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Chinese-English Translation of Passive Constructions

Final Year Project

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Declaration of Authorship

I declare that this assignment is my own original work, unless otherwise referenced, as defined by the NTU policy on plagiarism. I have read the NTU Honour Code and Pledge.

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Ko Jia Min Tabitha	_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _	19 November 2012
Name	Signature	Date

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Abbreviations, Symbols and Typographical conventions

1SG	first person singular pronoun
3SG	third person singular pronoun
AFF	affectedness marker
NLT	native language text
NP	NOUN phrase
PART	particle
PSV	passive morpheme
Sb.	somebody
SL	source language
ST	source text
TL	target language
TT	target text
VP	VERB phrase
SMALL CAPITALS	technical terms
Italics	cited forms; abstract concepts; and for secondary emphasis
Bold type	for primary emphasis
Underlined	for marking PREPOSITIONS
‘Single quotation marks’	for English gloss
“Double quotation marks”	for quotations from other authors
*	for marking ungrammatical or erroneous interpretations
>	for intended interpretations
(Parentheses)	for enclosing optional elements

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Abstract

Retrieval of accurate translations is crucial in today's technologically advanced world where intercultural communications are frequent and necessary. Past research surrounding passives and translations has largely focused on English-Chinese translations. Therefore, this paper seeks to provide new insight by concentrating on Chinese-English passive translations. In view of past observations, five hypotheses are proposed: (i) BEI++ hypothesis; (ii) RANG+ hypothesis; (iii) BE+ hypothesis; (iv) GET-control hypothesis; (v) BY-ACTOR hypothesis. For the purpose of this study, a Chinese-English multilingual corpus from Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) was used. Three of the proposed hypotheses, namely BEI++ hypothesis, BE+ hypothesis and GET-control hypothesis, were supported. However, the RANG+ hypothesis and BY-ACTOR hypothesis were not supported. Additionally, the reduction of Chinese passives to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASES and two new types of Chinese passive constructions were noticed. Furthermore, analysis of English translations exhibited other types of English passives previously overlooked. Results also illustrated the influence of both source language (SL) and target language (TL) norms in translations. An examination assessing current machine translations indicated a lack of appropriate translations. Thus, two sets of actions for Chinese-English passive translation have been proposed. Future research exploring the application of the proposed actions is recommended.

1. Introduction

A common tool in today's communicative world, translation is the representation of one language's written or spoken information in another language (Xǔ Jiàn Píng, 2003). Undoubtedly, communities across the world would share certain ideologies and concepts. As such, the translation of these communal ideas and notions would be deemed easier due to the fact that they are shared (i.e. universal). Nevertheless, each community would also possess individual theories and worldviews creating a distinction of identity. Often, language, as a means of communication within and across populations, is the container that holds the characteristics of a society, and the key that enables others to unravel these contained attributes.

For example, passive can be considered a shared concept between English and Chinese, but a distinguishing factor between English and Enga, a Papuan language (Li & Lang, 1979). At the same time, the difference in the constructions of passives differentiates English and Chinese.

In modern society, technology has intensified the regularity of cross-cultural communications. Together with a worldwide web of knowledge, the demand for accurate information to be readily available is high. Thus, both human and machine translators are required and highly sought after to meet the needs of today's world. While a proper and acute translation advances mutual understanding between peoples of diverse cultural and social backgrounds, an improper or misinterpretation of words or expressions may result in confusion (Xǔ Jiàn Píng, 2003).

Therefore, this study seeks to discover and suggest possible patterns and actions of translation that could better facilitate the translation process.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Grammatical functions & Semantic roles

The smallest unit of syntax is a word, while the largest unit of syntax is a sentence. In general, a sentence can be formed by a single clause or a combination of clauses.[1] The relationship between the verb phrase, which is the head of each clause, and its complements can be reflected through grammatical functions and semantic roles (Miller, 2002). Hence, it is essential to provide a brief description of functions and roles before any discussion on sentence constructions in order to fully understand the formation and difference between various sentence constructions.

The basic grammatical functions prevalent in the grammars of most languages in the world are:

(a) SUBJECT: the first of two parts of the sentence; usually the topic about which something is predicated

[adapted from Klammer, Schulz & Della Volpe, 2010:433]

(b) OBJECT: a term used in the analysis of grammatical functions to refer to a major constituent or sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with the 'receiver' or 'goal' of an action

Conventional analysis distinguishes two categories of OBJECTS:

(i) DIRECT OBJECT: a NOUN phrase (NP) denoting the goal or the result of the action of the verb

[1] For further readings on sentence formation and clause structure refer to Miller, J. (2002). *An introduction to English syntax*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

(ii) INDIRECT OBJECT: an NP representing the secondary goal of the action of the verb

[adapted from Crystal, 2008; Batzarov, 2000]

Aside from their grammatical functions, arguments within a clause also employ semantic roles that help build the context of the situations. The major semantic roles and their prototypical explanations are:

(a) AGENT: the initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition

(b) PATIENT: the entity undergoing the effect of some action typically performed by an AGENT

(c) INSTRUMENT: an entity prototypically used by an AGENT performing an action

(d) EXPERIENCER: the entity which is aware of the action of state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action or state

(e) STIMULUS: entity causing an effect in the EXPERIENCER

(f) BENEFICIARY: the entity for whose benefit the action was performed

(g) THEME: the entity which is moved by an action, or whose location is described

(h) SOURCE: the entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically

(i) GOAL: the entity towards which something moves, either literally or metaphorically

(j) LOCATION: the place in which something is situated

[adapted from Huddleston & Pullum, 2002:230-233; Saeed, 2009:153-154]

2.2 Variations and Translation

Norms are standards or models that provide guidelines on correct and appropriate behavior within a community. Linguistically, norms are represented through the grammatical features of a language. Without a doubt, distinct societal and cultural norms would produce languages of varying linguistic structures. Often, the translation of one language is unable to be an accurate representation of another.

For example, Irish has a type of passive construction identified as IMPERSONAL PASSIVE, which forbids the mentioning of the AGENT argument (Saeed, 2009). Even though English passive constructions allow the omission of the AGENT phrase, it seems that Irish IMPERSONAL PASSIVES cannot be accurately translated into English.

(1)

(i) Thug siad Siobhán abhaile inniu
brought they Joan home today
'they brought Joan home today' (active)

(ii) Tugadh Siobhán abhaile inniu
brought-IMPERS Joan home today
'Joan was brought home today' (passive)

[Saeed, 2009:173]

Similar to the Irish passive, the English passive translation in (1ii) does not state the AGENT. However, the translation provided is not equivalent of its Irish counterpart. While, the English passive translation presented in (1ii) still adheres to the typical non-AGENT promotion movement, the non-AGENT argument of the Irish passive is still in the OBJECT position and has not been promoted to SUBJECThood (Saeed, 2009).

The visible discrepancies between SOURCE TEXTS (ST) and TARGET TEXTS (TT) have been consistently noticed. Picchi and Peters (1997) observe that TT do not represent the full range of linguistic possibilities of the TARGET LANGUAGE (TL). Thus, translations have been

viewed as either a mere reflection of the idiosyncrasies of the SOURCE LANGUAGE (SL) (Picchi et al., 1997), or an unrepresented unique variant of the TL itself (McEnery & Xiao, 2007). Regardless, researchers have found and agreed that the translational language is different from SL and TL (Frawley, 1984; Olohan & Baker, 2000).

A contrastive study on the encoding of possession in English and Spanish highlights the issue of interlingual impoverishments (Sequeiros, 1998). Whilst English explicitly encodes possession linguistically (i.e. (2)), Spanish seems to prefer implicitly encoding possession (i.e. (3)).

(2) He puts his hand in his pocket

(3) Se metió la mano en el bolsillo
3SG put the hand in the pocket
'He puts his hand in his pocket' / 'He puts the hand in the pocket'

[Sequeiros, 1998:147]

Although Spanish is capable of explicitly encoding possession linguistically, an inclination for implicitness has been observed in the possessive structures of Spanish (Gómez Torrego, 1992). Thus, despite the existence of a direct translation equivalent of (2) (i.e. (4)), (3) is more commonly used.

(4) Se metió su mano en su bolsillo
3SG put 3SG.Poss hand in 3SG.Poss pocket
'He puts his hand in his pocket'

[Sequeiros, 1998:147]

As a result, TT that undergo similar translation processes as (3) would bear an increased ambiguity in their interpretations. Yet, a translation of (4) would be conspicuous and foreign in the TL. It seems, then, that either way the TT would be unable to comfortably and accurately represent the ST in the TL.

Studies comparing Chinese translated texts and Chinese NATIVE LANGUAGE TEXTS (NLT) have also highlighted several lexical and syntactical differences between translations and NLT. Recent research has found a significantly lower ratio of lexical to function words in Chinese translations than Chinese NLT (Xiao, 2010). Likewise, a significantly lower percentage of lexical density in Chinese fiction translations compared to Chinese fiction NLT have been reported (Xiao & Yue, 2009). Results of past research have also indicated a higher occurrence of conjunctions in Chinese translations than in Chinese NLT even though the frequency of conjunctions varies according to genre (Xiao, 2010). In addition, the type of conjunctions used, similarly, differs across translated texts and NLT. That is, formal conjunctions are more common in Chinese NLT, while informal and simple conjunctions are more frequent in Chinese translations (Xiao, 2010).

It seems, then, that there is a need to overcome translation constraints in order to achieve a balance between ST and TT. In attempts to attain translation equivalence, translators test and employ different strategies.

For example, translators may choose to imitate grammatical features of the SL, as in the case of translating English nominal characterization to Spanish. English typically uses pre-modifying adjectives (40%) for nominal characterization, and infrequently uses prepositional *of*-phrases (5%) (Rabadán, Labrador & Ramón, 2009).

(5) A **wonderful** time

(6) A day **of celebration**

On the other hand, nominal descriptions in Spanish are often illustrated through prepositional *de*-phrases (33.97%), and occasionally marked by pre-modifying adjectives (5.59%) (Rabadán et al., 2009).

(7) El tiempo **de la fiesta**
the time PP the party
'the time of the party'

(8) Un **buen** momento
a ADJ moment
'a good moment'

However, results from the study show an overuse of pre-modifying adjectives (18.21%), and an underuse of prepositional *de*-phrase (16.23%) in English-Spanish translation texts (Rabadán et al., 2009). These results clearly show a conformation towards SL norms.

Typically, once a strategy is proven successful, the linguistic choice will be repeatedly used, and a general pattern would ensue (Yang & Li, 2003). Baker (1993) observes that, despite having different SL and translators, all translations seem to share particular linguistic features.

For instance, TT has been reported to show lower frequencies of language-specific elements. This phenomenon is known as the unique items hypothesis (Trikkonen-Condit, 2005; Rabadán et al., 2009). A contrastive study on the representation of past time in English and Spanish provides a clear illustration. In order to express past time, English uses unmarked past forms whilst Spanish requires a choice between the PRETERITE and the IMPERFECT TENSE (Rabadán et al., 2009). In Spanish, the PRETERITE always implies *absolute past*, but the IMPERFECT TENSE accounts for a wider array of meanings, including *absolute past*, *anaphoric past*, *past habit*, *hypothetical past*, *progressive* and *irrealis* (Rabadán, 2005). Yet, English-Spanish translations show no evidence of the IMPERFECT TENSE as *absolute past*. Instead, all instances of *absolute past* have been indicated only by the PRETERITE (Rabadán et al., 2009).

Many studies have also revealed other common features that TT tend to exhibit, such as explicitation (Blum-Kulka, 1986; Toury, 1991), simplification (Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Laviosa-Braithwaite, 1996), conventionalization or normalization (Baker, 1996; Mauranen, 2007), and so on. These shared linguistic properties of translated

languages, which differ from the native SL and TL, irrespective of the languages used, have been identified as TRANSLATION UNIVERSALS (TU) (Baker, 1993).

The influential power of translation and TU over time has been highlighted through an investigation on passive constructions between English and Persian. While the common function of English and Persian passives is to impersonalize, Persian adopts other devices, like the use of first person plural, to mark formality and objectivity (Amouzadeh & House, 2010). However, comparison between texts from the early stages (1950-1965) and recent periods (1995-2004) of translation revealed a significant increase in the use of passives in translated and Persian NLT (Amouzadeh et al., 2010). Moreover, this increase in use of passive constructions is found to be strongly correlated with the decrease in use of first person plural forms in NLT (Amouzadeh et al., 2010). This result suggests a probability that, over time, the native language may adopt the supposed norms of translated languages.

Therefore, contrastive analysis is crucial for the identification of translation patterns in order to ease the achievement of translation equivalence between two distinct languages. Furthermore, the recognition of translation patterns would provide a foundation for the possibility of language change and its future research.

2.3 Passives and universality

A system where "contrasting forms differ in the way semantic roles are aligned with (grammatical) functions, normally with some concomitant marking on the verb" is titled *voice* (Huddleston et al., 2002:1427). In brief, the *voice* categorization of a clause (i.e. active or passive) is determined according to the alignment of roles with functions within the clause.

Generally, a clause headed by a grammatical SUBJECT with an active semantic role (e.g. AGENT) is considered active (9). On the other hand, a clause headed by a syntactic SUBJECT with a passive semantic role (e.g. PATIENT) is passive (10).

(9) Active

The child ate the candy.

(10) Passive

The candy was eaten by the child.

Historically, the term passive is derived from the past participle of a Latin Verb – "*passus sum* (having-suffered I-am, that is, 'I have suffered')" (Miller, 2002, p.26). Thus, studies have indicated that the basic purpose of passive constructions is to highlight the PATIENT and its affectedness (Xiao, McEnery & Qian, 2006).

However, not all clauses express action. As such, passive clauses that do not express action would not have an AGENT phrase per se (Huddleston et al., 2002). In note of this observation, this paper would refer to all syntactic SUBJECTS with active semantic roles as ACTOR instead of the frequently used AGENT.[2] Additionally, all syntactic SUBJECTS with passive semantic roles will be referred to as UNDERGOER.[3]

Two main characteristics of passive constructions have been consistently reported across languages. First, the NP referring to the affected participant is commonly placed at the front of the clause (Miller, 2002). This is also known as argument promotion, where the UNDERGOER argument is being promoted from OBJECT to SUBJECT position (Huang, 1999).

Second, the NP referring to the participant that commits the action (i.e. ACTOR) is consequently perceived as insignificant and, in some cases, redundant. Research has shown that approximately 95% of passive constructions omit the ACTOR NP (Miller, 2002). These 'ACTOR-less' passive constructions are called SHORT PASSIVES (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999; Miller, 2002). On the other hand, passive constructions that mention the ACTOR are known as LONG PASSIVES (Biber et al., 1999; Miller, 2002).

[2] ACTOR is a general term applicable to AGENT, EXPERIENCER and other active semantic roles (Kailuweit & Hummel, 2004)

[3] UNDERGOER is a general term applicable to PATIENT, THEME, RECIPIENT and other passive semantic roles (Kailuweit et al., 2004)

2.4 Passive constructions in Mandarin Chinese

Passive constructions in Mandarin Chinese have been widely discussed. Collectively, past studies have proposed two ways of constructing passives in Mandarin Chinese. Firstly, passive constructions in Mandarin Chinese can be overtly marked through the addition of a passive morpheme (Zhāng Yù Xiǎo, 2004). This type of passive construction is known as SYNTACTIC PASSIVE (McEnery & Xiao, 2005).

The main purpose of the passive morpheme in syntactic passives is to mark the UNDERGOER status of the subject (Methven, 2006). Typically, the passive morpheme is added directly before the VERB. However, if the ACTOR NP is present, the passive morpheme should be placed between the UNDERGOER SUBJECT NP and the ACTOR NP.

(11) UNDERGOER SUBJECT NP + PASSIVE MORPHEME (+ ACTOR NP) + VP

The most common type of SYNTACTIC PASSIVE is the BEI PASSIVE construction. While some have viewed bèi (被) as a PREPOSITION (Wang, 1970; Li & Thompson, 1981; McCawley, 1992), others have regarded it as a verb (Hsueh, 1989; Chiu, 1993; Ting, 1998; Bender, 2000). However, Cann and Wu (2006) have refuted both claims and suggest that BEI has fully grammaticalised from a lexical category to a functional category. The authors further propose that the function of bèi is "(to signal) the preceding argument is the passive recipient of the action" (Cann et al., 2006, p.38). Similarly, recent studies have observed that, in most passive constructions, bèi is a function word with no inherent meaning other than to mark passive (McEnery et al., 2005; Xiao et al., 2006).

For the purpose of this study, bèi will be considered as a passive morpheme.

(12)

(a) BEI PASSIVE

钱包 **被** （小偷） 偷 了

qiánbāo bèi xiǎotōu tōu le

wallet PSV thief steal PART

'the wallet was stolen (by a/the thief)'

(b) Active Counterpart

小偷 偷 了 钱包

xiǎotōu tōu le qiánbāo

thief steal PART wallet

'the thief stole the wallet'

Similar to English passives, the ACTOR NP in bèi passives can be disregarded or mentioned. Likewise, SYNTACTIC PASSIVES with another passive morpheme, gěi (给), can also be categorized as SHORT or LONG PASSIVES (Xiao et al., 2006).

(13)

(a) GEI PASSIVE

弟弟 也 **给** （公司） 辞 了

dìdì yě gěi gōngsī cí le

younger brother also PSV company terminate PART

'the younger brother was also fired (by the company)'

(b) Active Counterpart

公司 也 辞 了 弟弟

gōngsī yě cí le dìdì

company also terminate PART younger brother

'the company also fired the younger brother'

Apart from bèi and gěi, other SYNTACTIC PASSIVES include RANG PASSIVE, JIAO PASSIVE and WEI…SUO PASSIVE. However, these constructions seem to only appear with ACTOR arguments as LONG PASSIVES (Shi, 1997; Tang, 2001; Xiao et al., 2006).

(14)

(a) RANG PASSIVE

我 让 他 偷 了 四 块钱

wǒ ràng tā tōu le sì kuài qián

1SG PSV/allow 3SG steal PART four dollars

'I had four dollars stolen by him'/ 'I had (allowed) him to steal four dollars'

(b) Active Counterpart

他 偷 了 我 四 块钱

tā tōu le wǒ sì kuài qián

3SG steal PART 1SG four dollars

'he stole my four dollars'

(15)

(a) JIAO PASSIVE

我 叫 他 偷 了 四 块钱

wǒ jiào tā tōu le sì kuài qián

1SG PSV/ tell 3SG steal PART four dollars

'I had four dollars stolen by him'/ 'I told him to steal four dollars'

(b) Active Counterpart

他 偷 了 我 的 四 块钱

tā tōu le wǒ de sì kuài qián

3SG steal PART 1SG de four dollars

'he stole my four dollars'

(16)

(a) WEI…SUO PASSIVE

她 **为** 他 的 爱 **所** 感动

tā wèi tā de ài suó gǎndòng

3SG PSV 3SG PART love PSV move (sb.)

'she was moved by his love'

(b) Active Counterpart

他 的 爱 感动 了 她

tā de ài gǎndòng le tā

3SG PART love move (sb.) PART 3SG

'his love moved her'

Past studies have also observed that gěi is able to co-occur with bèi, jiào (叫) or ràng (让) in LONG PASSIVE constructions (Tang, 2001). In these constructions, gěi is said to function more as an *affectedness marker* (AFF) as opposed to a passive morpheme (Tang, 2001). That is, the role of gěi is to intensify the affectedness of the UNDERGOER argument.

(17) 我 妈 **被/叫/让** 车 **给** 撞伤 了

wǒ mā bèi/jiào/ràng chē gěi zhuàngshāng le

POSS mom PSV car AFF injured PART

'my mom was injured by a car'

[adapted from Xiao et al., 2006]

In addition, aside from marking passive, gěi, jiào and ràng have other grammatical functions. While gěi can be used as either a verb expressing 'to give' or a PREPOSITION, jiào can only be used as "a verb meaning 'to call' or 'to order'" (Ross & Ma, 2006:103). Similarly, ràng can only be used as a verb conveying permission (Ross et al., 2006). Due to their verbal functions, the lack of a following OBJECT NP creates an ambiguous situation as gěi, jiào and ràng can be interpreted as a passive morpheme or a verb (18). Usually, the context of the situation helps alleviate the ambiguity and provide clarification.

(18) 教授 让 学生 批评 了
jiàoshòu ràng xuésheng piping le
professor PSV/to allow students to criticize PART
'the professor was criticized by the students'/ 'the professor now allows the students to criticize'

[Ross et al., 2006:103]

Secondly, passive constructions in Mandarin Chinese can also be covertly marked through implicit semantics (Zhāng Yù Xiǎo, 2004). Past research has noted that a few LEXICAL VERBS in Mandarin Chinese have an innate passive sense (Xiao et al., 2006). Constructions with such VERBS like shòu (受), zāo (遭), and āi (挨) are known as AUTOMATIC PASSIVES (Zhāng Zhì Gōng, 1953).

Aside from SYNTACTIC PASSIVES and AUTOMATIC PASSIVES, past studies have also observed that some active constructions in Mandarin Chinese can likewise express a passive meaning (Kenneth, 1993). These unmarked passives are identified as NOTATIONAL PASSIVES.

Types of Passives		**Example**
SYNTACTIC PASSIVES	BEI SHORT PASSIVE	钱包 **被** 偷 了 qiánbāo bèi tōu le wallet PSV steal PART 'the wallet was stolen'
	BEI LONG PASSIVE	钱包 **被** 小偷 偷 了 qiánbāo bèi xiǎotōu tōu le wallet PSV thief steal PART 'the wallet was stolen by a/the thief'
	GEI SHORT PASSIVE	他 也 **给** 辞 了 tā yě gěi cí le 3SG also PSV terminate PART 'he was also fired'
	GEI LONG PASSIVE	他 也 **给** 公司 辞 了 tā yě gěi gōngsī cí le 3SG also PSV company terminate PART 'he was also fired by the company'
	RANG PASSIVE	我 **让** 他 偷 了 四 块钱 wǒ ràng tā tōu le sì kuài qián 1SG PSV 3SG steal PART four dollars 'I had four dollars stolen by him'
	JIAO PASSIVE	我 **叫** 他 偷 了 四 块钱 wǒ jiào tā tōu le sì kuài qián 1SG PSV 3SG steal PART four dollars 'I had four dollars stolen by him'
	WEI...SUO PASSIVE	她 **为** 他 的 爱 **所** 感动 tā wèi tā de ài suó gǎndòng 3SG PSV 3SG PART love PASS move (sb.) ' she was moved by his love'

Types of Passives		Example
AUTOMATIC PASSIVES	SHOU PASSIVE	一位 **受** 了 呵斥 的 小孩 yīwèi shòu le hēchì de xiǎohǎi one-CL suffer.PSV PART berate de child 'a child who has been berated'
	ZAO PASSIVE	花园 有 **遭** 破坏 的 危险 huāyuán yǒu zāo pòhuài de wēixiǎn garden have meet.PSV destroy de risk 'the garden risked being destroyed anytime'
	AI PASSIVE	她 早上 在 家 **挨** 了 打 tā zǎoshang zài jiā āi le dǎ 3SG morning at home suffer.PSV PART beat 'she was beaten at home this morning'
NOTATIONAL PASSIVES		鱼 吃 了 yú chī le fish eat PART 'the fish has been eaten'

Table 1. Summary of Passive constructions in Mandarin Chinese

For the purpose of this study, only syntactic passives will be considered for analysis.

2.5 Passive constructions in English

In English, the passive clause is typically constructed syntactically with an auxiliary verb and a passive participle (Miller, 2002). Firstly, the verb following the main auxiliary verb is morphologically marked in past participle form (Klammer, et al., 2010). Secondly, the UNDERGOER of the sentence is promoted to grammatical SUBJECThood, while the ACTOR is demoted. Thirdly, the demoted ACTOR is either absent or appears only as a prepositional object with '*by*' (Givón, 1993).

(19) UNDERGOER SUBJECT NP + VP (+ PREPOSITION + ACTOR NP)

The only distinguishable syntactic feature between English passives would be the use of differing auxiliary verbs (i.e. '*be*' vs. '*get*') functioning as the main verb (Givón, 1993). This gives rise to two main types of English passives - (i) BE PASSIVE; (ii) GET PASSIVE.

Despite syntactic similarities, the BE PASSIVE and GET PASSIVE differ greatly semantically. One of the major differences involves the notion of control or intent (Givón, 1993). According to Lakoff (1971), control is retained by the demoted ACTOR of the BE PASSIVE, while control is maintained by the promoted UNDERGOER of the GET PASSIVE. This is clearly illustrated in constructions with purpose adverbs:

(20) Sarah **was** kissed by Andy intentionally
> Andy acted with intention to kiss
*> Sarah acted with intention to be kissed

(21) Sarah **got** kissed by Andy intentionally
> Sarah acted with intention to be kissed
*> Andy acted with intention to kiss

The difference in control preservation highlights the contrasting underlying nature of the BE PASSIVE and GET PASSIVE. That is, the BE PASSIVE has a stative nature, while the GET PASSIVE has a dynamic nature (Miller, 2002). The comparison of the following sentences (22-23) would provide a clearer explanation.

(22) The cup **was** broken

(23) The cup **got** broken

Due to the inherent static nature of *be*, (22) can be interpreted either as describing the state in which the cup is, or an event in which someone broke the cup. In contrast, (23) can only be understood as describing an event in which someone broke the cup.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), passives constructed with *be* that describe events are verbal BE PASSIVES (24); while passives constructed with *be* that describe a state are ADJECTIVAL PASSIVES (25). The authors further state that *be* in BE PASSIVES is a "catenative verb taking a bare verbal passive as complement" (p.1436). Conversely, *be* in ADJECTIVAL PASSIVES functions as a copula with a predicative complement in a complex-intransitive construction (Huddleston et al., 2002). Hence, the term ADJECTIVAL PASSIVE strictly refers to the predicative complement.

(24) BE PASSIVES

The cup **was** broken by a strong wind

(25) ADJECTIVAL PASSIVES

No one noticed that the cup **was** broken

Owing to ambiguous interpretations of *be*, BE PASSIVE is perceived as more apt with resultative sequences (26) while GET PASSIVE is more suitable for active, reflexive actions (27) (Givón, 1993).

(26)

(a) Jean **was** found sleeping in the room

(b) *Jean **got** found sleeping in the room

(27)

(a) Jane **got** dressed by herself

(b) *Jane **was** dressed by herself

Additionally, the agentive nature of the GET PASSIVE seems to restrict its grammatical SUBJECT to animacy. Studies have shown that the distribution of human and non-human SUBJECTS is almost equivalent in BE PASSIVES, but biased towards human SUBJECTS in GET PASSIVES (Herold, 1986).[4]

[4] Percentages of distribution of human and non-human subjects in BE PASSIVES are 54% and 46% respectively. Percentages of distribution of human and non-human subjects in GET PASSIVES are 89% and 11% respectively.

Moreover, in situations where the SUBJECT of the GET PASSIVE is non-human, and thereby itself inanimate and incapable of control, a human SUBJECT related to the inanimate SUBJECT or event will either be given control, involved physically or emotionally, or affected adversely (Lakoff, 1971).

(28)

(a) My cookie **was** eaten by the hungry dog

>The cookie was eaten by the hungry dog because it was very hungry

*>The cookie was eaten by the hungry dog because I was inattentive

(b) My cookie **got** eaten by the hungry dog

>The cookie was eaten by the hungry dog because I was inattentive

*>The cookie was eaten by the hungry dog because it was very hungry

Aside from passive constructions with auxiliary verbs *be* and *get*, English also has another type of passive - BARE PASSIVE - that contains neither of these verbs (Huddleston et al., 2002). Nevertheless, the verbs of BARE PASSIVES are still in the past participle form, and are restricted to subordinate clauses (Huddleston et al., 2002).

Previous studies have also mentioned that English passives can be reduced to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASES for five functions: (i) Postnoun modifier (adjectival); (ii) Prenoun modifier (adjectival); (iii) Adjectival object complement; (iv) Pre- or postclause modifier (adverbial); and (v) Pre- or postclause modifier (ambiguous: adverbial or adjectival) (Klammer, et al., 2010).

Types of Passives		Example
VERBAL PASSIVES	BE PASSIVE	John **was** bitten (by a snake)
	GET PASSIVE	John **got** bitten (by a snake)
	BARE PASSIVE	The man *bitten* by a snake was John
ADJECTIVAL PASSIVES		No one noticed that John **was** bitten
PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASES	POSTNOUN MODIFIER (adjectival)	The car **parked behind the hospital** belongs to John
	PRENOUN MODIFIER (adjectival)	**Provoked** snakes bite deeper into the wound
	ADJECTIVAL OBJECT COMPLEMENT	The patients saw John **rejected by the nurse**
	PRE- or POSTCLAUSE MODIFIER (adverbial)	**When bitten**, John screamed
	PRE- or POSTCLAUSE MODIFIER (ambiguous)	**Refused a bed in the hospital**, John decided to leave

Table 2. Summary of Passive constructions in English

2.6 Passives and Translation

Past research on English and Chinese passives has observed a higher frequency of passives in English, and an avoidance of passives in Chinese (McEnery et al., 2005). The authors further report that English passives are equally used in both static and dynamic events, while Chinese passives seem to only be used in dynamic events. Another study mentions that, in translation, adversative English passives describing dynamic events with clear passive action generally produce Chinese passives (Liu, 2001).

A study surrounding the Chinese translations of English passives discovered a higher use of passive constructions in Chinese translations than in Chinese NLT (Dai & Xiao, 2011). The authors propose that the widespread use of passive constructions in Chinese translated texts is a result of influence from the ST. That is, the popular use of passive constructions in English seems to have an effect on the translated texts.

Correspondingly, the above finding of increased number of passive constructions in TT as opposed to NLT is consistently reported in another corpus-based study (Hung, 2011). Analysis of passives in Chinese translated and Chinese native News texts reveals that the most common type of passive construction for both text types is the BEI PASSIVE. Nonetheless, the percentage of the frequency of BEI PASSIVE in Chinese translations (0.257%) seems to double that in Chinese NLT (0.122%).

Apart from the BEI PASSIVE, the percentage scores for four other passive constructions, namely RANG PASSIVE, SHOU PASSIVE, GEI PASSIVE, and ZAO PASSIVE, similarly indicate the extent of their usage in Chinese NLT (Table 3). In relation to the percentage of frequency of the BEI PASSIVE, the RANG PASSIVE is reportedly the second most common passive construction in Chinese NLT. However, these results are not reinterpreted in Chinese translated texts.

Rather, the percentage of the frequency of the mentioned four other common passive constructions in Chinese translated texts appear to largely differ. Furthermore, in relation to the percentage of frequency of the BEI PASSIVE, the RANG PASSIVE is ranked the least common in Chinese translated texts. Percentage scores of the other passives relative to the frequency of the BEI PASSIVE are also lower in Chinese translations than in Chinese NLT. The author concludes with the existence of a tendency for translators to translate all English BE PASSIVES to Chinese BEI PASSIVE.

	BEI PASSIVE	**RANG PASSIVE**	**SHOU PASSIVE**	**GEI PASSIVE**	**ZAO PASSIVE**
Chinese Native Texts	0.122%	0.058%	0.035%	0.033%	0.022%
Translated Texts	0.257%	0.024%	0.156%	0.035%	0.029%

Table 3. Percentage of the frequency of common passive constructions

[adapted from Hung, 2011, p.35]

3. Aim and Hypotheses

It appears that studies surrounding the translation of English and Chinese passive constructions have largely focused on English-Chinese translations. Some have also compared between Chinese NLT and TT. However, few have researched on Chinese-English

translations. Therefore, this study aims to provide new insight on the translation of passive constructions, particularly from Chinese to English.

In view of observations from past studies, the following hypotheses are proposed:

i. BEI++ hypothesis:
BEI PASSIVE to be most frequent in ST

ii. RANG+ hypothesis:
Occurrence of RANG PASSIVE will be second to BEI PASSIVE in ST

iii. BE+ hypothesis:
Tendency to translate Chinese passives to English BE PASSIVES, except when the passive subject is to retain control

iv. GET-control hypothesis:
When control is retained by the passive SUBJECT, Chinese passives will be translated to English GET PASSIVES

v. BY-ACTOR hypothesis:
Occurrence of demoted ACTOR in LONG PASSIVE translations only with prepositional BY-phrase

Additionally, results from past studies suggest a possibility of a translation trend, where translations in TT would contain popular TL constructions (Sequeiros, 1998; Hung, 2011). Thus, this study also seeks to suggest translation actions in aid of future Chinese-English passive translations through visible translation patterns.

4. Methodology

In consideration of the objectives of this study, a multilingual parallel corpus was used. Specifically, Chinese-English translation data was extracted from a Chinese-English

multilingual corpus obtained from Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST).

Created in 2005, the KAIST Chinese-English multilingual corpus contains American English translations of sentences from a Mandarin Chinese textbook. Comprising of approximately 60 000 sentences, passive morphemes *bèi*, *gěi*, *ràng*, *jiào* and the wèi … suó (为…所) structure appeared in 4,127 sentences. After extraction, another 116 sentences were discovered to have no corresponding appropriate translation, and thereby ignored. The remaining 4,011 sentences were retrieved for further analysis.

5. Analysis & Results

Amongst the 4,011 sentences extracted, *gěi* appeared the most (1,565 sentences) and the wèi…suó structure occurred the least (47 sentences). Other passive morphemes like *bèi* emerged in 1,452 sentences; *ràng* in 566 sentences; and *jiào* in 381 sentences.

However, out of the 4,011 sentences to be analyzed, many were considered active.

As previously mentioned, *gěi*, *ràng* and *jiào* have other grammatical functions besides marking passivity. In addition, it has been reported that ambiguity arises in sentences where the verb does not precede an object phrase, and *gěi*, *ràng* and *jiào* can be perceived as either a passive morpheme or a verb (Ross et al., 2006). Results from this study have indicated the habitual and preferred use of *gěi*, *ràng* and *jiào* as main verbs instead of passive morphemes. Further analysis has also observed that in ambiguous cases, sentences were commonly translated into active English sentences.

(29) 她 让 他 吻 她 的 面颊
tā ràng tā wén tā de miǎnjiá
3SG to let 3SG to kiss 3SG PART cheek
'she gave him her cheek to kiss'/ 'she was kissed by him on the cheek'
[Sentence code: 14841, CEKcorpus09, KAIST]

For example, two readings can be obtained from (29). The active interpretation would be '*she gave him her cheek to kiss*'; while the passive interpretation would be '*she was kissed by him on the cheek*'. However, the only translation present in the corpus was the active counterpart. As no contextual cues were present to provide clarification, these sentences with vague readings were considered as originally active.

Additionally, though *bèi* is prominently known to mark passive, there were 29 cases of *bèi* being used as part of an NP (e.g. 被单 bèi dān 'bedsheet'). A study tracing the diachronic transformation of *bèi* notes that the original nominal sense of *bèi* is "blanket, comforter" (Jiang, 2008:11). Observations of *bèi* as a nominal in this study further support the author's stance on the retention of the nominal sense of *bèi* in Contemporary Chinese today.

Regarding elements in the wèi…suó structure, past studies have noted that, in WEI…SUO PASSIVE, *wèi* marks the passivized ACTOR, while *suó* refers to the UNDERGOER (Jiang, 2008). However, individually, *wèi* ('for/on behalf of') can either be used as a PREPOSITION to indicate the BENEFICIARY or RECIPIENT, or a connective to introduce a desired effect or result (Ross et al. 2006). On the other hand, *suó* can function independently as a classifier (Ross et al., 2006), or with a relativized object in a relative clause (30) (Ting, 2003; Huang, 1999). Thus, it is probable that parts of the data will subscribe to either one of the above mentioned functions. This expectation is demonstrated in 14 sentences.

(30) 他 今年 所 出版 的 书 都 很 好
tā jīnnián suǒ chūbǎn de shū dōu hěn hǎo
3SG this year SUO publish DE book all very good
'Books which he has published this year are all very good'

[Her, 2009:425]

(31) 她 **为** 她 **所** 受 的 冤屈 报复
tā wèi tā suǒ shòu de yuānqū bàofù
3SG for 3SG SUO suffer DE wrong avenge
'she avenged the wrong she had suffered'

[Sentence code: 53131, CEKcorpus47, KAIST]

After eliminating sentences consisting of the above mentioned discrepancies, the remaining 1,544 pairs of sentences were considered to be originally passive.

	BE	GET	BARE	ADJECTIVAL	ACTIVE	PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE	NOUN	Total
BEI SHORT	810	15	21	6	65	33	25	975
BEI LONG	300	6	38	7	53	8	4	416
BEI…SUO	27	-	2	-	1	1	1	32
GEI SHORT	38	1	6	1	5	1	-	52
GEI LONG	13	-	5	-	8	-	-	26
ATYPICAL GEI	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
RANG	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
WEI…SUO	27	-	2	1	3	-	-	33
Total	1225	22	74	15	135	43	30	**1544**

Table 4. Summary of total number of passive constructions in ST and TT

In alignment with expectations (i.e. BEI++ hypothesis), the *bèi* passive morpheme was most frequently employed (1,423 sentences, 92.163%). Besides the 975 cases of BEI SHORT PASSIVES and 416 examples of BEI LONG PASSIVES accounted for, another passive structure involving the *bèi* morpheme was uncovered – BEI…SUO PASSIVE (32 sentences).

(32) 他 **被** 人民 **所** 抛弃
tā bèi rénmín suó pāoqì
3SG PASS people PSV forsake
'he was forsaken by the people'

[Sentence code: 9430, CEKcorpus03, KAIST]

A study investigating the diachronic and typology of Chinese passives reported a decline in the use of wèi…suó construction, and growth in the use of BEI PASSIVE in the Six Dynasties (222AD - 589AD) (Jiang, 2008). One reason identified for the decline was that, during the Six Dynasties period, *wèi* started functioning as a true copula, and, consequently, the wèi…suó structure became ambiguous between passive construction and cleft construction (Jiang, 2008). By the Sue-Tang Dynasty (581AD-907AD), the widely accepted BEI PASSIVE had seemingly replaced WEI…SUO PASSIVE (Jiang, 2008). Although at present the use of WEI…SUO PASSIVE is limited to a handful of literary texts, it is highly possible that, in due time, the sole function of *wèi* would be as a copula, and its passive function will be phased out by *bèi*. Thus, this paper submits that the occurrence of BEI…SUO PASSIVE is a result of the replacement of *wèi* with *bèi*.

Contrary to previous findings and RANG+ hypothesis, RANG PASSIVE was not frequently used. In fact, there was only one instance of RANG PASSIVE (0.065%). As RANG PASSIVES have been reported to be more common in colloquial genres than formal written genres (Xiao et al., 2006), it is suggested that the formal genre of the ST resulted in low frequency of RANG PASSIVE.

The second most employed passive construction was GEI PASSIVE. Sentences with gěi occurred 87 times (5.635%). Out of which, there were 52 GEI SHORT PASSIVE and 26 GEI LONG PASSIVE. In addition, an atypical passive construction with gěi functioning as a PREPOSITION was also found (9 sentences). In these instances, the UNDERGOER argument is still promoted to grammatical subjecthood, however, unlike typical passive constructions, there is no passive morpheme. Additionally, the construction differs from NOTATIONAL PASSIVE as the interpretation is unambiguously passive (33).[5]

(33) 食物 分发 **给** 了 难民
Shíwù fēnfā gěi le nànmín
food to distribute to (prep.) PART refugee
'the food was doled out to the refugees'

[Sentence code: 8700, CEKcorpus03, KAIST]

[5] For referential purposes, this construction will be known as PREPOSITION GEI PASSIVE

Furthermore, there were 33 cases of the WEI…SUO PASSIVE (2.137%). Unfortunately, no examples of JIAO PASSIVE were found.

The translations of all 1,544 Mandarin Chinese passive constructions were varied. Regardless of the type of passive construction used, the majority of Chinese passives were translated to the English BE PASSIVE (1,225 sentences; 79.339%). Few were translated to BARE PASSIVE (74 sentences; 4.793%), and a handful were translated to GET PASSIVE (22 sentences; 1.425%). Moreover, 43 passive constructions were translated to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE (2.785%), and 15 sentences were translated to ADJECTIVAL PASSIVE (0.972%). There were also 135 cases of active translations from passive constructions (8.744%). It was further noticed that only BEI PASSIVES were translated into English NOUNS (30 sentences; 1.943%).

The high frequency of English BE PASSIVE translations exhibited was expected and consistent with BE+ hypothesis. Considering past observations of TT containing commonly used TL structures, and the widespread use of BE PASSIVE in English (Huddleston et al., 2002), this paper hypothesized a tendency for Chinese passives to be translated to BE PASSIVE. Correspondingly, results from the study have supported this hypothesis. Further evaluations have also indicated that regardless of the Chinese passive morpheme used or the type of passive (i.e. LONG or SHORT), the preference is still evident.

In addition, the proposition of the occurrence of GET PASSIVE translations only in situations where the passive SUBJECT is to retain control (i.e. GET-control hypothesis) was likewise proven. Generally, it was observed that when affected subjects in Chinese passives are *deserving* of the affectedness, the passive would be translated to the English GET PASSIVE (34).

(34) 他 因 迟到 而 **被** 骂
tā yīn chídào ér bèi mà
3SG cause late and PSV scold
'he **got** scolded for being late'

[Sentence code: 13189, CEKcorpus07, KAIST]

Moreover, SUBJECTS of Chinese passives translated to GET PASSIVE were animate, with the exception of one. These findings not only mirror the biasness towards animate SUBJECTS in GET PASSIVES previously found (Herold, 1986), it is also in accordance to Lakoff's control proposition which states that the affected SUBJECT of GET PASSIVE retains control (1971). The author further mentions that in situations where the SUBJECT of the GET PASSIVE is inanimate and incapable of control, a related animate SUBJECT would either be given control, involved, or affected adversely (Lakoff, 1971).

(35) *我 的 衣服* **被** 钉 钩住
wǒ de yīfu bèi dīng gōuzhù
1SG de clothes PSV nail hooked
'my dress got hitched on a nail'

[Sentence code: 16448, CEKcorpus10, KAIST]

The only exception case of an inanimate SUBJECT found consistently supports Lakoff's supposition. Looking at (35), the inanimate SUBJECT would be the '*dress*', yet, the possessive relation drawn to an animate subject (i.e. '*my*') suggests that '*I*' will be affected by what had happened to the '*dress*'.

It is also constantly noticed that when passives function as a noun or clausal modifier in Chinese, the passive clause will be favorably translated into a PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE (36).

(36) …**被** *蒙住* *眼睛* 的 女人
bèi méngzhù yǎnjing de nǚrén
PSV covered eye de woman
'…a **blindfolded** woman'

[Sentence code: 32211, CEKcorpus 26, KAIST]

Seeing that the function of passives as a modifier in Chinese is relatively new and not widely discussed, it is highly likely that the modifier function of passives arose from constant interaction with English through translation. Previous studies have mentioned that, over

time, translation could result in the adoption of features from other languages (Amouzadeh et al., 2010; Teich, 2003). In view that English passives can be reduced to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE, this paper suggests that Chinese passives are beginning to adopt the reduction of passives to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE.

Irrespective of the overall translation variations, SHORT PASSIVES were respectively translated to SHORT PASSIVES, and LONG PASSIVES were mostly translated to LONG PASSIVES. However, the translation of demoted arguments present in LONG PASSIVES differed, and 81 cases of LONG PASSIVES translated to SHORT PASSIVES (i.e. ACTOR-less) were also found.

The most common prepositional phrase used to introduce the demoted argument was the BY-phrase (256 sentences). However, in contrast to previous findings (Givón, 1993) and the BY-ACTOR hypothesis, the introduction of the ACTOR phrase was not limited to BY-phrases. Other PREPOSITIONS employed were WITH- (39 sentences), IN- (17 sentences), TO- (11 sentences), UNDER- (9 sentences), ON- (7 sentences), AT- (6 sentences), FROM- (4 sentences), OVER- (3 sentences), FOR- (1 sentences), and IN BETWEEN- (1 sentence).

BY-	256
WITH-	39
IN-	17
TO-	11
UNDER-	9
ON-	7
AT-	6
FROM-	4
OVER-	3
FOR-	1
IN BETWEEN-	1
ø[6]	81
Total	435

Table 5. Summary of PREPOSITIONS used with ACTOR phrase

[6] ø indicates a null ACTOR phrase translation (i.e. LONG PASSIVE is translated to SHORT PASSIVE)

An in-depth examination on the translation of Chinese LONG PASSIVES to English SHORT PASSIVES (i.e. ACTOR-less) provided two distinct translation patterns. Firstly, an animate ACTOR with a generic referential term (i.e. '人' rén 'people') tends to be omitted in the translation process (37).

(37) 他们 进入 银行 时 **被** 人 看到 了
tāmen jìnrù yínháng shí bèi rén kàndào le
3PL to enter bank period PSV people seen PART
'they were observed entering the bank'

[Sentence code: 50039, CEKcorpus 44, KAIST]

Secondly, an inanimate ACTOR can be incorporated into the verb. That is, if a corresponding verb translation is capable of expressing the action and the ACTOR, the inanimate ACTOR will be fused into the verb. For example, the ACTOR '链子' (lànzi 'chain') of (38) is translated to the verb "chain" which conveys both the action explicitly and the ACTOR implicitly.

(38) 囚犯 **被** *链子* 锁 在一起
qíufàn bèi liànzi suǒ zàiyīqǐ
prisoner PSV chain lock together
'the prisoners were chained together'

[Sentence code: 8186, CEKcorpus02, KAIST]

Besides passive-to-passive translations, a small number of active-to-passive translations were unexpectedly discovered (7 sentences). Past studies have mentioned that Chinese active sentences can be translated into English passives for coherence or emphasis on the OBJECT of the action (Xǔ Jiàn Píng, 2003). Additionally, the English language is believed to employ more passive constructions than Chinese (McEnery et al., 2005). Due to the small number of sentences retrieved and the lack of contextual information, it can only be proposed that these occurrences are results of seeking coherence. Future in-depth studies into this movement are suggested for a more detailed explanation.

(39) 太阳 给 我们 光 和 热
tàiyáng gěi wǒmen guāng hé rè
sun give 1PL light and heat
'heat and light are given to us by the sun'

[Sentence code: 15529, CEKcorpus09, KAIST]

6. Discussion

Findings obtained from the study appear to highlight the relevance of Grice's maxims of conversational cooperation in the translation process. For example, the omission of ACTOR phrases in LONG PASSIVES appears to support the *Maxim of Quantity*, which requires the contribution of information to be precise without lack or excess (Saeed, 2009). A translation of ACTOR phrases with generic references would appear excessive, while the incorporation of ACTOR phrases to related verbs is appropriate for a brief yet accurate delivery of information. In addition, the *Maxim of Manner*, which stresses clarity and conciseness (Saeed, 2009), seems to be widely applied in the translation process. For example, sentences with ambiguous interpretations tend to be translated to the active voice. It is highly probable that this recurrent process is favored because active constructions are considered to be more basic and thereby easier to comprehend than passive constructions (Chomsky, 1965). Seeing that translation is a communicational tool used to convey a wide variety of information across countries, cultures and communities, the need to be lucid and succinct is explicable.

Additionally, regardless of the passive morpheme used and the type of passive (i.e. SHORT or LONG), a few general tendencies have been found consistent in the translation of Chinese passive constructions to English. A second examination was carried out to investigate if these tendencies, specifically the translation of Chinese passives to GET PASSIVES if the passivized subject retains control, were reflected in current machine translations available. For this assessment, two free translation services available online, namely Google Translate and hǎicí fānyì (海词翻译), were used. These systems engage in "statistical machine translation" by generating translations from detected patterns in existing translated

documents (Google, 2012). Unfortunately, tendencies found in the present study were not mirrored.

Out of the 22 Chinese native sentences translated to GET PASSIVE in this study, 8 translations from Google Translate, and 6 translations from hǎicí fānyì were ungrammatical. Nevertheless, none of the remaining grammatical translations were GET PASSIVES. Instead, translations obtained were largely BE PASSIVE (40), and only a handful was BARE PASSIVE or active translations (41).

(40) 他 左 腿 **被** *烫伤* 了
tā zuǒ tuǐ bèi tàngshāng le
3SG left leg PSV scald PART
'he **got** burned on the left leg'
'his left leg **was** scalded' (Google Translate)
'his left leg **was** burned' (hǎicí fānyì)
[Sentence code: 13855, CEKcorpus08, KAIST]

(41) 我 的 衣服 **被** *钉* *钩住* 了
wǒ de yīfu bèi dīng gōuzhù le
1SG de clothes PSV nail hooked PART
'my dress **got** hitched on a nail'
'my clothes were nail hooked' (Google Translate)
'my dress hitched on a nail hook' (hǎicí fānyì)
[Sentence code: 16448, CEKcorpus10, KAIST]

Thus, this paper proposes two sets of translation action for future Chinese-English passive translations (refer to Figure 1 & Figure 2). Specifically, Figure 1 is the proposed action for the overall translation of Chinese passives to English; while, Figure 2 is the proposed action for the translation of ACTOR phrases from Chinese LONG PASSIVES to English.

6.1 Overall Translation of Chinese Passives to English

Before the translation of Chinese passives occurs, it is suggested that the *voice* (i.e. active or passive) of a sentence be determined first.[7] If the sentence is deemed ambiguous, an active translation should follow. Conversely, should the sentence be passive, the next step would be to consider if any relations of possession are expressed. In situations where individual ownership is expressed in the passive SUBJECT NP, an active translation ensues (42).

(42) *他 的 皮夹 被 偷 了*
tā de píjiā bèi tōu le
3SG de wallet PSV steal PART
'he had *his wallet* stolen'

[Sentence code: 10096, CEKcorpus04, KAIST]

Alternatively, if no relation of possession is expressed, the translator would need to consider if the passive construction in Chinese is acting as a modifier of a noun or a clause, or not. If the Chinese passive is functioning as a modifier, it can be translated as a NOUN or a PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE. Bearing in mind that translation is sometimes dependent on a translator's individual preference; the choice of the TL construction to be used at this stage is left at the translator's discretion. However, as past studies have highlighted a translation preference for familiar TL constructions, this paper suggests that Chinese passives functioning as modifiers be translated to English PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASES, since the reduction of English passives to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE for modification is common (Klammer, et al., 2010).

On the contrary, if the Chinese passive is simply a passive sentence, this paper asserts that Grice's conversational maxims be observed. Thus, the translator is required to look for contextual cues to determine an appropriate focus for coherence. Should a focus on the ACTOR or action be found suitable, an active translation or NOUN translation should follow accordingly. Otherwise, a passive translation should prevail.

[7] Due to the focus of this paper, the sets of translation action provided only adhere to sentences with passive only interpretations and ambiguous interpretations (i.e. active or passive)

Prior to the selection of an appropriate TL passive construction, two areas must be considered. Firstly, the dynamicity of the Chinese passive must be determined. If the passive construction describes a state of the passive subject (i.e. stative), an ADJECTIVAL PASSIVE translation should ensue (43). However, if the Chinese passive is considered dynamic, the notion of control must then be judged. If the passive subject retains control, a GET PASSIVE translation should be opted. In contrast, if control is awarded to other roles, the translator can choose between a BE PASSIVE translation and BARE PASSIVE translation. Nevertheless, due to the widespread use of the BE PASSIVE in English, this paper recommends the choice of the BE PASSIVE translation.

(43) 我 宣布 威廉·琼斯 **被** *选中*
wǒ xuānbù wēilián qióngsī bèi xuǎnzhòng
1SG declare William Jones PSV elect
'I declare William Jones *elected*'

[Sentence code: 56947, CEKcorpus51, KAIST]

Secondly, the type of Chinese passive (i.e. SHORT or LONG) must also be deliberated. Results have suggested that a SHORT PASSIVE can only be translated to another SHORT PASSIVE, while a LONG PASSIVE can be translated either to a SHORT or LONG PASSIVE. In order to decide if a LONG PASSIVE should be translated to a LONG or SHORT PASSIVE (i.e. ACTOR-less), another set of action has been proposed (Figure 2).

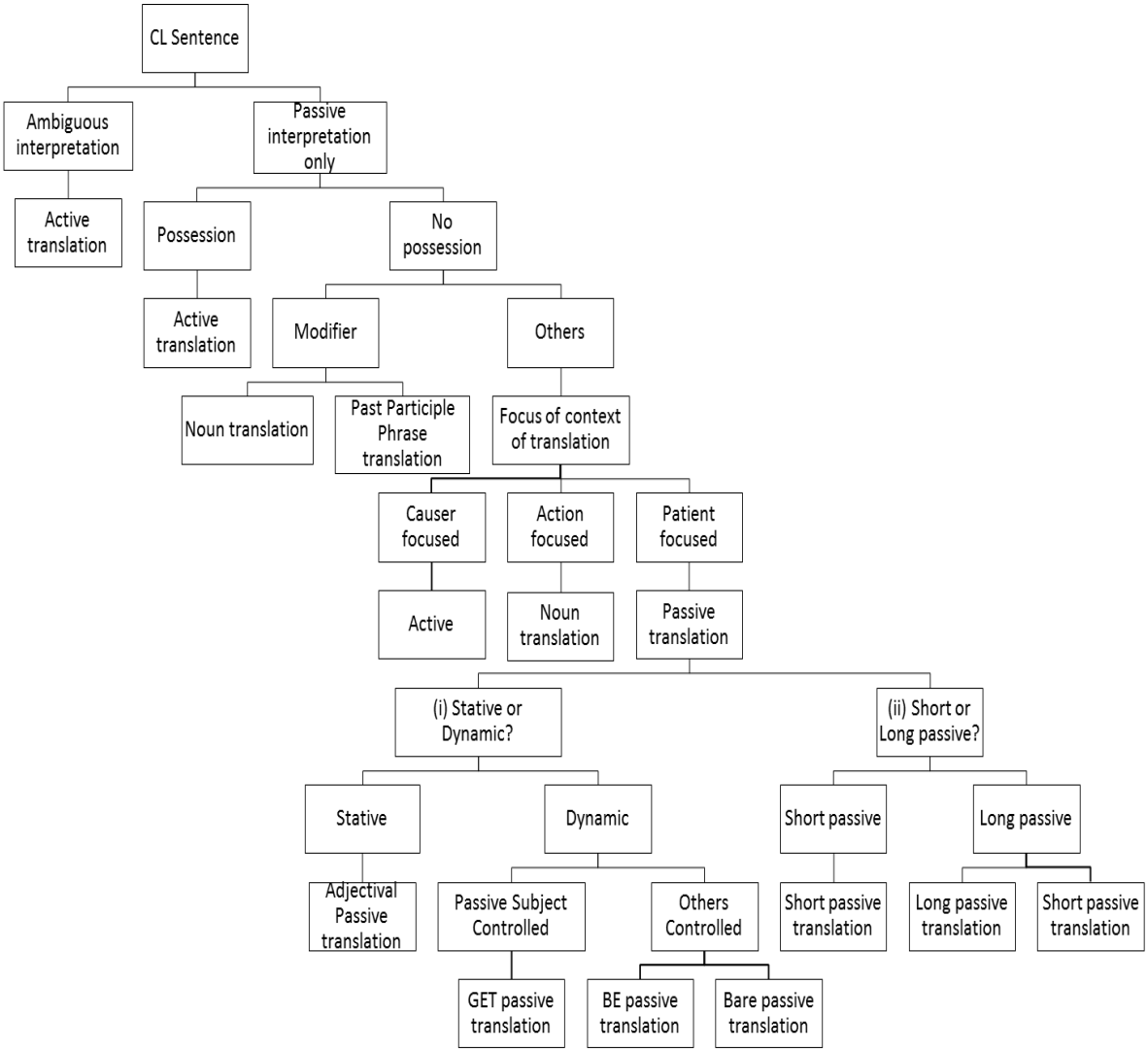

Figure 1. Proposed translation action for Chinese-English passive translation

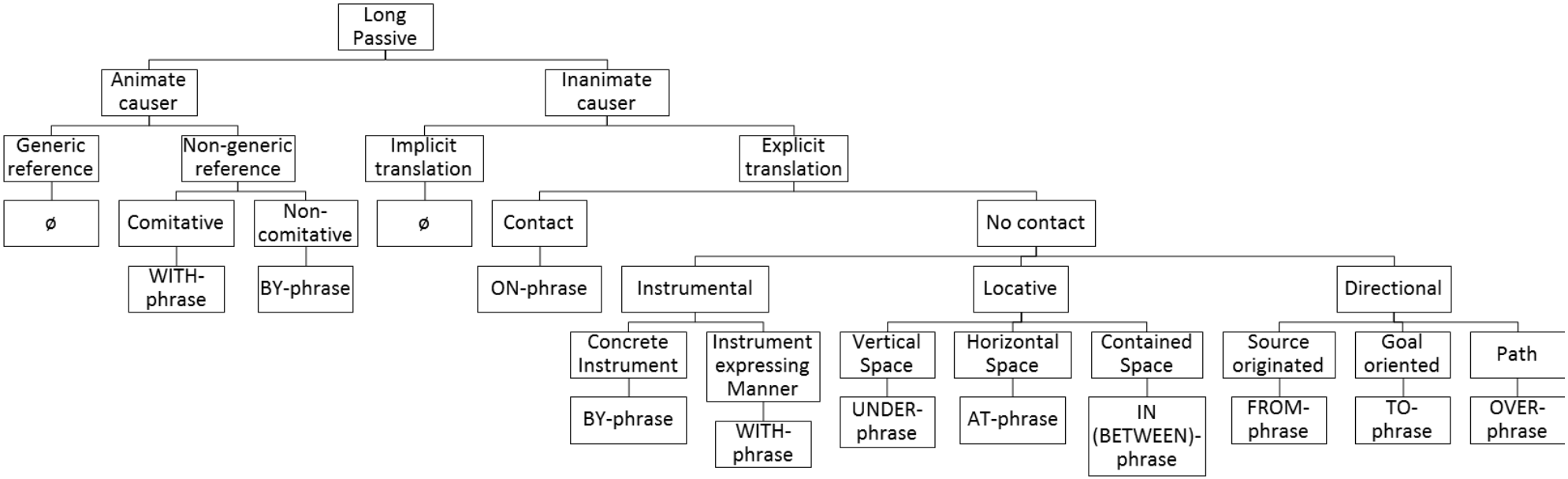

Figure 2. Proposed translation action for Chinese-English LONG PASSIVE translation

6.2 Translation of Mandarin Chinese LONG PASSIVES

With regards to the translation of the ACTOR in LONG PASSIVES, this paper has found no correlation between the PREPOSITIONS used in the Mandarin Chinese ST and English TT. However, other factors influencing the translation of the ACTOR will be subsequently discussed further.

In administering the translation of ACTOR phrases in LONG PASSIVES, the animacy of the ACTOR must first be distinguished. If the ACTOR is animate, and has a generic reference, the LONG PASSIVE will be translated into a SHORT PASSIVE (i.e. the ACTOR will be omitted). However, if the ACTOR is animate, but has a non-generic reference, the ACTOR will then appear as part of a prepositional phrase. Specifically, an ACTOR accompanying the UNDERGOER in its affectedness will be attached to WITH- (46), while a non-comitative ACTOR will be assigned to BY- (47).

(44) 那 名 年轻 歌星 **被** *兴奋 得 少女们 团团围住*
nà míng niánqīng gēxīng bèi xīngfèn dé shàonǚmen tuántuánwéizhù
that CL young singer PSV excited de girl.PL surround
'the young singer was ringed about ***with*** excited girls'

[Sentence code: 24447, CEKcorpus18, KAIST]

(45) 我 **被** *他 绊倒* 了
wǒ bèi tā bàndǎo le
1SG PSV 3SG trip PART
'I was tripped ***by*** him'

[Sentence code: 16037, CEKcorpus10, KAIST]

Should an inanimate ACTOR be stated in the Chinese passive, the ACTOR phrase can be translated implicitly or explicitly. That is, in accordance with Grice's *Maxim of Quantity*, if the implicit translation of the ACTOR would provide a simple, appropriate representation of the Chinese passive, a SHORT PASSIVE would result. On the other hand, if explicit translation is necessary, and there is (physical or metaphorical) contact between the ACTOR and the UNDERGOER, the ACTOR would then be introduced by the PREPOSITION ON- (46).

(46) 我 的 衣服 **被** *钉 钩住* 了
wǒ de yīfu bèi dīng gōuzhù le
1SG de clothes PSV nail hooked PART
'my dress got hitched <u>on</u> a nail'

[Sentence code: 16448, CEKcorpus10, KAIST]

In the event where there is no contact between the ACTOR and the UNDERGOER, the ACTOR phrase could then be analysed as an instrument, a location or a direction.
If the ACTOR is identified as an entity that causes the affectedness of the UNDERGOER (i.e. instrument), the instrument would then be introduced with a WITH-phrase or a BY-phrase. When the instrument expresses the manner of the state of the UNDERGOER, a WITH-phrase will be translated (47). Else, a BY-phrase will be used.

(47) 排水管 **被** *泥 堵住* 了
páishuǐguǎn bèi ní dǔzhù le
drain PSV mud choke PART
'the drain was choked <u>*with*</u> mud'

[Sentence code: 7625, CEKcorpus01, KAIST]

When the causation results in a (physical or metaphorical) locative space, PREPOSITIONS UNDER- (48), AT- (49) and IN (BETWEEN)- (50-51) can be engaged.

(48) 书架 **被** *厚重 的 书 压 得 凹陷 <u>下</u>去*
shūjià bèi hòuzhòng de shū yā dé āoxiàn xiàqù
shelf PSV heavy de book press de sag down
'the shelf is yielding <u>*under*</u> the heavy books'

[Sentence code: 47449, CEKcorpus41, KAIST]

(49) 我们 **被** *大 雾 困 <u>在</u> 伦敦 机场* 达 十二 小时
wǒmen bèi dà wù kùn zài lúndūn jīchǎng dá shier xiǎoshí
1PL PSV big fog trap in London airport to twelve hours
'We were fogbound <u>*at*</u> London Airport for 12 hours'

[Sentence code: 29046, CEKcorpus23, KAIST]

(50) 船 **被** *冰* *封住*…
chuán bèi bīng fēngzhù
boat PSV ice lock
'the ship was locked *in* ice'

[Sentence code: 40204, CEKcorpus34, KAIST]

(51) 我们 的 汽车 **被** *两* *辆* *卡车* *夹* *在* *中间*
wǒmen de qìchē bèi liǎng liàng kǎchē jiá zài zhōngjiā
1PL de car PSV two CL truck clip in middle
'Our car was sandwiched *in between* two trucks'

[Sentence code: 55537, CEKcorpus49, KAIST]

On occasions where causation entails a (physical or metaphorical) movement, the direction of the movement would determine the PREPOSITION used. For example, a movement away from the ACTOR (i.e. source) would be highlighted by a FROM-phrase (52). While the ACTOR phrase would be translated with TO-, when movement is made towards the ACTOR (53). The use of PREPOSITION OVER- would denote the path taken by the UNDERGOER as a result of the caused event (54).

(52) 那 个 男生 **被** 学校 开除 了
nà gè nánshēng béi xuéxiào kāichú le
that CL boy PSV school expel PART
'the boy was expelled *from* school'

[Sentence code: 43907, CEKcorpus38, KAIST]

(53) 他 **被** *警方* *传讯*
tā bèi jǐngfāng chuánxùn
3SG PSV police summon (for interrogation)
'he was required to report *to* the police'

[Sentence code: 9394, CEKcorpus03, KAIST]

(54) 他 **被** *树根* *绊* *了* *一跤*
tā bèi shùgēn bàn le yījiāo
3SG PSV root trip PART fall
'he tripped *over* a root and fell'

[Sentence code: 9441, CEKcorpus03, KAIST]

Although FOR- was also used as a means to introduce the ACTOR, it was only limited to one example. As such, the generalisation for FOR- could not be made. On the other hand, though IN BETWEEN- similarly occurred once, it was grouped with IN- as both PREPOSITIONS largely express containment.

Apart from contributions from the ST, this study has also found that the choice of PREPOSITION for the introduction of the ACTOR phrase is, at times, dependent on the rules of the English grammar (i.e. TL rules).

(55) 他 因 驾车 超速 **被** *法院* *传讯*
tā yīn jiàchē chāosù bèi fǎyuàn chuánxùn
3SG because drive speed PSV court summon (for interrogation)
'he was *hauled in* to court for speeding'

[Sentence code: 51604, CEKcorpus45, KAIST]

It has been noted that some VERB + PREPOSITION combinations in English are specific in nature. That is, the selection of the PREPOSITION is strictly reliant on the verb. These exclusive VERB + PREPOSITION combinations are commonly known as PREPOSITIONAL VERBS (Huddleston et al., 2002) or PHRASAL VERBS (Rundell & Fox, 2005). For example, in (55), the PREPOSITION 'in' is particularly chosen by the verb 'haul' to express the idea of making someone appear in court (Rundell et al., 2005). In this case, no other PREPOSITION would be a suitable replacement.

7. Conclusion

Similar to past studies, the most common Mandarin Chinese passive construction identified in NLT is BEI PASSIVE. Other Chinese passives found were GEI PASSIVE, RANG PASSIVE and WEI…SUO PASSIVE. Contrary to past results, GEI PASSIVE as opposed to RANG PASSIVE was the second most frequent passive construction. Additionally, two new types of passive constructions were noted, namely BEI…SUO PASSIVE and PREPOSITION GEI PASSIVE. Chinese passives were also observed to be reduced to PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASES. This act of reduction is suggested to be an influence of interlingual translation between English and Chinese, and an adoption of TL norms. Future research can seek to expand on the development and translation of BEI…SUO PASSIVE, PREPOSITION GEI PASSIVE and reduced Chinese passives.

In relation to TT, the most frequent passive translation found was BE PASSIVE. Parallel to past research, GET PASSIVES were employed when passive subjects were to retain control. However, unlike past analysis, other translations observed were BARE PASSIVE, ADJECTIVAL PASSIVE, NOUN and PAST PARTICIPLE PHRASE. Active translations of passives were also found. Additionally, this paper has observed that the ACTOR phrase in LONG PASSIVES can be introduced by PREPOSITIONS other than BY-. Aside from conditions provided by the SL for translation actions, the contribution of TL grammar to translations has also been noticed.

Furthermore, an examination investigating the suitability of current machine translations indicated a lack of appropriate translations. Thus, two sets of actions for Chinese-English passive translation have been proposed. These sets of actions are suggested to be applied together with Grice's maxims of conversational cooperation in translation. Further research centering the application of these translation actions on machine translators is suggested.

Due to the limited scope of this paper, further research on Chinese-English passive translation examining other types of passive constructions is recommended.

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