a relative who has been diagnosed with an illness such as schizophrenia or manic depression, for instance. If they begin to behave strangely or refuse to take medication that helps control their illness, it can be tempting to hope the problem will pass. But this can make things worse. It’s much better to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help. This makes it easier to control the illness and keep the person stable.

If someone in your family is mentally ill, try to learn as much about the illness as possible. This helps you know what to expect and how to cope with it - mental health workers can give you advice on how to cope with and communicate with someone who is having delusions or hallucinations, for example, or someone who is depressed or threatening suicide.

Being informed can also stop you blaming yourself - many families feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness, but this isn’t true. Many factors can combine to cause mental illness. There may be an inherited disposition, a chemical imbalance in the brain, there may be life stresses like unemployment, retirement, breakdown or even migration. But no one is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.
If someone in the family is mentally ill there are places which can help. These include community health centres, as well as the Transcultural Mental Health Centre (QTMHC) which can give advice and referral to mental health professionals or support groups.

The Association of Relatives and Friends of the Mentally Ill (ARAFMI) is an organisation which helps friends and relatives by offering advice, information and support. ARAFMI can be contacted on (07) 3254 1881.

Other support services which can be contacted are:

- The QTMHC Transcultural Clinical Consultation Service on (07) 3167-8333.
- The Multicultural Centre for Mental Health & Wellbeing on (07) 3848-1600.
- Mental Health Worker, Townsville Migrant Resource Centre on (07) 4772 4800.
- Queensland Program of Assistance to Survivor of Torture and Trauma (QPASTT) on (07) 3391 6677.
- Translating & Interpreting Service on 131 450.


LANGUAGES available: Arabic, Bosnian, Chinese, Croatian, English, Greek, Italian, Serbian, Spanish, Turkish & Vietnamese.
ƯNG PHÓ VỚI BỆNH TÂM THẦN TRONG GIA DÌNH
(Coping with Mental Illness in the Family)

Thông thường, nella trong gia đình có người bị bệnh kinh niên, chuyện phải lo lắng, chăm sóc đó ngày này tháng nay, khó khăn rơi vào người, bị bệnh tâm thần, nguyên nhân là không biết làm thế nào. Có những người bệnh tâm thần, thể hiện nhanh có nhiều người lại hay hỏi hỏi về các bệnh tâm thần.

Thí dụ, người ta thường nghe những người mắc bệnh tâm thần hay đáp pha, họ có thái độ và hành động hung tốn, những chuyện này không hoàn toàn đúng. Lại có những người cho rằng, đó có thể phân xung cảm, bệnh nhân vẫn không hoàn toàn khơi chân, tinh thần họ vẫn còn bị yếu, yếu, yếu... Cụ thể có những người thấy khó chịu, hay mắc có khi thấy một người mắc bệnh tâm thần hành động, cử chỉ "không giống ai" cả.

Nhiều năm sau lại làm cho những gia đình có thể nhận những bệnh tâm thần càng thấy khó khăn hơn. Nhiều gia đình có thể nhận biết rằng có những người cảm thấy khó khăn, khó khăn. Nhưng không ai có thể tiếp tục đó, hàng ngày, hàng ngày họ vẫn không nhận được sự quan tâm, sự quan tâm.

Và đây là quan trọng là những gia đình có thể nhận những bệnh tâm thần cũng như những người mà không biết mình, mà nên tìm tới giúp đỡ. Giống như các chứng bệnh khác, nếu không phải cấp, bệnh tâm thần có thể tự động để được. Nhiều gia đình khi thấy những người đã có những triệu chứng khác thường, thường lũ lụt, họ có thể lên những người nhận được sự quan tâm, tình hình sẽ biến chuyển tốt đẹp hơn. Nhưng không dễ để lười, bệnh sẽ càng lúc càng trị trọng, và người bệnh có thể sẽ phải vào bệnh viện điều trị; trong khi đó, nếu không phải cấp, người bệnh có thể được điều trị ngay tại nhà.

Nhiều gia đình có người bị chứng tâm thần phân li (schizophrenia) hay chứng rối loạn tâm trạng (manic depression) cũng vậy, hay không có chút ước muốn hay có những hành động kỳ lạ, thường thấy phân li có chung hướng không thể làm mới với ý thức một thời gian sau bệnh tự nhiên sẽ hết. Những năm nữa lại làm cho bệnh trạng của người bệnh ổn hơn mới mãi. Tốt nhất quý vị nên liên lạc với bác sĩ hoặc đi điều trị cho thân nhân của mình, hoặc tới chuyên môn về bệnh tâm thần thương bệnh viện hay trung tâm y tế cộng đồng để được hỗ trợ điều trị.

Trường hợp trong gia đình có người mắc bệnh tâm thần, nếu quý vị cần hiểu nhiều về chứng bệnh này chẳng hạn, càng tốt chẳng hạn. Nói cụ thể quý vị hiểu rõ tình trạng của người bệnh ra sao, và phải đối phó như thế nào. Các nhân viên chuyên môn về bệnh tâm thần có thể hướng dẫn quý vị cách trong năm, sẵn sàng cho người bệnh hoặc chuyên trỏ, ở những người mắc chứng rối loạn hay những người bị chứng tâm phần và cú lơn đôi tử tú.

Hiểu rõ hơn về chứng bệnh còn giúp quý vị tránh được mầm tội lời. Nếu người có cảm tưởng như mình là người nên gây ra chứng bệnh tâm thần của thân nhân mình, những mầm căn do hoàn toàn không cần. Bệnh tâm thần do nhiều yếu tố gây ra, đời kí nguồn nhân có thể là đồ di truyền, hay tác động bất thường của các hóa chất trong cơ thể cho đầu cơ mất cân bình. Làm khó nguồn nhân cũng có thể là do lối nghĩ thiệt tắc, tình thân căng thẳng với bất ngờ, với sự phai mờ, hỏng hóc do vò, hoặc có khi vì chuyện di cực nữa.
Nhưng không thể vì thể mà quy vị phải do lỗi cho người này hay người khác. Bệnh tâm thần xảy ra không phải do lỗi của người bệnh mà cũng không phải lỗi tại thân nhân họ.

Có nhiều nơi có thể giúp đỡ những gia đình có thân nhân mắc bệnh tâm thần. Trong đó phải kể đến các trung tâm y tế công động địa phương, hoặc Trung Tâm Chuyên Môn Về Chứng Bệnh Tâm Thần Đa Dạng Cho Đi Dân (Transcultural Mental Health Centre). Trung tâm này có thể hướng dẫn, giúp đỡ hoặc giới thiệu quy vị đến các nhà chuyên môn hay giúp quý vị liên lạc với các nhóm tương trợ - điện thoại số 3167-9333.

Ngoài ra còn có Hội Bạn Hữu & Thân Nhân Những Người Bi Chứng Tâm Thần (ARAFMI) cũng có thể hướng dẫn và giúp đỡ cho những người ở vào trường hợp kể trên - điện thoại số (07) 3254 1881.

Những dịch vụ hỗ trợ khác mà quý vị có thể liên lạc là:

• Chương Trình Y Tế Tâm Thần Sắc Tộc (Ethnic Mental Health Program) dành cho những người nói tiếng Trung Hoa, H Lạp, Y, Tây Ban Nha và Việt Nam - điện thoại số 3848-1600.
• Nhân Viên y tế tâm thần NESB, Trung Tâm Tai Nguyên Di Đan Townsville - điện thoại số (07) 4772 4800.
• QPASST điện thoại số (07) 3391 6677.
• Dịch Vụ Thông Phiện Dịch (TIS) điện thoại số 131 450

The information in this factsheet was adapted from translated material published by NSW HEALTH.
UNDERSTANDING DEPRESSION AND ANTIDEPRESSANT MEDICATION

What is depression?
The word “depression” is often used to describe the feelings of sadness which all of us experience at some stage of our lives. It is also a term used to describe a form of mental health problem called clinical depression, which affects a person’s mood over a long time and can include feeling very sad for no clear reason, losing interest in things you usually enjoy, excessive worrying and having problems concentrating and making decisions. For some people clinical depression is often accompanied by a feeling of being suspended or floating, worried, anxious and irritable.

These are called symptoms or signs of depression. Everyone feels these at times. But if you have had these symptoms for more than a few weeks or if they start to interfere with your life then you may have depression and you may need to seek help from your doctor or another healthcare worker.

How is depression treated?
Depression is a condition that can be treated. The treatment for depression may include a combination of:
- medication to help with the symptoms of depression;
- talking to a doctor, psychologist, nurse or health worker (counselling); and
- community supports, friendship and help with everyday things like information; accommodation; finding suitable work; training and education etc.

If your doctor has decided that you need antidepressant medication to treat your depression, this fact sheet will help you to understand your medication, how to use it safely and where to get more information.

What is antidepressant medication?
People with depression often have an imbalance of certain chemicals in the brain. Antidepressant medications are medicines that help reduce the symptoms or signs of depression by helping the brain restore its usual chemical balance.

In Australia there are many different types of antidepressant medication and the companies that make them also give them different names. The right one for you will depend on your age, the symptoms you have and any other medication you may be taking.

How do I get antidepressant medication?
Only a medical doctor (a general practitioner [GP] or psychiatrist) can give you antidepressant medication. Once the doctor works out which medicine is right for you, he/she will put it on a piece of paper (called a prescription or script) which describes which drug you need, what strength it should be, how many you should get and how often you should take it. This information is for you to take to your pharmacist or chemist. When you give the script to your pharmacist, he/she will then give you the medicine.

For more information about Multicultural Mental Health Australia visit www.mmha.org.au

Multicultural Mental Health Australia, Locked Bag 7118, Parramatta BC NSW 2150
Phone: 02 9840 3333 Fax: 02 9840 3388 Email: admin@mmha.org.au
AM-HIÊU VỀ BỆNH TRẦM-CÂM VÀ THUOC CHÔNG BỆNH TRẦM-CÂM

Bệnh trầm cảm là gì?
Tư ngừng “trầm cảm” (depression) thường được dùng để mô tả những cảm giác buồn nản mà tâm trạng của người ta thay đổi theo một cách không thể hiểu được. Cần chú ý đến một số vấn đề như: người bệnh cảm thấy không thể tiếp tục hoạt động, cảm thấy không thể giải quyết những vấn đề cá nhân, tìm kiếm sự giúp đỡ, và cảm thấy mất mát. Trầm cảm thường diễn ra trong một khoảng thời gian dài và có thể kéo dài. Việc dùng thuốc chống trầm cảm và quá trình điều trị cần phải được theo dõi và điều chỉnh theo nhu cầu của người bệnh.

Bệnh trầm cảm được điều trị như thế nào?
Bệnh trầm cảm được điều trị thường cần sử dụng một số loại thuốc. Điều này có thể bao gồm việc sử dụng các loại thuốc như: thuốc chống trầm cảm, thuốc anti-depresant, và thuốc chống lo âu. Việc điều trị thường được thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của một chuyên gia tâm lý hoặc một bác sĩ chuyên khoa.

Thực chất hóa bệnh trầm cảm là gì?
Người có bệnh trầm cảm thường cảm thấy buồn nản và mất mát. Họ cảm thấy không thể tiếp tục hoạt động và cảm thấy không thể giải quyết những vấn đề cá nhân. Trầm cảm thường biểu hiện trên cơ thể và tâm trạng của người bệnh.

Tại sao việc sử dụng thuốc chống trầm cảm khác nhau?

Lãnh đạo nâng cao tâm trạng và từ vựng

Để biết thêm thông tin về Multicultural Mental Health Australia hãy vào trang mạng

www.mmha.org.au

Multicultural Mental Health Australia, Locked Bag 7118, Parramatta BC NSW 2150
Điện thoại: 02 8946 3333 Fax: 02 8946 3303 Email: admin@mmha.org.au

Appendix M (Vietnamese) - Understanding depression and antidepressant medication
Depression is never really ‘black and white’

Some facts about Depression

Depression – What it is?

All people experience periods of sadness. Usually these last for only one to several hours or days. Often the cause of this lowered mood is obvious; sometimes it occurs for no reason. Some people experience more prolonged periods of sadness following the loss of a friend or family member. This is usually described as grief or bereavement.

A depressive illness is a persistent lowering of mood lasting for several weeks at a time, and accompanied by a specific group of physical and psychological symptoms. This may cause serious physical, psychological and social problems, and requires specific treatment.

What are the symptoms of Depression?

- Any of the following may be part of a depressive illness:
- Feeling sad, crying easily
- Sleep disturbance
- Change in appetite and weight
- Loss of interest and motivation
- Loss of energy and becoming easily fatigued
- Physical aches and pains, especially headache or abdominal pain
- Loss of sexual interest, impotence
- Feeling that life is not worth living
- Feeling of helplessness
- Guilt, and self reproachful thoughts
- Pessimism regarding the future
- Irritability
- Anxiety
- Confusion, poor memory
- Alcohol or drug abuse.

How common is Depression?

Depression is a very common illness. 1 in 4 women and 1 in 6 men in Australia suffer from a depressive illness during their lifetime. Many are unaware of the cause of their physical and psychological distress and do not receive treatment for it.
Appendix N (Vietnamese) - Depression is never really ‘black and white’

Tình thần suy nhược không bao giờ rõ ràng như ‘trắng với đen’.
Một vài dữ kiện về tình thần suy nhược.

Bệnh suy thoái tình thần là gì?
Chúng ta ai cũng có những lúc buồn chán. Thường những con buồn chán này có khi kéo dài từ vài giờ đến vài ngày hay nhiều ngày. Thường người nhận nhận của giai đoạn xuống tinh thần này rất hiện nhiên mà cũng có khi chẳng vơi một lý do gì cả. Giai đoạn buồn chán này có thể kéo dài rất lâu, nhất là khi có thanh quản hay bản thân quá đổi. Giai đoạn này được gọi là thời gian đau buồn hay mất mặt.

Bệnh suy thoái tình thần là một giai đoạn biến xuống tinh thần kéo dài nhiều tuần liền, kèm theo nhiều triệu chứng đặc biệt và thể chất lận tình thần. Bệnh này có thể gây ra thầm những vấn đề quan trọng về thể xác, tâm lý xã hội, và cần phải được chữa trị đặc biệt.

Các triệu chứng của bệnh suy thoái tình thần
Bệnh thường có một hay nhiều triệu chứng sau đây:
- buồn bã, dễ khóc
- mất ngủ hay khó ngủ
- đói ăn trong khoảng cơ thể hay ăn mất ngon miệng
- thiếu hụt thư và động lực trong cuộc sống
- cảm thấy mất năng lực và dễ bị mất
- đau mệt toàn thân, mất lái đau đầu và đau bụng
- mất hứng và tinh dục, bất lực
- cảm thấy không thể sống
- cảm thấy bất lực trong cuộc sống
- cảm thấy tò điệu, tự trách mình
- bi quan về cuộc sống tương lai
- bực bội khó chịu
- lở lo
- lãnh lén, kém trí nhớ
- làm dứt nước hay ma tấu

Bệnh có xảy ra thường không?
Bệnh suy thoái tình thần rất thông thường. Cứ trong số bốn người đàn bà hay sau người đàn ông ở Úc thì có một người mắc bệnh này. Nhiều người không biết nguyên nhân gây ra một đau khổ thế xác và tinh thần này để mà chữa trị.

Các loại bệnh suy thoái có giống nhau không?
Có nhiều loại bệnh suy thoái tình thần khác nhau. Thường thì bệnh suy thoái do phản ứng (reactive depression) xảy ra sau một cuộc bệnh nặng, bị căng thẳng thần kinh hay sau khi bị mất một thứ gì. Mắc đau ta có thể hiểu được nguyên do gây ra bệnh, bệnh suy thoái do phản ứng này có thể có nhiều hậu quả nghiêm trọng và cảm chửa chấn thương và đau bớt. Một loại khác, suy thoái nội sinh (endogenous depression), xảy ra không vì một lý do rõ ràng, mà chỉ vì sự thay đổi các hóa chất trong não, các tế bào
Appendix R (English) – Letter from Anthony Albanese, MP

Year of the Dragon

It is with great pleasure that I send New Year greetings to all Vietnamese Australians on the occasion of Tet, as we welcome the Year of the Dragon, which symbolises power, strength and good luck.

New Year is an important time for appreciating the company of family and friends. The dragon is as an auspicious and mythical creature which brings long and good life and I hope you and your family enjoy a prosperous Year of the Dragon.

Tet celebrations hosted in communities across Australia are a wonderful opportunity for Vietnamese Australians to proudly celebrate and share their cultural heritage with all Australians.

On behalf of the Australian Government I would like to commend Vietnamese Australians for their contribution as a community to the economic, social and cultural life of Australia. Vietnamese Australians are renowned for hard work, enterprise, community spirit and strong families.

Australia has been and will continue to be enriched by the arrival of refugees and migrants from many lands. One of the great things about living in a multicultural Australia is that we are able to live together peacefully and share our cultural traditions.

I send my best wishes to all attending Tet New Year celebrations and events and wish all Vietnamese Australians a very Happy New Year with peace, happiness, health and prosperity.

Yours sincerely

The Hon Anthony Albanese MP
Federal Member for Grayndler

Thursday, 19 January 2012
Nam Nhâm Thin

Tôi rất hân hạnh được gửi lời chúc đặc biệt và lời cảm ơn đến bạn bè người Việt gốc Việt nhân dịp Tết Nhâm Thìn, biểu hiện cho năng lực, sức mạnh và sự may mắn.

Năm mới là một thời điểm quan trọng để biển hồ rộ rùng rỡ kết thúc một năm kinh tế và bê bối. Rồng là một con vật gắn với sự tổ hợp và thân thiện, mang sức sống to lớn và lâu dài và tôi hy vọng rằng quý vị và gia đình của quý vị sẽ tận hưởng sự thịnh vượng của năm Nhâm Thìn.

Tết Nguyên Đán được các công đồng trên khắp nước Úc tổ chức và là một cơ hội tuyệt vời để quý vị người Việt hành trình ăn mừng và chia sẻ kinh nghiệm vân hóa của quý vị với tất cả dân chúng Úc.

Dài điện cho Chính Phú Úc tôi xin phép được khen quý vị người Việt gốc Việt về những sự đồng lòng, đoàn kết, tình yêu và tình nghĩa của một cộng đồng, vở dõi sống kinh tế, xã hội và văn hóa của Úc. Người Việt gốc Việt nổi tiếng là những người làm việc chăm chỉ, tận tâm công đồng và giữ được những mối duy trì liên lạc giữ vững chính trị.

Nước Úc đã, đang và sẽ tiếp tục được giàu mạnh thêm với sự hỗ trợ của những người bạn thân và đối phép từ nhiều quốc gia. Một trong những cái lợi lớn về việc sống trong một nước Úc đa văn hóa là việc chúng ta có thể chung sống với nhau trong sự an bình và cùng nhau chia sẻ những truyền thống văn hóa của chúng ta.

Tôi xin được gửi lời chúc tưng tốt đẹp nhất tới quý vị tôi tham dự những Lễ Hội cũng như những sinh hoạt mừng Tết Nguyên Đán, và xin chúc tất cả quý vị người Úc gốc Việt một năm mới tràn đầy hạnh phúc, an bình, sức khỏe và thịnh vượng.

Kính Chúc

The Hon Anthony Albanese MP
Nghi viên liên bang của Grayndler

Thursday, 19 January 2012
(English PTO)
UNG THU VỤ VÀ CHỤP HÌNH NGỰC

Mỗi năm ở Úc có chứng 5000 trường hợp ung thư vú mới phát hiện trong dân số phụ nữ. Không 40% các trường hợp ung thư vú này (đổ 2000 người) sẽ di đến kết quả tử vong của người bệnh.

Ung thư vú được coi là chứng ung thư nguy hiểm nhất cho phụ nữ. Sauer phân trăm dân số phụ nữ bị ung thư vú, hay cứ 15 người phụ nữ thì có một người bị chứng này. Trung bình mỗi năm có chứng 2300 phụ nữ chết vì căn bệnh hiểm nghèo này.

Căng lớn tuổi càng dễ bị ung thư vú, 70% các trường hợp ung thư vú là ở các bạ trên 50 tuổi. Ngoài ra những phụ nữ có thân nhân ruột thit bị ung thư vú thường có nhiều khuyễn huống mắc căn bệnh này hơn.

Có thể là chứng ta không biết chính xác nguyên nhân của ung thư vú, tuy nhiên nếu được chẩn đoán sớm, người bệnh có thể có nhiều cơ hội được chữa lành và sự cải tạo bước ung thư sẽ anh hưởng tốt tiêu lén bệnh.

Với các phương pháp khám ngực thông thường, thì đủ khám ngực bằng tay, một buổi ung thư khi phát hiện có thể đã hiện diện trong vụ trung bình chứng suất năm.

Với phương tiện chụp hình bằng quang tuyến tán tiền như hiện nay bước ung thư có thể phát hiện sớm hơn 1 đến 2 năm.

Chớ đến nay việc chụp hình ngực bằng quang tuyến ghi nhận 16% giảm thiểu về tỷ lệ tử vong ở phụ nữ, hay nơi rõ hơn 370 phụ nữ được cứu sống mỗi năm nhờ ung thư vú được phát hiện sớm bằng chụp hình quang tuyến.

Có người nói ngoài là chụp hình ngực bằng quang tuyến X sẽ bị người hiểu lầm có thể do phong xạ. Thực ra may chup ngày này rất tốt tâm. Người ta ước đoán là việc người hiểu lầm có thể do phong xạ quang tuyến khi chụp hình còn ít hơn nhiều so với việc hút một điều thuộc là.

* * *

Ý thức được sự nghiêm trọng của việc tự tự thuật của phụ nữ vui ung thư vú, vào tháng 3/90, Thủ tướng Hawke đã tuyên bố Chính phủ Liên bang đánh ra 64 triệu đô la, trong vòng 3 năm, để thực hiện chương trình chụp hình ngực cho phụ nữ toàn quốc. Ngân quỹ này tái trớ cho các tiểu bang trên căn bản một đời để la cho một đời.

Cùng trong chiều hoàng đạo, vào tháng 5/91, Ông Bộ trưởng Y tế Tiểu bang NSW đã tuyên bố Chính phủ NSW tài trợ 16 triệu đô la để cung cấp phương tiện chẩn đoán và khám phá kịp thời chứng ung thư vú ở phụ nữ.

Theo Ông Bộ trưởng ung thư vú là nguyên nhân tử vong cao nhất đối với phụ nữ. Chỉ trong năm 1989 tại NSW có 870 phụ nữ qua đời vì bệnh này.
Để báo về tánh mạng, người phụ nữ nên ĐI THÂM BÁC SĨ khi cảm thấy có những thay đổi ở ngực như da ngực bị chai, vú thay đổi hình dạng và kích thước, vú bị đau, núm vú ra chất nhão, núm vú thậu vào trong, da vú có lúm.

Thực ra đa số các thay đổi như vậy thường không do ung thư vú. Tuy nhiên chỉ có các bác sĩ mới có thể cho biết các dấu hiệu này có liên hệ đến ung thư vú hay không.

Các phụ nữ lớn tuổi hơn, từ 40 tuổi trở lên, nên chụp hình ngực mỗi 2 năm. Dịch vụ này do chính phủ tài trợ và hoàn toàn miễn phí. Gọi điện thoại số 319-5441 (Breast Care Clinic) để biết thêm chi tiết hoặc xin hẹn. Trưởng cung nghiệp biết hiện có hai xe chụp hình ngực lưu động tại các vùng phụ cận Sydney.

* * *

Để biết thêm tin tức hay được giúp đỡ về việc chụp hình ngực, quý bà quyet chỉ có thể liên lạc với một nhân viên y tế Việt Nam, làm việc gần nội quy vị cứu ngực sau đây:

-Cabramatta     : chị Tuyết Nguyễn, d/t: 728-7233
-Fairfield      : - Anh Trần     - 727-4244
-Auburn         : - My Na Huá     - 646-2085
-Bankstown      : anh Quang Trương - 790-0055
                 : chị Kim Nguyễn     - 707-4730
-Canterbury/Campsie chi Lan Trương - 789-5555
/Petersham     : - Anh Lê         - 550-9988
-Marrickville  : cô Hua Nguyễn    - 560-4500
                 : hay anh Xuân Dương    - 560-4500

Bài giới thiệu này do Trung Tâm Y tế Cộng đồng Marrickville thực hiện.
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Subhead. 1

1

2

3

4

5

Understanding depression and anti-depression medications
Understanding depression and anti-depression medications
Subhead. 4

Understanding depression and anti-depression medications 576
Understanding depression and anti-depression medication (TT)

Subhead. 1

1

2

3a

3b

4

Understanding depression and anti-depression medication (TT)
Understanding depression and anti-depression medication (TT)
Understanding depression and anti-depression medication (TT)
Understanding depression and anti-depression medication (TT)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 1</strong></td>
<td><strong>What</strong></td>
<td><strong>is depression?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The word “depression”</td>
<td><strong>is often used to describe the feelings of sadness which all of us experience at some stage of our lives.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It</td>
<td><strong>is also a term used to describe a form of mental health problem called clinical depression, which affects a person’s mood over a long time and can include feeling very sad for no clear reason, losing interest in things you usually enjoy, excessive worrying and having problems concentrating and making decisions.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>For some people (CF: Restrictive)</td>
<td><strong>is often accompanied by a feeling of being suspended or floating, worried, anxious and irritable.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>These (Informational Theme)</td>
<td><strong>are called symptoms or signs of depression.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Everyone (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td><strong>feels these at times.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>But if you have had these symptoms for more than a few weeks or if they start to interfere with your life then (CF: Concessive + Conditional)</td>
<td><strong>may have depression</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td><strong>may need to seek help from your doctor or another healthcare worker.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 2</strong></td>
<td><strong>How</strong></td>
<td><strong>is depression treated?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Depression (Informational Theme)</td>
<td><strong>is a condition that can be treated.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The treatment for depression (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>may include a combination of: • medication to help with the symptoms of depression; • talking to a doctor, psychologist, nurse or health worker (counselling); • community supports, friendship and help with everyday things like information; accommodation; finding suitable work; training and education etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>If your doctor has decided that you need antidepressant medication to treat your depression, (CF: Causal: Reason)</td>
<td>this fact sheet (Informational Theme) will help you to understand your medication, how to use it safely and where to get more information.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 3</strong></td>
<td><strong>What</strong> (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>is antidepressant medication?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>People with depression (Interactional Theme: Impersonal: Distant)</td>
<td>often have an imbalance of certain chemicals in the brain.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Antidepressant medications are medicines that (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>help reduce the symptoms or signs of depression by helping the brain restore its usual chemical balance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>In Australia (CF: Locative) there are (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>many different types of antidepressant medication and the companies that make them also give them different names.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The right one for you (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>will depend on your age, the symptoms you have and any other medication you may be taking.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 4</strong></td>
<td><strong>How do</strong> (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>I get antidepressant medication?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Only (CF: Restrictive) a medical doctor (a general practitioner [GP] or psychiatrist) (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can give you antidepressant medication.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Once the doctor works out which medicine is right for you, (CF: Situational) he/she (Interactional Theme: Formal)</td>
<td>will put it on a piece of paper (called a prescription or script) which describes which drug you need, what strength it should be, how many you should get and how often you should take it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>This information (Informational Theme) is for you to take to your pharmacist or chemist.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When you give the script to your pharmacist, (CF: Situational) he/she (Interactional Theme: Formal) will then give you the medicine.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX (O) - Understanding depression and antidepressant medication (TT) – Theme-Rheme structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 1</strong></td>
<td>Feeling “low” illness – (CF: Pointer)</td>
<td>is (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>The term “feeling low” (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is often used to describe the feelings of sadness which all of us have experienced at some stage of our lives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>It (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is also a term used to describe a form of mental health problem generally called “clinically feeling low” (“clinical depression”),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td></td>
<td>this illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>affects someone’s mood over a long period,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme: Elided)</td>
<td>can include feeling very sad for no reason, losing interest in things you usually enjoy, excessive worrying and having difficulties concentrating and making decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>For some people (CF: Restrictive)</td>
<td>the “clinically feeling low” (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is usually accompanied by a feeling of hovering or floating, worry, fear and irritation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>The above (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>are called symptoms or signs of the “feeling low” illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Each of us</td>
<td>feels like this at times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>But if you have had these symptoms for more than several weeks or if they start to disturb your life then (CF: Concessive + Situational)</td>
<td>you (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>may have the “feeling low” illness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>you (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>may need to seek help from your doctor or from another health professional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 2</strong></td>
<td>Feeling “low” illness (CF: Pointer)</td>
<td>is treated (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Feeling “low” is an illness which (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can be treated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 9  | The treatment (Informational Theme) | include:  
- Medication for the treatment of symptoms caused by feeling “low” illness.  
- Discussion with a doctor, psychologist, nurse or health worker (counseling); and  
- Support of the community, friendship and assistance with daily activities such as information, accommodation, suitable employment, training and education etc. |
<p>| 10 | If your doctor has decided that you need anti-feeling low medication to help with your illness then (CF: Causal: Reason) this pamphlet (Informational Theme) will help you understand thoroughly about your medication, how to use it safely and where to get more information. |
| Subhead. 3 | Anti-feeling “low” medication (CF: Pointer) is (Interactional Theme) what? |
| 11 | People with feeling “low” illness (Interactional Theme) usually have a lack of balance in some chemical factors in their brain. |
| 12 | Anti-feeling low medications (Informational Theme) are those which reduce symptoms or signs of the illness by helping the brain to recover the balance of its normal chemicals. |
| 13 | In Australia (CF: Locative) there are (Existential Theme) various types of anti-feeling “low” medication and pharmaceutical companies also give them different names. |
| 14 | A suitable type of medication for you (Interactional Theme) will depend on your age, symptoms and any medications you may currently be using. |
| Subhead. 4 | How can (Interactional Theme) I get anti-feeling “low” medication? |
| 15 | Only (CF: Restrictive) a doctor (a GP or a psychiatrist) (Informational Theme) can give you anti-feeling “low” medication. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Once the doctor has determined which medication is suitable for you, (CF: Situational)</th>
<th>he or she (Interactional Theme: Formal) then writes on a piece of paper (called a prescription) describing which medication you need, how powerful it is, how much you can buy and how often you will take it.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>This (Informational Theme) is for you to take to a chemist or a pharmacist.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When you present the prescription to the pharmacist then (CF: Situational + Sequential) this person (Interactional Theme: Impersonal: Distant) will give you medication.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (ST)
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (ST)
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (ST)
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (ST)
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (TT)
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about depression (TT)

5

6a

6b

Subhead. 2

7

8
Depression is never really ‘black and white’- Some facts about depression (TT)
Depression is never really 'black and white' - Some facts about depression (TT)
### APPENDIX (P) - Depression is never really ‘black and white’ – Some facts about depression (ST) – Theme-Rheme structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
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<th>Informational/Interactional Existential Theme</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 1</strong></td>
<td><strong>Depression – (CF: Pointer)</strong></td>
<td><strong>What</strong> (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td><strong>is it?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>All people (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>experience periods of sadness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Usually (CF: Frequent)</td>
<td>these (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>last for only one to several hours or days.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Often the cause of this lowered mood is obvious; sometimes (CF: Frequent + Contrastive)</td>
<td>it (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>occurs for no reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Some people (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>experience more prolonged periods of sadness following the loss of a friend or family member.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>This (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is usually described as grief or bereavement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>A depressive illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is a persistent lowering of mood lasting for several weeks at a time,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme: Elided)</td>
<td>[is] accompanied by a specific group of physical and psychological symptoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>This (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>may cause serious physical, psychological and social problems,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>[this] (Informational Theme: Elided)</td>
<td>requires specific treatment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Subhead. 2

**What (Interactional Theme)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Any of the following (Informational Theme)</th>
<th>may be part of a depressive illness:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Feeling sad, crying easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sleep disturbance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Change in appetite and weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Loss of interest and motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Loss of energy and becoming easily fatigued</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Physical aches and pains, especially headache or abdominal pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Loss of sexual interest, impotence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Feeling that life is not worth living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Feeling of helplessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Guilt, and self reproachful thoughts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Pessimism regarding the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Irritability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Confusion, poor memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Alcohol or drug abuse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subhead. 3

**How common (Interactional Theme)**

- Depression (Informational Theme) is a very common illness.
- 1 in 4 women and 1 in 6 men in Australia (Interactional Theme) suffer from a depressive illness during their lifetime.
- Many (Interactional Theme) are unaware of the cause of their physical and psychological distress.
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about Depression (ST)

| 11b | (Structural: Additive) and [they] do not (Interactional Theme: Elided) receive treatment for it. |
| Subhead. 4 | Are (Interactional Theme) all types of Depression the same? |
| 12 | Many different types of depressive illness (Informational Theme) exist. |
| 13a | Although “understandable” (CF: Concessive) this reactive depression (Informational Theme) may have serious consequences, |
| 13b | and (Structural: Additive) [it] (Informational Theme: Elided) requires specialised and specific treatment. |
| 14a | The other major type of depression, endogenous depression, (Informational Theme) occurs for no obvious cause, |
| 14b | and (Structural: Additive) [it] (Informational Theme: Elided) is due to changes in various brain chemicals, the neurotransmitters. |
| 15 | Sometimes (CF: Restrictive) people with this biological type of depression (Interactional Theme) also experience periods of elevated mood or highs. |
| 16 | When both highs and depressed periods of mood occur, (CF: Situational) the mood disorder (Informational Theme) is termed bipolar affective disorder. |
### APPENDIX (P) - Depression is never really ‘black and white’ – Some facts about depression (TT) – Theme-Rheme structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subhead. 1</strong></td>
<td>“Mental recession” illness – (CF: Pointer)</td>
<td>is (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>We all (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>feel sad at times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Usually (CF: Frequent)</td>
<td>these periods of sadness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>will last from several hours to several days or many days.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>Normally (CF: Evaluative)</td>
<td>the cause of this mentally lowered mood period (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is very obvious,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>but (Structural: Contrastive)</td>
<td>it (Interpersonal Theme)</td>
<td>also occurs for no reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>The period of sadness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can last for a long time, especially when someone’s relative or close friend has just died.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>This period (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can be called the period of grief or loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>“Mental recession” illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is a mentally lowered mood period that lasts for many weeks,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>[it] (Informational Theme: Elided)</td>
<td>[is] accompanied by many specific mental and physical symptoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>This illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>may cause many important physical and socio-psychological issues which need to be treated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Depression is never really ‘black and white’ - Some facts about Depression (TT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subhead. 2</th>
<th>Symptoms of “mental recession” illness (Nominal Group)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 8          | The illness (Informational Theme) often consists of one or many of the following symptoms:  
feeling sad, crying easily  
sleeplessness or having difficulty sleeping  
weight change or loss of appetite  
lack of interest and motivation in life  
lack of energy and easily feeling fatigued  
aching all over, especially headache and stomachache  
lack of sexual drive, [or] impotence  
feeling life is not worth living  
feeling powerless  
feeling guilty, self-blame  
feeling pessimistic about the future  
feeling irritated, uncomfortable  
worry  
confusion, [and] forgetfulness  
alcohol and other drug abuse |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subhead. 3</th>
<th>The illness (Informational Theme) happens often?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>“Mental recession” illness (Informational Theme) is very common.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Among four women or six men in Australia (CF: Comparative) there is (Existential Theme) one with this illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Many people (Interactional Theme) do not know what is the cause of this physical and mental suffering in order to treat it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subhead. 4</td>
<td>[These] types of “mental recession” illness (CF: Pointer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>[These] types of “mental recession” illness (CF: Pointer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Usually (CF: Frequent) recession illness caused by reaction (reactive depression) (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14a</td>
<td>Although we may understand the cause of it, (CF: Concessive + Situational) this type of illness (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive) [it] (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Another type of “mental recession” illness, “endogenous recession” illness (endogenous depression), (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>People with this biological type of illness (Interactional Theme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When both the feelings of high and depressed happen at the same time, (CF: Situational) this condition (Informational Theme)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DIAGRAM (Q) - Coping with mental illness in the family (ST)

1a

Interact Theme

RHEME

1b

Structural: Contrastive

TC: Subj: Implicit

RHEME

2

CF: Concessive + Situational

Info Theme

RHEME

3a

CF: Additive

Existential Theme

RHEME

3b

Structural: Contrastive

Interact Theme

RHEME

4

Info Theme

RHEME

Coping with mental illness in the family
Coping with mental illness in the family
Coping with mental illness in the family
Coping with mental illness in the family
Coping with mental illness in the family (TT)
Coping with mental illness in the family (TT)
Coping with mental illness in the family (TT)
Coping with mental illness in the family (TT)
### APPENDIX (Q) - Coping with mental illness in the family (ST) – Theme-Rheme structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
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<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td></td>
<td>Having someone in the family with a chronic physical illness (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>can be hard to cope with-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>but (Structural: Contrastive)</td>
<td>it can be even worse (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>for families living with a relative who is, not physically, but mentally ill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Although mental illness is so common that it affects one in four people in Australia from all cultural backgrounds, (CF: Concessive + Situational)</td>
<td>it (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>[is] still misunderstood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>Then (CF: Additive)</td>
<td>there is (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>the idea that if someone has recovered from a mental illness like a &quot;nervous breakdown&quot;, they are still mentally &quot;weak&quot; in some way .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>yet (Structural: Contrastive)</td>
<td>people with a mental illness (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>can have a full recovery just the same as anyone can recover completely from a physical illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Another problem (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>is that a lot of people feel very uneasy or embarrassed if a mentally ill person behaves in an unusual or different way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Attitudes like these (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>even make families of mentally ill patients suffer more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Some families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>feel they have to hide their relative’s illness from the rest of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>Or (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>may feel isolated,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>either because (Structural: Alternative + CF: Causal)</td>
<td>it’s difficult (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>to invite people home,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7c</td>
<td>or because (Structural: Alternative + CF: Causal)</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>may be shunned by other people - including other members of their family who avoid visiting them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It's important (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td></td>
<td>that families in this situation don't try to cope with the problem alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Like any illness, (CF: Comparative)</td>
<td>mental illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can be treated more easily if it's detected early.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sometimes (CF: Restrictive)</td>
<td>families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>ignore the symptoms of mental illness, hoping things will get better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11a</td>
<td>But the chances are (Structural: Adversative + CF: Situational)</td>
<td>things (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>will get worse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>the person (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>may need to be hospitalised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11c</td>
<td>when (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>could have been treated at home if they’d been diagnosed earlier.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The same (Informational Theme)</td>
<td></td>
<td>goes for families living with a relative who has been diagnosed with an illness such as schizophrenia or manic depression, for instance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>If they begin to behave strangely or refuse to take medication that helps control their illness, (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>it can be tempting (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>to hope the problem will pass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>But (CF: Adversative)</td>
<td>this (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can make things worse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>It is much better (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td></td>
<td>to contact the doctor treating the person, or the mental health team at the nearest hospital or community health centre to get professional help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td>This makes it easier (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>to control the illness and keep the person stable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td>If someone in your family is mentally ill, (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>[you] try (Interactional Theme) to learn as much about the illness as possible.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>18a</strong></td>
<td>This (Informational Theme) helps you know what to expect and how to cope with it -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>18b</strong></td>
<td>mental health workers (Informational Theme) can give you advice on how to cope with and communicate with someone who is having delusions or hallucinations, for example, or someone who is depressed or threatening suicide.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td>Being informed can also stop you blaming yourself – (CF: Causal: Reason) many families (Interactional Theme) feel they may have somehow caused their relative’s illness, but this isn’t true.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td>Many factors (Informational Theme) can combine to cause mental illness.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21a</strong></td>
<td>There may be (Existential Theme) an inherited disposition,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21b</strong></td>
<td>[there may be] (Existential Theme) a chemical imbalance in the brain,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21c</strong></td>
<td>there may be (Existential Theme) life stresses like unemployment, retirement, breakdown or even migration.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td>But (CF: Contrastive) no one (Interactional Theme) is to blame for the illness - neither the patient nor the family.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX (Q) - Coping with mental illness in the family (TT) – Theme-Rheme structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause/Subheading</th>
<th>Contextual frame/Structural Theme</th>
<th>Informational/Interactional/Existential Theme</th>
<th>Rheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Usually, if in [your] family (CF: Frequent + Situational)</td>
<td>there is (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>a person with chronic [physical] illness, worries, [and] care are hard to cope with;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>let alone if (CF: Contrastive)</td>
<td>your relative (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>suffers a mental illness, then care is even more difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>And although in Australia among every four people there is one with mental illness, (Structural: Additive + CF: Concessive + Situational)</td>
<td>not many people (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>thoroughly understand the above illnesses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>For example, (CF: Highlighting)</td>
<td>one (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>usually thinks people with mental illness are often violent, or have aggressive attitudes and actions, but this is not totally correct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[There are] others who think that even after recovering from their illness, (CF: Additive)</td>
<td>the patients (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>are not completely cured; their mental health is still “weak”, etc…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[There are] yet others who (Existential Theme)</td>
<td>feel uncomfortable, or embarrassed when seeing a mentally ill patient acts, [and] behaves “oddly” or [is] “unlike others” at all.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The above misconceptions (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>make families of mentally ill patients even suffer more.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>Many families (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>have to hide this problem from people,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>[they] (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>feel isolated,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7c</td>
<td>[they] (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>don’t want people to come to visit them;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7d</td>
<td>people who (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>are around them (including members of their family) don’t want to come close to them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>What is important (TC: Objective: Explicit)</td>
<td>is that families with a mentally ill relative should not deal with these problems themselves, but should seek help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Like other illnesses, if it is detected early, (CF: Comparative + Situational)</td>
<td>mental illness (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>can easily be treated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Many families find one of their relative has some unusual symptom, (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>[they] (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>often ignore it hoping that the illness would go away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11a</td>
<td>However, if leaving it untreated for too long, (CF: Adversative + Causal)</td>
<td>the situation (Informational Theme)</td>
<td>will get worse,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11b</td>
<td>and (Structural: Additive)</td>
<td>the patient (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>will need to be hospitalized;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11c</td>
<td>while, if it is detected early, (CF: Contrastive + Situational)</td>
<td>the patient (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>can be treated at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Families of a schizophrenic or someone with manic depression (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>have similar problem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>If the patient refuses to take medication or behaves strangely, (CF: Situational)</td>
<td>their family (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>tends to ignore it hoping that through time the illness would go away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>However, by doing that (CF: Adversative + Situational)</td>
<td>they (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>only make the patient’s conditions worsen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The best way is (TC: Subjective: Implicit)</td>
<td>to approach the doctor who treats your relative, or [to contact] a mental health team at the hospital or at the local community health centre for their advice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>In the case (CF: Conditional)</td>
<td>your family (Interactional Theme)</td>
<td>has someone with mental illness the more you know about this illness, the better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It will help you to understand more about the patient’s conditions and how to deal with them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Mental health experts can advise you on how to care for, communicate with and comfort a patient who has hallucinations, or someone is depressed or insists on killing him/herself.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Understanding more about mental illness also helps prevent you from feeling guilty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Mental health experts can advise you on how to care for, communicate with and comfort a patient who has hallucinations, or someone is depressed or insists on killing him/herself.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Mental health experts can advise you on how to care for, communicate with and comfort a patient who has hallucinations, or someone is depressed or insists on killing him/herself.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21a</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21b</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21c</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Mental illness is caused by many factors;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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